

Continuous  
Univariate  
Distributions  
Volume 2

# Continuous Univariate Distributions

Volume 2

**Second Edition**

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# Preface

The remarks in the Preface to the new edition of *Continuous Univariate Distributions-I* apply to the present volume also. This second edition differs from the first in the following respects:

- The chapter on **Extreme Value Distributions**, which was the final chapter of the original *Continuous Univariate Distributions-I* now appears as the first chapter of the present volume.
- The chapter on **Quadratic Forms** has been postponed to a projected volume dealing with *Continuous Multivariate Distributions*.
- The final chapter on **Miscellaneous Distributions** has been drastically revamped and restricted, and some topics have been given more, and some markedly less emphasis.
- The length of each chapter has been substantially increased (about doubled, on average) and the number of references increased almost threefold.
- In order to mirror recent developments, the authors have, somewhat reluctantly, included descriptions of numerous results relating to approximations. Although these are often computationally ingenious, their practical relevance in an age of high speed computers has been substantially diminished.
- On the other hand, we were happy to include many examples of applications of distributions (such as logistic, **Laplace**, beta, **F**, **t** and noncentral chi-square, **F** and **t**) in various new fields of science, business and technology. We welcome this trend towards penetration of more sophisticated models into wider areas of human endeavour.

Since the publication of the new edition of *Continuous Univariate Distributions-I*, the sixth edition of *Kendall's Advanced Theory of Statistics, Volume I-Distribution Theory* by A. Stuart and J. K. Ord has come out, providing a lot of details on univariate as well as multivariate distribution theory. Though it was late for Volume 1, we have tried to coordinate in this Volume (at some

places) with results presented in Stuart and Ord. Our sincere thanks go to Professor Keith Ord for providing us with a copy of page proofs in order to achieve this goal. We record with gratitude a large number of comments received from our colleagues in statistical and engineering communities concerning misprints in and omissions from the first edition of this volume. These were very valuable to us in preparation of this new edition.

We acknowledge with thanks the invaluable assistance of Mrs. Lisa Brooks (University of North Carolina) and Mrs. Debbie Iscoe (Hamilton, Canada) in their skillful typing of the manuscript. We also thank the Librarians of the University of North Carolina, University of Maryland, and **McMaster** University for their help in library research.

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# Extreme Value Distributions

### 1 GENESIS

The development of extreme value distributions proceeded to some extent outside the mainstream of statistical distribution theory, with its early stage dominated by work on curve fitting and the later stage by problems encountered in statistical inference. The extreme value theory is a blend of an enormous variety of applications involving natural phenomena such as rainfall, floods, wind gusts, air pollution, and corrosion, and delicate mathematical results on point processes and regularly varying functions. This area of research thus attracted initially the interests of theoretical probabilists as well as engineers and hydrologists, and only recently of the mainstream statisticians. Historically work on extreme value problems may be dated back to as early as **1709** when Nicolas Bernoulli discussed the mean largest distance from the origin when  $n$  points lie at random on a straight line of length  $t$  [see Gumbel (1958)].

Extreme value theory seems to have originated mainly from the needs of astronomers in utilizing or rejecting outlying observations. The early papers by Fuller (1914) and Griffith (1920) on the subject were highly specialized both in fields of applications and in methods of mathematical analysis. A systematic development of the general theory may, however, be regarded as having started with a paper by Bortkiewicz (1922) that dealt with the distribution of range in random samples from a normal distribution. This has already been pointed out in Chapter 13 and as can be seen in that chapter, subsequent development of this particular topic was quite rapid. From our present point of view, it suffices to say that the importance of the paper by Bortkiewicz (1922) resides in the fact that the concept of *distribution of largest value* was clearly introduced in it. In the very next year von Mises (1923) evaluated the expected value of this distribution, and Dodd (1923) calculated its median and also discussed some nonnormal parent distributions. Of more direct relevance to this chapter is a paper by Fréchet (1927) in which asymptotic distributions of largest values are considered. In the following year Fisher and Tippett (1928) published results of an independent

inquiry into the same problem. While **Fréchet (1927)** had identified one possible limit distribution for the largest order statistic, Fisher and Tippett (**1928**) showed that extreme limit distributions can only be one of three types. Tippett (**1925**) had earlier studied the exact cumulative distribution function and moments of the largest order statistic and of the sample range arising from samples from a normal population. von Mises (1936) presented some simple and useful sufficient conditions for the weak convergence of the largest order statistic to each of the three types of limit distributions given earlier by Fisher and Tippett (1928). Seven years later, it was Gnedenko (**1943**) who presented a rigorous foundation for the extreme value theory and provided necessary and sufficient conditions for the weak convergence of the extreme order statistics. de **Haan (1970)** refined the work of Gnedenko. Gnedenko's (1943) classical paper has been reproduced in the first volume of *Breakthroughs in Statistics* and supplemented by a perceptive introduction written by R. L. Smith in which the influence of the paper and subsequent developments in the extreme value theory have been analyzed.

The theoretical developments of the 1920s and mid 1930s were followed in the late 1930s and 1940s by a number of papers dealing with practical applications of extreme value statistics in distributions of human lifetimes, radioactive emissions [Gumbel (**1937a, b**)], strength of materials [Weibull (**1939**)], flood analysis [Gumbel (**1941, 1944, 1945, 1949a**)], Rantz and Riggs (**1949**)], seismic analysis [Nordquist (**1945**)], and rainfall analysis [Potter (**1949**)]. From the application point of view, Gumbel made several significant contributions to the extreme value analysis; most of them are detailed in his book-length account of statistics of extremes [Gumbel (**1958**)] which is an extension of his earlier brochure [Gumbel (**1954**)]. Many more applications are listed in Section 14.

The bibliography at the end of this chapter contains about 350 references. This impressive number is, however, only a small part of publications pertaining to this subject. The bibliography in Gumbel's (**1958**) book, not including the developments during the last 35 years, is even more extensive. While this extensive literature serves as a testimony to the vitality and applicability of the extreme value distributions and processes, it **also** reflects to some extent on the lack of coordination between researches and the inevitable duplication (or even triplication) of results appearing in a wide range of publications.

## 2 INTRODUCTION

*Extreme value distributions* are generally considered to comprise the three following families:

*Type 1:*

$$\Pr\{X \leq x\} = \exp\{-e^{-(x-\xi)/\theta}\}. \quad (22.1)$$

Type 2:

$$\Pr[X \leq x] = \begin{cases} 0, & x < \xi, \\ \exp\left\{-\left(\frac{x - \xi}{\theta}\right)^{-k}\right\}, & x \geq \xi. \end{cases} \quad (22.2)$$

Type 3:

$$\Pr[X \leq x] = \begin{cases} \exp\left\{-\left(\frac{\xi - x}{\theta}\right)^k\right\}, & x \leq \xi, \\ 1, & x > \xi, \end{cases} \quad (22.3)$$

where  $\xi$ ,  $\theta(> 0)$ , and  $k(> 0)$  are parameters. The corresponding distributions of  $(-X)$  are also called *extreme value distributions*.

Of these families of distributions type 1 is by far the one most commonly referred to in discussions of extreme value distributions. Indeed some authors call (22.1) *the* extreme value distribution. In view of this, and the fact that distributions (22.2) and (22.3) can be transformed to type 1 distributions by the simple transformations

$$Z = \log(X - \xi), \quad Z = -\log(\xi - X),$$

respectively, we will, for the greater part of this chapter, confine ourselves to discussion of type 1 distributions. We may also note that the type 3 distribution of  $(-X)$  is a *Weibull* distribution. These distributions have been discussed in Chapter 21, and so there is no need to discuss them in detail here.

Of course, types 1 and 2 are also closely related to the Weibull distribution, by the simple formulas relating  $Z$  and  $X$ , just quoted. Type 1 is sometimes called the *log-Weibull* distribution [see White (1964, 1969)].

Type 1 distributions are also sometimes called *doubly exponential* distributions, on account of the functional form of (22.1). We do not use this term to avoid confusion with *Laplace* distributions (Chapter 24), which are also called double exponential.

The term "extreme value" is attached to such distributions because they can be obtained as limiting distributions (as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ) of the greatest value among  $n$  independent random variables each having the same continuous distribution (see Section 3). By replacing  $X$  by  $-X$ , limiting distributions of *least* values are obtained. As already mentioned, these are also extreme value distributions, so they do not need separate treatment.

Although the distributions are known as extreme value, it is to be borne in mind (1) that they do not represent distributions of *all* kinds of extreme values (e.g., in samples of finite size), and (2) they can be used empirically (i.e., without an extreme value model) in the same way as other distributions.

In this last connection we note that the type 1 distribution may be regarded as an approximation to a Weibull distribution with large value of  $c$ . Also if  $X$  has a type 1 distribution,  $Z = \exp[-(X - \xi)/\theta]$  has an exponential distribution with probability density function:

$$p_Z(z) = e^{-z}, \quad 0 \leq z.$$

The type 2 distribution is also referred to as the *Fréchet-type distribution*; the type 3 distribution is called as the *Weibull-type distribution*; and the type 1 distribution as the *Gumbel-type distribution*. We may note that the **Fréchet** and Weibull distributions are also related by a simple change of sign. The *Gompertz distribution* of lifetimes introduced in 1825, and already in use for about a century before Fisher and Tippett's results appeared is a type 1 distribution even though it is not generally regarded to be of this group (see Section 8 for details).

Although the three types of the distributions in (22.1)–(22.3) appear to be unrelated, they may all be represented as members of a single family of generalized distributions with cumulative distribution function

$$\Pr[X \leq x] = e^{-\{1 + [(x - \xi)/\theta]^\alpha\}^{-\alpha}}, \quad 1 + \frac{1}{\alpha} \left( \frac{x - \xi}{\theta} \right) > 0, \\ -\infty < \alpha < \infty, \quad \theta > 0. \quad (22.4)$$

For  $\alpha > 0$  the distribution (22.4) is of the same form as (22.2). For  $\alpha < 0$  the distribution (22.4) becomes of the same form as (22.3). Finally, when  $\alpha \rightarrow \infty$  or  $-\infty$ , the distribution (22.4) becomes the same form as the type 1 extreme value distribution in (22.1). For this reason the distribution function in (22.4) is known as the *generalized extreme value distribution* and is also sometimes referred to as the *von Mises type extreme value distribution* or the *von Mises-Jenkinson-type distribution*. More details on this distribution will be presented in Section 15.

Mann and **Singpurwalla** (1982) have provided a brief review of the extreme value distributions. A similar review of the Gumbel distribution has been made by **Tiago de Oliveira** (1983).

### 3 LIMITING DISTRIBUTIONS OF EXTREMES

Extreme value distributions were obtained as limiting distributions of greatest (or least) values in random samples of increasing size. To obtain a nondegenerate limiting distribution, it is necessary to "reduce" the actual greatest value by applying a linear transformation with coefficients which depend on the sample size. This process is analogous to standardization (as in central limit theorems; see Chapter 13, Section 2) though not restricted to this particular sequence of linear transformations.

If  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are independent random variables with common probability density function

$$p_{X_j}(x) = f(x), \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, n,$$

then the cumulative distribution function of  $X'_n = \max(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$  is

$$F_{X'_n}(x) = [F(x)]^n, \quad (22.5)$$

where

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(t) dt.$$

As  $n$  tends to infinity, it is clear that for any fixed value of  $x$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_{X'_n}(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } F(x) = 1, \\ 0 & \text{if } F(x) < 1. \end{cases}$$

Even if it is proper, this limiting distribution would be "trivial" and of no special interest. If there is a limiting distribution of interest, we must find it as the limiting distribution of some sequence of transformed "reduced" values, such as  $(a, X'_n + b_n)$ , where  $a, b$ , may depend on  $n$  but not on  $x$ .

To distinguish the limiting cumulative distribution of the "reduced" greatest value from  $F(x)$ , we will denote it by  $G(x)$ . Then since the greatest of  $Nn$  values  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_{Nn}$  is also the greatest of the  $N$  values

$$\max(X_{(j-1)n+1}, X_{(j-1)n+2}, \dots, X_{jn}), \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, N,$$

it follows that  $G(x)$  must satisfy the equation

$$[G(x)]^N = G(a_N x + b_N). \quad (22.6)$$

This equation was obtained by Fréchet (1927) and also by Fisher and Tippett (1928). It is sometimes called the stability postulate.

Type 1 distributions are obtained by taking  $a_N = 1$ ; types 2 and 3 by taking  $a_N \neq 1$ . In this latter case

$$x = a_N x + b_N \quad \text{if } x = b_N(1 - a_N)^{-1},$$

and from (22.6) it follows that  $G(b_N(1 - a_N)^{-1})$  must equal 1 or 0. Type 2 corresponds to 1, and type 3 to 0.

We now consider the case  $a_N = 1$  (type 1) in some detail. Equation (22.6) is now

$$[G(x)]^N = G(x + b_N). \quad (22.7)$$

Since  $G(x + b_N)$  must also satisfy (22.6),

$$[G(x)]^{NM} = [G(x + b_N)]^M = G(x + b_N + b_M). \quad (22.8)$$

But, also from (22.6),

$$[G(x)]^{NM} = G(x + b_{NM}) \quad (22.9)$$

and from (22.8) and (22.9) we have

$$b_N + b_M = b_{NM},$$

whence

$$b_N = 6 \log N, \quad \theta \text{ a constant.} \quad (22.10)$$

Taking logarithms of (22.7) twice and inserting the value of  $b_N$  from (22.10), we have (noting that  $G \leq 1$ )

$$\log N + \log\{-\log G(x)\} = \log\{-\log G(x + \theta \log N)\}. \quad (22.11)$$

In other words, when the argument of

$$h(x) = \log\{-\log G(x)\}$$

increases by  $6 \log N$ ,  $h(x)$  decreases by  $\log N$ . Hence

$$h(x) = h(0) - \frac{x}{\theta}. \quad (22.12)$$

Since  $h(x)$  decreases as  $x$  increases,  $\theta > 0$ . From (22.12),

$$\begin{aligned} -\log G(x) &= \exp\left[-\frac{x - \theta h(0)}{\theta}\right] \\ &= \exp\left(-\frac{x - \xi}{\theta}\right) \end{aligned}$$

where  $\xi = \theta \log\{-\log G(0)\}$ . Hence

$$G(x) = \exp[-e^{-(x-\xi)/\theta}],$$

which is in agreement with (22.1). We will not enter into details of derivation for types 2 and 3, and interested readers may refer to Galambos (1978,1987).

Gnedenko (1943) established certain correspondences between the parent distribution [ $F(x)$  in the above analysis] and the type to which the limiting distribution belongs. It should be noted that the conditions relate essentially to the behavior of  $F(x)$  for high (low) values of  $x$  if the limiting distribution of greatest (least) values is to be considered. It is quite possible for greatest and least values, corresponding to the same parent distribution, to have different limiting distributions.

We now summarize Gnedenko's results:

*For type 1 distribution:* Defining  $X_\alpha$  by the equation

$$F(X_\alpha) = \alpha,$$

the condition is

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n \left[ 1 - F(X_{1-n^{-1}} + y(X_{1-(ne)^{-1}} - X_{1-n^{-1}})) \right] = e^{-y}. \quad (22.13)$$

*For type 2 distribution:*

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1 - F(x)}{1 - F(cx)} = c^k, \quad c > 0, k > 0. \quad (22.14)$$

*For type 3 distribution:*

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{1 - F(cx + \omega)}{1 - F(x + \omega)} = c^k, \quad c > 0, k > 0, \quad (22.15)$$

where  $F(\omega) = 1$ ,  $F(x) < 1$  for  $x < \omega$ .

Gnedenko also showed that these conditions are necessary, as well as sufficient, and that there are *no other* distributions satisfying the stability postulate. An alternative **interpretation** of these conditions was given by Clough and Kotz (1965) who also illustrated a special queueing model application for the extreme value distributions. Among distributions satisfying the type 1 condition (22.13) are normal, exponential, and logistic; the type 2 condition (22.14) is satisfied by Cauchy; the type 3 condition is satisfied by nondegenerate distributions with range of variation bounded above.

Gnedenko's (1943) results have been generalized by several authors. Results for order statistics of fixed and increasing rank were obtained by

Smirnov (1952) who completely characterized the limiting types and their domains of attraction. Generalizations for the maximum term have been made by Juncosa (1949) who dropped the assumption of a common distribution, Watson (1954) who proved that under mild restrictions the limiting distribution of the maximum term of a stationary sequence of  $m$ -dependent random variables is the same as in the independent case, **Berman (1962)** who studied exchangeable random variables and samples of random size, and Harris (1970) who extended the classical theory by introducing a model from reliability theory (essentially a series system with replaceable components). Weinstein (1973) generalized the basic result of Gnedenko dealing with the asymptotic distribution of the exponential case with the initial distribution  $V(x) = 1 - e^{-x^v}$  ( $x \geq 0$ ). He showed that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} V^n \left\{ \left( x_n^v + \frac{u}{d_n} \right)^{1/v} \right\} = e^{-e^{-u}}, \quad v > 0,$$

if and only if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[ 1 - V \left\{ \left( x_n^v + \frac{u}{d_n} \right)^{1/v} \right\} \right] = e^{-u},$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} V(x_n) &= 1 - \frac{1}{n}, \\ V \left( x_n + \frac{1}{c_n} \right) &= 1 - \frac{1}{ne}, \\ d_n &= \frac{c_n}{v|x_n|^{v-1}}, \\ x^v &\equiv |x|^v \operatorname{sgn}(x). \end{aligned}$$

[Gnedenko's (1943) result is for  $v = 1$ .] See also Jeruchim (1976) who has warned that the additional parameter  $\alpha$  must be treated cautiously in applications.

The necessary and sufficient conditions in (22.13)–(22.15) are often difficult to verify. In such instances the following sufficient conditions established



by von Mises (1936) may be useful (though they are applicable only for absolutely continuous parent distributions):

For type 1 distribution. For  $r(x) = f(x)/[1 - F(x)]$  nonzero and differentiable for  $x$  close to  $F^{-1}(1)$  [or for large  $x$  if  $F^{-1}(1) = \infty$ ], the condition is

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow F^{-1}(1)^-} \frac{d}{dx} \left\{ \frac{1}{r(x)} \right\} = 0. \quad (22.16)$$

For type 2 distribution. For  $r(x) > 0$  for large  $x$  and for some  $a > 0$ , the condition is

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} xr(x) = a. \quad (22.17)$$

For type 3 distribution. For  $F^{-1}(1) < \infty$  and for some  $a > 0$ , the condition is

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow F^{-1}(1)^-} \{F^{-1}(1) - x\}r(x) = a. \quad (22.18)$$

de Haan (1976) has provided a simple proof of this result. The function  $r(x) = f(x)/[1 - F(x)]$  appearing in conditions (22.16)–(22.18) is the failure rate or the hazard function (see Chapter 1, Section B2).

The choice of the normalizing constants  $a$ , and  $b_N > 0$  (which are not unique) depends on the type of the three limiting distributions. In general, convenient choices for  $a$ , and  $b_N$  are as follows:

For type 1 distribution.

$$\begin{aligned} a_N &= F^{-1} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{N} \right), \\ b_N &= F^{-1} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{Ne} \right) - F^{-1} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{N} \right). \end{aligned} \quad (22.19)$$

For type 2 distribution.

$$\begin{aligned} a_N &= 0, \\ b_N &= F^{-1} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{N} \right). \end{aligned} \quad (22.20)$$

For type 3 distribution.

$$\begin{aligned} a_N &= F^{-1}(1), \\ b_N &= F^{-1}(1) - F^{-1}\left(1 - \frac{1}{N}\right). \end{aligned} \quad (22.21)$$

Analogous results for the limiting distributions of the sample minimum can be stated in a straightforward manner. There are several excellent books that deal with the asymptotic theory of extremes and statistical applications of extremes. David (1981) and Arnold, Balakrishnan, and Nagaraja (1992) provide a compact account of the asymptotic theory of extremes, and Galambos (1978, 1987), Resnick (1987), and Leadbetter, Lindgren, and Rootzén (1983) present elaborate treatments of this topic. Reiss (1989) discusses various convergence concepts and rates of convergence associated with the extremes (and also with the order statistics). Castillo (1988) has updated Gumbel (1958) and presented many statistical applications of the extreme value theory. Harter (1978) prepared an authoritative bibliography of the extreme value theory.

With  $F_X(x; \xi, \theta)$  denoting the extreme value distribution for the sample minimum with cdf given by

$$F_X(x; \xi, \theta) = 1 - e^{-e^{(x-\xi)/\theta}}, \quad \theta > 0, \xi \in \mathbb{R},$$

and  $G_X(x; a, b, c)$  denoting the three-parameter Weibull distribution with cdf (see Chapter 21)

$$G_X(x; a, b, c) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \leq c, \\ 1 - e^{-[(x-c)/b]^a} & \text{if } x \geq c, \end{cases}$$

for  $a, b > 0$  and  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ , Davidovich (1992) established some bounds for the difference between the two cdfs. Specifically he showed that

$$F_X\left(x; b + c, \frac{b}{a}\right) - G_X(x; a, b, c) < \begin{cases} e^{-a} & \text{if } x \leq c, \\ \frac{2e^{-2}}{a-2} & \text{if } c \leq x \leq c + 2b, \\ e^{a-2a} & \text{if } x \geq c + 2b. \end{cases}$$

Thus, if  $a \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $b \rightarrow \infty$ , and  $c \rightarrow -\infty$  such that  $b + c \rightarrow d$  ( $|d| < \infty$ ) and  $b/a \rightarrow f$  ( $0 < f < \infty$ ), then the Weibull distribution above uniformly approaches the extreme value distribution for the minimum with  $\xi = d$  and  $\theta = f$ .

It is easily proved that if  $Y_1, Y_2, \dots$ , are independent variables, each having the exponential distribution (see Chapter 19, Section 1),

$$\Pr[Y \leq y] = 1 - e^{-y}, \quad y > 0, \quad (22.22)$$

and if  $L$  is the zero-truncated Poisson variable (see Chapter 4, Section 10)

$$\Pr[L = l] = \frac{(e^\lambda - 1)^{-1} \lambda^l}{l!}, \quad l = 1, 2, \dots, \quad (22.23)$$

the random variable defined by

$$X = \max(Y_1, \dots, Y_L)$$

has the extreme value distribution with cdf

$$\Pr(X \leq x) = (e^\lambda - 1)^{-1} [\exp\{\lambda(1 - e^{-x})\}] = c \exp[-\lambda e^{-x}]. \quad (22.24)$$

In a similar manner the Fréchet distribution can be generated from the Pareto distribution (see Chapter 20) and the Weibull from the power function distribution (see Chapter 20). In fact Sibuya (1967) has suggested a method of generating pseudorandom numbers from the extreme value distribution by using the method described above, based on the exponential distribution.

#### 4 DISTRIBUTION FUNCTION AND MOMENTS

In this section we will consider type 1 distributions (22.1) exclusively. Corresponding to (22.1) is the probability density function

$$p_X(x) = \theta^{-1} e^{-(x-\xi)/\theta} \exp[-e^{-(x-\xi)/\theta}]. \quad (22.25)$$

If  $\xi = 0$  and  $\theta = 1$ , or equivalently, the distribution of  $Y = (X - \xi)/\theta$ , we have the **standard form**

$$p_Y(y) = \exp(-y - e^{-y}). \quad (22.26)$$

Since, as we pointed out in Section 1, the variable  $Z = \exp[-(X - \xi)/\theta] = e^{-Y}$  has the exponential distribution

$$p_Z(z) = e^{-z}, \quad z \geq 0,$$

it follows that

$$E[e^{t(X-\xi)/\theta}] = E[Z^{-t}] = \Gamma(1-t)$$

for  $t < 1$ . Replacing  $t$  by  $\theta t$ , we see that the moment generating function of  $X$  is

$$E[e^{tX}] = e^{t\xi} \Gamma(1-\theta t), \quad \theta|t| < 1, \quad (22.27)$$

and the cumulant generating function is

$$\Psi(t) = \xi t + \log \Gamma(1-\theta t). \quad (22.28)$$

The cumulants of  $X$  are

$$\kappa_1(X) = E[X] = \xi - \theta\psi(1) = \xi + \gamma\theta \approx \xi + 0.57722\theta, \quad (22.29)$$

where  $\gamma$  is Euler's constant, and

$$\kappa_r(X) = (-\theta)^r \psi^{(r-1)}(1), \quad r \geq 2. \quad (22.30)$$

In particular

$$\text{var}(X) = \frac{1}{6}\pi^2\theta^2 \approx 1.64493\theta^2, \quad (22.31)$$

$$\text{Std. dev.}(X) \approx 1.28255\theta, \quad (22.31)'$$

and the moment ratios are

$$\alpha_3^2(X) = \beta_1(X) \approx 1.29857, \quad \alpha_4(X) = \beta_2(X) = 5.4. \quad (22.32)$$

Note that  $\xi$  and  $\theta$  are purely location and scale parameters, respectively. All distributions (22.25) have the same shape.

The distribution is unimodal. Its mode is at  $X = \xi$ , and there are points of inflection at

$$X = \xi \pm \theta \log\left[\frac{1}{2}(3 + \sqrt{5})\right] \approx \xi \pm 0.96242\theta. \quad (22.33)$$

For  $0 < p < 1$  the  $p$ th quantile defined by  $F(X_p) = p$  readily becomes from (22.1)

$$X_p = \xi - \theta \log(-\log p). \quad (22.34)$$

From (22.34) we immediately obtain the lower quartile, median, and upper quartile to be

$$X_{0.25} = \xi - \theta \log(\log 4) \approx \xi - 0.32663\theta, \quad (22.35)$$

$$X_{0.50} = \xi - \theta \log(\log 2) \approx \xi + 0.36611\theta, \quad (22.36)$$

$$X_{0.75} = \xi - \theta \log(-\log 0.75) \approx \xi + 1.24590\theta, \quad (22.37)$$

respectively.

Quantiles of the distribution are easy to compute from (22.34), even with a pocket calculator. Most of the standard distribution (22.26) is contained in the interval  $(-2, 7)$ . As a matter of fact, for the distribution function in (22.1) we find the probability between  $\xi - 28$  and  $\xi + 78$  to be 0.998. That is, 99.8% of the distribution lies between Mean  $- 2.0094 \cdot$  (Standard deviation) and Mean  $+ 5.0078 \cdot$  (Standard deviation). More details on properties of the distribution are presented by Lehman (1963).

The standard probability density function (22.26) is shown in Figure 22.1. Its shape is very closely mimicked by a lognormal distribution with  $e^{\sigma^2} = 1.1325$  (in the notation of Chapter 14). (The  $\beta_1, \beta_2$  values of this lognormal distribution are 1.300, 5.398, respectively; (22.32) *cf.*) In Table 22.1 the standard cumulative distribution functions are compared.

Table 22.2 gives standardized percentile points (i.e., for a type 1 extreme value distribution with expected value zero and standard deviation 1, corresponding to  $\theta = \sqrt{6}/\pi = 0.77970$ ;  $\xi = -\gamma\theta = -0.45006$ ). The positive skewness of the distribution is clearly indicated by these values. The usefulness of this distribution to model time-to-failure data in reliability studies has been discussed by Canfield (1975) and Canfield and Borgman (1975).

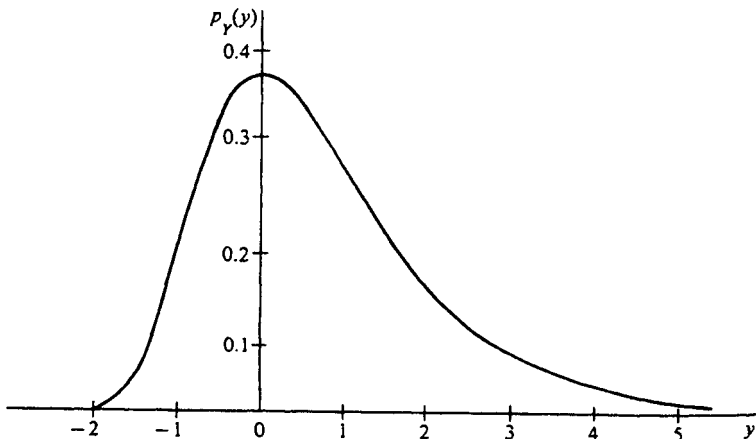


Figure 22.1 Standard type 1 probability density function,  $p_Y(y) = e^{-y} \exp(-e^{-y})$

**Table 22.1 Standard cumulative distribution functions**

x	F(x)	
	Type 1 Extreme Value Distribution <sup>a</sup>	Lognormal Distribution <sup>b</sup>
- 2.0	0.00068	0.00022
- 1.5	0.02140	0.01959
- 1.0	0.1321	0.1342
- 0.5	0.3443	0.3471
0.0	0.5704	0.5700
0.5	0.7440	0.7423
1.0	0.8558	0.8546
1.5	0.92237	0.92096
2.0	0.95774	0.95792
2.5	0.97752	0.97730
3.0	0.98810	0.98837
3.5	0.99371	0.99389
4.0	0.99668	0.99677

<sup>a</sup>Where  $F(x) = \exp\{-\exp[-1.28254x - 0.57722]\}$ ;

<sup>b</sup>Where  $F(x) = (\sqrt{2\pi})^{-1} \int_{-\infty}^{u(x)} \exp(-u^2/2) du$  with  $u(x) = 6.52771 \log_{10}(x + 2.74721) - 2.68853$ .

**Table 22.2 Standardized percentiles for Type 1 extreme value distribution**

a	Percentile
0.0005	- 2.0325
0.0001	- 1.9569
0.0025	- 1.8460
0.005	- 1.7501
0.01	- 1.6408
0.025	- 1.4678
0.05	- 1.3055
0.1	- 1.1004
0.25	- 0.7047
0.5	- 0.1643
0.75	0.5214
0.9	1.3046
0.95	1.8658
0.975	2.4163
0.99	3.1367
0.995	3.6791
0.9975	4.2205
0.999	4.9355
0.9995	5.4761

## 5 ORDER STATISTICS

If  $Y'_1 \leq Y'_2 \leq \dots \leq Y'_n$  are the order statistics corresponding to  $n$  independent random variables each having the standard type 1 extreme value distribution (22.26), then the probability density function of  $Y'_r$  ( $1 \leq r \leq n$ ) is

$$\begin{aligned} p_{Y'_r}(y) &= \frac{n!}{(r-1)!(n-r)!} (e^{-e^{-y}})^{r-1} (1 - e^{-e^{-y}})^{n-r} e^{-y} e^{-e^{-y}} \\ &= \frac{n!}{(r-1)!(n-r)!} \sum_{j=0}^{n-r} (-1)^j \binom{n-r}{j} e^{-y-(j+r)e^{-y}}, \\ &\quad -\infty < y < \infty. \end{aligned} \quad (22.38)$$

From (22.38), the  $k$ th moment of  $Y'_r$  can be written as [Lieblein (1953)]

$$E[Y_r^k] = \frac{n!}{(r-1)!(n-r)!} \sum_{j=0}^{n-r} (-1)^j \binom{n-r}{j} g_k(r+j), \quad (22.39)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} g_k(c) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y^k e^{-y-ce^{-y}} dy \\ &= (-1)^k \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (\log u)^k e^{-cu} du \quad (\text{with } u = e^{-y}). \end{aligned}$$

For nonnegative integers  $k$ ,  $g_k(c)$  may be written

$$\begin{aligned} g_k(c) &= (-1)^k \frac{d^k}{dt^k} \int_0^{\infty} u^{t-1} e^{-cu} du \Big|_{t=1} \\ &= (-1)^k \frac{d^k}{dt^k} \{\Gamma(t)c^{-t}\} \Big|_{t=1}. \end{aligned} \quad (22.40)$$

The functions  $g_1(\cdot)$  and  $g_2(\cdot)$  needed for the expressions of the first two moments of order statistics are obtained from (22.40) to be

$$g_1(c) = -\frac{\Gamma'(1)}{c} + \frac{\Gamma(1)}{c} \log c = \frac{1}{c} (\gamma + \log c) \quad (22.41)$$

and

$$g_2(c) = \frac{1}{c} \left\{ \frac{\pi^2}{6} + (\gamma + \log c)^2 \right\}; \quad (22.42)$$

here  $\gamma$  is Euler's constant.

Proceeding similarly, the product moment of  $Y'_r$  and  $Y'_s$  ( $1 \leq r < s \leq n$ ) can be shown to be

$$\begin{aligned}
 E[Y'_r Y'_s] &= \frac{n!}{(r-1)!(s-r-1)!(n-s)!} \\
 &\times \sum_{i=0}^{s-r-1} \sum_{j=0}^{n-s} (-1)^{i+j} \binom{s-r-1}{i} \binom{n-s}{j} \\
 &\times \phi(r+i, s-r-i+j), \tag{22.43}
 \end{aligned}$$

where the function  $\phi$  is the double integral

$$\phi(t, u) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^y xy e^{x-te^x} e^{y-ue^y} dx dy, \quad t, u > 0. \tag{22.44}$$

Lieblein (1953) derived an explicit expression for the  $\phi$  function in (22.44) in terms of Spence's function which has been tabulated quite extensively by Newman (1892) and Abramowitz and Stegun (1965).

Means and variances of order statistics for sample sizes up to 20 have been provided by White (1969); see also Lieblein and Salzer (1957) and McCord (1964). Covariances of order statistics for sample sizes up to 6 have been tabulated by Lieblein (1953, 1962) and Lieblein and Zelen (1956). It is of interest to mention that the variance of the largest order statistic is  $\pi^2/6$ , irrespective of the value of  $n$ . Kimball (1946a, 1949) presented an alternative expression for the expected value of  $Y'_{n-r+1}$ , as

$$E[Y'_{n-r+1}] = \gamma + \sum_{j=1}^{r-1} (-1)^j \binom{n}{j} \Delta^j \log n, \tag{22.45}$$

where  $\Delta$  represents forward difference of the  $i$ th order (see Chapter 1, Section A3). Balakrishnan and Chan (1992a) presented tables of means, variances, and covariances of all order statistics for sample sizes  $n = 1(1)15(5)30$ . [Although their tables are for order statistics of the distribution of  $-Y$ , the tables for order statistics of  $Y$  are easily obtained from their tables, since  $E[Y'_i] = -E[(-Y)_{n-i+1}]$  and  $\text{cov}(Y'_i, Y'_j) = \text{cov}((-Y)_{n-j+1}, (-Y)_{n-i+1})$ .] Complete tables for all sample sizes up to 30 have also been prepared by Balakrishnan and Chan (1992c). Mahmoud and Ragab (1975) and Provasi (1987) have provided further discussions on order statistics from the extreme value distribution and their moments. The last author has also discussed some approximations to the means, variances, and covariances of order statistics.

In Table 22.3 the means and variances of order statistics are presented for sample sizes up to 10. The covariances of order statistics for sample sizes up to 10 are presented in Table 22.4.



Table 22.3 Means and variances of order statistics from extreme value distribution

$n$	$r$	Mean	Variance	$n$	$r$	Mean	Variance
1	1	0.57722	1.64493	7	7	2.52313	1.64493
2	1	-0.11593	0.68403	8	1	-0.90212	0.19956
2	2	1.27036	1.64493	8	2	-0.45279	0.18355
3	1	-0.40361	0.44850	8	3	-0.10288	0.19837
3	2	0.45943	0.65852	8	4	0.23121	0.23166
3	3	1.67583	1.64493	8	5	0.58818	0.29005
4	1	-0.57351	0.34402	8	6	1.01107	0.39840
4	2	0.10608	0.41553	8	7	1.58841	0.64642
4	3	0.81278	0.65180	8	8	2.65666	1.64493
4	4	1.96351	1.64493	9	1	-0.94934	0.18395
5	1	-0.69017	0.28486	9	2	-0.52438	0.16390
5	2	-0.10689	0.30850	9	3	-0.20220	0.17158
5	3	0.42555	0.40598	9	4	0.09575	0.19275
5	4	1.07094	0.64907	9	5	0.40053	0.22869
5	5	2.18665	1.64493	9	6	0.73829	0.28844
6	1	-0.77729	0.24658	9	7	1.14745	0.39758
6	2	-0.25453	0.24855	9	8	1.71439	0.64609
6	3	0.18839	0.29762	9	9	2.77444	1.64493
6	4	0.66272	0.40186	10	1	-0.98987	0.17143
6	5	1.27505	0.64770	10	2	-0.58456	0.14879
6	6	2.36898	1.64493	10	3	-0.28369	0.15192
7	1	-0.84596	0.21964	10	4	-0.01204	0.16581
7	2	-0.36531	0.21021	10	5	0.25745	0.18958
7	3	0.02240	0.23701	10	6	0.54361	0.22686
7	4	0.40969	0.29271	10	7	0.86808	0.28739
7	5	0.85248	0.39969	10	8	1.26718	0.39702
7	6	1.44407	0.64691	10	9	1.82620	0.64586
				10	10	2.87980	1.64493

## 6 RECORD VALUES

Suppose that  $Y_1, Y_2, \dots$  is a sequence of i.i.d. standard type 1 extreme value random variables with density (22.26) and that  $Y_{L(1)}, Y_{L(2)}, \dots$  are the corresponding lower record values. That is, with  $L(1) \equiv 1$  and  $L(n) = \min\{j: j > L(n-1), Y_j < Y_{L(n-1)}\}$  for  $n = 2, 3, \dots$ ,  $\{Y_{L(n)}\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  forms the lower record value sequence. Then the density function of  $Y_{L(n)}, n \geq 1$ , is given by

$$\begin{aligned}
 p_{Y_{L(n)}}(y) &= \frac{1}{(n-1)!} \{-\log F_Y(y)\}^{n-1} p_Y(y) \\
 &= \frac{1}{(n-1)!} e^{-ny} e^{-e^{-y}}, \quad -\infty < y < \infty. \quad (22.46)
 \end{aligned}$$

**Table 22.4 Covariances of order statistics from extreme value distribution**

n	r	s	Covariance	n	r	s	Covariance	n	r	s	Covariance
2	1	2	0.48045	6	2	6	0.13619	8	1	2	0.12233
3	1	2	0.30137	6	3	4	0.25617	8	1	3	0.09447
3	1	3	0.24376	6	3	5	0.22888	8	1	4	0.07953
3	2	3	0.54629	6	3	6	0.20925	8	1	5	0.07001
4	1	2	0.22455	6	4	5	0.36146	8	1	6	0.06332
4	1	3	0.17903	6	4	6	0.33205	8	1	7	0.05832
4	1	4	0.15389	6	5	6	0.59986	8	1	8	0.05440
4	2	3	0.33721	7	1	2	0.13618	8	2	3	0.14306
4	2	4	0.29271	7	1	3	0.10578	8	2	4	0.12103
4	3	4	0.57432	7	1	4	0.08941	8	2	5	0.10686
5	1	2	0.18203	7	1	5	0.07893	8	2	6	0.09685
5	1	3	0.14359	7	1	6	0.07155	8	2	7	0.08931
5	1	4	0.12258	7	1	7	0.06601	8	2	8	0.08340
5	1	5	0.10901	7	2	3	0.16497	8	3	4	0.16868
5	2	3	0.24677	7	2	4	0.14020	8	3	5	0.14941
5	2	4	0.21227	7	2	5	0.12419	8	3	6	0.13570
5	2	5	0.18967	7	2	6	0.11283	8	3	7	0.12534
5	3	4	0.35267	7	2	7	0.10427	8	3	8	0.11719
5	3	5	0.31716	7	3	4	0.20262	8	4	5	0.20599
5	4	5	0.58992	7	3	5	0.18017	8	4	6	0.18759
6	1	2	0.15497	7	3	6	0.16412	8	4	7	0.17362
6	1	3	0.12122	7	3	7	0.15195	8	4	8	0.16256
6	1	4	0.10292	7	4	5	0.26155	8	5	6	0.26509
6	1	5	<b>0.09116</b>	7	4	6	0.23906	8	5	7	0.24600
6	1	6	0.08285	7	4	7	0.22190	8	5	8	0.23081
6	2	3	0.19671	7	5	6	0.36717	8	6	7	0.37119
6	2	4	0.16806	7	5	7	0.34211	8	6	8	0.34937
6	2	5	0.14945	7	6	7	0.60675	8	7	8	0.61182

This is the density function of a log-gamma population when the shape parameter  $\kappa = n$  (see Section 16 or Chapter 17, Section 8.7). Thus, for  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ ,

$$E[Y_{L(n)}] = \gamma - \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \frac{1}{i}, \quad \text{var}(Y_{L(n)}) = \frac{\pi^2}{6} - \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \frac{1}{i^2}. \quad (22.47)$$

The joint density function of  $Y_{L(m)}$  and  $Y_{L(n)}$ ,  $1 \leq m < n$ , is given by

$$\begin{aligned} & p_{Y_{L(m)}, Y_{L(n)}}(y_1, y_2) \\ &= \frac{1}{(m-1)!(n-m-1)!} \{-\log F_Y(y_1)\}^{m-1} \frac{p_Y(y_1)}{F_Y(y_1)} \\ & \quad \times \{-\log F_Y(y_2) + \log F_Y(y_1)\}^{n-m-1} p_Y(y_2) \\ &= \frac{1}{(m-1)!(n-m-1)!} e^{-my_1} (e^{-y_2} - e^{-y_1})^{n-m-1} e^{-y_2} e^{-e^{-y_2}}, \\ & \quad -\infty < y_2 < y_1 < \infty. \quad (22.48) \end{aligned}$$

Table 22.4 (Continued)

<i>n</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>s</i>	Covariance	<i>n</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>s</i>	Covariance	<i>n</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>s</i>	Covariance
9	1	2	0.11167	9	5	7	0.19267	10	3	5	0.11282
9	1	3	0.08580	9	5	8	0.18033	10	3	6	0.10200
9	1	4	0.07199	9	5	9	0.17027	10	3	7	0.09387
9	1	5	0.06322	9	6	7	0.26763	10	3	8	0.08749
9	1	6	0.05706	9	6	8	0.25105	10	3	9	0.08232
9	1	7	0.05246	9	6	9	0.23745	10	3	10	0.07803
9	1	8	0.04887	9	7	8	0.37418	10	4	5	0.14641
9	1	9	0.04597	9	7	9	0.35488	10	4	6	0.13262
9	2	3	0.12700	9	8	9	0.61569	10	4	7	0.12221
9	2	4	0.10703	10	1	2	0.10319	10	4	8	0.11403
9	2	5	0.09424	10	1	3	0.07893	10	4	9	0.10738
9	2	6	0.08522	10	1	4	0.06603	10	4	10	0.10185
9	2	7	0.07846	10	1	5	0.05785	10	5	6	0.17211
9	2	8	0.07315	10	1	6	0.05213	10	5	7	0.15888
9	2	9	0.06886	10	1	7	0.04786	10	5	8	0.14842
9	3	4	0.14525	10	1	8	0.04453	10	5	9	0.13991
9	3	5	0.12825	10	1	9	0.04184	10	5	10	0.13282
9	3	6	0.11620	10	1	10	0.03962	10	6	7	0.20986
9	3	7	0.10712	10	2	3	0.11471	10	6	8	0.19637
9	3	8	0.09998	10	2	4	0.09635	10	6	9	0.18536
9	3	9	0.09419	10	2	5	0.08463	10	6	10	0.17615
9	4	5	0.17074	10	2	6	0.07639	10	7	8	0.26954
9	4	6	0.15503	10	2	7	0.07021	10	7	9	0.25489
9	4	7	0.14315	10	2	8	0.06538	10	7	10	0.24260
9	4	8	0.13377	10	2	9	0.06148	10	8	9	0.37650
9	4	9	0.12615	10	2	10	0.05824	10	8	10	0.35919
9	5	6	0.20823	10	3	4	0.12812	10	9	10	0.61876

Upon writing the joint density of  $Y_{L(m)}$  and  $Y_{L(n)}$ ,  $l \leq m < n$ , in (22.48) as

$$\begin{aligned}
 & p_{Y_{L(m)}, Y_{L(n)}}(y_1, y_2) \\
 &= \frac{(n-1)!}{(m-1)!(n-m-1)!} e^{-m(y_1-y_2)} (1 - e^{-(y_1-y_2)})^{n-m-1} \\
 & \times \frac{1}{(n-1)!} e^{-ny_2} e^{-e^{-y_2}}, \quad -\infty < y_2 < y_1 < \infty, \quad (22.49)
 \end{aligned}$$

we readily observe that  $Y_{L(m)} - Y_{L(n)}$  and  $Y_{L(n)}$  (for  $1 \leq m < n$ ) are statistically independent. As a result we immediately get

$$\text{cov}(Y_{L(m)}, Y_{L(n)}) = \text{var}(Y_{L(n)}) = \frac{\pi^2}{6} - \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \frac{1}{i^2}. \quad (22.50)$$

These properties are similar to those of order statistics arising from standard exponential random variables (Chapter 19, Section 6). It follows from (22.49) that  $Y_{L(m)} - Y_{L(n)}$  is distributed as the  $(n - m)$ th order statistic in a sample of size  $n - 1$  from the standard exponential distribution, say  $Z_{n-m:n-1}$ . For the special case when  $m = 1$ , we then have  $Y_{L(1)} - Y_{L(n)} = Y_1 - Y_{L(n)} \stackrel{d}{=} Z_{n-1:n-1}$  which, when used with the known results that (see Chapter 19, Section 6)

$$E[Z_{n-1:n-1}] = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \frac{1}{i}, \quad \text{var}(Z_{n-1:n-1}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \frac{1}{i^2}, \quad (22.51)$$

gives easily the expressions for the mean and variance of  $Y_{L(n)}$  in (22.47).

Ahsanullah (1990,1991) has used these expressions to develop inference procedures for the location and scale parameters,  $\xi$  and  $\theta$ , of the type 1 extreme value distribution (22.25) based on the first  $n$  lower record values  $X_{L(1)}, X_{L(2)}, \dots, X_{L(n)}$  observed.

For the standard type 1 distribution in (22.26), we may note the relationship

$$p_Y(y) = F_Y(y)\{-\log F_Y(y)\}, \quad -\infty < y < \infty. \quad (22.52)$$

By making use of this relationship, Balakrishnan, Ahsanullah, and Chan (1992) established several recurrence relations for single as well as product moments of lower record values from this distribution. For example, consider for  $n \geq 1$  and  $r = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} E[Y_{L(n)}^r] &= \frac{1}{(n-1)!} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y^r \{-\log F_Y(y)\}^{n-1} p_Y(y) dy \\ &= \frac{1}{(n-1)!} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y^r \{-\log F_Y(y)\}^n F_Y(y) dy \end{aligned}$$

upon using (22.52). Integration by parts yields

$$\begin{aligned} E[Y_{L(n)}^r] &= \frac{1}{(n-1)!(r+1)} \left[ n \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y^{r+1} \{-\log F_Y(y)\}^{n-1} p_Y(y) dy \right. \\ &\quad \left. - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y^{r+1} \{-\log F_Y(y)\}^n p_Y(y) dy \right] \\ &= \frac{n}{r+1} \{E[Y_{L(n)}^{r+1}] - E[Y_{L(n+1)}^{r+1}]\}. \end{aligned}$$

The equation above, when simply rewritten, yields the recurrence relation

$$E[Y_{L(n+1)}^{r+1}] = E[Y_{L(n)}^{r+1}] - \frac{r+1}{n} E[Y_{L(n)}^r] \quad \text{for } n \geq 1, r = 0, 1, \dots \quad (22.53)$$

By repeated application of the recurrence relation in (22.53), Balakrishnan, Ahsanullah, and Chan (1992) established the relation

$$E[Y_{L(n+1)}^{r+1}] = E[Y_{L(1)}^{r+1}] - (r+1) \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{E[Y_{L(i)}^r]}{i} \quad \text{for } n = 1, 2, \dots, r = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad (22.54)$$

From (22.54) one may also easily derive the expressions for the mean and variance of  $Y_{L(n)}$  in (22.47).

Proceeding **similarly**, Balakrishnan, Ahsanullah, and Chan (1992) also established the following recurrence relations for the product moments:

$$E[Y_{L(m)}^{r+1} Y_{L(m+1)}^s] = E[Y_{L(m+1)}^{r+s+1}] + \frac{r+1}{m} E[Y_{L(m)}^r Y_{L(m+1)}^s], \quad m \geq 1; r, s = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad (22.55)$$

$$E[Y_{L(m)}^{r+1} Y_{L(n)}^s] = E[Y_{L(m+1)}^{r+1} Y_{L(n)}^s] + \frac{r+1}{m} E[Y_{L(m)}^r Y_{L(n)}^s], \quad 1 \leq m \leq n-2; r, s = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad (22.56)$$

$$E[Y_{L(m)}^{r+1} Y_{L(n)}^s] = E[Y_{L(n)}^{r+s+1}] + (r+1) \sum_{i=m}^{n-1} \frac{E[Y_{L(i)}^r Y_{L(n)}^s]}{i}, \quad 1 \leq m \leq n-1; r, s = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad (22.57)$$

$$E[Y_{L(m)}^{r+1} Y_{L(m+1)}^s] = \sum_{i=0}^{r+1} (r+1)^{(i)} \frac{E[Y_{L(m+1)}^{r+s+1-i}]}{m^i}, \quad m \geq 1; r, s = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad (22.58)$$

and

$$E[Y_{L(m)}^{r+1} Y_{L(n)}^s] = \sum_{i=0}^{r+1} (r+1)^{(i)} \frac{E[Y_{L(m+1)}^{r+1-i} Y_{L(n)}^s]}{m^i}, \quad 1 \leq m \leq n-2; r, s = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad (22.59)$$

In the equations above

$$k^{(i)} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = 0, \\ k(k-1) \cdots (k-i+1) & \text{if } i \geq 1. \end{cases}$$

Suppose that  $X'_{i:j}$  is the  $i$ th order statistic in a random sample of size  $j$  from a distribution  $F(\cdot)$ . If the distribution function of  $(X'_{j-i+1:j} - a_j)/b_j$  converges weakly to a nondegenerate distribution function  $G(\cdot)$  as  $j \rightarrow \infty$  for sequences of constants  $a_j$  and positive  $b_j$ , then Nagaraja (1982) showed that the joint distribution function of  $(X'_{j-i+1:j} - a_j)/b_j$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq n$ , converges to that of  $X_{L(i)}$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq n$ . As we have already seen in Section 3,  $G(\cdot)$  must be one of the three types of extreme value distributions. Hence, as pointed out by Nagaraja (1988), some inference procedures based on asymptotic theory of extreme order statistics are equivalent to those based on record values from the extreme value distributions. Consequently the asymptotic linear prediction of extreme order statistics discussed by Nagaraja (1984) is the same as predicting a future record value from the distribution  $F(\cdot)$ . It is also apparent from this discussion that the estimation of parameters of  $F(\cdot)$  based on  $k$  largest observations discussed by Weissman (1978) is effectively the same as the estimation of parameters based on record values from one of the three extreme value distributions  $G(\cdot)$ . Smith (1988) has provided a detailed discussion on forecasting records by the maximum likelihood method.

Ballerini and Resnick (1985, 1987a) have discussed upper records arising from the simple linear regression model

$$Z_n = X_n + cn, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots, c > 0,$$

where  $\{X_n\}$  is i.i.d. type 1 extreme value random variables with density (22.25). They referred to this model as the linear-drift Gumbel record model. Then, for this model, Ballerini and Resnick (1987b) established that the random variables

$$M_n + \max\{Z_1, \dots, Z_n\} \quad \text{and}$$

$$I_n = \text{Indicator whether record occurs at time } n = I_{\{Z_n > M_{n-1}\}} \quad (22.60)$$

are statistically independent for each  $n$  (see Section 8 for some additional comments).

Balakrishnan, Balasubramanian, and Panchapakesan (1995) have discussed properties of 6-exceedance records arising from the type 1 extreme value distribution. In this model a new variable will be declared a record only if it is smaller than the previous lower record by at least 6.

## 7 GENERATION, TABLES, AND PROBABILITY PAPER

The following tables are included in Gumbel (1953):

1. Values of the standard cumulative distribution function,  $\exp(-e^{-y})$ , and probability density function,  $\exp(-y - e^{-y})$ , to seven decimal places for  $y = -3(0.1) - 2.4(0.05)0.00(0.1)4.0(0.2)8.0(0.5)17.0$
2. The inverse of the cumulative distribution function (i.e., percentiles),  $y = -\log(-\log F)$  to five decimal places for

$$F = 0.0001(0.0001)0.0050(0.001)0.988(0.0001)0.9994(0.00001)0.99999.$$

In Owen's tables (1962) there is a similar table, to four decimal places for

$$F = 0.0001(0.0001)0.0010(0.0010)0.0100(0.005)0.100(0.010)0.90(0.005) \\ 0.990(0.001)0.999(0.0001)1 - 10^{-4(1)^7}, 1 - \frac{1}{2} \cdot 10^{-4(1)^7}.$$

[The special interest in very high values of  $F$ , by both Gumbel (1953) and Owen (1962), may be associated with the genesis of the distribution, though it seems rather risky to rely on practical applicability so far out in the tails of a distribution.]

Gumbel (1953) contains others tables. In particular there are two relating to asymptotic distribution of range (see Section 16), and a table giving the probability density function in terms of the cumulative distribution function ( $p = -F \log F$ ) to five decimal places for  $F = 0.0001(0.0001)0.0100(0.001)0.999$ .

Lieblein and Salzer (1957) have published a table of the expected value (to seven decimal places) of the  $m$ th largest among  $n$  independent random variables having the standard type 1 extreme value distribution (22.26), for

$$m = 1(1)\min(26, n), \quad n = 1(1)10(5)60(10)100.$$

Lieblein and Zelen (1956) gave the variances and covariances (also to seven decimal places) for sets of 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 independent type 1 variables. [These values are also given by Lieblein (1962).] Mann (1968b) gave similar tables for the type 1 smallest value distribution for up to 25 variables.

These tables have been extended by White (1969), who gives (up to seven decimal places) expected values and variances of all order statistics for sample sizes  $1(1)50(5)100$ . Extended tables of means, variances, and **covariances** of order statistics for sample sizes up to 30 have been provided by Balakrishnan and Chan (1992a, c).

Tables of coefficients for the best linear unbiased estimators of  $\xi$  and  $\theta$  and the values of variances and covariance of these estimators have been presented by Balakrishnan and Chan (1992b, d) for the case of complete as well as **Type-II** censored samples for sample sizes up to 30. Mann

(1967, 1968a, b), and Mann, Schafer, and Singpurwalla (1974) have presented similar tables for the best linear invariant estimates of  $\xi$  and  $\sigma$ .

From (22.1) it follows that

$$-\log(-\log \Pr[X < x]) = \frac{x - \xi}{\theta}. \quad (22.61)$$

Hence, if the cumulative observed *relative frequency*  $F_x$ —equal to (number of observations less than or equal to  $x$ )/(total number of observations)—is calculated, and  $-\log(-\log F_x)$  is plotted against  $x$ , an approximately straight-line relation should be obtained, with slope  $\theta^{-1}$  and intersecting the horizontal ( $x$ ) axis at  $x = \xi$ . In using graph paper with a vertical scale that gives  $-\log(-\log F_x)$  directly, it is not necessary to refer to tables of logarithms. Such graph paper is sometimes called *extreme value probability paper*. It is also quite common to use such paper with the  $x$ -axis vertical, and for practical purposes it is sometimes convenient to have the  $-\log(-\log F_x)$  marked not with  $F_x$  but with the "return period"  $(1 - F_x)^{-1}$ ; see Gumbel (1949a) and Kimball (1960). Such a paper is called *extreme probability paper*.

Tables of 500 random numbers (to three decimal places) representing values chosen at random from the standard type 1 distribution, and 500 each from three standard distributions of each of types 2 and 3 [ $k^{-1} = 0.2, 0.5, 0.8$  in Eqs. (22.14) and (22.15)] have been given by Goldstein (1963).

Of course pseudorandom numbers from the standard type 1 distribution may be generated easily either through the inverse cdf method along with an efficient uniform random generator (see Chapter 26) or through the relationship with the exponential distribution (explained in Section 3) along with an efficient exponential random generator (see Chapter 19). Sibuya (1967) has discussed the latter. Landwehr, Matalas, and Wallis (1979) have advocated the use of the Lewis-Goodman-Miller algorithm for generating pseudorandom numbers from the uniform distribution for this specific purpose. These authors have also discussed a simulational algorithm for generating serially correlated Gumbel data. Let

$$z_i = \rho_z z_{i-1} + \sqrt{1 - \rho_z^2} \delta_i$$

represent a Markov process, where  $\rho_z$  denotes the first-order serial correlation of the  $z$ 's and  $\delta_i$  is a standard normal variable independent of  $z_{i-1}$ . With  $\delta_i$ 's generated by the Box-Muller algorithm and  $z_i$ 's determined by the equation above, the serially correlated Gumbel values  $X_i$ 's may then be obtained as

$$X_i = \xi - \theta \log\{-\log \Phi(z_i)\}$$

where  $\Phi$  is the standard normal cumulative distribution function.



**8 CHARACTERIZATIONS**

As mentioned earlier in Section 2,  $X$  has a type 1 extreme value distribution if and only if  $e^X$  has a **Weibull** distribution, and  $e^{X/\theta}$  has an exponential distribution, and  $\exp\{(X - \xi)/\theta\}$  has a *standard* exponential distribution. It is clear that some characterization theorems for exponential distributions may also be used for type 1 extreme value distributions, simply by applying them to  $e^{X/\theta}$ , or  $\exp\{(X - \xi)/\theta\}$ . Dubey (1966) characterizes this distribution by the property that  $Y_n = \min(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$  is a type 1 random variable if and only if  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are independent identically distributed type 1 random variables.

**Sethuraman (1965)** has obtained characterizations of all three types of extreme value distributions, in terms of "complete confounding" of random variables. If  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent and the distributions of  $Z, Z$  given  $Z = X$ , and  $Z$  given  $Z = Y$  are the same [e.g.,  $Z$  might be equal to  $\min(X, Y)$  as in the cases described in **Sethuraman (1965)**], they are said to *completely confound* each other with respect to the third. Sethuraman showed that if all pairs from the variables  $X, Y$ , and  $Z$  completely confound each other with respect to the third and if  $Y, Z$  have the same distributions as  $a_1X + b_1, a_2X + b_2$ , respectively [with  $(a_1, b_1) \neq (a_2, b_2)$ ], then the distribution of  $X$  is one of the three extreme value (minimum) distributions (provided we limit ourselves to the cases when  $\Pr[X > Y] > 0; \Pr[Y > X] > 0$ , etc.). The type of distribution depends on the values of  $a_1, a_2, b_1, b_2$ .

**Gompertz (1825)** derived a probability model for human mortality. He assumed *the average exhaustion of a man's power to avoid death to be such that at the end of equal infinitely small intervals of time he lost equal portions of his remaining power to oppose destruction which he had at the commencement of these intervals*. From this hypothesis Gompertz (1825) deduced the force of mortality or the hazard function as

$$r(x) = Bc^x, \quad x \geq 0, B > 0, c \geq 1,$$

which, when solved as a differential equation, readily yields the survival function as

$$1 - F(x) = e^{-B(c^x - 1)/\log c}, \quad x \geq 0. \tag{22.62}$$

It may be readily seen that (22.62) is a truncated form of the type 1 distribution, and it includes the exponential distribution as a special case when  $c = 1$ . Then, just as the **memoryless** property

$$\Pr[X \geq x + y | X \geq x] = \Pr[X \geq y] \quad \text{for all } x, y \geq 0 \tag{22.63}$$

characterizes the exponential distribution (see Chapter 19, Section 8), **Kaminsky (1982)** has characterized the Gompertz distribution in (22.62)

through the condition

$$\Pr(X \geq x + y | X \geq x) = \{\Pr(X \geq y)\}^{h(x)}, \quad x, y \geq 0, \quad (22.64)$$

and the requirement that the function  $h(\cdot)$  must take the form  $h(x) = c^x$  for some  $c \geq 1$ .

As one would expect, there are a number of characterizations of the type  $I$  distribution in the framework of extreme value theory. The most celebrated one is that the type  $I$  distribution is the only max-stable probability distribution function with the entire real line as its support; for example, see Theorem 1.4.1 in Leadbetter, Lindgren, and Rootzén (1983). In addition to the characterizations of the type  $I$  distribution itself, there are several characterization results available for the maximal domain of attraction of the type  $I$  distribution; de Haan (1970) will serve as a good source of information on this as well as characterizations for type 2 and type 3 distributions.

In Section 6 we have discussed the linear-drift Gumbel record model. We mentioned that under this model the random variables  $M_n$  and  $I_n$  are statistically independent for each  $n$ . Ballerini (1987) has proved this to be a characterization of the type  $I$  extreme value distribution; that is,  $M_n$  and  $I_n$  are independent for each  $n$  and for every  $c > 0$  if and only if the  $X_i$ 's are type  $I$  extreme value random variables.

Tikhov (1991) has characterized the extreme value distributions by the limiting information quantity associated with the maximum likelihood estimator based on a multiply censored sample.

## 9 METHODS OF INFERENCE

Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be a random sample of size  $n$  from the type  $I$  extreme value distribution in (22.25). Then, as Downton (1966) has shown, the Cramér-Rao lower bounds of variances of unbiased estimators of  $\xi$  and  $\theta$  are given by

$$\begin{aligned} \{1 + 6(1 - \gamma)^2 \pi^{-2}\} \theta^2 n^{-1} &= 1.10867 \theta^2 n^{-1}, \\ 6\pi^{-2} \theta^2 n^{-1} &= 0.60793 \theta^2 n^{-1}, \end{aligned} \quad (22.65)$$

respectively.

As has already been mentioned on several occasions in this chapter, as well as in Chapter 21, if  $Z$  has a Weibull distribution with probability density function

$$p_Z(z) = \frac{c}{\beta} \left( \frac{z - \xi_0}{\beta} \right)^{c-1} e^{-[(z - \xi_0)/\beta]^c}, \quad z \geq \xi_0, \quad (22.66)$$

then  $\log(Z - \xi_0)$  has a type 1 extreme value distribution. Consequently, if  $\xi_0$  is known, the methods of estimation discussed in this section for the type 1 extreme value distribution can also be used for estimating the parameters  $\beta$  and  $c$  of the Weibull distribution (22.66). Conversely, as discussed in Section 4, some methods of estimating  $\beta$  and  $c$  of the Weibull distribution, when  $\xi_0$  is known, can also be used for estimating the parameters  $\xi$  and  $\theta$  of the type 1 extreme value distribution.

### 9.1 Moment Estimation

Let  $\bar{X}$  and  $S$  denote the sample mean and the sample standard deviation. Then, using Eqs. (22.29) and (22.31), we simply obtain the moment estimates of  $\theta$  and  $\xi$  as

$$\bar{\theta} = \frac{\sqrt{6}}{\pi} S \quad \text{and} \quad \bar{\xi} = \bar{X} - \gamma \bar{\theta}. \quad (22.67)$$

Tiago de Oliveira (1963) has shown that

$$\text{var}(\bar{\xi}) \approx \frac{\theta^2}{n} \left\{ \frac{\pi^2}{6} + \frac{\gamma^2}{4} (\beta_2 - 1) - \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{6}} \gamma \sqrt{\beta_1} \right\} \quad (22.68)$$

and that

$$\text{var}(\bar{\theta}) \approx \frac{\theta^2}{4n} (\beta_2 - 1), \quad (22.69)$$

where  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$  are the coefficients of skewness and kurtosis as given in (22.32). Upon substituting for their values, we get

$$\text{var}(\bar{\xi}) \approx \frac{1.1678\theta^2}{n} \quad \text{and} \quad \text{Var}(\bar{\theta}) \approx \frac{1.1\theta^2}{n}. \quad (22.70)$$

Tiago de Oliveira (1963) has also discussed the joint distribution of  $\bar{X}$  and  $S$ .

A comparison of the variance formulas in (22.70) with the Cramér-Rao lower bounds in (22.65) readily reveals that the moment estimator  $\bar{\xi}$  has about 95% efficiency while the moment estimator  $\bar{\theta}$  has only about 55% efficiency. The estimators  $\bar{\xi}$  and  $\bar{\theta}$  are both  $\sqrt{n}$ -consistent; that is,  $\sqrt{n}(\bar{\xi} - \xi)$  and  $\sqrt{n}(\bar{\theta} - \theta)$  are bounded in probability.

Tiago de Oliveira (1963) has shown that the joint asymptotic distribution of  $\bar{\xi}$  and  $\bar{\theta}$  is bivariate normal with mean vector  $(\xi, \theta)$ , variances as given in

(22.70), and the correlation coefficient as

$$\rho_{\hat{\xi}, \hat{\theta}} = \frac{\pi^2 \left[ \sqrt{\beta_1} - 3\gamma(\beta_2 - 1)/2\pi \right] / 6}{\left[ \left\{ \pi^2/6 + \gamma^2(\beta_2 - 1)/4 - \pi(\gamma\sqrt{\beta_1})/\sqrt{6} \right\} (\beta_2 - 1) \right]^{1/2}}$$

$$\approx 0.123. \quad (22.71)$$

By making use of this asymptotic result, asymptotic confidence regions for  $(\xi, \theta)$  can be constructed.

Christopeit (1994) recently showed that the method of moments provides consistent estimates of the parameters of extreme value distributions, and used the estimation of the distribution of earthquake magnitudes in the middle Rhein region for illustration.

## 9.2 Simple Linear Estimation

Upon noting that the likelihood equations for  $\xi$  and  $\theta$  do not admit explicit solutions and hence need to be solved by numerical iterative methods, Kimball (1956) suggested a simple modification to the equation for  $\theta$  (based on the equation for  $\xi$ ) that makes it easier to solve the resulting equation. The equation for  $\theta$  given by

$$\hat{\theta} = \bar{X} - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i e^{-X_i/\hat{\theta}}}{\sum_{i=1}^n e^{-X_i/\hat{\theta}}}, \quad (22.72)$$

used in conjunction with the equation for  $\xi$  given by

$$\hat{\xi} = -\hat{\theta} \log \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n e^{-X_i/\hat{\theta}} \right\}, \quad (22.73)$$

can be rewritten as

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\theta} &= \bar{X} - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i e^{-(X_i - \hat{\xi})/\hat{\theta}} \\ &= \bar{X} + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \log \hat{F}_X(X_i), \end{aligned} \quad (22.74)$$

where  $\hat{F}_X(X_i)$  is the estimated cumulative distribution function. By replacing  $\log \hat{F}_X(X_i)$  in (22.74) with the expected value of  $\log \hat{F}_X(X_i)$ , Kimball (1956)

derived a simplified linear estimator for  $\theta$  as

$$\hat{\theta}^* = \bar{X} + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i' \left( \sum_{j=i}^n \frac{1}{j} \right) \quad (22.75)$$

which may be further approximated as

$$\hat{\theta}^* \approx \bar{X} + \sum_{i=1}^n X_i' \log \left( \frac{i - \frac{1}{2}}{n + \frac{1}{2}} \right). \quad (22.76)$$

The estimator in (22.75) or in (22.76) is a linear function of the order statistics, and hence its bias and mean square error can be determined easily from means, variances and covariances of order statistics in Tables 22.3 and 22.4. Since the linear estimator in (22.76) is biased, **Kimball (1956)** presented a table of corrective multipliers to make it unbiased; from the table it appears that for  $n \geq 10$  the estimator

$$\frac{\hat{\theta}^*}{1 + 2.3n^{-1}} \quad (22.77)$$

is very nearly unbiased. Further a simplified linear estimator of  $\xi$  may then be obtained as

$$\text{Estimator of } \xi = \bar{X} - \gamma \times (\text{Estimator of } \theta). \quad (22.78)$$

Due to the linearity of the estimator of  $\theta$ , it is only natural to compare it with the best linear unbiased estimator of  $\theta$  and with its approximations proposed by **Blom (1958)** and **Weiss (1961)**.

**Downton (1966)** carried out a number of comparisons of this nature. He actually discussed the type 1 distribution appropriate to minima, with cumulative distribution function  $1 - e^{-e^{(x-\xi)/\theta}}$ , but his results also apply to the type 1 distribution in (22.1) (with some simple changes). His results are all in terms of efficiencies, that is, ratios of the values given by (22.65) to corresponding variances for the estimators in question. For each estimator of  $\theta$ , the parameter  $\xi$  was estimated from (22.78). Tables 22.5 and 22.6, taken from **Downton (1966)**, give efficiencies for various estimators of  $\xi$  and  $\theta$ .

For the small values of  $n$  considered, the asymptotic formulas used in the calculations may not be accurate, yet the tables probably give a good idea of relative efficiency and the performance of different estimators considered. It can be seen from Table 22.5 that the location parameter  $\xi$  can be estimated with quite good accuracy using simple linear functions of order statistics; however, it may also be noted from Table 22.6 that the situation is rather unsatisfactory should one use such simple linear functions of order statistics to estimate the scale parameter  $\theta$ .

**Table 22.5** Efficiencies of linear unbiased estimators of  $\xi$  for the extreme value distribution

	$n$	2	3	4	5	6	$\infty$
Best linear		84.05	91.73	94.45	95.82	96.65	100.00
Blom's approximation		84.05	91.72	94.37	95.68	96.45	100.00
Weiss's approximation		84.05	91.73	94.41	95.74	96.53	—
Kimball's approximation		84.05	91.71	94.45	95.82	96.63	—

Note: Efficiencies are expressed in percentages.

For the case of a Type-II right-censored sample  $X'_1, X'_2, \dots, X'_{n-s}$  from the **type 1** extreme value distribution for minima with cdf  $F_X(x) = 1 - e^{-e^{(x-\xi)/\theta}}$ , Bain (1972) suggested a simple unbiased linear estimator for the scale parameter  $\theta$ . This estimator was subsequently modified by Engelhardt and Bain (1973) to the form

$$\hat{\theta} = \frac{1}{nk_{n-s,n}} \sum_{i=1}^{n-s} |X'_i - X'_i|, \quad (22.79)$$

where

$$k_{n-s,n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n-s} E|Y'_i - Y'_i|, \quad (22.80)$$

$Y'_i = (X'_i - \xi)/\theta$  being the order statistics from the standard type 1 extreme

**Table 22.6** Efficiencies of linear unbiased estimators of  $\theta$  for the extreme value distribution

	$n$	2	3	4	5	6	$\infty$
Best linear		42.70	58.79	67.46	72.96	76.78	100.00
Blom's approximation		42.70	57.47	65.39	70.47	74.07	100.00
Weiss's approximation		42.70	58.00	66.09	71.04	74.47	—
Kimball's approximation		42.70	57.32	65.04	69.88	73.25	—

Note: Efficiencies are expressed in percentages.

value distribution for minima, and

$$\begin{aligned} r &= n - s && \text{for } n - s \leq 0.9n, \\ r &= n && \text{for } n - s = n, n \leq 15, \\ r &= n - 1 && \text{for } n - s = n, 16 \leq n \leq 24, \\ r &= [0.892n] + 1 && \text{for } n - s = n, n \geq 25. \end{aligned}$$

By making use of the tables of means of order statistics referred to in Section 5, Bain (1972) determined exact values of  $k_{n-s,n}$  for  $n = 5, 15, 20, 30, 60$ , and 100 and  $n$  infinite and  $(n-s)/n = 0.1(0.1)0.9$  for integer  $n-s$ . Engelhardt and Bain (1973) gave exact values of  $k_{n,n}$  for  $n = 2(1)35(5)100$ ,  $n = 39, 49$ , and 59 and infinite  $n$ . Mann and Fertig (1975) also presented exact values of  $k_{n-s,n}$  for  $n = 25(5)60$  and  $(n-s)/n = 0.1(0.1)1.0$  for integer  $n-s$ . [It needs to be mentioned that the values of  $k_{n,n}$  given by Mann and Fertig (1975) are slightly different from those given by Engelhardt and Bain (1973) for  $n > 40$  as the choice of  $r_n$  used by the former is different.]

Since  $\theta$  is a scale parameter and  $\hat{\theta}$  is an unbiased estimator of  $\theta$ , improvement is possible in terms of minimum mean-square-error estimator (see Section 9.3 for more details). The improvement in efficiency becomes considerable when the censoring is heavy in the sample. As Bain (1972) noted that for  $(n-s)/n$  about at most 0.5,  $\text{var}(\hat{\theta}) \approx \theta^2/(nk_{n-s,n})$  and consequently

$$\frac{\hat{\theta}}{1 + 1/(nk_{n-s,n})} = \frac{1}{1 + nk_{n-s,n}} \sum_{i=1}^{n-s} (X'_{n-s} - X'_i) \quad (22.81)$$

has a smaller mean square error than  $\hat{\theta}$  when  $(n-s)/n \leq 0.5$ . On these grounds, an estimator that has been used in general is

$$\frac{\hat{\theta}}{1 + l_{n-s,n}} = \frac{1}{nk_{n-s,n}(1 + l_{n-s,n})} \sum_{i=1}^{n-s} |X'_i - X'_i| \quad (22.82)$$

which has mean square error  $\theta^2 l_{n-s,n}/(1 + l_{n-s,n})$ ; here,  $l_{n-s,n} = \text{var}(\hat{\theta}/\theta)$ . Values of  $l_{n-s,n}$  have been tabulated by Engelhardt and Bain (1973) and Mann and Fertig (1975). From the tables of Bain (1972) and Engelhardt and Bain (1973), it is clear that the estimator  $\hat{\theta}$  in (22.79) is highly efficient; for example, when  $(n-s)/n \leq 0.7$ , the asymptotic **efficiency** of  $\hat{\theta}$  relative to the **Cramér-Rao lower** bound is at least 97.7%.

The estimator  $\hat{\theta}$  in (22.79) may also be used to produce a simple linear unbiased estimator for  $\xi$ , through the moment equation

$$X'_i = E[X'_i] = \xi + \theta E[Y'_i], \quad (22.83)$$

as

$$\hat{\xi} = X'_r - E[Y'_r] \hat{\theta}. \quad (22.84)$$

Using the estimators  $\hat{\theta}$  and  $\hat{\xi}$  in Eqs. (22.79) and (22.84), respectively, a simple linear unbiased estimator for the  $p$ th quantile  $\xi_p$  can be derived as

$$\hat{\xi}_p = \hat{\xi} + \hat{\theta} \log(-\log(1-p)), \quad 0 < p < 1. \quad (22.85)$$

Confidence intervals for the parameters  $\xi$  and  $\theta$  based on the linear unbiased estimators  $\hat{\xi}$  and  $\hat{\theta}$  have also been discussed. Bain (1972) suggested approximating the distribution of  $2nk_{n-s,n} \hat{\theta}/\theta$  by a central chi-square distribution with  $2nk_{n-s,n}$  degrees of freedom when  $(n-s)/n$  is at most 0.5 and  $n$  at least 20. But Mann and Fertig (1975) have shown that for  $n \geq 20$ ,  $2(\hat{\theta}/\theta)/l_{n-s}$  is approximately distributed as chi-square with  $2/l_{n-s}$  degrees of freedom. Interestingly this approximate result holds for all values of  $(n-s)/n$  in  $(0, 1]$ . This approximation arose from an observation of van Montfort (1970) that the statistics

$$Z_i = \frac{X'_{i+1} - X'_i}{\{E[Y'_{i+1}] - E[Y'_i]\}\theta}, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n-1,$$

all have approximately an exponential distribution with mean exactly 1, variance approximately 1, and covariance almost zero [see also Pyke (1965)].

As aptly pointed out by Mann and Fertig (1975), since for  $n-s \leq 0.90n$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\hat{\theta}}{\theta} &= \frac{1}{nk_{n-s,n}} \sum_{i=1}^{n-s} \frac{X'_{n-s} - X'_i}{\theta} \\ &= \frac{1}{2nk_{n-s,n}} \sum_{i=1}^{n-s-1} \{E[Y'_{i+1}] - E[Y'_i]\} 2Z_i \end{aligned}$$

is approximately a sum of weighted independent chi-square variables, various approximations discussed in Chapter 18 for this distribution are useful in developing approximate inference for  $\delta$ .

### 9.3 Best Linear Unbiased (Invariant) Estimation

Let  $X'_{r+1} \leq X'_{r+2} \leq \dots \leq X'_{n-s}$  be the available doubly **Type-II** censored sample from a sample of size  $n$  where the smallest  $r$  and the largest  $s$



observations have been censored. Let us denote

$$\begin{aligned} X &= (X'_{r+1}, X'_{r+2}, \dots, X'_{n-s})^T, \\ \mathbf{1} &= (1, 1, \dots, 1)_{1 \times (n-r-s)}, \\ \boldsymbol{\mu} &= (E[Y'_{r+1}], E[Y'_{r+2}], \dots, E[Y'_{n-s}])^T, \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \left( (\text{cov}(Y'_i, Y'_j)) \right), \quad r+1 \leq i, j \leq n-s,$$

where  $E[Y'_i]$  and  $\text{cov}(Y'_i, Y'_j)$  are as derived in Section 5. Then, by minimizing the generalized variance

$$(X - \xi \mathbf{1} - \theta \boldsymbol{\mu})^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (X - \xi \mathbf{1} - \theta \boldsymbol{\mu}),$$

we derive the best linear unbiased estimators (BLUEs) of  $\xi$  and  $\theta$  as [see Balakrishnan and Cohen (1991, pp. 80–81)]

$$\begin{aligned} \xi^* &= \left\{ \frac{\boldsymbol{\mu}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{1}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{1} \boldsymbol{\mu}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}}{(\boldsymbol{\mu}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{1}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{1}) - (\boldsymbol{\mu}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{1})^2} \right\} X \\ &= \sum_{i=r+1}^{n-s} a_i X'_i \end{aligned} \quad (22.86)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \theta^* &= \left\{ \frac{\mathbf{1}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{1} \boldsymbol{\mu}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} - \mathbf{1}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{1}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}}{(\boldsymbol{\mu}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{1}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{1}) - (\boldsymbol{\mu}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{1})^2} \right\} X \\ &= \sum_{i=r+1}^{n-s} b_i X'_i. \end{aligned} \quad (22.87)$$

Further, the variances and covariance of these estimators are given by

$$\begin{aligned} \text{var}(\xi^*) &= \frac{\theta^2 (\boldsymbol{\mu}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu})}{(\boldsymbol{\mu}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{1}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{1}) - (\boldsymbol{\mu}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{1})^2} \\ &= \theta^2 V_1, \end{aligned} \quad (22.88)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{var}(\theta^*) &= \frac{\theta^2 (\mathbf{1}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{1})}{(\boldsymbol{\mu}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{1}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{1}) - (\boldsymbol{\mu}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{1})^2} \\ &= \theta^2 V_2, \end{aligned} \quad (22.89)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \text{cov}(\xi^*, \theta^*) &= - \frac{\theta^2 (\boldsymbol{\mu}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{1})}{(\boldsymbol{\mu}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{1}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{1}) - (\boldsymbol{\mu}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{1})^2} \\ &= \theta^2 V_3. \end{aligned} \quad (22.90)$$

Lieblein (1962) presented tables of coefficients  $a_i$  and  $b_i$  in (22.86) and (22.87), and the variances and covariance in (22.88)–(22.90), for sample sizes up to 6. These tables were extended by White (1964) for sample sizes up to 20, by Mann (1967) for sample sizes up to 25, and by Balakrishnan and Chan (1992b, d) for sample sizes up to 30 (for the case of complete as well as censored samples).

In Table 22.7, for example, the coefficients  $a_i$  and  $b_i$  are presented for  $n = 2(1)10$  for the case of complete samples (i.e.,  $r = s = 0$ ). The corresponding values of the variance and covariance factors ( $V_1$ ,  $V_2$ , and  $V_3$ ) are presented in Table 22.8.

**Table 22.7** Coefficients for the BLUEs of  $\xi$  and  $\theta$  for complete samples

$n$	$t$	$a_i$	$b_i$	$n$	$t$	$a_i$	$b_i$
2	1	0.91637	-0.72135	8	1	0.27354	-0.39419
2	2	0.08363	0.72135	8	2	0.18943	-0.07577
3	1	0.65632	-0.63054	8	3	0.15020	0.01112
3	2	0.25571	0.25582	8	4	0.12117	0.05893
3	3	0.08797	0.37473	8	5	0.09714	0.08716
4	1	0.51100	-0.55862	8	6	0.07590	0.10273
4	2	0.26394	0.08590	8	7	0.05613	0.10807
4	3	0.15368	0.22392	8	8	0.03649	0.10194
4	4	0.07138	0.24880	9	1	0.24554	-0.36924
5	1	0.41893	-0.50313	9	2	0.17488	-0.08520
5	2	0.24628	0.00653	9	3	0.14179	-0.00649
5	3	0.16761	0.13045	9	4	0.11736	0.03798
5	4	0.10882	0.18166	9	5	0.09722	0.06557
5	5	0.05835	0.18448	9	6	0.07957	0.08265
6	1	0.35545	-0.45927	9	7	0.06340	0.09197
6	2	0.22549	-0.03599	9	8	0.04796	0.09437
6	3	0.16562	0.07320	9	9	0.03229	0.08839
6	4	0.12105	0.12672	10	1	0.22287	-0.34783
6	5	0.08352	0.14953	10	2	0.16231	-0.09116
6	6	0.04887	0.14581	10	3	0.13385	-0.01921
7	1	0.30901	-0.42370	10	4	0.11287	0.02218
7	2	0.20626	-0.06070	10	5	0.09564	0.04867
7	3	0.15859	0.03619	10	6	0.08062	0.06606
7	4	0.12322	0.08734	10	7	0.06699	0.07702
7	5	0.09375	0.11487	10	8	0.05419	0.08277
7	6	0.06733	0.12586	10	9	0.04175	0.08355
7	7	0.04184	0.12014	10	10	0.02893	0.07794

**Table 22.8** Values of  $V_1$ ,  $V_2$ , and  $V_3$  for the BLUEs of  $\xi$  and  $\theta$  for complete samples

$n$	$V_1$	$V_2$	$V_3$
2	0.65955	0.71186	-0.06432
3	0.40286	0.34471	0.02477
4	0.29346	0.22528	0.03469
5	0.23140	0.16665	0.03399
6	0.19117	0.13196	0.03137
7	0.16293	0.10910	0.02860
8	0.14198	0.09292	0.02608
9	0.12582	0.08088	0.02388
10	0.11297	0.07157	0.02198

Hassanein (1964) discussed the use of nearly best linear unbiased estimators and presented tables of coefficients of order statistics from censored samples for  $n = 2(1)10(5)25$ .

Observing that these estimators are minimum variance estimators in the class of all linear unbiased estimators, Mann (1969) considered the larger class of all linear estimators and derived improved estimators by minimizing the mean square error. Specifically, by considering the best linear unbiased estimators  $\theta^*$  and  $\eta^* = c_1\xi^* + c_2\theta^*$  of the parameters  $\delta$  and  $\eta = c_1\xi + c_2\theta$  and their respective variances  $\theta^2V_2$  and  $\theta^2V_4$  (where  $V_4 = c_1^2V_1 + c_2^2V_2 + 2c_1c_2V_3$ ) and covariance  $\theta^2V_5$  (where  $V_5 = c_1V_3 + c_2V_2$ ), Mann (1969) showed that the unique minimum-mean-square-error linear estimators of  $\theta$  and  $\eta$  are given by

$$\theta^{**} = \frac{\theta^*}{1 + V_2} \quad \text{and} \quad \eta^{**} = \eta^* - \left( \frac{V_5}{1 + V_2} \right) \theta^*. \quad (22.91)$$

The mean square errors for these estimators are

$$\theta^2 \left( \frac{V_2}{1 + V_2} \right) \quad \text{and} \quad \theta^2 \left\{ V_4 - \frac{V_5^2}{1 + V_2} \right\}, \quad (22.92)$$

respectively. These estimators are termed the best linear invariant estimators (BLIEs) by Mann (1969). They become particularly useful when either the sample size is very small or there is a great deal of censoring in the sample. Of course the best linear invariant estimator of  $\xi$  may be derived from (22.91) by setting  $c_1 = 1$  and  $c_2 = 0$ ; similarly the best linear invariant estimator of the  $p$ th quantile  $\xi_p$  may be derived from (22.91) by setting  $c_1 = 1$  and  $c_2 = -\log(-\log p)$ .

Denoting the best linear invariant estimators of  $\xi$  and  $\theta$  by

$$\xi^{**} = \sum_{i=r+1}^{n-s} a_i^* X_i' \quad \text{and} \quad \theta^{**} = \sum_{i=r+1}^{n-s} b_i^* X_i', \quad (22.93)$$

and their respective mean square errors by

$$\text{MSE}(\xi^{**}) = \theta^2 W_1 \quad \text{and} \quad \text{MSE}(\theta^{**}) = \theta^2 W_2, \quad (22.94)$$

Mann (1967a, b) and Mann, Schafer, and Singpurwalla (1974) have presented tables for various sample sizes and different levels of censoring.

In Table 22.9, for example, the coefficients  $a_i^*$  and  $b_i^*$  are presented for  $n = 2(1)10$  for the case of complete samples (i.e.,  $r = s = 0$ ). The corresponding values of the mean square error factors ( $W_1$  and  $W_2$ ) are presented in Table 22.10. A comparison of the entries in Tables 22.8 and 22.10 readily

**Table 22.9** Coefficients for the BLIEs of  $\xi$  and  $\theta$  for complete samples

$n$	$i$	$a_i^*$	$b_i^*$	$n$	$i$	$a_i^*$	$b_i^*$
2	1	0.88927	-0.42138	8	1	0.28294	-0.36068
2	2	0.11073	0.42138	8	2	0.19124	-0.06933
3	1	0.66794	-0.46890	8	3	0.14993	0.01018
3	2	0.25100	0.19024	8	4	0.11977	0.05392
3	3	0.08106	0.27867	8	5	0.09506	0.07975
4	1	0.52681	-0.45591	8	6	0.07345	0.09399
4	2	0.26151	0.07011	8	7	0.05355	0.09889
4	3	0.14734	0.18275	8	8	0.03405	0.09327
4	4	0.06434	0.20305	9	1	0.25370	-0.34161
5	1	0.43359	-0.43126	9	2	0.17676	-0.07883
5	2	0.24609	0.00560	9	3	0.14193	-0.00600
5	3	0.16381	0.11182	9	4	0.11652	0.03514
5	4	0.10353	0.15571	9	5	0.09577	0.06067
5	5	0.05298	0.15813	9	6	0.07774	0.07647
6	1	0.36818	-0.40573	9	7	0.06137	0.08508
6	2	0.22649	-0.03180	9	8	0.04587	0.08731
6	3	0.16359	0.06467	9	9	0.03034	0.08178
6	4	0.11754	0.11195	10	1	0.23000	-0.32460
6	5	0.07938	0.13210	10	2	0.16418	-0.08507
6	6	0.04483	0.12881	10	3	0.13424	-0.01793
7	1	0.31993	-0.38202	10	4	0.11241	0.02070
7	2	0.20783	-0.05472	10	5	0.09464	0.04542
7	3	0.15766	0.03263	10	6	0.07926	0.06165
7	4	0.12097	0.07875	10	7	0.06541	0.07188
7	5	0.09079	0.10357	10	8	0.05250	0.07724
7	6	0.06409	0.11348	10	9	0.04003	0.07797
7	7	0.03874	0.10832	10	10	0.02733	0.07273

**Table 22.10** Values of  $W_1$  and  $W_2$  for the BLIEs of  $\xi$  and  $\theta$  for complete samples

$n$	$W_1$	$W_2$
2	0.65713	0.41584
3	0.40241	0.25635
4	0.29248	0.18386
5	0.23040	0.14284
6	0.19030	0.11658
7	0.16219	0.09836
8	0.14136	0.08502
9	0.12530	0.07482
10	0.11252	0.06679

reveals that while there is only a slight improvement in the estimation of  $\xi$ , there is a significant gain in using the BLIE of  $\theta$  particularly when  $n$  is small. **McCool (1965)** discussed the construction of good linear unbiased estimates from the best linear estimates in the case of small sample sizes.

#### 9.4 Asymptotic Best Linear Unbiased Estimation

Johns and Lieberman (1966) tabulated approximate weights for obtaining BLIEs of the parameters  $\xi$  and  $\theta$  based on the first  $n - s$  order statistics of samples of size  $n$  for  $n = 10, 15, 20, 30, 50$ , and 100 and four values of  $s$  for each  $n$ . Johns and Lieberman (1966) also presented formulas for determining weights for the asymptotic optimal linear estimates in the case of Type-II censored samples. Of course, as mentioned earlier in Section 9.3, exact tables of weights for the BLIEs have been presented by Mann (1967a, b) for sample sizes up to 25 and  $s = O(1)n - 2$ .

Optimal linear estimation of the parameters  $\xi$  and  $\theta$  based on  $k$  selected order statistics, using the theory of Ogawa (1951, 1952), has also been discussed by a number of authors. Suppose that  $0 < A_1 < A_2 < \dots < A_k < 1$  is the spacing that needs to be determined optimally, and let  $A_0 = 0$  and  $A_{k+1} = 1$ .  $X'_{n_i:n}$  is termed the sample quantile of order  $\lambda_i$ , where  $n_i = [n\lambda_i] + 1$ . Then it can be shown that the asymptotic variances and covariance of the BLUEs,  $\tilde{\xi}^*$  and  $\tilde{\theta}^*$ , based on the  $k$  selected sample quantiles are given by

$$\text{var}(\tilde{\xi}^*) = \frac{\theta^2}{n} \cdot \frac{K_{22}}{K_{11}K_{22} - K_{12}^2}, \quad (22.95)$$

$$\text{var}(\tilde{\theta}^*) = \frac{\theta^2}{n} \cdot \frac{K_{11}}{K_{11}K_{22} - K_{12}^2}, \quad (22.96)$$

and

$$\text{cov}(\tilde{\xi}^*, \tilde{\theta}^*) = -\frac{\theta^2}{n} \cdot \frac{K_{12}}{K_{11}K_{22} - K_{12}^2} \quad (22.97)$$

In the equations above

$$K_{11} = \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} \frac{\{p_Y(G_i) - p_Y(G_{i-1})\}^2}{\lambda_i - \lambda_{i-1}}, \quad (22.98)$$

$$K_{12} = \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} \frac{\{p_Y(G_i) - p_Y(G_{i-1})\}\{G_i p_Y(G_i) - G_{i-1} p_Y(G_{i-1})\}}{\lambda_i - \lambda_{i-1}}, \quad (22.99)$$

and

$$K_{22} = \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} \frac{\{G_i p_Y(G_i) - G_{i-1} p_Y(G_{i-1})\}^2}{\lambda_i - \lambda_{i-1}}, \quad (22.100)$$

where  $G_i = F_Y^{-1}(\lambda_i)$  and

$$p_Y(G_0) = G_0 p_Y(G_0) = p_Y(G_{k+1}) = G_{k+1} p_Y(G_{k+1}) = 0.$$

Appropriate functions involving  $K_{11}$ ,  $K_{22}$ , and  $K_{12}$  need to be optimized, subject to the constraint  $0 < A_1 < \lambda_2 < \dots < \lambda_k < 1$  in order to determine the  $k$  optimal quantiles for the asymptotic best linear unbiased estimation of the parameters  $\xi$  and  $\theta$ . Numerical results for this problem have been provided by Hassanein (1965, 1968, 1969, 1972) and Chan and Kabir (1969), while optimal  $t$ -tests based on these estimators have been discussed by Chan and Mead (1971a, b), and Chan, Cheng, and Mead (1972). Similar estimation of the  $\alpha$ th quantile of the distribution, given by  $X_\alpha = \xi - \theta \log(-\log \alpha)$  for  $0 < \alpha < 1$ , based on  $k$  optimally selected order statistics has been discussed in great detail by Hassanein, Saleh, and Brown (1984, 1986) and Hassanein and Saleh (1992).

For example, the optimal spacing  $(A_1, A_2, \dots, \lambda_k)$  that maximizes  $K_{11}$  in (22.98) is presented in Table 22.11 for  $k = 1(1)10$ . These values then give the optimal sample quantiles to be used in a sample of size  $n$  for the asymptotic best linear unbiased estimator of  $\xi$  (when  $\theta$  is known) since its variance in this case is given by

$$\text{var}(\tilde{\xi}^*) = \frac{\theta^2}{nK_{11}}. \quad (22.101)$$

More elaborate tables may be found in the papers mentioned above. Tests of hypotheses concerning the equality of  $\xi_i$ 's from  $l$  extreme value populations, based on these asymptotic best linear unbiased estimators, have been discussed by Hassanein and Saleh (1992).

Table 22.11 Optimal spacing for the asymptotic best linear unbiased estimator of  $\xi$  (when  $\theta$  is known) for  $k = 1(1)10$ 

$k$	$\lambda_1$	$\lambda_2$	$\lambda_3$	$\lambda_4$	$\lambda_5$	$\lambda_6$	$\lambda_7$	$\lambda_8$	$\lambda_9$	$\lambda_{10}$
1	0.2032									
2	0.0734	0.3615								
3	0.0345	0.1701	0.4705							
4	0.0190	0.0933	0.2581	0.5486						
5	0.0115	0.0566	0.1566	0.3329	0.6069					
6	0.0075	0.0369	0.1021	0.2171	0.3958	0.6521				
7	0.0052	0.0254	0.0703	0.1494	0.2723	0.4487	0.6880			
8	0.0037	0.0182	0.0504	0.1071	0.1953	0.3218	0.4935	0.7173		
9	0.0027	0.0135	0.0374	0.0794	0.1448	0.2386	0.3659	0.5319	0.7415	
10	0.0021	0.0103	0.0285	0.0605	0.1103	0.1818	0.2788	0.4052	0.5650	0.7619

### 9.5 Linear Estimation with Polynomial Coefficients

Based on a complete ordered sample  $X'_1, X'_2, \dots, X'_n$  from the type 1 extreme value distribution (22.25), Downton (1966) considered estimators of the form

$$\xi_* = \sum_{k=0}^p (k+1)\alpha_k \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(i-1)^{(k)} X'_i}{n^{(k+1)}} \quad (22.102)$$

and

$$\theta_* = \sum_{k=0}^p (k+1)\beta_k \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(i-1)^{(k)} X'_i}{n^{(k+1)}}, \quad (22.103)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} m^{(r)} &= 1 && \text{if } r = 0 \\ &= m(m-1) \cdots (m-r+1) && \text{if } r = 1, 2, \dots \end{aligned}$$

Let us denote

$$\boldsymbol{\alpha} = (\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_p)^T,$$

$$\boldsymbol{\beta} = (\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_p)^T,$$

$$\mathbf{1} = (1, 1, \dots, 1)_{1 \times (p+1)}^T,$$

$$\boldsymbol{\mu} = (E[Y'_{1:1}], E[Y'_{2:2}], \dots, E[Y'_{p+1:p+1}])^T,$$

and

$$\Sigma = ((\Sigma_{k,l}))_{(p+1) \times (p+1)},$$

where

$$\Sigma_{k,l} = \text{cov} \left( (k+1) \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(i-1)^{(k)} Y_i'}{n^{(k+1)}}, (l+1) \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(i-1)^{(l)} Y_i'}{n^{(l+1)}} \right),$$

$$0 \leq k, l \leq p. \quad (22.104)$$

Then, by using least-squares theory, **Downton (1966)** derived the coefficients for the best linear unbiased estimators with polynomial coefficients  $\xi_*$  and  $\theta_*$  in (22.102) and (22.103) as

$$[\alpha \ \beta] = \Sigma^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{1} & \boldsymbol{\mu} \end{bmatrix} \left[ \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{1}^T \\ \boldsymbol{\mu}^T \end{bmatrix} \Sigma^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{1} \\ \boldsymbol{\mu} \end{bmatrix} \right]^{-1} \quad (22.105)$$

and the variance-covariance matrix of  $\xi_*$  and  $\theta_*$  as

$$\begin{bmatrix} \text{var}(\xi_*) & \text{cov}(\xi_*, \theta_*) \\ \text{cov}(\xi_*, \theta_*) & \text{var}(\theta_*) \end{bmatrix} = \theta^2 \left[ \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{1}^T \\ \boldsymbol{\mu}^T \end{bmatrix} \Sigma^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{1} \\ \boldsymbol{\mu} \end{bmatrix} \right]^{-1}; \quad (22.106)$$

for details, see Balakrishnan and Cohen (1991, pp. 109–113).

**Downton (1966)** examined the efficiency of these estimators, and compared their performance with many other estimators. For example, the efficiencies of the linear coefficients estimator and the quadratic coefficients estimator for  $\xi$  and 8 are presented in Tables 22.12 and 22.13 (which may be compared with the entries in Tables 22.5 and 22.6).

Furthermore, as with other methods of estimation, the linear estimators  $\xi_*$  and  $\theta_*$  may be used to estimate the parameter  $c_1\xi + c_2\theta$  by  $c_1\xi_* + c_2\theta_*$ , which may be shown to be the best linear unbiased estimator with **polynomial** coefficients of the parameter of interest. Of special interest in this case is the  $p$ th percentile or quantile of type 1 extreme value distribution in (22.25), and it is given by Eq. (22.34). Naturally then, the best linear unbiased estimator

**Table 22.12** Efficiencies of linear unbiased estimators of  $\xi$  with linear coefficients and quadratic coefficients (%)

	$n$	2	3	4	5	6	$\infty$
Linear coefficient		84.05	91.18	93.83	95.21	96.07	99.63
Quadratic coefficient		84.05	91.73	94.42	95.79	96.60	99.87



**Table 22.13 Efficiencies of linear unbiased estimators of  $\theta$  with linear coefficients and quadratic coefficients (%)**

	$n$	2	3	4	5	6	$\infty$
Linear coefficient	42.70	54.56	60.13	63.37	65.48	75.55	
Quadratic coefficient	42.70	58.78	67.14	72.26	75.71	93.64	

with polynomial coefficients of the  $p$ th percentile of the distribution is given by

$$\xi_{p*} = \xi_* - \theta_* \log(-\log p), \quad 0 < p < 1. \quad (22.107)$$

The relative efficiencies of the estimator (22.107) to the **Cramér-Rao** lower bound were determined by **Downton (1966)**.

## 9.6 Maximum Likelihood Estimation

Based on a random sample  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$ , the maximum likelihood estimators  $\hat{\xi}$  and  $\hat{\theta}$  satisfy the equations

$$\sum_{i=1}^n e^{-(X_i - \hat{\xi})/\hat{\theta}} = n \quad (22.108)$$

and

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \hat{\xi}) \{1 - e^{-(X_i - \hat{\xi})/\hat{\theta}}\} = n\hat{\theta}. \quad (22.109)$$

The asymptotic variances of  $\hat{\xi}$  and  $\hat{\theta}$  are given by the **Cramér-Rao** lower bounds in (22.65). The asymptotic correlation coefficient between  $\hat{\xi}$  and  $\hat{\theta}$  is

$$\left\{ 1 + \frac{\pi^2}{6(1-\gamma)^2} \right\}^{-1/2} \approx 0.313 \quad (22.110)$$

Equation (22.108) can be rewritten as

$$\hat{\xi} = -\hat{\theta} \log \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n e^{-X_i/\hat{\theta}} \right); \quad (22.111)$$

this, when used in Eq. (22.109), yields the following equation for  $\hat{\theta}$ :

$$\hat{\theta} = \bar{X} - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i e^{-X_i/\hat{\theta}}}{\sum_{i=1}^n e^{-X_i/\hat{\theta}}}. \quad (22.112)$$

It is necessary to solve (22.112) by an iterative method for  $\hat{\theta}$ ; Eq. (22.111) then will give  $\hat{\xi}$ . If  $\hat{\theta}$  is large compared to  $X_i$ 's, then the rhs of (22.112) is approximately

$$\bar{X} \left\{ 1 - \frac{n-1}{n} \cdot \frac{S^2}{\hat{\theta} \bar{X}} \right\} \quad (22.113)$$

This will provide an approximate solution to (22.112) which can sometimes be used as an initial guess for the iterative method used to solve Eq. (22.112).

The asymptotic confidence interval at significance level  $\alpha$  is given by

$$\begin{aligned} & \left( \frac{\hat{\xi} - \xi}{\theta} \right)^2 - 2(1 - \gamma) \left( \frac{\hat{\xi} - \xi}{\theta} \right) \left( \frac{\hat{\theta} - \theta}{\theta} \right) + \left\{ \frac{\pi^2}{6} + (1 - \gamma)^2 \right\} \left( \frac{\hat{\theta} - \theta}{\theta} \right)^2 \\ & \leq -\frac{2}{n} \log \alpha; \end{aligned}$$

that is,

$$\left( \frac{\hat{\xi} - \xi}{\theta} \right)^2 - 0.84556 \left( \frac{\hat{\xi} - \xi}{\theta} \right) \left( \frac{\hat{\theta} - \theta}{\theta} \right) + 1.82367 \left( \frac{\hat{\theta} - \theta}{\theta} \right)^2 \leq -\frac{2}{n} \log \alpha.$$

These are ellipses in the  $(\xi, \theta)$  plane. For the estimator

$$\hat{\xi}_p = \hat{\xi} - \log(-\log p) \hat{\theta}$$

of the  $p$ th percentile of the distribution, the asymptotic variance is given by

$$\frac{\theta^2}{n} \left[ 1 + \frac{6}{\pi^2} \{1 - \gamma - \log(-\log p)\}^2 \right].$$

**Tiago de Oliveira** (1972) has shown that the best asymptotic point predictor of the maximum of (the next)  $m$  observations is

$$\hat{\xi} + (\gamma + \log m) \hat{\theta}$$

and its asymptotic variance is

$$\frac{\theta^2}{n} \left[ 1 + \frac{6}{\pi^2} \{1 + \log m\}^2 \right]$$

If the scale parameter  $\theta$  is known, then the maximum likelihood estimator of  $\xi$  is obtained from (22.108) to be

$$\hat{\xi}_{|\theta} = -\theta \log \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n e^{-X_i/\theta} \right\} \quad (22.114)$$

This estimator is not unbiased for  $\xi$ . Kimball (1956) has in fact shown that (when  $\theta$  is known)

$$E[\hat{\xi}_{|\theta}] = \xi + \theta \left\{ \gamma + \log n - 1 - \frac{1}{2} - \cdots - \frac{1}{n-1} \right\} \quad (22.115)$$

and

$$\text{var}(\hat{\xi}_{|\theta}) = \theta^2 \left\{ \frac{\pi^2}{6} - 1^2 - \frac{1}{2^2} - \cdots - \frac{1}{(n-1)^2} \right\}. \quad (22.116)$$

While  $\hat{\xi}_{|\theta}$  is a biased estimator of  $\xi$ ,  $e^{-\hat{\xi}_{|\theta}/\theta}$  is an unbiased estimator of  $e^{-\xi/\theta}$ . This is so because  $e^{-X/\theta}$  has an exponential distribution with expected value  $e^{-\xi/\theta}$ . Consequently confidence intervals for this quantity and also for  $\xi$  (when  $\theta$  is known) can be constructed using methods discussed in Chapter 19, Section 7.

Suppose that the available sample is a doubly **Type-II** censored sample  $X'_{r+1}, X'_{r+2}, \dots, X'_{n-s}$ . Then the log-likelihood function based on this censored sample is

$$\begin{aligned} \log L = & \log n! - \log r! - \log s! - \sum_{i=r+1}^{n-s} Y'_i - \sum_{i=r+1}^{n-s} e^{-Y'_i} \\ & - (n-r-s) \log \theta + r \log F_Y(Y'_{r+1}) + s \log \{1 - F_Y(Y'_{n-s})\}, \end{aligned} \quad (22.117)$$

where  $Y'_i = (X'_i - \xi)/\theta$  are the order statistics from the standard type 1 extreme value distribution with density (22.26) and  $F_Y(y)$  its corresponding cdf. From (22.117) we obtain the likelihood equations for  $\xi$  and  $\theta$  to be

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \log L}{\partial \xi} = & \frac{1}{\theta} \left[ (n-r-s) - \sum_{i=r+1}^{n-s} e^{-Y'_i} - r \frac{p_Y(Y'_{r+1})}{F_Y(Y'_{r+1})} + s \frac{p_Y(Y'_{n-s})}{1 - F_Y(Y'_{n-s})} \right] \\ = & 0 \end{aligned} \quad (22.118)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \log L}{\partial \theta} = & \frac{1}{\theta} \left[ \sum_{i=r+1}^{n-s} Y'_i - \sum_{i=r+1}^{n-s} Y'_i e^{-Y'_i} - (n-r-s) \right. \\ & \left. - r Y'_{r+1} \frac{p_Y(Y'_{r+1})}{F_Y(Y'_{r+1})} + s Y'_{n-s} \frac{p_Y(Y'_{n-s})}{1 - F_Y(Y'_{n-s})} \right] \\ = & 0. \end{aligned} \quad (22.119)$$

Harter and Moore (1968a) and Harter (1970) have discussed the numerical solution of the above likelihood equations. The maximum likelihood estimation of  $\xi$ , when  $\theta$  is known, based on right-censored data had been discussed earlier by Harter and Moore (1967). The asymptotic variance-covariance matrix of the maximum likelihood estimates,  $\hat{\xi}$  and  $\hat{\theta}$ , determined from Eqs. (22.118) and (22.119) is given by [Harter (1970, pp. 127-128)]

$$\frac{\theta^2}{n} \begin{bmatrix} V_{11} & V_{12} \\ V_{12} & V_{22} \end{bmatrix}, \quad (22.120)$$

where  $((V_{ij}))$  is the inverse of the matrix  $((V^{ij}))$  with

$$\begin{aligned} V^{11} &= 1 - q_1 - q_2 + q_1 \log q_1 - (1 - q_2) \log(1 - q_2), \\ V^{22} &= -(1 - q_1 - q_2) - 2\{\Gamma'(1; -\log q_1) - \Gamma'(1; -\log(1 - q_2))\} \\ &\quad - \Gamma''(2; -\log q_1) - \Gamma''(2; -\log(1 - q_2)) + 2\{\Gamma'(2; -\log q_1) \\ &\quad - \Gamma'(2; -\log(1 - q_2))\} - q_1 \log q_1 \log(-\log q_1) \\ &\quad \times \{2 + \log(-\log q_1)\} + (1 - q_2) \log(1 - q_2) \log\{-\log(1 - q_2)\} \\ &\quad \times \left[ 2 + \log\{-\log(1 - q_2)\} + \log(1 - q_2) \frac{\log\{-\log(1 - q_2)\}}{q_2} \right], \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} V^{12} &= V^{21} \\ &= -\Gamma'(2; -\log q_1) + \Gamma'(2; -\log(1 - q_2)) + q_1 \log(q_1) \log(-\log q_1) \\ &\quad - (1 - q_2) \log(1 - q_2) \log\{-\log(1 - q_2)\} \\ &\quad - \left( \frac{1}{q_2} - 1 \right) \log^2(1 - q_2) \log\{-\log(1 - q_2)\}. \end{aligned}$$

In the equations above  $q_1 = r/n$ ,  $q_2 = s/n$ ,  $\Gamma(p; a) = \int_0^a e^{-t} t^{p-1} dt$ ,  $\Gamma'(p; a) = (d/du)\Gamma(u; a)|_{u=p}$ , and  $\Gamma''(p; a) = (d^2/du^2)\Gamma(u; a)|_{u=p}$ . Harter (1970), for example, has tabulated the values of  $V_{11}$ ,  $V_{12}$ , and  $V_{22}$  for  $q_1 = 0.0(0.1)0.9$  and  $q_2 = 0.0(0.1)(0.9 - q_1)$ .

Phien (1991) has discussed further the maximum likelihood estimation of the parameters  $\xi$  and  $\theta$  based on censored samples. Escobar and Meeker (1986) have discussed the determination of the elements of the Fisher information matrix  $(V^{ij})$ 's based on censored data. Phien carried out an

extensive simulation study and observed the following concerning the effects of Type-I censoring on the estimation of parameters and quantiles of the Gumbel distribution using the maximum likelihood method: (1) light censoring on the right may be useful in reducing the bias in estimating the parameters, while left and double censoring are useful for a wider range of censoring levels; (2) the bias in estimating the parameters and quantiles is very small; (3) for complete samples the MLE of  $\xi$  overestimates  $\xi$ , while the MLE of  $\theta$  underestimates  $\theta$  slightly; and (4) censoring introduces an increase in the variances of the estimates.

**Phien (1991)** has also discussed the maximum likelihood estimation of the parameters based on doubly Type-I censored data. Specifically, for the distribution

$$F_X(x) = e^{-e^{-(x-\xi)/\theta}}$$

with  $X_l$  and  $X_r$  as the left- and right-censoring time points and with  $r$  lowest and  $s$  largest observations censored, the likelihood function is proportional to

$$\{F_X(X_l)\}^r \prod_{i=r+1}^{n-s} p_X(X_i) \{1 - F_X(X_r)\}^s.$$

Note in this case that  $r$  and  $s$  are random variables while  $X_l$  and  $X_r$  are fixed. The log-likelihood function is

$$\log L = \text{const.} - (n - r - s) \log \theta - \sum_{i=r+1}^{n-s} \{Y_i + e^{-Y_i}\} - rd + s \log q,$$

where

$$d = e^{-Y_l},$$

$$q = 1 - e^{-e^{-Y_r}},$$

$$Y_l = \frac{X_l - \xi}{\theta},$$

$$Y_r = \frac{X_r - \xi}{\theta},$$

$$Y_i = \frac{X_i - \xi}{\theta}.$$

The maximum likelihood estimators of  $\xi$  and  $\theta$  satisfy the equations

$$\frac{\partial \log L}{\partial \theta} = -\frac{G}{\theta} = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial \log L}{\partial \xi} = -\frac{H}{\theta} = 0,$$

where

$$G = P + P_l + P_r \quad \text{and} \quad H = Q + Q_l + Q_r,$$

with

$$P = n - r - s - \sum_{i=r+1}^{n-s} Y_i + \sum_{i=r+1}^{n-s} Y_i e^{-Y_i}, \quad Q = -(n - r - s) + \sum_{i=r+1}^{n-s} e^{-Y_i},$$

$$P_l = r d Y_l,$$

$$Q_l = r d,$$

$$P_r = \frac{s e^{Y_r} (1 - q) Y_r}{q},$$

$$Q_r = \frac{s e^{-Y_r} (1 - q)}{q}$$

**Phien** (1991) recommended solving these equations using Newton's procedure.

**Posner** (1965), when applying the extreme value theory to error-free communication, estimated the parameters  $\xi$  and  $\theta$  for the complete sample case by the maximum likelihood theory and justified it on the basis of its asymptotic properties. By pointing out that the asymptotic theory need not be valid for Posner's sample size ( $n = 30$ ), **Gumbel and Mustafi** (1966) showed that in fact a modified method of moments gives better results for Posner's data.

An alternative approach was taken by **Balakrishnan and Varadan** (1991), who approximated the likelihood equations by using appropriate linear functions and derived approximate maximum likelihood estimators of  $\xi$  and  $\theta$ . They derived these estimators for the type 1 extreme value distribution for the minimum and we present their estimators in the same form for convenience. [The estimators for the type 1 extreme value distribution for the maximum in (22.25) can be obtained simply by interchanging  $r$  and  $s$  and replacing  $\xi$  by  $-\xi$  and  $X'_i$  by  $-X'_{n-i+1}$ .] The likelihood equations for  $\xi$  and  $\theta$  in this case are

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \log L}{\partial \xi} &= -\frac{1}{\theta} \left[ r \frac{p_Y(Y'_{r+1})}{F_Y(Y'_{r+1})} - s \frac{p_Y(Y'_{n-s})}{1 - F_Y(Y'_{n-s})} + \sum_{i=r+1}^{n-s} \frac{p'_Y(Y'_i)}{p_Y(Y'_i)} \right] \\ &= 0 \end{aligned} \quad (22.121)$$

and

$$\frac{\partial \log L}{\partial \theta} = -\frac{1}{\theta} \left[ n - r - s + rY'_{r+1} \frac{p_Y(Y'_{r+1})}{F_Y(Y'_{r+1})} - sY'_{n-s} \frac{p_Y(Y'_{n-s})}{1 - F_Y(Y'_{n-s})} + \sum_{i=r+1}^{n-s} Y'_i \frac{p'_Y(Y'_i)}{p_Y(Y'_i)} \right] = 0, \quad (22.122)$$

where  $Y'_i = (X'_i - \xi)/\theta$ ,  $p_Y(y) = e^y e^{-e^y}$ , and  $F_Y(y) = 1 - e^{-e^y}$ . Upon expanding the three functions in (22.121) and (22.122) in a Taylor series around the point  $F^{-1}(p_i) = \log(-\log q_i)$  (with  $p_i = 1 - q_i = i/(n+1)$ ), we get the approximate expressions

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{p_Y(Y'_{r+1})}{F_Y(Y'_{r+1})} &= \gamma - \delta Y'_{r+1}, & \frac{p'_Y(Y'_i)}{p_Y(Y'_i)} &\approx \alpha_i - \beta_i Y'_i, \\ \frac{p_Y(Y'_{n-s})}{1 - F_Y(Y'_{n-s})} &\approx 1 - \alpha_{n-s} + \beta_{n-s} Y'_{n-s} \end{aligned} \quad (22.123)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma &= -\frac{q_{r+1}}{p_{r+1}} \log q_{r+1} \{1 - \log(-\log q_{r+1})\} \\ &\quad + \frac{q_{r+1}}{p_{r+1}^2} (\log q_{r+1})^2 \log(-\log q_{r+1}), \\ \delta &= \frac{q_{r+1}}{p_{r+1}} \log q_{r+1} \left\{ 1 + \frac{1}{p_{r+1}} \log q_{r+1} \right\}, \\ \alpha_i &= 1 + \log q_i \{1 - \log(-\log q_i)\}, \\ \beta_i &= -\log q_i. \end{aligned}$$

By making use of the above approximate expressions in (22.121) and (22.122) and solving the resulting equations, Balakrishnan and Varadan (1991) derived the approximate maximum likelihood estimators of  $\xi$  and  $\theta$  to be

$$\hat{\xi} = A - \frac{1}{\hat{\theta}} B \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{\theta} = \frac{-C + \sqrt{C^2 + 4AD}}{2(n - r - s)}, \quad (22.124)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}
 A &= \frac{r \delta X'_{r+1} + s \beta_{n-s} X'_{n-s} + \sum_{i=r+1}^{n-s} \beta_i X'_i}{m}, \\
 B &= \frac{r \gamma - s(1 - \alpha_{n-s}) + \sum_{i=r+1}^{n-s} \alpha_i}{m}, \\
 C &= r \gamma X'_{r+1} - s(1 - \alpha_{n-s}) X'_{n-s} + \sum_{i=r+1}^{n-s} \alpha_i X'_i - mAB, \\
 D &= r \delta X'^2_{r+1} + s \beta_{n-s} X'^2_{n-s} + \sum_{i=r+1}^{n-s} \beta_i X'^2_i - mA^2, \\
 m &= r \delta + s \beta_{n-s} + \sum_{i=r+1}^{n-s} \beta_i.
 \end{aligned}$$

Through a simulation study Balakrishnan and Varadan (1991) have displayed that the above estimators are as efficient as the maximum likelihood estimators, best linear unbiased estimators, and best linear invariant estimators even for samples of size as small as 10. For example, values of bias and mean square error for various estimators of  $\xi$  and  $\theta$  are presented in Table 22.14 for  $n = 10$  and  $20$ ,  $r = 0$ , and some choices of  $s$ . Estimators of this form have been seen earlier in Chapters 13 and 14.

Estimators of this form based on multiply **Type-II** censored samples have been discussed by Balakrishnan, Gupta, and Panchapakesan (1992) and Fei, Kong, and Tang (1994).

**Table 22.14 Comparison of bias and mean square error of various estimators of  $\xi$  and  $\theta$  for  $n = 10$  and  $20$  and right censoring ( $r = 0$ )**

$s =$	$n = 10$				$n = 20$				
	0	1	2	3	0	1	2	3	4
Bias( $\hat{\xi}$ )/ $\theta$	-0.085	-0.089	-0.103	-0.125	-0.042	-0.042	-0.043	-0.046	-0.049
MSE( $\hat{\xi}$ )/ $\theta^2$	0.123	0.129	0.143	0.171	0.058	0.059	0.061	0.063	0.066
Bias( $\hat{\xi}^*$ )/ $\theta$	-0.04	-0.05	-0.08	-0.11	-0.02	—	-0.02	—	-0.04
MSE( $\hat{\xi}^*$ )/ $\theta^2$	0.114	0.122	0.137	0.166	0.056	—	0.060	—	0.066
var( $\xi^*$ )/ $\theta^2$	0.113	0.120	0.134	0.162	0.056	—	0.059	—	0.065
MSE( $\xi^{**}$ )/ $\theta^2$	0.113	0.120	0.134	0.161	0.056	—	0.059	—	0.065
Bias( $\hat{\theta}$ )/ $\theta$	-0.066	-0.073	-0.085	-0.100	-0.033	-0.033	-0.035	-0.038	-0.041
MSE( $\hat{\theta}$ )/ $\theta^2$	0.067	0.082	0.098	0.116	0.032	0.036	0.040	0.044	0.048
Bias( $\hat{\theta}^*$ )/ $\theta$	-0.07	-0.08	-0.10	-0.12	-0.04	—	-0.04	—	-0.05
MSE( $\hat{\theta}^*$ )/ $\theta^2$	0.063	0.077	0.094	0.113	0.033	—	0.042	—	0.050
var( $\theta^*$ )/ $\theta^2$	0.072	0.088	0.107	0.132	0.033	—	0.041	—	0.050
MSE( $\theta^{**}$ )/ $\theta^2$	0.067	0.081	0.097	0.117	0.032	—	0.039	—	0.047

Note: ( $\xi^*$ ,  $\theta^*$ ) are the best linear unbiased estimators, ( $\xi^{**}$ ,  $\theta^{**}$ ) are the best linear invariant estimators, ( $\hat{\xi}$ ,  $\hat{\theta}$ ) are the maximum likelihood estimators, ( $\hat{\xi}^*$ ,  $\hat{\theta}^*$ ) are the approximate maximum likelihood estimators.



### 9.7 Conditional Method

The conditional method of inference for location and scale parameters, first suggested by Fisher (1934) and discussed in detail by Lawless (1982), has been used effectively for the type I extreme value distribution by Lawless (1973,1978) and Viveros and Balakrishnan (1994). These developments are described for the type I extreme value distribution for minimum with cumulative distribution function  $1 - e^{-e^{(x-\xi)/\theta}}$

Suppose that  $X'_1 \leq X'_2 \leq \dots \leq X'_{n-s}$  is the available Type-II right-censored sample. Then the joint density function of  $X = (X'_1, X'_2, \dots, X'_{n-s})$  is

$$p_X(x; \xi, \theta) = \frac{n!}{s! \theta^{n-s}} \prod_{i=1}^{n-s} p_Y\left(\frac{x'_i - \xi}{\theta}\right) \left\{1 - F_Y\left(\frac{x'_i - \xi}{\theta}\right)\right\}^s, \quad (22.125)$$

where  $F_Y(\cdot)$  and  $p_Y(\cdot)$  are the cdf and pdf of the standard form of the type I extreme value distribution for minimum given by

$$F_Y(y) = 1 - e^{-e^y} \quad \text{and} \quad p_Y(y) = e^y e^{-e^y}. \quad (22.126)$$

Then the joint density in (22.125) preserves the location-scale structure that may be seen easily by noting from (22.125) that the standardized variables,  $(X'_1 - \xi)/\theta, \dots, (X'_{n-s} - \xi)/\theta$ , have a joint distribution functionally independent of  $\xi$  and  $\theta$ . Suppose that  $\hat{\xi}$  and  $\hat{\theta}$  are the maximum likelihood estimates of  $\xi$  and  $\theta$  (or some equivariant estimators like BLUEs or BLIEs) which jointly maximize the likelihood of  $(\xi, \theta)$  that is proportional to (22.125). Then,  $Z_1 = (\hat{\xi} - \xi)/\hat{\theta}$  and  $Z_2 = \hat{\theta}/\theta$  are pivotal quantities in the sense that their joint density involves neither  $\xi$  nor  $\theta$ . With  $A_i = (X'_i - \hat{\xi})/\hat{\theta}$  ( $i = 1, 2, \dots, n-s$ ),  $A = (A_1, A_2, \dots, A_{n-s})$  forms an ancillary statistic, and inferences for  $\xi$  and  $\theta$  may be based on the joint distribution of  $Z_1$  and  $Z_2$  conditional on the observed value  $a$  of  $A$ .

Noting that  $(x'_i - \hat{\xi})/\hat{\theta} = a_i z_2 + z_1 z_2$ , the joint density of  $Z_1$  and  $Z_2$ , conditionally on the observed value  $a$ , can be obtained from (22.125) as

$$\begin{aligned} p(z_1, z_2 | a) &= C(a) z_2^{n-s-1} \prod_{i=1}^{n-s} p_Y(a_i z_2 + z_1 z_2) \{1 - F_Y(a_i z_2 + z_1 z_2)\}^s \\ &= C(a) z_2^{n-s-1} e^{(n-s)z_1 z_2 + s_a z_2} \\ &\quad \times e^{-\sum_{i=1}^{n-s} e^{a_i z_2 + z_1 z_2} - s e^{a_{n-s} z_2 + z_1 z_2}}, \\ &\quad -\infty < z_1 < \infty, 0 \leq z_2 < \infty, \quad (22.127) \end{aligned}$$

where  $C(a)$  is the normalizing constant, and  $s_a = \sum_{i=1}^{n-s} a_i$ . Using (22.127), Lawless (1973,1978) used algebraic manipulations and numerical integration techniques to determine the marginal conditional densities  $p(z_1 | a)$  and  $p(z_2 | a)$  that can be utilized to make individual inferences on the parameters  $\xi$  and  $\theta$ .

Conditional inferences for other parameters such as the  $p$ th quantile ( $X_p$ ) of the distribution can also be developed from Eq. (22.127). For example, with the maximum likelihood estimates of  $X_p$ , being  $\hat{X}_p = \hat{\xi} + \hat{\theta}F_Y^{-1}(p)$ , one can use the pivotal quantity  $Z_3 = (X_p - \hat{\xi})/\hat{\theta} = F_Y^{-1}(p)/Z_2 - Z_1$  to develop inference for  $X_p$ . Upon transformation, one may obtain the joint conditional density function of  $Z_2$  and  $Z_3$  from (22.127) from which the marginal conditional density function of  $Z_3$  may be obtained by integration which then will enable one to make inference regarding the  $p$ th quantile  $X_p$ . Lawless (1973,1978) has noted that tolerance limits, confidence limits for reliability, and prediction intervals can all be similarly handled using the conditional method.

Viveros and Balakrishnan (1994) have developed a similar conditional method of inference based on a **Type-II** progressively censored data under which scheme one or more surviving items may be removed from the life-test (or, progressively censored) at the time of each failure occurring prior to the termination of the experiment. The familiar complete sample case or the **Type-II** right-censored sample case (discussed earlier) are special cases of this general scheme.

## 9.8 Method of Probability-Weighted Moments

Landwehr, Matalas, and Wallis (1979) proposed a simple method of estimation of the parameters  $\xi$  and  $\theta$  based on the probability-weighted moments

$$M_{(k)} = E[X\{1 - F(X)\}^k], \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

An unbiased estimator of  $M_{(k)}$  is given by

$$\hat{M}_{(k)} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i' \frac{\binom{n-i}{k}}{\binom{n-1}{k}}, \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Then, by making use of the explicit expressions of  $M_{(0)}$  and  $M_{(1)}$  and equating them to the sample estimators  $\hat{M}_{(0)}$  and  $\hat{M}_{(1)}$  and solving for the parameters  $\xi$  and  $\theta$ , Landwehr, Matalas, and Wallis (1979) derived the probability-weighted moments estimators to be

$$\hat{\theta} = \frac{M_{(0)} - 2\hat{M}_{(1)}}{\log 2} \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{\xi} = \hat{M}_{(0)} - \gamma\hat{\theta}.$$

They then compared the performance of these estimators with the moment estimators (Section 9.1) and the maximum likelihood estimators (Section 9.6), in terms of bias and mean square error. Their extensive simulation study indicated that this method of estimation is simple and also highly efficient (in

**Table 22.15** Bias, mean square error, and relative efficiency of the moment estimators, PWM estimators, and ML estimators of  $\theta$  and  $\xi$  based on a complete sample of size  $n$

Method	n	$\theta$			$\xi$		
		Bias	MSE	Relative Efficiency	Bias	MSE	Relative Efficiency
M	5	0.18	0.37	0.83	-0.10	0.49	0.97
PWM		0.15	0.34	1	-0.08	0.49	1
ML		0.00	0.44	0.74	0.01	0.48	1.05
M	9	0.11	0.30	0.74	-0.06	0.36	0.96
PWM		0.09	0.26	1	-0.04	0.36	1
ML		0.00	0.21	0.76	0.00	0.36	1.03
M	19	0.05	0.22	0.66	-0.03	0.25	0.97
PWM		0.04	0.18	1	-0.02	0.24	1
ML		0.00	0.21	0.76	0.00	0.24	1.02
M	29	0.04	0.18	0.63	-0.02	0.20	0.96
PWM		0.03	0.15	1	-0.01	0.20	1
ML		0.00	0.17	0.77	0.00	0.20	1.00
M	49	0.02	0.14	0.60	-0.01	0.15	0.96
PWM		0.02	0.11	1	0.00	0.15	1
ML		0.00	0.13	0.77	0.00	0.15	1.00
M	99	0.01	0.10	0.57	-0.01	0.11	0.96
PWM		0.01	0.08	1	0.00	0.11	1
ML		0.00	0.09	0.76	0.00	0.11	1.00

terms of efficiency relative to the maximum likelihood estimates). Values of bias, mean square error, and relative efficiency, taken from Landwehr, Matalas, and Wallis (1979), are presented in Table 22.15 for some selected values of  $n$ .

These authors also compared (through simulations) the performance of the three methods of estimation of  $p$ th quantile (at  $p = 0.001, 0.01, 0.02, 0.05, 0.10, 0.25, 0.50, 0.75, 0.90, 0.95, 0.98, 0.99, 0.999$ ) based on samples of sizes  $n = 5, 9, 19, 29, 49, 99, 999$ .

### 9.9 "Block-Type" Estimation

Weissman (1978), Huesler and Schuepbach (1986), and Huesler and Tiago de Oliveira (1988), among others, studied the following "block-type" estimation procedure. Suppose that the given observations are  $X_{ij}$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$  and  $j = 1, 2, \dots, k$  ( $k$  may be viewed as the number of years or blocks and  $n$  is the number of observations made per year or block). Let  $Y_j = \max\{X_{ij}, i \leq n\}$ . Assume that  $X_{ij}$ 's are such that for sufficiently large  $n$ ,  $Y_j$ 's have approximately the Gumbel distribution

$$\Pr[Y_j \leq y] = e^{-e^{-(y-\xi_n)/\theta}}$$

For the case when  $\theta$  is known (e.g.,  $\theta = 1$ , without loss of any generality), that is, when  $X_{ij}$ 's are i.i.d. with

$$\Pr[X_{ij} \leq x] = e^{-e^{-x+\xi}}$$

and

$$\Pr[Y_j \leq y] = e^{-e^{-y+\xi+\log n}}$$

where  $\xi_n = \xi + \log n$ . Huesler and Tiago de Oliveira (1988) estimate  $\xi$  from  $Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_k$  by using the MLE:

$$\hat{\xi}_A = \hat{\xi}_n - \log n = -\log\left\{\frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k e^{-Y_i}\right\} - \log n$$

with

$$E[\hat{\xi}_A] = \xi + \frac{1}{2k} + \frac{1}{12k^2} + O(k^{-4})$$

and

$$\text{MSE}(\hat{\xi}_A) = \frac{1}{k} + \frac{3}{4k^2} + \frac{1}{4k^3} + O(k^{-4}).$$

Further the distribution of  $\sqrt{k}(\hat{\xi}_A - \xi)$  tends to the standard normal as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ .

Weissman (1978) proposes estimation based on the  $k$  largest observations of all  $N = nk$  values of  $X_{ij}$ . Let them be denoted by

$$Z_{1:N} \geq Z_{2:N} \geq \dots \geq Z_{k:N}.$$

Then Weissman's estimator of  $\xi$  is

$$\hat{\xi}_B = -\log\left[\frac{1}{k} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^k e^{-Z_{i:N}} + (N-k) e^{-Z_{k:N}} \right\}\right]$$

which is just the MLE for the extreme value parameter  $\xi$  based on a censored sample. Yet another estimator suggested by Weissman (1978) is

$$\hat{\xi}_C = Z_{k:N} - \log n$$

based on asymptotic properties (as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ). Huesler and Tiago de Oliveira (1988) have noted that all three estimators have the same asymptotic distribution (as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ) and also that  $n(\hat{\xi}_B - \hat{\xi}_C) = O_p(1)$ .

In the two-parameter case we have correspondingly

$$\hat{\xi}_A = \hat{\xi}_n - \hat{\theta} \log n \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{\theta}_A = \hat{\theta},$$

where  $\hat{\xi}_n$  and  $\hat{\theta}$  are the MLEs of  $\xi_n$  and  $\theta$ . Here

$$\Pr\{X_{ij} \leq x\} = e^{-e^{-(x-\xi)/\theta}}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr\{Y_j \leq y\} &= e^{-e^{-(y-\xi-\theta \log n)/\theta}} \\ &= e^{-e^{-(y-\xi_n)/\theta}}\end{aligned}$$

with  $\xi_n = \xi + \theta \log n$ . The correlation between  $\hat{\xi}_A$  and  $\hat{\theta}_A$  approaches  $-1$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

Estimation based on the  $k$  largest values  $Z_{1:n} \geq \dots \geq Z_{k:N}$ , for fixed  $n$  and  $k$ , corresponds to the maximum likelihood estimators  $\hat{\xi}_B$  and  $\hat{\theta}_B$  based on a left-censored sample, Asymptotically

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\theta}_B &= \bar{Z}_k - Z_{k:N} + O_p\left(\frac{\log n}{n}\right), \\ \hat{\xi}_B &= Z_{k:N} - \hat{\theta}_B \log n + O_p\left(\frac{1}{n}\right),\end{aligned}$$

where  $\bar{Z}_k = (1/k)\sum_{i=1}^k Z_{i:n}$ . The correlation between  $\hat{\xi}_B$  and  $\hat{\theta}_B$  also converges slowly to  $-1$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

Huesler and Tiago de Oliveira (1988) have shown that the Cramér-Rao efficiency of  $(\hat{\xi}_B, \hat{\theta}_B)$  with respect to  $(\hat{\xi}_A, \hat{\theta}_A)$  defined by

$$\text{eff}(B, A) \equiv \frac{\det(\Sigma_A)}{\det(\Sigma_B)},$$

where  $\Sigma_A$  and  $\Sigma_B$  are the asymptotic variance-covariance matrices of  $(\hat{\xi}_A, \hat{\theta}_A)$  and  $(\hat{\xi}_B, \hat{\theta}_B)$ , respectively, is given by

$$\text{eff}(B, A) \rightarrow \frac{6}{\pi^2} = 0.6079 \quad \text{as } k \rightarrow \infty.$$

More delicate comparisons have revealed that method A is not always more efficient than method B. Huesler and Tiago de Oliveira (1988) have presented a data set for which method B has higher efficiency. These authors have concluded that for the estimation of the  $p$ th quantile of the annual maximum, method A is better than method B for  $p \geq 0.9$  and that method A is definitely superior when  $k \geq 15$ .

## 9.10 A Survey of Other Developments

The details on various methods of inference presented in the last nine subsections are by no means complete. Numerous other papers have ap-

peared dealing with different aspects of inference relating to the extreme value distribution such as proposing new and simplified methods, making finer improvements over the existing methods, dealing with numerical algorithms for the estimation, discussing accelerated life-tests and extreme value regression, and so on. These results are equally important, and they are listed and described briefly below.

Engelhardt (1975) and Engelhardt and Bain (1977) have provided further discussions on the simplified estimators of the parameters and associated inferential procedures. Singh (1975) has discussed admissibility of some estimators. Meeker and Nelson (1975) have proposed and examined optimum accelerated life-tests; see also Nelson and Meeker (1978). Lawless and Mann (1976) considered tests for the homogeneity of scale parameters ( $\theta_i$ 's) in  $k$  samples from extreme value populations. While Smith (1977) discussed the interval estimation of parameters, Durrant (1978) constructed a nomogram for confidence limits on quantiles of the normal distribution and discussed its usefulness for the extreme value distribution. A preliminary test of significance was considered by Tsujitani, Ohta, and Kase (1979). Ashour and El-Adl (1980) examined the Bayesian estimation of the parameters.

Cheng and Iles (1983,1988) discussed confidence bands for the cumulative distribution functions. Schuepbach and Huesler (1983) proposed some simple estimators for the parameters  $\xi$  and  $\delta$  based on censored samples. Bootstrap confidence intervals for the parameters when the available sample is progressively censored have been discussed by Robinson (1983). Some graphical methods of estimating the parameters were put forward by Stone and Rosen (1984). Keating (1984) has commented on the estimation of percentiles and the reliability function. In an interesting article Smith and Weissman (1985) discussed the maximum likelihood estimation of the lower tail of the distribution. A comparison of confidence intervals derived by different methods was carried out by Chao and Hwang (1986). Welsh's (1986) discussion on the use of the empirical distribution and characteristic function to estimate the parameters includes the extreme value distribution as one of the cases. Singh (1987) estimated the parameters of the type I extreme value distribution from the joint distribution of  $m$  extremes. A weighted least-squares method of estimation was considered by Öztürk (1987). While Schneider and Weissfeld (1989) discussed the interval estimation of parameters based on censored data, Ahmed (1989) considered the problem of selecting the extreme value population with the smallest  $\xi_i$ .

Ahcar (1991) presented another reparametrization for the extreme value distribution. Hooda, Singh, and Singh (1991) discussed the estimation of the Gumbel distribution parameters from doubly censored samples. Comparisons of approximate confidence intervals for the extreme value simple linear regression model under time censoring (or Type-I censoring) were made by Doganoksoy and Schmee (1991). Abdelhafez and Thomas (1991) discussed bootstrap confidence bands for the extreme value regression models with randomly censored data.

## 10 TOLERANCE LIMITS AND INTERVALS

Based on a complete sample or Type-II censored sample observed from the distribution, the lower  $\alpha$  tolerance limit for proportion  $1 - \gamma$  is  $\hat{\xi} + k_L \hat{\theta}$  satisfying the equation

$$\Pr\left[\Pr\left[X \geq \hat{\xi} + k_L \hat{\theta}\right] \geq 1 - \gamma\right] = \alpha; \quad (22.128)$$

similarly the upper  $\alpha$  tolerance limit for proportion  $1 - \gamma$  is  $\hat{\xi} + k_U \hat{\theta}$  satisfying the equation

$$\Pr\left[\Pr\left[X \leq \hat{\xi} + k_U \hat{\theta}\right] \geq 1 - \gamma\right] = \alpha. \quad (22.129)$$

The constants  $k_L$  and  $k_U$  are referred to as the lower and upper tolerance factors, respectively.

In the case of the type 1 extreme value distribution for the minima with cumulative distribution function

$$F_X(x) = 1 - e^{-e^{(x-\xi)/\theta}},$$

equations (22.128) and (22.129) become

$$\Pr\left[\frac{\hat{\xi} - \xi}{\theta} + k_L \frac{\hat{\theta}}{\theta} \leq \log[-\log(1 - \gamma)]\right] = \alpha \quad (22.130)$$

and

$$\Pr\left[\frac{\hat{\xi} - \xi}{\theta} + k_U \frac{\hat{\theta}}{\theta} \geq \log(-\log \gamma)\right] = \alpha, \quad (22.131)$$

respectively. Upon rewriting Eqs. (22.130) and (22.131) as

$$\Pr\left[\frac{\theta}{\hat{\theta}} \log[-\log(1 - \gamma)] - \frac{\hat{\xi} - \xi}{\hat{\theta}} \geq k_L\right] = \alpha \quad (22.132)$$

and

$$\Pr\left[\frac{\theta}{\hat{\theta}} \log(-\log \gamma) - \frac{\hat{\xi} - \xi}{\hat{\theta}} \leq k_U\right] = \alpha, \quad (22.133)$$

we observe that  $k_L$  and  $k_U$  are the upper and lower  $100\alpha\%$  points of the

distributions of the pivotal quantities

$$\begin{aligned}
 P_1 &= \frac{\theta}{\hat{\theta}} \log[-\log(1 - \gamma)] - \frac{\hat{\xi} - \xi}{\hat{\theta}}, \\
 P_2 &= \frac{\theta}{\hat{\theta}} \log(-\log \gamma) - \frac{\hat{\xi} - \xi}{\hat{\theta}},
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{22.134}$$

respectively. As the distributions of these two pivotal quantities are not derivable explicitly, their percentage points need to be determined either through Monte Carlo simulations or by some approximations.

Mann and Fertig (1973) used the best linear invariant estimators to prepare tables of tolerance factors for **Type-II** right-censored samples when  $n = 3(1)25$  and  $n - s = 3(1)n$ , where  $s$  is the number of largest observations censored in the sample; see also Mann, Schafer, and Singpurwalla (1974). While Thoman, Bain, and Antle (1970) presented tables that can be used to determine tolerance bounds for complete samples up to size  $n = 120$ , Billman, Antle, and Bain (1972) gave tables which can be used to determine tolerance bounds for samples of sizes  $n = 40(20)120$  with 50% or 75% of the largest observations censored. Johns and Lieberman (1966) presented extensive tables that can be used to get tolerance bounds for sample sizes  $n = 10, 15, 20, 30, 50,$  and  $100$  with **Type-II** right censoring at four values of  $s$  (number of observations censored) for each  $n$ . By making use of the efficient simplified linear estimator presented by Bain (1972) (described in Section 9.2), Mann, Schafer, and Singpurwalla (1974) derived approximate tolerance bounds based on a F-approximation. This F-approximation is quite effective and hence deserves a special mention.

By using Bain's simplified linear estimators  $\hat{\theta}$  of  $\theta$  and the related linear estimator  $\hat{\xi}$  of  $\xi$ , Mann, Schafer, and Singpurwalla (1974, p. 249) have shown that an approximate lower  $100\alpha\%$  confidence bound on the quantile  $X_\gamma$  is

$$\hat{\xi} + \hat{\theta} \left\{ -\frac{C_{n-s,n}}{l_{n-s,n}} (1 - F_{1-\alpha}) + F_{1-\alpha} \log(-\log \gamma) \right\}, \tag{22.135}$$

where  $B_{n-s,n}$ ,  $C_{n-s,n}$  and  $l_{n-s,n}$  are constants depending on  $s$  and  $n$ , and  $F_{1-\alpha}$  is the upper  $1 - \alpha$  percentage point of an F distribution with degrees of freedom

$$\begin{aligned}
 d_1 &= \frac{2\{\log(-\log \gamma) + C_{n-s,n}/l_{n-s,n}\}^2}{\{B_{n-s,n} - C_{n-s,n}^2/l_{n-s,n}\}}, \\
 d_2 &= \frac{2}{l_{n-s,n}}.
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{22.136}$$



As demonstrated by Mann, Schafer, and Singpurwalla (1974, p. 250), this F-approximation can also be used with the best linear unbiased estimators  $\xi^*$  and  $\theta^*$  (see Section 9.3); in fact they have indicated that the approximation turns out to be good even in the case of moderate sample sizes with heavy censoring. Values of the constants  $B_{n-s,n}$ ,  $C_{n-s,n}$ , and  $l_{n-s,n}$ , which depend on the means, variances, and covariances of order statistics from the type 1 extreme value distribution for the minimum, have been tabulated by Mann, Schafer, and Singpurwalla (1974) for some choices of  $n$  and  $s$ .

An alternate F-approximation was proposed by Lawless (1975) for the lower a confidence bound on the quantile  $X_\gamma$ . His approximation is based on the fact that, at **least** when the censoring in the sample is fairly heavy, the estimators  $\hat{\xi}$  and  $\hat{\theta}$  are almost the same as the maximum likelihood estimators  $\xi$  and  $\theta$ ; specifically, we have

$$\frac{\hat{\theta}}{1 + l_{n-s,n}} \approx \hat{\theta} \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{\xi} - \frac{C_{n-s,n}}{1 + l_{n-s,n}} \hat{\theta} \approx \xi. \quad (22.137)$$

These are exactly the same linear transformations, described in Section 9.3, that transform the **BLUES** to **BLIEs**. Using Eq. (22.137) and the maximum likelihood estimates  $\hat{\xi}$  and  $\hat{\theta}$ , Lawless (1975) derived an approximate lower  $\alpha$  confidence bound on the quantile  $X_\gamma$  as

$$\hat{\xi} + \hat{\theta} \left\{ C_{n-s,n} + (1 + l_{n-s,n}) \left[ - \frac{C_{n-s,n}}{l_{n-s,n}} (1 - F_{1-\alpha}) + F_{1-\alpha} \log(-\log \gamma) \right] \right\}. \quad (22.138)$$

This F-approximation is quite accurate over a wide range of situations.

Lawless noted that the quantity

$$Z_\gamma = \frac{1}{\hat{\theta}} \{ \theta \log(-\log \gamma) - (\hat{\xi} - \xi) \} \quad (22.139)$$

is a **pivotal quantity**, since  $Z_\gamma = \{ \log(-\log \gamma) / Z_2 \} - Z$ , where  $Z = (\hat{\xi} - \xi) / \hat{\theta}$  and  $Z_2 = \hat{\theta} / \theta$  are pivotal quantities, discussed earlier, that can be used to construct tolerance bounds. For example,

$$\Pr[Z_\gamma \geq z_{\gamma,\alpha}] = \alpha \Rightarrow \Pr[z_{\gamma,\alpha} \hat{\theta} + \hat{\xi} \leq X_\gamma] = \alpha, \quad (22.140)$$

**Table 22.16 Comparison of exact and Fapproximation tolerance bounds**

$n$	$n - s$	$y = 0.95$		$y = 0.90$	
		$z_{y,0.95}$	F-Approximation	$z_{y,0.95}$	F-Approximation
60	54	-3.76	-3.79	-2.88	-2.91
60	42	-3.85	-3.88	-2.93	-2.96
60	30	-3.99	-4.01	-3.00	-3.03
60	18	-4.19	-4.23	-3.08	-3.13
60	6	-4.69	-4.83	-3.09	-3.38
40	36	-4.01	-4.02	-3.09	-3.06
40	28	-4.12	-4.16	-3.13	-3.17
40	20	-4.34	-4.35	-3.26	-3.28
40	12	-4.68	-4.72	-3.40	-3.46
40	8	-5.02	-5.11	-3.49	-3.60
40	4	-5.96	-5.99	-3.53	-3.74
25	20	-4.50	-4.52	-3.44	-3.47
25	10	-5.22	-5.28	-3.83	-3.89
25	5	-6.54	-6.62	-4.33	-4.47

and hence  $z_{y,\alpha}\hat{\theta} + \hat{\xi}$  becomes a lower  $\alpha$  confidence bound on  $X_*$ . The percentage points of the distribution of  $Z_y$  in (22.139) therefore yield upper tolerance limits [see the pivotal quantity  $P_2$  in Eq. (22.134)]. In Table 22.16, taken from Lawless (1975), a comparison of the exact tolerance bounds determined from the distribution of  $Z$ , in (22.139) with  $\alpha = 0.95$  and the corresponding F-approximations are presented.

Mann and Fertig (1977) discussed the correction for small-sample bias in Hassanein's (1972) asymptotic best linear unbiased estimators of  $\xi$  and  $\theta$  based on  $k$  optimally selected quantiles (see Section 9.4). They presented tables of these bias-correction factors for complete samples of sizes  $n = 20(1)40$ . These tables will not only allow one to obtain estimates based on the specified sets of order statistics that are best linear unbiased estimates or best linear invariant estimates, but can also be utilized to determine approximate confidence bounds on  $X_y$  and the related tolerance limits using approximation ideas discussed above.

Through the conditional method of inference discussed in detail in Section 9.7, Lawless (1975) has shown that the conditional tail probability of the distribution of  $Z_y$  in (22.139) is given by

$$\Pr[Z_y \geq z | \mathbf{a}] = (n - s - 1)! C_{n-s}(\mathbf{a})$$

$$\times \int_0^\infty \frac{t^{n-s-2} e^{t \sum_{i=1}^n a_i} \Gamma_{h(t,z)}(n-s)}{\Gamma(n-s) \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{n-s} e^{a_i t} + s e^{a_{n-s} t} \right\}^{n-s}} dt, \quad (22.141)$$

where  $\Gamma_b(p)$  is the incomplete gamma function

$$\Gamma_b(p) = \int_0^b e^{-x} x^{p-1} dt, \quad 0 \leq b < \infty,$$

$$h(t, z) = -\log \gamma \cdot e^{-tz} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{n-s} e^{a_i t} + s e^{a_{n-s} t} \right\}. \quad (22.142)$$

The integral in (22.141) needs to be evaluated numerically. The normalizing constant  $C_{n-s}(\mathbf{a})$  is determined numerically by using the condition that  $\Pr\{Z_\gamma \geq -\infty | \mathbf{a}\} = 1$  in which case  $h(t, z) = \infty$  and consequently  $\Gamma_{h(t, z)}(n - s) = \Gamma_\infty(n - s) = \Gamma(n - s)$ . Thus we get

$$C_{n-s}(\mathbf{a}) = \left[ (n - s - 1)! \int_0^\infty \frac{t^{n-s-2} e^{t \sum_{i=1}^{n-s} a_i}}{\left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{n-s} e^{a_i t} + s e^{a_{n-s} t} \right\}^{n-s}} dt \right]^{-1}. \quad (22.143)$$

Once the percentage points of  $Z_\gamma$  are determined from (22.141) by numerical methods, tolerance limits can be obtained as explained earlier.

Gerisch, Struck, and Wilke (1991) took a completely different direction and discussed the determination of one-sided tolerance limit factors for the exact extreme value distributions from a normal parent distribution. They justified the need for these factors based on the grounds that one-sided tolerance limits for the asymptotic extreme value distributions cannot be regarded as sufficient approximations of one-sided tolerance limits for the corresponding exact extreme value distributions.

## 11 PREDICTION LIMITS AND INTERVALS

Suppose that  $\hat{\xi}$  and  $\hat{\theta}$  are the maximum likelihood estimators of  $\xi$  and  $\theta$  based on a sample of size  $n$  from the type I extreme value distribution for the maximum (discussed in Section 9.6). Suppose that  $Z$  is an independent observation, to be made from the same distribution. Then, as Antle and Rademaker (1972) showed, the construction of prediction intervals for  $Z$  is based on the pivotal quantity

$$T_1 = \frac{Z - \hat{\xi}}{\hat{\theta}}. \quad (22.144)$$

Antle and Rademaker presented a table of percentage points,  $t_{1, \gamma}$ , of the distribution of  $T_1$ , for selected values of  $n$  and  $\gamma$ , and they determined these values, appearing in Table 22.17, by Monte Carlo simulations.

The irregular progression of values in Table 22.17 (especially for  $n = 100$ ) is

Table 22.17 Percentage points  $t_{1,\gamma}$  of the distribution of  $T_1$  in (22.144)

$n$	$\gamma$					
	0.90	0.95	0.975	0.98	0.99	0.995
10	2.64	3.59	4.51	4.88	6.00	
20	2.41	3.24	4.04	4.26	5.12	6.18
30	2.33	3.06	3.89	4.14	4.90	5.86
40	2.30	3.00	3.81	4.04	4.79	5.68
50	2.29	2.98	3.79	3.99	4.69	5.56
60	2.26	2.97	3.74	3.99	4.70	5.53
70	2.26	2.98	3.72	3.94	4.66	5.46
100	2.24	2.96	3.66	3.90	4.68	5.38
$\infty$	2.25	2.97	3.68	3.90	4.60	5.30

presumably due to sampling variation. Using the values of  $t_{1,\gamma}$  presented above, an upper  $100\gamma\%$  prediction limit for  $Z$  can be determined as  $\hat{\xi} + \hat{\theta}t_{1,\gamma}$ .

Engelhardt and Bain (1979), on the other hand, used their simplified linear estimators of  $\xi$  and  $\theta$  described in Section 22.9.2 to construct prediction intervals for  $Z'_1$  in a future sample of size  $m$  from the type 1 extreme value distribution for the minimum, based on a Type-II right-censored sample of size  $n - s$ . With  $\hat{\xi}$  and  $\hat{\theta}$  denoting the simplified linear estimators of  $\xi$  and  $\theta$  based on the right-censored sample of size  $n - s$ , Engelhardt and Bain (1979) considered the pivotal quantity

$$T_2 = \frac{\hat{\xi} - Z'_1}{\hat{\theta}}. \quad (22.145)$$

With  $t_{2,\gamma}$  being the  $\gamma$ th quantile of the distribution of  $T_2$ , it is readily seen that  $\hat{\xi} - t_{2,\gamma}\hat{\theta}$  becomes a lower  $100\gamma\%$  prediction limit for  $Z'_1$ . Engelhardt and Bain also developed an efficient approximation for  $t_{2,\gamma}$  as follows. Upon writing

$$\Pr[T_2 < t] = \Pr\left[W(t) < \frac{Z'_1 - \xi}{\theta}\right] \quad (22.146)$$

where  $W(t) = (\hat{\xi} - \xi)/\theta - t\hat{\theta}/\theta$ , they used the approximation [see Engelhardt and Bain (1977)]

$$W(t) \rightarrow \log\left\{\frac{k\chi^2(t)}{l}\right\}, \quad (22.147)$$

where  $k(t)$  and  $l(t)$  are chosen so that both sides of (22.147) have the same

mean and variance. With

$$\nu = \text{var}(W(t)) = \text{var}\left(\frac{\hat{\xi} - \xi}{\theta}\right) + 2t^2 \text{var}\left(\frac{\hat{\theta}}{\theta}\right) - 2t \text{cov}\left(\frac{\hat{\xi} - \xi}{\theta}, \frac{\hat{\theta}}{\theta}\right),$$

they derived convenient approximations for  $l$  and  $k$  as

$$l = (8\nu + 12)/(\nu^2 + 6\nu) \quad (\text{not depending on } t) \quad (22.148)$$

and

$$k = \exp\left\{-t + \frac{15l^2 + 5l + 6}{15l^3 + 6l}\right\} \quad (22.149)$$

Since  $(Z'_1 - \xi)/\theta \rightarrow \log(\chi^2(2)/2m)$  independently of  $W(t)$ , we get the approximation [using (22.146) and (22.147)]

$$\Pr(T_2 < t) \approx \Pr[mk < F(2, l)] \quad (22.150)$$

where  $F(2, l)$  denotes a central F-distribution with  $(2, l)$  degrees of freedom; (22.150), when used with the exact expression  $F_{-\gamma}(2, l) = (l/2)(\gamma^{-2/l} - 1)$ , yields a simple approximation for  $t_{2,\gamma}$  as the value of  $t$  such that

$$\gamma = \left(1 + \frac{2mk}{l}\right)^{-l/2}. \quad (22.151)$$

Prediction intervals/limits for  $Z'_j$  ( $2 \leq j \leq m$ ) have been developed by Engelhardt and Bain (1979), based on the pivotal quantity

$$T_3 = \frac{\hat{\xi} - Z'_j}{\hat{\theta}}. \quad (22.152)$$

Since

$$\exp\left(\frac{Z'_j - \xi}{\theta}\right) \rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^j \frac{\chi_i^2(2)}{2(m-i+1)} \quad (22.153)$$

(independently of  $W(t)$ ), where  $\chi_1^2(2), \dots, \chi_j^2(2)$  are independent, the distribution of the linear combination of chi-square variables can be closely approximated by the form (see Patnaik's approximation in Chapter 18)

$$\exp\left(\frac{Z'_j - \xi}{\theta}\right) \xrightarrow{\text{approx.}} \frac{c\chi^2(\nu)}{\nu}, \quad (22.154)$$

where

$$c = \sum_{i=1}^j \frac{1}{m-i+1} \approx \log(m+0.5) - \log(m-j+0.5),$$

$$\nu = 2 \frac{\left\{ \sum_{i=1}^j 1/(m-i+1) \right\}^2}{\sum_{i=1}^j 1/(m-i+1)^2}$$

$$\approx \frac{\left\{ \log(m+0.5) - \log(m-j+0.5) \right\}^2}{\frac{1}{m-j+0.5} - \frac{1}{m+0.5}}$$

Then a lower  $100\gamma\%$  prediction limit for  $Z'_j$  is given by  $\hat{\xi} - t_{3,\gamma} \hat{\theta}$ , where  $t_{3,\gamma}$  is approximated by the value  $t$  such that  $F_{1-\gamma}(\nu, l) = k/c$ .

Fertig, Meyer, and Mann (1980) used the best linear invariant estimates  $\xi^{**}$  and  $\theta^{**}$ , described in Section 22.9.3, for the prediction of  $Z'_1$  in a future sample of size  $m$  based on the pivotal quantity

$$S_1 = \frac{\xi^{**} - Z'_1}{\theta^{**}}. \quad (22.155)$$

With  $s_{1,\gamma}$  denoting the  $100\gamma$ th percentile of the distribution of  $S_1$  in (22.155), the  $100\gamma\%$  lower prediction bound for  $Z'_1$  is given by  $\xi^{**} - s_{1,\gamma} \theta^{**}$ . A  $100\gamma\%$  upper prediction bound for  $Z'_1$  may also be obtained by replacing  $s_{1,\gamma}$  by  $s_{1,1-\gamma}$ . Using Monte Carlo simulations, Fertig, Meyer, and Mann (1980) determined the values of  $s_{1,\gamma}$  for different choices of  $n$ ,  $n-s$ , and  $\gamma$  when  $m=1$ . Selected values from their table are presented in Table 22.18.

Mann, Schafer, and Singpurwalla (1974) suggested an F-approximation for the distribution of the statistic  $S$ , in (22.155) to be used only for large future sample sizes and moderate levels of confidence. Mann (1976) discussed conditions under which this approximation is sufficiently precise for use. Mann and Saunders (1969) presented solutions to two special cases when the given samples are of sizes two and three. Fertig, Meyer, and Mann (1980), by employing a procedure that is an extension of the one used by Fertig and Mann (1978) to approximate the distribution of the studentized extreme value statistics, have suggested an alternate F-approximation and examined its accuracy.

Engelhardt and Bain (1982) provided further discussions on the prediction problem and derived in particular two simpler approximations for the percentage points of the statistic  $T_2$  in (22.145). The approximation for  $t_{3,\gamma}$  from Eq. (22.151) needs to be determined by numerical iterative methods. For this reason Engelhardt and Bain (1982) presented the following two simpler

**Table 22.18** Distribution percentiles of  $S_s = (\xi^{**} - Z'_1) / \theta^{**}$  for Type-II right-censored samples of size  $n - s$  from a sample of size  $n$

$n$	$n - s$	$\gamma$										
		0.02	0.05	0.10	0.25	0.40	0.50	0.60	0.75	0.90	0.95	0.98
5	3	-9.67	-5.20	-3.04	-0.97	-0.09	0.37	0.85	1.85	4.37	6.74	11.68
	5	-2.68	-1.77	-1.17	-0.39	0.14	0.51	0.92	1.74	3.39	4.78	6.99
10	3	-15.94	-8.87	-5.27	-1.91	-0.56	0.02	0.55	1.43	3.22	5.25	8.89
	5	-4.41	-2.91	-1.88	-0.68	-0.04	0.35	0.74	1.52	3.03	4.30	6.38
	10	-1.76	-1.32	-0.96	-0.36	0.12	0.43	0.79	1.48	2.69	3.68	5.02
15	3	-21.17	-11.36	-6.80	-2.60	-0.97	-0.26	0.33	1.20	2.81	4.43	7.59
	5	-5.72	-3.62	-2.36	-0.92	-0.17	0.24	0.64	1.35	2.76	4.00	5.96
	10	-2.16	-1.56	-1.10	-0.41	0.06	0.39	0.73	1.39	2.63	3.59	5.00
	15	-1.62	-1.25	-0.92	-0.34	0.10	0.42	0.73	1.37	2.52	3.41	4.53

approximations:

$$\Pr\{T_2 < t\} \approx e^{-m} e^{-t + \nu(t)/(2g)}, \tag{22.156}$$

where

$$g = 1 + \frac{5 + \frac{1}{2} \log m}{n - s},$$

$$\Pr\{T_2 < t\} \approx e^{-m} e^{-t}. \tag{22.157}$$

In fact the approximations (22.150) and (22.156) both converge to (22.157) as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  with  $(n - s)/n \rightarrow p > 0$ . The advantage of the approximations (22.156) and (22.157) is that they can be solved explicitly for quantiles  $t_{2,\gamma}$ . For example, upon equating the right-hand side of (22.156) to  $\gamma$  and solving the resulting quadratic equation

$$-t + \frac{\nu(t)}{2g} = \log\left(-\frac{1}{m} \log \gamma\right),$$

we obtain an explicit approximation for  $t_{2,\gamma}$  as

$$t_{2,\gamma} \approx (A + B) - \left\{ (A + B)^2 - C + 2A \log\left(-\frac{1}{m} \log \gamma\right) \right\}^{1/2}, \tag{22.158}$$

where

$$A = \frac{g}{\text{var}(\hat{\theta}/\theta)},$$

$$B = \frac{\text{cov}(\hat{\xi}/\theta, \hat{\theta}/\theta)}{\text{var}(\hat{\theta}/\theta)},$$

$$C = \frac{\text{var}(\hat{\xi}/\theta)}{\text{var}(\hat{\theta}/\theta)}.$$

The limiting approximation (22.157) also readily yields an explicit approximation for  $t_{2,\gamma}$  as

$$t_{2,\gamma} \approx -\log\left(-\frac{1}{m}\log\gamma\right) \quad (22.159)$$

Engelhardt and Bain (1982) have examined the accuracy of all these approximations.

Pandey and Upadhyay (1986) discussed approximate prediction limits for the Weibull distribution, which may be transformed to the type 1 extreme value model for the minimum through the usual logarithmic transformation, based on preliminary test estimator. Abdelhafez and Thomas (1990) derived approximate prediction limits for the Weibull and extreme value regression models.

## 12 OUTLIERS AND ROBUSTNESS

For the type 1 extreme value distribution for minimum, Mann (1982) proposed three statistics to test for  $k$  upper outliers in the sample. These three test statistics are given by

$$V = \frac{\theta_n^{**}}{\theta_{n-k}^{**}}, \quad (22.160)$$

$$Q = \frac{X'_n - X'_{n-k}}{\theta_{n-k}^{**}}, \quad (22.161)$$

and

$$W = \frac{X'_{n-k+1} - X'_{n-k}}{\theta_{n-k}^{**}} \quad (22.162)$$



where  $\theta_n^{**}$  and  $\theta_{n-k}^{**}$ , are the best linear invariant estimators of  $\theta$  (see Section 9.3 for details) based on the complete sample of size  $n$  and on the smallest  $n - k$  order statistics, respectively. Since the exact null distributions of these test statistics are intractable, Mann (1982) determined the critical values by Monte Carlo simulations and presented some tables. Further, through an empirical power study, Mann demonstrated that her statistic  $W$  in (22.162) provides a powerful test in detecting upper outliers from a labeled slippage location-shift model.

Fung and Paul (1985) carried out an extensive empirical study to examine the performance of several outlier detection procedures. In addition to the preceding three test statistics, these authors also considered the following five test statistics:

$$G = S_{n-k}^2 / S_n^2, \tag{22.163}$$

where  $S_{n-k}^2$  is the sum of squared deviations of the smallest  $n - k$  order statistics and  $S_n^2$  is the sum of squared deviations of all  $n$  observations,

$$R_1 = \frac{X'_n - X'_{n-k}}{X'_n - X'_1}, \tag{22.164}$$

$$R_2 = \frac{X'_n - X'_{n-k}}{X'_n - \bar{X}'_j}, \tag{22.165}$$

$$R_3 = \frac{X'_n - X'_{n-k}}{X'_n - \bar{X}'_j}, \tag{22.166}$$

and

$$L = \frac{\sum_{i=n-k-1}^{n-1} (X'_{i+1} - X'_i) / (E[Y'_{i+1}] - E[Y'_i])}{\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (X'_{i+1} - X'_i) / (E[Y'_{i+1}] - E[Y'_i])}. \tag{22.167}$$

Fung and Paul (1985) have also considered the counterparts of these five tests (obtained by changing  $X'_i$  to  $X'_{n-i+1}$ ) for testing for  $k$  lower outliers in the sample. Fung and Paul have also presented critical values for all these tests determined through Monte Carlo simulations. They then compared the performance of the test statistics in terms of their sizes and powers in detecting  $k = 1, 2,$  and  $3$  outliers. For the upper outliers they used all eight test statistics, while only the last five test statistics were used for the lower outliers.

In their empirical power study Fung and Paul (1985) used a contamination outlier model with location shift as well as with location and scale shift [instead of the labeled slippage model considered by Mann (1982)]. Under this contamination outlier model, Mann's  $W$  test performed very poorly as compared to the other tests. The test procedure based on the  $L$  statistic in

(22.167) performed the best for the contamination model, while the counterpart of  $G$  in (22.163) performed well for testing the lower outliers. The test statistic  $R$ , in (22.164) and its counterpart also provide useful tests in general.

By using joint distributions of order statistics, Paul and Fung (1986) presented explicit formulas for the calculation of critical values of the test statistics  $R$ ,  $R_2$ , and  $R_3$  (and their counterparts for testing for lower outliers) for testing for  $k = 1$  and 2 outliers.

### 13 PROBABILITY PLOTS, MODIFICATIONS, AND MODEL VALIDITY

Due to the prominence and significance of the extreme value distributions, considerable work has been done with regard to testing whether an extreme value distribution is appropriate for the data at hand. In this section a brief description of these investigations is presented. The book by **D'Agostino** and **Stephens** (1986) provides an elaborate account of various goodness-of-fit tests developed for the extreme value distributions.

One of the easiest goodness-of-fit tests is the "correlation coefficient" test for the type 1 extreme value distribution. This test is based on the **product-moment** correlation between the sample order statistics and their expected values. Since  $E[X'_i] = \xi + \theta E[Y'_i]$ , one may as well use the correlation between the sample order statistics  $X'_i$  and the expected values of standard order statistics  $E[Y'_i]$  for the type 1 extreme value distribution. Naturally large values (close to 1) of this correlation will support the assumption of the type 1 extreme value distribution for the data at hand. **Smith** and **Bain** (1976) discussed this test and presented tables of critical points; tables were also provided by these authors for the case when the available sample is **Type-II censored**. A more extensive table of points for  $n(1 - R^2)$ , where  $R$  is the sample correlation coefficient, has been provided by **Stephens** (1986). **Stephens's** choice of the statistic  $n(1 - R^2)$  permits easy interpolation in the tables. Further his tables also facilitate the test even in case of doubly **Type-II censored** samples. **Kinnison** (1989) discussed the same correlation test for the type 1 extreme value distribution and presented tables of smoothed values of the percentage points of  $r$  (in the case of complete samples) when  $n = 5(5)30(10)100, 200$ . **Kinnison** used the approximation

$$E[Y'_i] \approx -\log\{-\log(i/(n+1))\}$$

in the plot and the resulting calculation of the correlation coefficient. As pointed out by **Lockhart** and **Spinelli** (1990), use of the exact values of  $E[Y'_i]$  or even **Blom's** approximation  $E[Y'_i] \approx -\log\{-\log(i - 0.25)/(n + 0.25)\}$  may result in an increase in the power of the test. However, as aptly mentioned by **Lockhart** and **Spinelli**, even though the correlation test is simple to use and has an intuitive appeal, its power properties are **undesir-**

able. As a matter of fact McLaren and Lockhart (1987) have shown that the correlation test has asymptotic efficiency equal to 0 relative to standard tests such as Kolmogorov-Smirnov, Cramér-von Mises, and Anderson-Darling tests.

Stephens (1977) presented goodness-of-fit tests based on empirical distribution function statistics  $W^2$ ,  $U^2$ , and  $A^2$  given by

$$W^2 = \sum_i \left\{ F_X(X'_i) - \frac{2i - 1}{2n} \right\}^2 + \frac{1}{12n}, \tag{22.168}$$

$$U^2 = W^2 - n \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \sum_i F_X(X'_i) - \frac{1}{2} \right\}^2, \tag{22.169}$$

and

$$A^2 = -\frac{1}{n} \sum_i (2i - 1) [\log F_X(X'_i) + \log\{1 - F_X(X'_{n-i+1})\}] - n. \tag{22.170}$$

Stephens discussed the asymptotic percentage points of these three statistics for the three cases when one or both of the parameters  $\xi$  and  $\theta$  need to be estimated from the data (using the MLEs). Stephens (1977) also suggested slight modifications of these statistics in order to enable the usage of the asymptotic percentage points in case of small sample sizes; these are presented in Table 22.19.

**Table 22.19** Percentage points for modified statistics  $W^2$ ,  $U^2$ , and  $A^2$

Statistic	Case <sup>u</sup>	Modification	Upper Tail Percentage Points, a				
			0.75	0.90	0.95	0.975	0.99
$W^2$	0	$(W^2 - 0.4/n + 0.6/n^2)(1.0 + 1.0/n)$	—	0.347	0.461	0.581	0.743
	1	$W^2(1 + 0.16/n)$	0.116	0.175	0.222	0.271	0.338
	2	None	0.186	0.320	0.431	0.547	0.705
	3	$W^2(1 + 0.2/\sqrt{n})$	0.073	0.102	0.124	0.146	0.175
$U^2$	0	$(U^2 - 0.1/n + 0.1/n^2)(1.0 + 0.8/n)$	—	0.152	0.187	0.221	0.267
	1	$U^2(1 + 0.16/n)$	0.090	0.129	0.159	0.189	0.230
	2	$U^2(1 + 0.15/\sqrt{2n})$	0.086	0.123	0.152	0.181	0.220
	3	$U^2(1 + 0.2/\sqrt{n})$	0.070	0.097	0.117	0.138	0.165
$A^2$	0	None	—	1.933	2.492	3.070	3.857
	1	$A^2(1 + 0.3/n)$	0.736	1.062	1.321	1.591	1.959
	2	None	1.060	1.725	2.277	2.854	3.640
	3	$A^2(1 + 0.2/\sqrt{n})$	0.474	0.637	0.757	0.877	1.038

<sup>u</sup>In case 0, both  $\xi$  and  $\theta$  are known; in case 1,  $\xi$  is unknown, while  $\theta$  is known; in case 2,  $\xi$  is known, while  $\theta$  is unknown; in case 3, both  $\xi$  and  $\theta$  are unknown.

Along similar lines Chandra, Singpurwalla, and Stephens (1981) considered the **Kolmogorov-Smirnov** statistics  $D^+$ ,  $D^-$ , and  $D$  and the Kuiper statistic  $V$  given by

$$D^+ = \max_i \left\{ \frac{i}{n} - F_X(X'_i) \right\}, \quad (22.171)$$

$$D^- = \max_i \left\{ F_X(X'_i) - \frac{i-1}{n} \right\}, \quad (22.172)$$

$$D = \max(D^+, D^-), \quad (22.173)$$

and

$$V = D^+ + D^-. \quad (22.174)$$

They determined some percentage points of these statistics for the three cases when one or both of the parameters  $\xi$  and  $\theta$  need to be estimated from the data (using the **MLEs**). Percentage points of the four statistics in the case when both  $\xi$  and  $\theta$  are unknown, taken from Chandra, Singpurwalla, and Stephens (1981), are presented in Table 22.20 for  $n = 10, 20, 50$ , and  $\infty$ .

**Table 22.20** Percentage points of the statistics  $\sqrt{n} D^+$ ,  $\sqrt{n} D^-$ ,  $\sqrt{n} D$ , and  $\sqrt{n} V$  when both  $\xi$  and  $\theta$  are unknown

Statistics	n	Upper Tail Significance Level $\alpha$			
		0.10	0.05	0.025	0.01
$\sqrt{n} D^+$	10	0.685	0.755	0.842	0.897
	20	0.710	0.780	0.859	0.926
	50	0.727	0.796	0.870	0.940
	$\infty$	0.733	0.808	0.877	0.957
$\sqrt{n} D^-$	10	0.700	0.766	0.814	0.892
	20	0.715	0.785	0.843	0.926
	50	0.724	0.796	0.860	0.944
	$\infty$	0.733	0.808	0.877	0.957
$\sqrt{n} D$	10	0.760	0.819	0.880	0.944
	20	0.779	0.843	0.907	0.973
	50	0.790	0.856	0.922	0.988
	$\infty$	0.803	0.874	0.939	1.007
$\sqrt{n} V$	10	1.287	1.381	1.459	1.535
	20	1.323	1.428	1.509	1.600
	50	1.344	1.453	1.538	1.639
	$\infty$	1.372	1.477	1.557	1.671

Probability plots are often used to aid assessment of the validity of a statistical distribution; in fact the correlation test is based on such a plot. Unfortunately, owing to the unequal variances of the plotted points, interpretation of the plots is difficult. The stabilized probability plot proposed by Michael (1983) is to plot

$$S_i = \frac{2}{\pi} \sin^{-1} \left\{ F_X \left( \frac{X'_i - \xi}{\theta} \right) \right\}^{1/2} \tag{22.175}$$

with respect to

$$r_i = \frac{2}{\pi} \sin^{-1} \left( \frac{i - 0.5}{n} \right)^{1/2} .$$

In this way the unequal variance problem can be avoided, since  $S_i$  in (22.175) have approximately equal variance, as the asymptotic variance of  $\sqrt{n} S_i$  is  $(1/\pi^2)$  independent of  $q$  when  $n \rightarrow \infty$  and  $i/n \rightarrow q$ . A goodness-of-fit statistic that arises naturally from the stabilized probability plot is

$$D_{SP} = \max_i |r_i - S_i|. \tag{22.176}$$

Kimber (1985) presented critical values for the statistic  $D_{SP}$  in (22.176) for some selected choices of  $n$ , and these are presented in Table 22.21.

By starting with a doubly Type-II censored sample  $X'_{r+1}, X'_{r+2}, \dots, X'_{n-s}$  from the type 1 extreme value distribution for the minimum, Lockhart,

**Table 22.21** Critical values for the statistic  $D_{SP}$

$n$	$\alpha$				
	0.50	0.25	0.10	0.05	0.01
3	0.085	0.109	0.137	0.154	0.167
4	0.096	0.119	0.144	0.167	0.209
5	0.097	0.122	0.148	0.167	0.201
6	0.098	0.124	0.148	0.165	0.201
8	0.096	0.119	0.142	0.157	0.186
10	0.094	0.115	0.136	0.150	0.176
14	0.088	0.107	0.127	0.139	0.163
20	0.082	0.098	0.116	0.127	0.149
30	0.073	0.087	0.103	0.113	0.134
40	0.066	0.079	0.093	0.103	0.122
60	0.059	0.069	0.081	0.089	0.107
80	0.052	0.062	0.072	0.080	0.096
100	0.047	0.056	0.066	0.073	0.089

O'Reilly, and Stephens (1986b) considered three tests based on the normalized spacings

$$Z_i = \frac{X'_{i+1} - X'_i}{E[Y'_{i+1}] - E[Y'_i]}, \quad i = r + 1, r + 2, \dots, n - s - 1, \quad (22.177)$$

where  $Y'_i$  denotes the order statistic from the standard distribution. One may use the exact values of  $E[Y'_{i+1}] - E[Y'_i]$  tabulated by Mann, Scheuer, and Fertig (1973) for  $n = 3(1)25$  and Blom's approximation for larger sample sizes. With

$$Z_i^* = \frac{\sum_{j=r+1}^i Z_j}{\sum_{j=r+1}^{i+1} Z_j}, \quad i = r + 1, \dots, n - s - 2, \quad (22.178)$$

Lockhart, O'Reilly, and Stephens (1986b) focused on the Anderson-Darling statistic

$$A^2 = -(n - r - s - 2) - \frac{1}{n - r - s - 2} \left[ \sum_{i=r+1}^{n-s-2} (2i - 1) \{ \log Z_i^* + \log(1 - Z_{n-s-1-i}^*) \} \right], \quad (22.179)$$

and compared its performance with the S-statistic introduced by Mann, Scheuer, and Fertig (1973) [see also Mann, Fertig, and Scheuer (1971)] and  $\bar{Z}^*$  statistic introduced by Tiku and Singh (1981); here

$$T = 1 - Z_i^*,$$

where

$$t = \begin{cases} r + \frac{n - r - s}{2} & \text{if } n - r - s \text{ is even} \\ r + \frac{n - r - s - 1}{2} & \text{if } n - r - s \text{ is odd,} \end{cases} \quad (22.180)$$

and

$$\bar{Z}^* = \frac{1}{n - r - s - 2} \sum_{i=r+1}^{n-s-2} Z_i^*. \quad (22.181)$$

Through their comparative study Lockhart, O'Reilly, and Stephens (1986b) recommend overall the  $A^2$  test, and they also mentioned that while the  $\bar{Z}^*$  test gives good power in many situations, it may also be inconsistent [also see

Lockhart, O'Reilly, and Stephens (1986a) for a general discussion on tests based on normalized spacings].

Tsujitani, Ohta, and Kase (1980) proposed a test based on the sample entropy, presented its critical points for some sample sizes determined through Monte Carlo simulations, and showed that it has desirable power properties compared with some of the tests mentioned above. Öztürk (1986) considered the Shapiro-Wilk  $W$  test and presented some percentage points determined through Monte Carlo simulations. A major difficulty of using the  $W$  test is the requirement of the variance-covariance matrix of order statistics. To overcome this difficulty, Öztürk (1986) used an approximation for it obtained from the generalized lambda distribution. A modification of the  $W$  statistic has been considered by Öztürk and Korukoğlu (1988) in which the test statistic has been obtained as the ratio of two linear estimators of the parameter  $\xi$ . These authors have determined percentage points of this statistic through Monte Carlo simulations and have also displayed by means of an empirical comparative study that this test possesses good power properties.

By using Kimball's simplified linear estimators  $\hat{\xi}$  and  $\hat{\theta}$  of  $\xi$  and  $\theta$  (see Section 9.2), Aly and Shayib (1992) proposed the statistic

$$M_n = - \sum_{i=1}^n \left\{ \left( \frac{X'_i - \hat{\xi}}{\hat{\theta}} \right) - \log \left[ -\log \left( 1 - \frac{i}{n+1} \right) \right] \right\}^2 \times \left( 1 - \frac{i}{n+1} \right) \log \left( 1 - \frac{i}{n+1} \right) \quad (22.182)$$

for testing the validity of the type 1 extreme value distribution for the minimum. They determined the critical points of  $M_n$  for some selected sample sizes through Monte Carlo simulations. These values are presented in Table 22.22. Aly and Shayib (1992) also compared the power of this test with some other tests including the  $A^2$  test in (22.179) discussed by Lockhart, O'Reilly, and Stephens (1986b). From this brief power study it seems that the  $M_n$  test outperforms the  $A^2$  test for skewed alternatives (like log-Weibull and log-chi-square); however, in the case of symmetric alternatives (like normal and logistic), the  $A^2$  test seems to be considerably better than the  $M_n$  test.

Tiago de Oliveira (1981) discussed the statistical choice among the different extreme value models. Vogel (1986) discussed further on the probability plot and the associated correlation coefficient test. Cohen (1986,1988) presented detailed discussions on the large-sample theory for fitting extreme value distributions to maxima. Mann and Fertig (1975) proposed a goodness-of-fit test for the two-parameter Weibull (or the type 1 extreme value distribution for the maximum) against a three-parameter Weibull alternative (see Chapter 21). Aitkin and Clayton (1980) discussed the fitting of extreme

Table 22.22 Critical values for the statistic  $M_n$ 

$n$	$\alpha$			$n$	$\alpha$		
	0.10	0.05	0.01		0.10	0.05	0.01
6	1.857	2.803	7.814	19	0.892	1.081	1.499
7	1.577	2.108	4.513	20	0.851	1.011	1.388
8	1.418	1.827	2.991	25	0.803	0.944	1.273
9	1.282	1.586	2.436	30	0.763	0.902	1.251
10	1.176	1.419	2.166	35	0.743	0.866	1.189
11	1.109	1.350	1.953	40	0.723	0.855	1.186
12	1.053	1.260	1.810	45	0.698	0.832	1.098
13	1.002	1.194	1.675	50	0.681	0.806	1.085
14	0.969	1.162	1.666	60	0.648	0.769	1.071
15	0.956	1.142	1.571	70	0.627	0.745	1.038
16	0.935	1.108	1.528	80	0.619	0.722	1.030
17	0.912	1.065	1.514	90	0.588	0.717	1.031
18	0.869	1.044	1.453	100	0.599	0.716	0.998

value distributions to complex censored survival data using the GLIM software.

## 14 APPLICATIONS

From the very definition of the extreme value distributions, it is clear that these distributions will play a vital role in numerous applied problems. As mentioned earlier in Sections 1 and 2, Gumbel played a pioneering role during the 1940s and 1950s in bringing out several interesting applications for the extreme value data and developing sound statistical methodology to analyze such data. To give a good idea about the variety of applications that have emerged over the years and the order in which these applications have developed, we describe below these applied papers in a chronological order.

The first paper that described an application of the extreme values in flood flows was by Fuller (1914). Griffith (1920) brought out an application while discussing the phenomena of rupture and flow in solids. Next Gumbel (1937a, b) used the extreme value distribution to model radioactive emissions and human lifetimes. The use of the distribution to model the phenomenon of rupture in solids was discussed by Weibull (1939). In this area Weibull effectively advocated the use of reversed type 3 distributions which have now become well-known as *Weibull distributions* and have been discussed in great length in Chapter 21.

Gumbel (1941) applied the distribution to analyzing data on flood flows, and in subsequent work he continued his discussion on the plotting of flood



discharges, estimation of flood levels, and forecast of floods [Gumbel (1944, 1945, 1949a)]. Frenkel and Kontorova (1943) used the distribution to study the brittle strength of crystals. The application to study earthquake magnitudes was pointed out by Nordquist (1945). While discussing factors influencing self-purification and their relation to pollution abatement, Velz (1947) used the distribution to model the microorganism survival times. Epstein (1948) applied the theory of extreme values to problems involving fracture data. The role of the extreme value theory in the study of the dielectric strength of paper capacitors was highlighted by Epstein and Brooks (1948). Rantz and Riggs (1949) illustrated an application while analyzing the magnitude and frequency of floods in the Columbia River Basin measured during a U.S. Geological Survey. An interesting new application of the extreme value theory to gust-load problems was brought out by Press (1949). The extreme value distribution was used by Potter (1949) to study rainfall data and to develop normalcy tests of precipitation and facilitate frequency studies of runoff on small watersheds. Weibull (1949) stressed the role of extreme value distributions to represent fatigue failures in solids but, in doing so, advocated once again the use of the Weibull distribution in place of the type 1 extreme value distribution.

The so-called Gumbel method has been applied successfully to both regular-type events (e.g., temperature and vapor pressure) and irregular-type events (e.g., rainfall and wind) but with some deficiencies arising from the asymptotic approximation, as noted by Jenkinson (1955). Thom emphasized how the sparse sampling in time of extreme events obscured much of the information in a rainfall process. He showed how the parameters of a Poisson process could be identified with the annual recurrence rates of hourly rainfalls above certain selected base values. Methods of analysis of extreme hydrological events have changed little since the publication of Gumbel (1941) on asymptotic theory dealing with flood discharges by streams. Assumptions of the theory are that the frequency distribution of extremes within successive intervals remains constant and that observed extremes may be taken as being independent samples from a homogeneous population.

Gumbel (1954, 1958) presented consolidated accounts of the statistical theory of extreme values and several practical applications. These works may be studied in conjunction with his later works [Gumbel (1962a, b)] to gain a deeper and better knowledge of extreme value distributions. Thom (1954) applied the distribution while discussing the frequency of maximum wind speeds. In an interesting paper Aziz (1955) applied the extreme value theory to an analysis of maximum pit depth data for aluminum. Kimball (1955) ably explained several practical applications of the theory of extreme values and also described some aspects of the statistical problems associated with them. Jenkinson (1955) applied the extreme value distribution to model the annual maximum or minimum values of some meteorological elements. Lieblein and Zelen (1956) carried out an extensive study relating to inference based on the extreme value distribution and applied their methods to investigate the

fatigue life of deep-groove ball bearings. **Eldredge** (1957) discussed an analysis of corrosion pitting by extreme value statistics and applied it to oil well tubing caliper surveys. **King** (1959) summarized developments on extreme value theory and explained their implications to reliability analysis. **Canfield** (1975) and **Canfield** and **Borgman** (1975), while discussing various possible statistical distributions as models of time to failure for reliability applications, recommended highly the usage of the type 1 extreme value distribution.

As mentioned earlier in Section 3, **Clough** and **Kotz** (1965) gave interesting interpretations for the conditions (22.13)–(22.15) and as a result presented some special queueing model applications for the extreme value distributions. **Posner** (1965) detailed an application of the extreme value theory to communication engineering; see also the comments by **Gumbel** and **Mustafi** (1966) on the paper by **Posner**. In a series of reports **Simiu** and **Filliben** (1975,1976) and **Simiu**, **Bietry**, and **Filliben** (1978) used the extreme value distributions extensively in the statistical analysis of extreme winds.

**Shen**, **Bryson**, and **Ochoa** (1980) applied the distributions for predictions of flood. **Watabe** and **Kitagawa** (1980) demonstrated an application while discussing the expectancy of maximum earthquake motions in Japan. While **Okubo** and **Narita** (1980) followed the lines of **Simiu** and **Filliben** (1975,1976) and used the extreme value distribution to model the data on extreme winds in Japan, **Wantz** and **Sinclair** (1981) carried out a similar analysis on the distribution of extreme winds in the Bonneville power administration service area. **Metcalfe** and **Mawdsley** (1981) applied extreme value distribution to estimate extreme low flows for pumped storage reservoir designs. The use of the distribution in regional flood frequency estimation and network design was demonstrated by **Greis** and **Wood** (1981). **Roldan-Canas**, **Garcia-Guzman**, and **Losada-Villasante** (1982) constructed a stochastic extreme value model for wind occurrence. An application of the extreme value distribution in rainfall analysis was illustrated by **Rasheed**, **Aldabagh**, and **Ramamoorthy** (1983). **Henery** (1984) presented an interesting application of the extreme value model in predicting the results of horse races. While **Pericchi** and **Rodriguez-Iturbe** (1985) used the extreme value distribution in a statistical analysis of floods, **Burton** and **Makropoulos** (1985) applied it in an analysis of seismic risk of circum-Pacific earthquakes. The last authors specifically used the extreme values from the type 1 extreme value distribution and their relationship with strain energy release.

A two-component extreme value distribution was proposed by **Rossi**, **Fiorentino**, and **Versace** (1986) for flood frequency analysis; also see the comments on this paper by **Beran**, **Hosking**, and **Arnell** (1986) and **Rossi's** (1986) subsequent reply. **Smith** (1987), **Jain** and **Singh** (1987), and **Ahmad**, **Sinclair**, and **Spurr** (1988), all provided further discussions on the application of the type 1 extreme value distribution for flood frequency analysis. **Achcar**, **Bolfarine**, and **Pericchi** (1987) discussed the advantages of transforming a survival data to a type 1 extreme value distribution form and then analyzing it. **Nissan** (1988) demonstrated an interesting application of the type 1

distribution in estimating insurance premiums. The role of statistics of extremes in climatological problems was discussed in great detail by Buishand (1989).

**Cockrum**, Larson, and Taylor (1990) and Taylor (1991) applied the extreme value distributions in modeling and simulation studies involving product flammability testing. **Wiggins (1991)** displayed an application in stock markets. A mixture of extreme value distributions was used by Fahmi and Abbasi (1991) to study earthquake magnitudes in Iraq and conterminous regions. Tawn (1992) discussed the estimation of probabilities of extreme sea levels, while Hall (1992) discussed further on flood frequency analysis. Bai, Jakeman, and **McAleer** (1992) demonstrated an interesting application of the extreme value distribution in predicting the upper percentiles that are of great interest in environmental quality data.

Hopke and Paatero (1993) discussed the extreme value estimation in the study of airborne particles and specifically in the estimation of the size distribution of the aerosol and some related environmental problems. Kanda (1993) considered an empirical extreme value distribution to model maximum load intensities of the earthquake ground motion, the wind speed, and the live load in supermarkets. Goka (1993) applied the extreme value distribution to model accelerated life-test data to tantalum capacitors for space use and to on-orbit data of single event phenomenon of memory integrated circuits in the space radiation environment. Rajan (1993) stressed on the importance of the extreme value theory by providing experimental examples where significant deviations from the average microstructure exist in pertinent materials physics. Some of these examples include the deviations from classical Mullins–von Neumann law for two-dimensional grain growth, the changes occurring in the extreme values of grain size distributions associated with significant changes in materials properties, and the role of extreme values of pore size distributions in synthetic membranes. Scarf and **Laycock** (1993) and Shibata (1993) have demonstrated some applications of extreme value theory in corrosion engineering. Applications of extreme values in insurance have been illustrated by Teugels and Beirlant (1993).

In addition many more problems and data sets for which the extreme value distributions have been used for the analysis may be seen in the applied books and volumes listed among the References.

## 15 . GENERALIZED EXTREME VALUE DISTRIBUTIONS

The cumulative distribution function of the generalized extreme value distributions is given by

$$F_X(x) = \begin{cases} e^{-(1-\gamma((x-\xi)/\theta))^{1/\gamma}}, & -\infty < x \leq \xi + \theta/\gamma & \text{when } \gamma > 0, \\ \xi + \theta/\gamma \leq x < \infty & \text{when } \gamma < 0, \\ e^{-e^{-(x-\xi)/\theta}}, & -\infty < x < \infty & \text{when } \gamma = 0. \end{cases} \quad (22.183)$$

As mentioned already in Section 2, the distribution above includes the type 2 distribution in Eq. (22.2) when  $\gamma > 0$ , the type 3 distribution in Eq. (22.3) when  $\gamma < 0$ , and the type 1 distribution in Eq. (22.1) when  $\gamma = 0$ . The distribution is referred to as the *von Mises type extreme value distribution* or the *von Mises-Jenkinson type distribution*. Senkinson (1955) used this generalized distribution to analyze annual maximum or minimum values of certain meteorological elements. The density function corresponding to (22.183) is

$$p_X(x) = \begin{cases} e^{-(1-\gamma((x-\xi)/\theta))^{1/\gamma}} \cdot \frac{1}{\theta} \left\{ 1 - \gamma \left( \frac{x-\xi}{\theta} \right) \right\}^{(1/\gamma)-1}, & -\infty < x \leq \xi + \frac{\delta}{\gamma} & \text{when } \gamma > 0, \\ \xi + \frac{\delta}{\gamma} \leq x < \infty & & \text{when } \gamma < 0, \\ e^{-e^{-(x-\xi)/\theta}} \cdot \frac{1}{\theta} e^{-(x-\xi)/\theta}, & -\infty < x < \infty & \text{when } \gamma = 0. \end{cases} \quad (22.184)$$

The standard form of the generalized extreme value distributions has cdf

$$F_Y(y) = \begin{cases} e^{-(1-\gamma y)^{1/\gamma}}, & -\infty < y \leq 1/\gamma & \text{when } \gamma > 0, \\ 1/\gamma \leq y < \infty & & \text{when } \gamma < 0, \\ e^{-e^{-y}}, & -\infty < y < \infty & \text{when } \gamma = 0, \end{cases} \quad (22.185)$$

and pdf

$$p_Y(y) = \begin{cases} e^{-(1-\gamma y)^{1/\gamma}} (1-\gamma y)^{(1/\gamma)-1}, & -\infty < y \leq 1/\gamma & \text{when } \gamma > 0, \\ 1/\gamma \leq y < \infty & & \text{when } \gamma < 0, \\ e^{-e^{-y}} e^{-y}, & -\infty < y < \infty & \text{when } \gamma = 0. \end{cases} \quad (22.186)$$

Maritz and Munro (1967) studied order statistics from this generalized extreme value distribution, and presented tables of means of order statistics from sample sizes 5 to 10 for the choices of the shape parameter  $\gamma = -0.10(0.05)0.40$ . These authors have also discussed the estimation of all three parameters  $\xi$ ,  $\theta$ , and  $\gamma$  by the use of order statistics.

From Eqs. (22.185) and (22.186), we observe the characterizing differential equation

$$(1 - \gamma y)p_Y(y) = -F_Y(y)\log F_Y(y). \tag{22.187}$$

Balakrishnan, Chan, and Ahsanullah (1993) have exploited the differential equation (22.187) in order to establish several recurrence relations satisfied by the single and the product moments of lower record values. Specifically, let  $Y_{L(1)} \equiv Y, Y_{L(2)}, \dots$  be the lower record values arising from the sequence  $\{Y_i\}$  of i.i.d. random variables with generalized extreme value distribution (22.185). Then, by proceeding on lines similar to those explained in, Section 6 and using the differential equation in (22.187), Balakrishnan, Chan, and Ahsanullah (1993) established the following relationships:

$$E[Y_{L(n+1)}^{r+1}] = \left\{1 + \frac{\gamma(r+1)}{n}\right\} E[Y_{L(n)}^{r+1}] - \frac{r+1}{n} E[Y_{L(n)}^r],$$

$$n = 1, 2, \dots, r = 0, 1, \dots \tag{22.188}$$

$$E[Y_{L(m)}^{r+1} Y_{L(m+1)}^s] = \frac{1}{m + \gamma(r+1)} \{(r+1)E[Y_{L(m)}^r Y_{L(m+1)}^s] + mE[Y_{L(m+1)}^{r+s+1}]\},$$

$$m = 1, 2, \dots, r, s = 0, 1, \dots \tag{22.189}$$

$$E[Y_{L(m)}^{r+1} Y_{L(n)}^s] = \frac{1}{m + \gamma(r+1)} \{(r+1)E[Y_{L(m)}^r Y_{L(n)}^s] + mE[Y_{L(m+1)}^{r+1} Y_{L(n)}^s]\},$$

$$1 \leq m \leq n - 2, r, s = 0, 1, \dots \tag{22.190}$$

$$E[Y_{L(m)}^r Y_{L(m+2)}^{s+1}] = (1 + \gamma(s+1))E[Y_{L(m)}^r Y_{L(m+1)}^{s+1}] + (s+1)E[Y_{L(m)}^r Y_{L(m+1)}^s]$$

$$+ m\{E[Y_{L(m+1)}^{r+s+1}] - E[Y_{L(m+1)}^r Y_{L(m+2)}^{s+1}]\},$$

$$m = 1, 2, \dots, r, s = 0, 1, \dots \tag{22.191}$$

$$E[Y_{L(m)}^r Y_{L(n+1)}^{s+1}] = \frac{1}{n-m} \left\{ (n-m+\gamma(s+1))E[Y_{L(m)}^r Y_{L(n)}^{s+1}] \right.$$

$$\left. - (s+1)E[Y_{L(m)}^r Y_{L(n)}^s] \right.$$

$$\left. + m\{E[Y_{L(m+1)}^r Y_{L(n)}^{s+1}] - E[Y_{L(m+1)}^r Y_{L(n+1)}^{s+1}]\} \right\},$$

$$1 \leq m \leq n - 2, r, s = 0, 1, \dots \tag{22.192}$$

From these recurrence relations Balakrishnan, Chan, and Ahsanullah (1993)

also deduced the results

$$E[Y_{L(n+1)}] = \left(1 + \frac{\gamma}{n}\right)E[Y_{L(n)}] - \frac{1}{n} \quad \text{for } n \geq 1,$$

$$\text{cov}(Y_{L(m)}, Y_{L(m+1)}) = \frac{m}{m + \gamma} \text{var}(Y_{L(m+1)}) \quad \text{for } m \geq 1,$$

$$\text{cov}(Y_{L(m)}, Y_{L(n)}) = \frac{(n-1)^{(n-m)}}{(n-1+\gamma)^{(n-m)}} \text{var}(Y_{L(n)}) \quad \text{for } 1 \leq m \leq n-2,$$

where

$$r^{(i)} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = 0, \\ r(r-1) \cdots (r-i+1) & \text{if } i = 1, 2, \dots \end{cases}$$

Recurrence relations for product moments involving more than two record values have also been established by these authors. When the shape parameter  $\gamma \rightarrow 0$ , the relations in (22.188)–(22.192) reduce to the corresponding results for the type 1 extreme value distribution presented in Section 6. **Ahsanullah** and Holland (1994) have discussed the estimation of the location and scale parameters of the generalized extreme value distribution (when  $y$  is known) based on the record values.

The maximum likelihood estimation of the parameters  $\xi$ ,  $\theta$ , and  $\gamma$  have been discussed by a number of authors including Jenkinson (1969), Prescott and Walden (1980, 1983), Hosking (1985), and Macleod (1989). Based on a complete sample of size  $n$  from the generalized extreme value distribution (22.183), the Fisher expected information matrix is given by [Prescott and Walden (1980)]

$$E\left[-\frac{\partial^2 \log L}{\partial \xi^2}\right] = \frac{n}{\theta^2 p},$$

$$E\left[-\frac{\partial^2 \log L}{\partial \theta^2}\right] = \frac{n}{\theta^2 \gamma^2} \{1 - 2\Gamma(2 - \gamma) + p\},$$

$$E\left[-\frac{\partial^2 \log L}{\partial \gamma^2}\right] = \frac{n}{\gamma^2} \left\{ \frac{\pi^2}{6} + \left(1 - 0.5772157 - \frac{1}{\gamma}\right)^2 + \frac{2q}{\gamma} + \frac{p}{\gamma^2} \right\},$$

$$E\left[-\frac{\partial^2 \log L}{\partial \xi \partial \theta}\right] = \frac{n}{\theta^2 \gamma} \{p - \Gamma(2 - \gamma)\},$$

$$E\left[-\frac{\partial^2 \log L}{\partial \xi \partial \gamma}\right] = -\frac{n}{\theta \gamma} \left(q + \frac{p}{\gamma}\right),$$

$$E\left[-\frac{\partial^2 \log L}{\partial \theta \partial \gamma}\right] = \frac{n}{\theta \gamma^2} \left[1 - 0.5772157 - \frac{\{1 - \Gamma(2 - \gamma)\}}{\gamma} - q - \frac{p}{\gamma}\right],$$

where

$$= (1 - \gamma)^2 \Gamma(1 - 2\gamma) \quad \text{and} \quad q = \Gamma(2 - \gamma) \left\{ -\gamma - \frac{1 - \gamma}{\gamma} \right\}$$

The regularity conditions are satisfied when  $\gamma < \frac{1}{2}$ , and in this case the asymptotic variances and covariances of the maximum likelihood estimators are given by the elements of the inverse of the Fisher information matrix whose elements are as given above.

Hosking (1985) has presented a FORTRAN subroutine MLEGEV that facilitates the calculation of the maximum likelihood estimates of the parameters  $\xi$ ,  $\theta$ , and  $\gamma$  (by the Newton-Raphson method) and the variance-covariance matrix of the estimated parameters (by the expressions given above). Macleod (1989) has noted that if the initial estimate for the shape parameter  $\gamma$  is 0, then Hosking's algorithm will attempt to calculate 1.0/0.0, which will cause a failure on many compilers. Macleod has therefore suggested an adjustment that should be applied to Hosking's algorithm.

Hosking, Wallis, and Wood (1985) have discussed the method of probability-weighted moments (PWM) for the estimation of the parameters  $\xi$ ,  $\theta$ , and  $\gamma$ . In this approach one considers the moments

$$\beta_r = E[X\{F(X)\}^r], \quad r = 0, 1, 2, \dots, \quad (22.193)$$

and sets up the necessary number of moment equations by using the sample statistics

$$b_r = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(i-1)^{(r)}}{(n-1)^{(r)}} X'_i, \quad r = 0, 1, 2, \dots, \quad (22.194)$$

which are unbiased estimators of the moments  $\beta_r$  (see Section 9.8). One may instead use the simplified estimates

$$\hat{\beta}_r[p_{i,n}] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n p_{i,n}^r X'_i, \quad (22.195)$$

where  $p_{i,n}$  is a plotting position [a distribution-free estimate of  $F(X'_i)$ ] that may be taken as

$$p_{i,n} = \frac{i-a}{n}, \quad 0 < a < 1,$$

or

$$p_{i,n} = \frac{i-a}{n+1-2a}, \quad -\frac{1}{2} < a < \frac{1}{2}.$$

For the generalized extreme value distribution, Hosking, Wallis, and Wood (1985) derived

$$\beta_r = \frac{1}{r+1} \left[ \xi + \frac{\theta}{\gamma} \left\{ 1 - \frac{\Gamma(1+\gamma)}{(1+r)^\gamma} \right\} \right], \quad \gamma > -1, \gamma \neq 0. \quad (22.196)$$

They used (22.196) to show that

$$\hat{\beta}_0 = \beta_0 = \xi + \frac{\theta}{\gamma} \{1 - \Gamma(1+\gamma)\}, \quad (22.197)$$

$$2\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_0 = 2\beta_1 - \beta_0 = \frac{\theta}{\gamma} \Gamma(1+\gamma)(1 - 2^{-\gamma}), \quad (22.198)$$

and

$$\frac{3\hat{\beta}_2 - \hat{\beta}_0}{2\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_0} = \frac{3\beta_2 - \beta_0}{2\beta_1 - \beta_0} = \frac{1 - 3^{-\gamma}}{1 - 2^{-\gamma}}. \quad (22.199)$$

Since the exact solution for  $\gamma$  from Eq. (22.199) requires iterative methods, Hosking, Wallis, and Wood (1985) suggested the approximate estimator

$$\hat{\gamma} = 7.8590c + 2.9554c^2, \quad (22.200)$$

where

$$c = \frac{2\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_0}{3\hat{\beta}_2 - \hat{\beta}_0} - \frac{\log 2}{\log 3}.$$

Using the estimator  $\hat{\gamma}$  in (22.200), we readily obtain from Eqs. (22.198) and (22.197) the estimators of  $\theta$  and  $\xi$  to be

$$\hat{\theta} = \frac{(2\hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\beta}_0)\hat{\gamma}}{\Gamma(1+\hat{\gamma})(1 - 2^{-\hat{\gamma}})} \quad (22.201)$$

and

$$\hat{\xi} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \frac{\hat{\theta}}{\hat{\gamma}} \{ \Gamma(1+\hat{\gamma}) - 1 \}. \quad (22.202)$$

Using standard arguments, Hosking, Wallis, and Wood (1985) have shown



**Table 22.23** Elements of the asymptotic variance-covariance matrix of the PWM estimators of the parameters of the generalized extreme value distribution

$\gamma$	$w_{11}$	$w_{12}$	$w_{13}$	$w_{22}$	$w_{23}$	$w_{33}$
-0.4	1.6637	1.3355	1.1405	1.8461	1.1628	2.9092
-0.3	1.4153	0.8912	0.5640	1.2574	0.4442	1.4090
-0.2	1.3322	0.6727	0.3926	1.0013	0.2697	0.9139
-0.1	1.2915	0.5104	0.3245	0.8440	0.2240	0.6815
0.0	1.2686	0.3704	0.2992	0.7390	0.2247	0.5633
0.1	1.2551	0.2411	0.2966	0.6708	0.2447	0.5103
0.2	1.2474	0.1177	0.3081	0.6330	0.2728	0.5021
0.3	1.2438	-0.0023	0.3297	0.6223	0.3033	0.5294
0.4	1.2433	-0.1205	0.3592	0.6368	0.3329	0.5880

that the asymptotic variance-covariance matrix of  $(\hat{\xi} \ \hat{\theta} \ \hat{\gamma})'$  is given by

$$\frac{1}{n} \begin{bmatrix} \theta^2 w_{11} & \theta^2 w_{12} & \theta w_{13} \\ & \theta^2 w_{22} & \theta w_{23} \\ & & w_{33} \end{bmatrix} \quad (22.203)$$

where the  $w$ 's depend only on  $\gamma$ . Values of these elements for different choices of the shape parameter  $\gamma$ , taken from Hosking, Wallis, and Wood (1985), are presented in Table 22.23. The asymptotic efficiency of the individual PWM estimators and the overall efficiency (determined by determinants of the variance-covariance matrices) are presented in Figure 22.2 [taken from Hosking, Wallis, and Wood (1985)].

In defining partial probability-weighted moments, Wang (1990) discussed the estimation of the parameters of the generalized extreme value distribution based on censored samples. Prescott and Walden (1983) have discussed the maximum likelihood estimation of the parameters  $\xi$ ,  $\theta$ , and  $\gamma$  a doubly **Type-II** censored sample  $X'_{r+1}, \dots, X'_{n-s}$  (where the smallest  $r$  and the largest  $s$  observations are censored in a sample of size  $n$ ) from the generalized extreme value distribution (22.183). They have also presented expressions for the asymptotic variance-covariance matrix of these **MLEs**.

Smith (1984) has discussed a choice probability characterization of generalized extreme value models. Testing whether the shape parameter  $\gamma$  is zero in the generalized extreme value distributions for the data at hand has been discussed by Hosking (1984). Some goodness-of-fit tests for the generalized extreme value distributions have been examined by Chowdhury, Stedinger, and Lu (1991). An excellent discussion on the models for exceedances over high thresholds by Davison and Smith (1999) provides further insight into issues relating to these distributions. By giving a predictive likelihood that

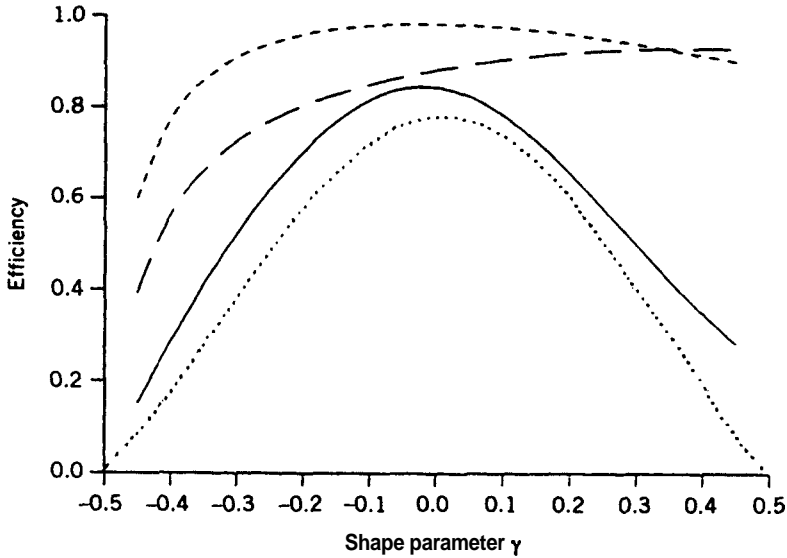


Figure 22.2 Asymptotic Efficiency of PWM Estimators of Parameters of the GEV Distribution: — $\hat{\gamma}$ ; --- $\hat{\theta}$ ; ..... $\hat{\xi}$ ; - · - · - overall efficiency (i.e., ratio of determinants of asymptotic covariance matrices of ML and PWM estimators).

approximates both Bayes and maximum likelihood predictive inference, Davison (1986) has applied it to the prediction of extremes using the generalized extreme value distribution.

As has already been pointed out in Section 2, the Gompertz (1825) distribution of lifetimes is a reparametrization of the type 1 extreme value distribution. This distribution gives good fit to data from clinical trials on older subjects and is also useful in the construction of life tables [Stephens (1977)]. The cdf has been given by various authors in different forms. Garg, Raja Rao, and Redmond (1970) have defined it in terms of the hazard rate (or the force of mortality) as

$$r(t) = Ke^{\alpha t}, \quad t \geq 0$$

yielding the survival function

$$1 - F(t) = e^{-K(e^{\alpha t} - 1)/\alpha}, \quad t \geq 0 \quad (22.204)$$

and the probability density function

$$p(t) = Ke^{\alpha t} e^{-K(e^{\alpha t} - 1)/\alpha}, \quad t \geq 0.$$

Actually Gompertz (1825) defined a function (or transformation)  $y(t) = K(e^{at} - 1)/\alpha$  which transforms the random variable  $T$  into  $y(T)$  which is exponentially distributed with mean 1.

Ahuja (1971) provided the classical definition in terms of the distribution function

$$F(t) = e^{-\rho e^{-t/\mu}}, \quad -\infty < t < \infty, \quad (22.205)$$

which was earlier generalized by Ahuja and Nash (1967), by introducing an additional shape parameter  $\phi$ , with the density function

$$p(t; \rho, \mu, \phi) = \frac{1}{\mu \Gamma(\phi)} (\rho e^{-t/\mu})^\phi e^{-\rho e^{-t/\mu}}, \quad -\infty < t < \infty. \quad (22.206)$$

The cumulants of the distribution (22.205) are

$$\kappa_1 = \mu(\gamma + \log \rho), \quad \kappa_2 = \frac{\pi^2 \mu^2}{6}, \quad \kappa_3 = 2.404 \mu^3,$$

ignoring the terms  $e^{-\rho}$  [Revfeim (1984b)].

Garg, Raja Rao, and Redmond (1970) observed the following property of the Gompertz distribution (22.204). If the origin is shifted to the point (i.e., by writing  $t' = t - t_0$  so that  $t' \geq 0$ ), the density remains in the form

$$p(t') = K' e^{\alpha t'} e^{-K'(e^{\alpha t'} - 1)/\alpha}, \quad t' \geq 0$$

with  $K' = K e^{\alpha t_0} = r(t_0)$ , the hazard rate at  $t_0$ . Thus, truncating a Gompertz distribution at time  $t$ , and setting the origin at  $t$ , leaves the distribution unchanged except that the constant  $K$  changes to  $K'$ .

Garg, Raja Rao, and Redmond (1970) have also discussed the maximum likelihood estimation of the parameters based on censored samples and grouped data. For example, consider the time interval  $[0, t_m)$  subdivided into  $m$  subintervals  $[0, t_1), [t_1, t_2), \dots, [t_{m-1}, t_m)$ . Let

$n$  = number of individuals in the sample,

$d_i$  = observable number of individuals falling (dying) within the time interval  $[t_{i-1}, t_i)$ ,

$s_i$  = observable number of individuals surviving upto time  $t_i$  and lost or withdrawn from the followup

for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ . Then the log-likelihood function is given by

$$\log L = \text{const.} + D \log K + \alpha T - \frac{K}{\alpha} Q(\alpha),$$

where

$$T = \sum_{i=1}^m d_i \tau_i,$$

$$D = \sum_{i=1}^m d_i,$$

$$Q(\alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^m \{s_i(e^{\alpha t_i} - 1) + d_i(e^{\alpha \tau_i} - 1)\}$$

yielding the maximum likelihood estimator of  $K$  as

$$\hat{K} = \frac{D \hat{\alpha}}{Q(\hat{\alpha})}, \quad (22.207)$$

and the solution of the equation

$$T + \frac{D}{\alpha} - D \frac{Q'(\alpha)}{Q(\alpha)} = 0 \quad (22.208)$$

as the maximum likelihood estimator of  $\mathbf{a}$ . An iterative solution to (22.208) can be achieved by Newton's method; the initial estimate  $\mathbf{a}$ , may be selected as the least-squares estimate of  $\mathbf{a}$  obtained by calculating the numerical value of the force of mortality,  $r(t)$ , for each  $t$  for the data and minimizing

$$\sum_t \{\log r(t) - \log K - \alpha t\}^2. \quad (22.209)$$

The maximum likelihood estimate of  $K$  may then be obtained from (22.207). Numerical data based on an experiment to determine the effects of prolonged oral conception on mortality of mice conducted by Garg, Raja Rao, and Redmond (1970) showed that this distribution described quite well the mortality of the mice in each of the five treatment groups. Furthermore the fit was observed to improve substantially by the use of the maximum likelihood estimators as compared to the least-squares estimators.

Ahuja (1972) concentrated on the generalized Gompertz density (22.206) and showed that, given two independent random variables  $X$  and  $Y$  with respective generalized Gompertz densities

$$p_X(t_1; \rho_1, \mu, \phi) \quad \text{and} \quad p_Y(t_2; \rho_2, \mu, \theta), \quad (22.210)$$

then the conditional density function of  $X$  given  $Z = X - Y = z$  is a generalized Gompertz density

$$p(t; \rho_1 + \rho_2 e^{z/\mu}, \mu, \phi + \theta).$$

This property may be compared with damage models involving binomial and Poisson distributions, and also with normal distributions (see Chapters 4 and 13). Moreover the characteristic function corresponding to the generalized Gompertz density (22.206) is given by

$$\psi(u; \rho, \mu, \phi) = e^{i\mu u} \frac{\Gamma(\phi - i\mu u)}{\Gamma(\phi)}; \quad (22.211)$$

hence the characteristic function corresponding to the difference of two independent Gompertz variables with parameters  $(\rho_1, \mu, \phi)$  and  $(\rho_2, \mu, \theta)$  is given by

$$\psi_Z(u) = \left(\frac{\rho_1}{\rho_2}\right)^{i\mu u} \frac{\Gamma(\phi - i\mu u)\Gamma(\theta + i\rho u)}{\Gamma(\phi)\Gamma(\theta)} \quad (22.212)$$

The characteristic function of  $Z$  in (22.212) readily shows that  $Z$  is a generalized logistic random variable (see Chapter 23) with density function

$$p_Z(z; \rho, \mu, \phi, \theta) = \frac{1}{\mu B(\phi, \theta)} \cdot \frac{(\rho e^{-z/\mu})^\phi}{(1 + \rho e^{-z/\mu})^{\phi+\theta}}, \quad -\infty < z < \infty. \quad (22.213)$$

Scarf (1992) has considered a four-parameter generalized extreme value distribution, and discussed the maximum likelihood estimation and the probability-weighted moment estimation of the parameters. Scarf has noted that in certain applications, data on extremes arise as paired observations  $(X_i, t_i)$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , where  $X_i$  is observed at time  $t_i$ , independently of  $X$ , at time  $t$ . One such application arises in metallic corrosion where  $X$ , is the depth of the largest pit penetration over a standard area of metal surface exposed to a corrosive environment for time  $t_i$ . In this situation Scarf (1992) has proposed a four-parameter form of the generalized extreme value distribution as

$$F_{X,t}(x) = e^{-\{1 - \gamma(xt^{-\beta} - \xi)/\theta\}^{1/\gamma}}, \quad \gamma xt^{-\beta} < \xi\gamma + \theta, \quad \theta, \beta > 0. \quad (22.214)$$

Scarf has then discussed methods of estimation of the four parameters  $\xi$ ,  $\theta$ ,  $\gamma$ , and  $\beta$ .

## 16 OTHER RELATED DISTRIBUTIONS

There is clearly a close connection between the three types of extremal distributions. As seen in the last section, the standard type 1 extreme value distribution is a transitional limiting form between type 2 and type 3 (**Weibull**) distributions. Furthermore, as mentioned in Section 9 (and also in Chapter 21), a logarithmic transformation of a Weibull random variable results in a type 1 extreme value random variable. Also, if  $Y$  is a standard type 1 extreme value random variable with density (22.26), then  $e^{-Y}$  has a standard exponential distribution (as noted earlier in Section 4).

A rather unexpected relation holds between the logistic and type 1 distributions. If two independent random variables each have the same type 1 distribution, their difference has a logistic distribution [Gumbel (1961)]. Gumbel (1962c, d) has also studied the distribution of products and ratios of independent variables having extreme value distributions. Tables of the distribution of the "extremal quotient" [(greatest)/(-least), i.e.,  $X'_n/(-X'_1)$ ] have been published by Gumbel and Pickands (1967).

Limiting distributions of second, third, and so forth, greatest (or least) values may also be regarded as being related to extreme value distributions. Gumbel (1958) has shown that under the same conditions as those leading to the type 1 extreme value distribution, the limiting distribution of the  $r$ th greatest value  $Y'_{n-r+1} = (X'_{n-r+1} - \xi)/\theta$  has the standard form of probability density function

$$p_{Y'_{n-r+1}}(y) = r[(r-1)!]^{-1} \exp[-ry - re^{-y}]. \quad (22.215)$$

100 $\alpha\%$  points of this distribution are given by Gumbel (1958) to 5 decimal places for

$$r = 1(1)15(5)50,$$

$$\alpha = 0.005, 0.01, 0.025, 0.05, 0.1, 0.25, 0.5, 0.75, 0.9, 0.95, 0.975, 0.99, 0.995.$$

The moment-generating function of distribution (22.215) is

$$\frac{r^t \Gamma(r-t)}{\Gamma(r)}.$$

The cumulant-generating function is

$$t \log r + \log T(r-t) - \log \Gamma(r)$$

so the cumulants are

$$\begin{aligned} \kappa_1 &= \log r - \psi(r) \\ \kappa_s &= (-1)^s \psi^{(s-1)}(r), \quad s \geq 2. \end{aligned} \quad (22.216)$$

The limiting distribution (22.215), which corresponds to a fixed value of  $r$ , should be distinguished from distributions obtained by allowing  $r$  to vary with  $n$  (usually in such a way that  $r/n$  is nearly constant) or by keeping  $r$  constant but varying the argument value. Borgman (1961), for example, has shown that if  $x_n$  be defined by  $F_X(x_n) = 1 - w/n$ , for given fixed  $w$  [where  $F_X(x)$  is the cumulative distribution function of the population distribution], then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pr\{X'_{n-r+1} \text{ ax.,.} \} = 1 - [(r-1)!]^{-1} \int_0^w t^{r-1} e^{-t} dt. \quad (22.217)$$

The right-hand side of (22.217) can also be written in terms of a  $\chi^2$  distribution, as  $\Pr\{\chi^2_{2r} > 2w\}$ .

The asymptotic distribution of *range* is naturally closely connected with extreme value distributions. If both the greatest and least values have limiting distributions of type 1, then [Gumbel (1947)] the limiting distribution of the range,  $R$ , is of form

$$\Pr\{R \leq r\} = 2e^{-r/2} K_1(2e^{-r/2}), \quad r > 0, \quad (22.218)$$

with probability density function

$$p_R(r) = 2e^{-r} K_0(2e^{-r/2}), \quad r > 0,$$

where  $K_0, K_1$  are modified Bessel functions of the second kind of orders zero, one, respectively. Gumbel gives the values

$$E[R] = 2\gamma = 1.15443,$$

$$\text{Median } R = 0.92860,$$

$$\text{Modal } R = 0.50637.$$

Also

$$\text{var}(R) = \frac{\pi^2}{3} = 3.2899.$$

In Gumbel (1949b) there are tables of  $\Pr\{R \leq r\}$  and  $p_R(r)$  to seven decimal places for

$$r = -4.6(0.1) - 3.3(0.05) 11.00(0.5) 20.0,$$

and of percentile points  $R_\alpha$  to four decimal places for

$$\alpha = 0.0002(0.0001) 0.0010(0.001) 0.010(0.01) 0.95(0.001) 0.998$$

and to three decimal places for

$$\alpha = 0.001, 0.999(0.0001)0.9999.$$

Some forms of *generalized* and *compound* type 1 extreme value distributions have been constructed by Dubey (1969). He generalizes the distribution by introducing an extra parameter  $\tau$ , defining the cumulative distribution function by the equation

$$\Pr[X \leq x] = \exp\left[-\tau\theta \exp\left\{-\frac{x-\xi}{\theta}\right\}\right]. \quad (22.219)$$

However, since

$$\tau\theta \exp\left\{-\frac{x-\xi}{\theta}\right\} = \exp\left\{-\frac{x-\xi'}{\theta}\right\}$$

with  $\xi' = \xi + \theta \log \tau\theta$ , it can be seen that  $X$  still has an ordinary type 1 distribution. This generalized distribution is, however, introduced only as an intermediate step in the construction of a *compound* type 1 extreme value distribution, which can be denoted formally as

"Generalized" type 1 extreme value  $(\xi, \theta, \tau) \wedge \underset{\tau}{\text{Gamma}}(p, \beta)$

Here  $\tau$  is supposed to have probability density function

$$p_{\tau}(t) = \frac{\beta^p}{\Gamma(p)} t^{p-1} e^{-\beta t}, \quad t > 0; p > 0, \beta > 0.$$

The resulting compound distribution has cumulative distribution function

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[X \leq x] &= \left[ \frac{\beta^p}{\Gamma(p)} \int_0^{\infty} t^{p-1} \exp\left[-t\left(\beta + \theta \exp\left(-\frac{x-\xi}{\theta}\right)\right)\right] dt \right. \\ &= \left. \left[ 1 + \theta\beta^{-1} \exp\left\{-\frac{x-\xi}{\theta}\right\} \right]^{-p} \right. \end{aligned}$$

We may note that this distribution, different from the generalized logistic distribution introduced by Ahuja and Nash (1967), can also be regarded as a *generalized logistic distribution*. [See Hald (1952) and Chapter 23, Section 10.1] In fact this is termed a *type I generalized logistic distribution* in Chapter 23. By considering a cumulative distribution function

$$\Pr[X \leq x] = 1 - \exp\left[-\tau\theta \exp\left\{\frac{x-\xi}{\theta}\right\}\right] \quad (22.221)$$



and using a similar gamma compounding, Balakrishnan and Leung (1988a) derived the cumulative distribution function

$$\Pr[X \leq x] = 1 - e^{-p(x-\xi)/\theta} \left[ \theta \beta^{-1} + \exp\left\{-\frac{x-\xi}{\theta}\right\} \right]^{-p}. \quad (22.222)$$

This distribution has been termed a *Type-II generalized logistic distribution* in Chapter 23. As mentioned there, the type I and Type-II generalized logistic distributions are related by a simple negation of the random variables.

Proceeding similarly, Balakrishnan and Leung (1988a) started with the exponential-gamma density function

$$p_X(x|\tau) = \exp\left[-\tau \exp\left\{-\frac{x-\xi}{\theta}\right\}\right] \exp\left\{-\frac{\kappa(x-\xi)}{\theta}\right\} \frac{\tau^\kappa}{\theta \Gamma(\kappa)},$$

$$-\infty < x < \infty, \kappa > 0, \theta > 0, \quad (22.223)$$

and compounded it with a gamma density function for  $\tau$  to derive the density function

$$p_X(x) = \int_0^\infty e^{-t} e^{-(x-\xi)/\theta} e^{-\kappa(x-\xi)/\theta} \frac{t^\kappa}{\theta \Gamma(\kappa)} \frac{\beta^p}{\Gamma(p)} t^{p-1} e^{-\beta t} dt$$

$$= \frac{\beta^p}{\theta \Gamma(p) \Gamma(\kappa)} e^{-\kappa(x-\xi)/\theta} \int_0^\infty e^{-t[\beta + e^{-(x-\xi)/\theta}]} t^{\kappa+p-1} dt$$

$$= \frac{1}{\theta B(\kappa, p)} \frac{[\beta^{-1} \exp\{-(x-\xi)/\theta\}]^\kappa}{[1 + \beta^{-1} \exp\{-(x-\xi)/\theta\}]^{\kappa+p}},$$

$$-\infty < x < \infty, \kappa > 0, p > 0, \theta > 0. \quad (22.224)$$

The density function in (22.224) has been termed a *type IV generalized logistic density* in Chapter 23. For the special case when  $p = \kappa$ , the type IV generalized logistic density function in (22.224) becomes symmetric about  $x = \xi$  and has been referred to as a *Type-III generalized logistic density* in Chapter 23.

The standard log-gamma density function

$$p_Y(y) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\kappa)} e^{\kappa y - e^y}, \quad -\infty < y < \infty, \kappa > 0 \quad (22.225)$$

can be considered as a generalization of the standard type 1 extreme value density. Specifically, if  $Y$  has the density function in (22.225), for the case when  $\kappa = 1$  the variable  $-Y$  is distributed simply as a standard type 1

extreme value random variable. We may note that for integral values of  $\kappa$ , (22.225) is related to the density (22.215). The cumulative distribution function corresponding to the density (22.225) is

$$F_Y(y) = I_{e^y}(\kappa), \quad -\infty < y < \infty, \kappa > 0, \quad (22.226)$$

where  $I_t(\kappa)$  is the incomplete gamma function ratio

$$I_t(\kappa) = \int_0^t \frac{1}{\Gamma(\kappa)} e^{-z} z^{\kappa-1} dz, \quad 0 < t < \infty, \kappa > 0.$$

For integral values of  $\kappa$  therefore we have (see Chapter 17)

$$1 - F_Y(y) = e^{-e^y} \sum_{i=0}^{\kappa-1} \frac{e^{iy}}{i!}, \quad -\infty < y < \infty, \kappa = 1, 2, \dots \quad (22.227)$$

The moment-generating function corresponding to the density (22.225) is

$$E[e^{tY}] = \frac{\Gamma(\kappa + t)}{\Gamma(\kappa)};$$

in particular, we have

$$E[Y] = \psi(\kappa) \quad \text{and} \quad \text{var}(Y) = \psi'(\kappa). \quad (22.228)$$

Since  $\psi(\kappa) \sim \log \kappa$  and  $\psi'(\kappa) \sim 1/\kappa$  for large  $\kappa$ , Prentice (1974) suggested a **reparametrized** log-gamma density function

$$p_Y^*(Y) = \frac{\kappa^{\kappa-1/2}}{\Gamma(\kappa)} e^{\sqrt{\kappa}y - \kappa e^{y/\sqrt{\kappa}}}, \quad -\infty < y < \infty, \kappa > 0 \quad (22.229)$$

which tends to the standard normal density function as  $\kappa \rightarrow \infty$ . By introducing a location parameter  $\xi$  and a scale parameter  $\theta$  in the density (22.225), we obtain a three-parameter log-gamma density function as

$$p_X(x) = \frac{1}{\theta \Gamma(\kappa)} e^{\kappa(x-\xi)/\theta} e^{-e^{(x-\xi)/\theta}}, \quad \kappa > 0, \theta > 0. \quad (22.230)$$

This is clearly a generalization of the type 1 extreme value density function (22.25). Lawless (1980,1982) has illustrated the usefulness of the **three-parameter** log-gamma density (22.230) as a life-test model and the maximum likelihood estimation of the parameters; also see Prentice (1974). **Balakrishnan** and Chan (1994a, b, c, d) have discussed order statistics from this distribution and also the best linear unbiased estimation, the asymptotic best

linear unbiased estimation, and the maximum likelihood estimation of the parameters based on complete as well as Type-II censored samples. Young and Bakir (1987) have discussed the log-gamma regression model. Lawless (1980) and DiCiccio (1987) have discussed inferential procedures for a related generalized gamma distribution (see Chapter 17 for details). Mihram (1975) referred to this distribution as a generalized extreme value distribution and discussed some basic properties of the distribution (like the closure under linear transformation, shapes, etc.) and inferential methods for the parameters (like sufficiency, efficiency, etc.).

A two-component mixture of extreme value distributions with density function

$$p_X(x) = \frac{\alpha}{\theta} e^{-(x-\xi)/\theta} e^{-e^{-(x-\xi)/\theta}} + \frac{1-\alpha}{\theta^*} e^{-(x-\xi^*)/\theta^*} e^{-e^{-(x-\xi^*)/\theta^*}},$$

$$-\infty < x < \infty, 0 < \alpha < 1, \theta > 0, \theta^* > 0, \quad (22.231)$$

and cumulative distribution function

$$F_X(x) = \alpha e^{-e^{-(x-\xi)/\theta}} + (1-\alpha) e^{-e^{-(x-\xi^*)/\theta^*}}, \quad -\infty < x < \infty, \quad (22.232)$$

has also been used in some applied problems. The moment-generating function of this distribution is

$$M_X(t) = \alpha e^{t\xi} \Gamma(1 - \theta t) + (1 - \alpha) e^{t\xi^*} \Gamma(1 - \theta^* t), \quad |t| \max(\theta, \theta^*) < 1. \quad (22.233)$$

In particular, the mean and variance are

$$E[X] = \{\alpha(\xi - \xi^*) + \xi^*\} + \gamma\{\alpha(\theta - \theta^*) + \theta^*\} \quad (22.234)$$

and

$$\text{var}(X) = \frac{\pi^2}{6} \{\alpha\theta^2 + (1-\alpha)\theta^{*2}\} + \alpha(1-\alpha)\{(\xi - \xi^*) + \gamma(\theta - \theta^*)\}^2. \quad (22.235)$$

Rossi, Fiorentino, and Versace (1986) have made use of this two-component extreme value distribution for flood frequency analysis; also see Beran, Hosking, and Arnell (1986) and Rossi (1986) for additional comments in this regard.

Revfeim (1984a) discussed an alternative parametric form of the type 1 extreme value distribution for the maximum and used it to derive an extended family of type 1 extreme value distributions. To be specific, let us

suppose that events occur in a Poisson process of rate  $\rho$ . If the sizes of the events are distributed independently of occurrence and of each other with cdf  $G(x)$ , then the maximum sizes within unit time intervals have cdf

$$F(x) = \frac{e^{-\rho(1-G(x))} - e^{-\rho}}{1 - e^{-\rho}}. \quad (22.236)$$

If  $\rho$  is large, then  $e^{-\rho}$  is negligible. For the exponential distribution with  $G(x) = 1 - e^{-x/\mu}$ , (22.236) then gives (for large  $\rho$ )

$$F(x) = e^{-\rho e^{-x/\mu}}, \quad (22.237)$$

which is just a reparametrized form of the type 1 extreme value distribution for the maximum in (22.1) [Revfeim (1984b)]; see also Revfeim (1984c) and Revfeim and Hessell (1984). Next, choosing  $G(x)$  to be the gamma distribution of integer order  $p$  with cdf

$$G(x) = 1 - e^{-x/\mu} \sum_{i=0}^{p-1} \frac{(x/\mu)^i}{i!},$$

Revfeim (1984a) derived from (22.236) an extended family of type 1 extreme value distributions with cdf

$$F(x) = \exp \left\{ -\rho e^{-x/\mu} \sum_{i=0}^{p-1} \frac{(x/\mu)^i}{i!} \right\}. \quad (22.238)$$

For  $p = 1$ , (22.238) reduces to the type 1 distribution in (22.237). Moment properties of the distribution (22.238) for integral  $p > 1$  have been discussed by Revfeim (1984a). Revfeim and Hessell (1984) have applied the distribution (22.238) to model extreme wind gusts. The distribution (22.238) was also derived by Zelenhasic (1970) in connection with river flow exceedances. The mean of this distribution is approximated by

$$E[X] \approx \mu a(\log \rho + b)$$

where  $a$  and  $b$  are functions of the gamma shape parameter  $p$ . For the value of  $p = 8$  (the most likely value for maximum wind gusts),  $a$  and  $b$  are 1.58 and 6.00, respectively. Similarly  $a$  and  $b$  are 1.31 and 3.55 when  $p = 4$ , and 1.13 and 1.82 when  $p = 2$ . (Note that for  $p = 1$ ,  $a = 1$  and  $b = \gamma$ .)

Maximum likelihood estimators of  $\mu$  and  $p$ , when  $p$  is known, are given by

$$\hat{\mu} = \frac{\bar{X}}{p} \left( 1 + \frac{\hat{S}_1}{\hat{S}_0} \right) \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{\rho} = \frac{1}{\hat{S}_0}, \quad (22.239)$$

where

$$S_0 = \sum_{i=0}^{p-1} \frac{Z_i}{i!},$$

$$S_1 = \frac{Z_p}{p!},$$

$$S_2 = \frac{Z_{p+1}}{p!}$$

with

$$Z_i = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n e^{-x_j/\mu} \left( \frac{x_j}{\mu} \right)^i.$$

$\hat{\mu}$  can be obtained iteratively by dividing the current value of  $\mu$  by  $1 + D$ , where

$$D = \frac{S_0 + S_1 - \bar{X}S_0/(p\mu)}{S_2 + \bar{X}[(S_0/p) - S_1]/\mu}.$$

The general formula for the  $k$ th raw moment of the distribution (22.228) is

$$E[X^k] = \mu^k \frac{p}{\Gamma(p)} \int_0^1 (-\log y)^{p+k-1} e^{-\rho y \sum_{i=0}^{p-1} (-\log y)^i / i!} dy, \quad \text{with } y = e^{-x/\mu}. \quad (22.240)$$

This is difficult to evaluate even numerically, due to the singularity at  $y = 0$ , and especially for large  $p$  and  $k$ .

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## CHAPTER 23

# Logistic Distribution

### 1 HISTORICAL REMARKS AND GENESIS

An early reference to the use of the logistic function as a growth curve is by Verhulst (1838,1845). The use of the curve for economic demographic purposes has been very popular since the end of the nineteenth century. Many other applications of the logistic curve have also been found over the years. Pearl and Reed (1920, 1924), Pearl, Reed, and Kish (1940), and Schultz (1930) all applied the logistic model as a growth model in human populations as well as in some biological organisms. Schultz (1930) and Oliver (1964) used the logistic function to model agricultural production data. A number of authors including Pearl (1940), Berkson (1944, 1951, 1953), and Finney (1947, 1952) discussed applications of the logistic function in bioassay problems. A few more interesting uses of the logistic function are in the analysis of survival data [Plackett (1959)], in the study of income distributions [Fisk (1961)], and in the modeling of the spread of an innovation [Oliver (1969)]. The logistic function and the logistic distribution have found several important applications in many different fields. A book length account of these is due to Balakrishnan (1992). In view of the encyclopedic nature of the treatment given in that book, we refrain from discussing this distribution in great detail and focus mainly on some significant developments concerning the distribution. Interested readers may refer to the volume by Balakrishnan (1992) for more details and relevant references.

The use of logistic function as a growth curve can be based on the differential equation

$$\frac{dF}{dx} = c[F(x) - A][B - F(x)] \quad (23.1)$$

where  $c$ ,  $A$ , and  $B$  are constants with  $c > 0$ ,  $B > A$ . In verbal form (23.1) can be interpreted as rate of growth = [excess over initial (asymptotic) value  $A$ ]  $\times$  [deficiency compared with final (asymptotic) value  $B$ ].

Solution of (23.1) leads to

$$F(x) = \frac{B D e^{x/c} + A}{D e^{x/c} + 1}, \quad (23.2)$$

where  $D$  is a constant. As  $x \rightarrow -\infty$ ,  $F(x) \rightarrow A$ ; as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $F(x) \rightarrow B$  (if  $D \neq 0$ ). The function  $F(x)$  represents "growth" from a lower asymptote  $A$  to an upper asymptote  $B$ . To make  $F(x)$  a proper cumulative distribution function, we put  $A = 0$ ,  $B = 1$ ; equation (23.2) then becomes

$$F(x) = \frac{D e^{x/c}}{1 + D e^{x/c}} = [1 + D^{-1} e^{-x/c}]^{-1} \quad (23.3)$$

which is of the logistic distribution form given in the next section with  $c = \beta$  and  $D = e^{-\alpha/\beta}$ .

Equation (23.1) has been used as a model of autocatalysis. This is the name applied to a chemical reaction in which a catalyst  $M$  transforms a compound  $G$  into two compounds  $J$  and  $K$ , and  $J$  itself acts as a catalyst for the same reaction. If  $M_0$ ,  $G_0$  = original concentrations of  $M$ ,  $G$ , respectively, and  $y$  = common value of concentration of  $J$  and  $K$  at time  $t$ , then the law of mass action in this case is

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = c_1 M_0 (G_0 - y) + c_2 y (G_0 - y) \quad (23.4)$$

( $c_1$  and  $c_2$  are "catalytic constants" for the actions of  $E$ ,  $J$ , respectively).

The right-hand side of (23.4) can be rearranged to read

$$c_2 \left( y + \frac{c_1}{c_2} M_0 \right) \left[ \left( G_0 + \frac{c_1}{c_2} M_0 \right) - \left( y + \frac{c_1}{c_2} M_0 \right) \right] \quad (23.5)$$

which is the same form as (23.1) with  $F(x)$ ,  $x$  replaced by  $(y + c_1 M_0 / c_2)$ ,  $t$ , respectively, and with  $c = c_2$ ,  $A = 0$ ;  $B = G_0 + c_1 M_0 / c_2$ .

The logistic distribution arises in a purely statistical manner as the limiting distribution (as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ) of the standardized midrange (average of largest and smallest sample values) of random samples of size  $n$ . This result was given by Gumbel (1944). Gumbel and Keeney (1950) [see also Gumbel and Pickands (1967)] showed that a logistic distribution is obtained as the limiting distribution of an appropriate multiple of the "extremal quotient," that is, (largest value)/(smallest value). (See Chapter 22.)

Talacko (1956) has shown that the logistic is the limiting distribution (as  $r \rightarrow \infty$ ) of the standardized variable corresponding to  $\sum_{j=1}^r j^{-1} X_j$ , where the  $X_j$ 's are independent random variables each having a type 1 extreme value distribution (see Chapter 22).

Dubey (1969) has shown that the logistic distribution can be obtained as a mixture of extreme value distributions

$$\Pr[X \leq x | \eta] = 1 - \exp\left[-\eta\beta \exp\left\{-\frac{x - \alpha}{\beta}\right\}\right], \quad \eta, \beta > 0$$

[obtained by putting  $\theta = \alpha + \beta \log(\eta\beta)$  in Eq. (22.1)], with  $\eta$  having an exponential distribution with density function

$$p_{\eta}(y) = \beta e^{-\beta y}, \quad y > 0.$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[X \leq x] &= 1 - \beta \int_0^{\infty} \exp\left[-\beta y \left\{1 + \exp\left(-\frac{x - \alpha}{\beta}\right)\right\}\right] dy \\ &= \left[1 + \exp\left\{-\frac{x - \alpha}{\beta}\right\}\right]^{-1}, \end{aligned}$$

which is identical to the logistic distribution given in the next section. More historical details of the distribution may be found in Balakrishnan (1992).

## 2 DEFINITION

The distribution is most simply defined in terms of its cumulative distribution function

$$\begin{aligned} F_X(x) &= 1 - \left[1 + \exp\left\{\frac{x - \alpha}{\beta}\right\}\right]^{-1} \\ &= \left[1 + \exp\left\{-\frac{x - \alpha}{\beta}\right\}\right]^{-1} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left[1 + \tanh\left\{\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{x - \alpha}{\beta}\right)\right\}\right], \quad \text{with } \beta > 0. \quad (23.6) \end{aligned}$$

It can be seen that (23.6) defines a proper cumulative distribution function with

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F_X(x) = 0,$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F_X(x) = 1.$$

The corresponding probability density function is

$$\begin{aligned}
 p_X(x) &= \beta^{-1} \left[ \exp\left\{ \frac{x - a}{\beta} \right\} \right] \left[ 1 + \exp\left\{ \frac{x - a}{\beta} \right\} \right]^{-2} \\
 &= \beta^{-1} \left[ \exp\left\{ -\frac{x - \alpha}{\beta} \right\} \right] \left[ 1 + \exp\left\{ -\frac{x - \alpha}{\beta} \right\} \right]^{-2} \\
 &= (4\beta)^{-1} \operatorname{sech}^2 \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{x - \alpha}{\beta} \right) \right\}. \tag{23.7}
 \end{aligned}$$

The distribution is sometimes called the *sech-square(d)* distribution.

The function on the right-hand side of (23.6) has been used extensively to represent growth functions (with  $x$  representing time). We will be primarily concerned with its use as a distribution function (which can of course include situations in which the random variable represents time). It is worth noting that methods developed for fitting the logistic as a growth curve [e.g., Erkelens (1968) and Balakrishnan (1992, ch. 13)] can also be applied to fit the cumulative logistic distribution.

### 3 GENERATING FUNCTIONS AND MOMENTS

Making the transformation  $Y = (X - \alpha)/\beta$ , we obtain, from (23.7), the probability density function of  $Y$

$$p_Y(y) = e^{-y}(1 + e^{-y})^{-2} = \frac{1}{4} \operatorname{sech}^2 \frac{1}{2} y. \tag{23.8}$$

The cumulative distribution function of  $Y$  is

$$F_Y(y) = (1 + e^{-y})^{-1}. \tag{23.9}$$

Equations (23.8) and (23.9) are standard forms for the logistic distribution. [They are not the only standard forms. Equations (23.13) and (23.14), which express the distribution in terms of mean and standard deviation, can also be regarded as standard.]

The moment-generating function of the random variable  $Y$  with probability density function (23.8) is

$$\begin{aligned}
 E[e^{\theta Y}] &= M_Y(\theta) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-(1-\theta)y} (1 + e^{-y})^{-2} dy \\
 &= \int_0^1 \xi^{-\theta} (1 - \xi)^{\theta} d\xi, \quad \left[ \text{with } \xi = (e^y + 1)^{-1} \right] \\
 &= B(1 - \theta, 1 + \theta) \\
 &= \pi \theta \operatorname{cosec} \pi \theta. \tag{23.10}
 \end{aligned}$$

The characteristic function  $E(e^{itY})$  is  $\pi t \operatorname{cosech} \pi t$ . The moments of  $Y$  may be determined from (23.10), or by direct integration from (23.8). Using the latter method (with  $r > 0$ ),

$$\begin{aligned} E[|Y|^r] &= 2 \int_0^\infty y^r e^{-y} (1 + e^{-y})^{-2} dy \\ &= 2 \int_0^\infty y^r \sum_{j=1}^\infty (-1)^{j-1} j e^{-jy} dy \\ &= 2 \sum_{j=1}^\infty (-1)^{j-1} j^{-r} \quad (\text{for } r > 0) \\ &= 2\Gamma(r+1)(1 - 2^{-(r-1)})\zeta(r) \quad (\text{for } r > 1), \end{aligned} \tag{23.11}$$

where  $\zeta(r) = \sum_{j=1}^\infty j^{-r}$  is the Riemann zeta function (see Chapter 1).

The cumulants are (for  $r$  even)  $\kappa_r(Y) = 6(2^r - 1)B_r$ , where  $B_r$  is the  $r$ th Bernoulli number (see Chapter 1). If  $r$  is odd,  $\kappa_r(Y) = 0$ . The distribution of  $Y$  is symmetrical about  $y = 0$ . Putting  $r = 2, 4$  in (23.11)

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{var}(Y) &= E(Y^2) = 2 \cdot 2(1 - 2^{-1}) \left( \frac{\pi^2}{6} \right) = \frac{\pi^2}{3}, \\ \mu_4(Y) &= 2 \cdot 24(1 - 2^{-3}) \left( \frac{\pi^4}{90} \right) = \frac{7}{15} \pi^4. \end{aligned}$$

The first two moment-ratios of the distribution are

$$\sqrt{\beta_1} = \alpha_3 = 0; \beta_2 = \alpha_4 = 4.2.$$

The mean deviation is  $2\sum_{j=1}^\infty (-1)^{j-1} j^{-1} = 2 \log_e 2$ . Hence for the logistic distribution

$$\frac{\text{Mean deviation}}{\text{Standard deviation}} = \frac{2\sqrt{3} \log_e 2}{\pi} = 0.764.$$

Returning to the original form of the distribution (23.6), and recalling that  $X = a + \beta Y$ , we see that

$$\begin{aligned} E[X] &= \alpha \\ \operatorname{var}(X) &= \beta^2 \pi^2 / 3. \end{aligned} \tag{23.12}$$

The coefficient of variation is, therefore,  $\beta\pi/(\alpha\sqrt{3})$ . The moment-ratios (and the ratio of mean deviation to standard deviation), are, of course, the same

for  $X$  as for  $Y$ . The cumulative distribution function of  $X$  can be expressed in terms of  $E[X] = \xi$  and  $\text{var}(X) = \sigma^2$  in the standard form

$$F_X(x) = \left[ 1 + \exp\left\{-\frac{\pi(x - \xi)}{\sigma\sqrt{3}}\right\}\right]^{-1}. \quad (23.13)$$

The corresponding probability density function is

$$p_X(x) = \frac{\pi}{\sigma\sqrt{3}} \left[ \exp\left\{-\frac{\pi(x - \xi)}{\sigma\sqrt{3}}\right\}\right] \cdot \left[ 1 + \exp\left\{-\frac{\pi(x - \xi)}{\sigma\sqrt{3}}\right\}\right]^{-2}. \quad (23.14)$$

The information-generating function [( $u - 1$ )-th frequency moment] corresponding to the probability density function (23.8) is

$$\begin{aligned} T_Y(u) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-uy}(1 - e^{-y})^{-2u} dy \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left(\frac{e^y}{1 + e^y}\right)^u (1 + e^y)^{-u} dy \\ &= \int_0^1 \xi^{u-1}(1 - \xi)^{u-1} d\xi \\ &= B(u, u) \\ &= \frac{[\Gamma(u)]^2}{\Gamma(2u)}. \end{aligned} \quad (23.15)$$

The entropy is

$$\begin{aligned} -T'_Y(1) &= \frac{-2\Gamma(1)\Gamma'(1)}{\Gamma(2)} + \frac{2[\Gamma(1)]^2\Gamma'(2)}{\Gamma(2)} \\ &= 2(\psi(2) - \psi(1)) \\ &= 2. \end{aligned}$$

#### 4 PROPERTIES

Gumbel (1961) noted the properties

$$p_Y(y) = F_Y(y)[1 - F_Y(y)], \quad (23.16)$$

$$y = \log_e \left[ \frac{F_Y(y)}{1 - F_Y(y)} \right] \quad (23.17)$$

for  $p_\gamma(y)$ , with  $F_\gamma(y)$  defined as in (23.8) and (23.9). In general, the inverse distribution function or the quantile function (of probability  $\gamma$ ) is

$$\alpha + \beta \log\left(\frac{\gamma}{1 - \gamma}\right),$$

and the inverse survival function (of probability  $\gamma$ ) is

$$\alpha + \beta \log\left(\frac{1 - \gamma}{\gamma}\right).$$

As a result we readily note that the logistic ( $\alpha, \beta$ ) distribution arises as the distribution of

$$\alpha + \beta \log\left(\frac{U}{1 - U}\right) \quad \text{or} \quad \alpha + \beta \log\left(\frac{e^{-V}}{1 - e^{-V}}\right),$$

where  $U$  is a standard uniform  $(0, 1)$  random variable and  $V$  is a standard exponential random variable.

The simple explicit relationships between  $y$ ,  $p_\gamma(y)$  and  $F_\gamma(y)$  render much of the analysis of the logistic distribution attractively simple. The further fact that the logistic distribution has a shape similar to that of the normal distribution makes it profitable, on suitable occasions, to replace the normal by the logistic to simplify the analysis without too great discrepancies in the theory. Such substitution must be done with care and understanding of the similarities between the two distributions.

If the cumulative distribution functions  $G_1(x) = (1/\sqrt{2\pi})\int_{-\infty}^x e^{-u^2/2} du$  and  $G_2(x) = [1 + \exp(-\pi x/\sqrt{3})]^{-1}$  of the standardized normal and logistic distributions are compared, the differences  $G_2(x) - G_1(x)$  vary in the way shown in Figure 23.1. Since both  $G_1(x)$  and  $G_2(x)$  are symmetric about  $x = 0$ , only the values for  $x \geq 0$  are given. It can be seen that the maximum value of  $G_1(x) - G_2(x)$  is about 0.0228, attained when  $x = 0.7$ . This maximum may be reduced to a value less than 0.01 by changing the scale of  $x$  in  $G_1$  and using  $G_1(16x/15)$  as an approximation to  $G_2(x)$ . This also is presented graphically in Figure 23.1. Volodin (1994) has determined that the constant  $\pi/\sqrt{3.41}$  [instead of  $(15\pi)/16\sqrt{3}$ ] gives a better approximation with a maximum absolute difference of 0.0094825 [instead of 0.00953211]. He has also indicated that the value of 1.7017456 will provide the best approximation with a maximum absolute difference of 0.0094573.

It should be noted that although there is a close similarity in shape between the normal and logistic distributions, the value of  $\beta_2$  for logistic is 4.2, considerably different from the value ( $\beta_2 = 3$ ) for the normal distribution. The difference may be attributed largely to the relatively longer tails of the logistic distribution. These can have a considerable effect on the fourth central moment, but a much smaller relative effect on the cumulative distribution function. [We may also note that whereas the standard normal

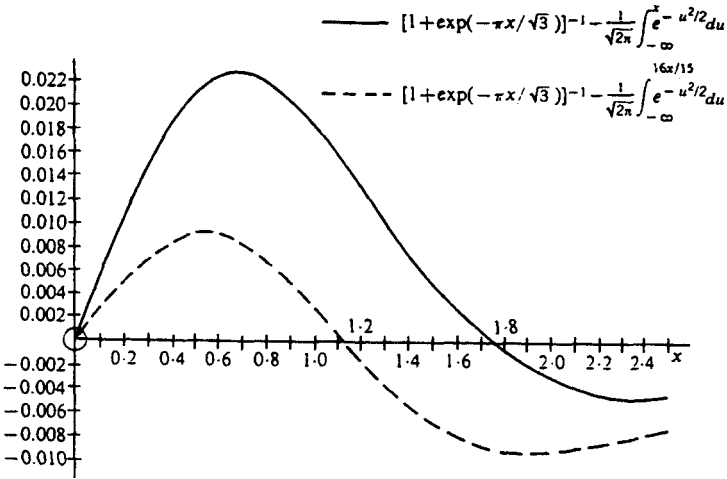


Figure 23.1 Comparison of Logistic and Normal Cumulative Distribution Functions.

curve has points of inflexion at  $x = \pm 1$ , those of the logistic are  $x = \pm(\sqrt{3} / \pi) \log_e(2 + \sqrt{3}) = \pm 0.53$ .]

The logistic density function is more peaked in the center than the normal density function; see Chew (1968). It is also easily observed that the hazard function is simply proportional to the cumulative distribution function. In fact it is this particular characterizing property of the logistic distribution that makes it useful as a growth curve model.

Noting the fact that  $\beta_2 = 4.2$  for the logistic, Mudholkar and George (1978) observed that the logistic distribution very closely approximates Student's  $t$ -distribution with nine degrees of freedom. A similar rationale has been applied by George and Ojo (1980) and George, El-Saidi, and Singh (1986) in order to propose some close approximations for Student's  $t$ -distribution with  $\nu$  degrees of freedom using generalized logistic distributions (see Section 10).

With  $e(x)$  denoting the mean residual life function or remaining life expectancy function at age  $x$  given by

$$e(x) = E[X - x | X > x] = \int_x^\infty \{1 - F_X(t)\} dt / \{1 - F_X(x)\}$$

for  $x \geq 0$ , Ahmed and Abdul-Rahman (1993) have shown that

$$e(x) = \beta \{1 + e^{(x-\alpha)/\beta}\} \log\{1 + e^{-(x-\alpha)/\beta}\}$$



characterizes the logistic distribution in (23.6). They have also presented a number of equivalent conditions in terms of conditional expectations.

An expression for the distribution function of the sum of  $n$  i.i.d. logistic variables was obtained by **Goel** (1975) by using the **Laplace** transform inverse method for convolutions of **Pólya-type** functions, a technique developed by **Schoenberg** (1953) and **Hirschman and Widder** (1955). **Goel** (1975) also provided a table of the cdf of the sum of  $n$  i.i.d. standard logistic variables for  $n = 2(1)12$ ,  $x = 0(0.01)3.99$ , and for  $n = 13(1)15$ ,  $x = 1.20(0.01)3.99$ ; he also presented a table of the quantiles for  $n = 2(1)15$  and  $a = 0.90, 0.95, 0.975, 0.99, 0.995$ . **George and Mudholkar** (1983), on the other hand, derived an expression for the distribution of a convolution of the i.i.d. standard logistic variables by directly inverting the characteristic function. Both these expressions, however, contain a term  $(1 - e^x)^{-k}$ ,  $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , which pose a problem in precision of the computation at the values of  $x$  near zero when  $n$  is large.

**George and Mudholkar** (1983) also displayed that a standardized Student's  $t$ -distribution provides a very good approximation for the distribution of a convolution of  $n$  i.i.d. logistic variables. These authors then compared three approximations: (1) standard normal approximation, (2) Edgeworth series approximation correct to order  $n^{-1}$ , and (3) Student's  $t$  approximation with  $\nu = 5n + 4$  degrees of freedom (obtained by equating the coefficient of kurtosis). Of these three the third provides a very good approximation.

**Gupta and Han** (1992) considered the Edgeworth and Cornish-Fisher series expansions (see Chapter 12 for details) up to order  $n^{-3}$  for the distribution of the standardized sample mean

$$T_n = \frac{\sqrt{n}}{\sigma} (\bar{X} - \xi),$$

when  $X_i$ 's are i.i.d. logistic variables with cdf and pdf as in (23.13) and (23.14). They are given by

$$\begin{aligned} F_{T_n}(t) = & \Phi(t) - \phi(t) \left[ \frac{1}{n} \left\{ \frac{1}{4!} \cdot \frac{6}{5} H_3(t) \right\} \right. \\ & + \frac{1}{n^2} \left\{ \frac{1}{6!} \cdot \frac{48}{7} H_5(t) + \frac{35}{8!} \left( \frac{6}{5} \right)^2 H_7(t) \right\} \\ & \left. + \frac{1}{n^3} \left\{ \frac{1}{8!} \cdot \frac{432}{5} H_7(t) + \frac{210}{10!} \cdot \frac{48}{7} \cdot \frac{6}{5} H_9(t) + \frac{5775}{12!} \left( \frac{6}{5} \right)^3 H_{11}(t) \right\} \right] \\ & + O(n^{-7/2}), \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}
 T_n(U_\alpha) = & U_\alpha + \frac{1}{n} \left\{ \frac{1}{4!} \cdot \frac{6}{5} (U_\alpha^3 - 3U_\alpha) \right\} \\
 & + \frac{1}{n^2} \left\{ \frac{1}{6!} \cdot \frac{48}{7} (U_\alpha^5 - 10U_\alpha^3 + 15U_\alpha) \right. \\
 & \quad \left. + \frac{35}{8!} \left( \frac{6}{5} \right)^2 (-9U_\alpha^5 + 72U_\alpha^3 - 87U_\alpha) \right\} \\
 & + \frac{1}{n^3} \left\{ \frac{1}{8!} \cdot \frac{432}{5} (U_\alpha^7 - 21U_\alpha^5 + 105U_\alpha^3 - 105U_\alpha) \right. \\
 & \quad + \frac{210}{10!} \cdot \frac{48}{5} \cdot \frac{6}{5} (-15U_\alpha^7 + 255U_\alpha^5 - 1035U_\alpha^3 - 855U_\alpha) \\
 & \quad \left. + \frac{5775}{12!} \left( \frac{6}{5} \right) (243U_\alpha^7 - 3537U_\alpha^5 + 12177U_\alpha^3 - 8667U_\alpha) \right\} \\
 & + O(n^{-7/2}),
 \end{aligned}$$

where  $\phi(\cdot)$  and  $\Phi(\cdot)$  are the standard normal pdf and cdf,  $U_\alpha$  is the  $\alpha$ th quantile of the standard normal distribution, and  $H_j(t)$  is the Hermite polynomial defined in Chapter 1.

**Table 23.1** A comparison of four approximations for the cdf of the standardized mean  $T_3$  of samples of size 3 from a logistic population

$t$	$F_{T_3}(t)$	$F_{T_3}(t) - \Phi(t)$	$F_{T_3}(t) - A_1(t)$	$F_{T_3}(t) - A_2(t)$	$F_{T_3}(t) - A_3(t)$
0.05	0.5209	0.0010	0.0000	0.0001	0.0000
0.15	0.5625	0.0029	0.0000	0.0003	0.0000
0.25	0.6033	0.0046	0.0008	0.0005	0.0000
0.35	0.6809	0.0073	-0.0017	0.0007	0.0001
0.65	0.7506	0.0084	-0.0007	0.0007	0.0000
0.85	0.8106	0.0083	-0.0006	0.0007	0.0000
1.00	0.8486	0.0079	-0.0008	0.0004	0.0000
1.20	0.8903	0.0054	-0.0007	0.0002	0.0000
1.45	0.9291	0.0026	-0.0004	0.0000	0.0000
1.75	0.9598	-0.0001	0.0001	-0.0002	0.0000
2.50	0.9918	-0.0020	0.0004	0.0002	0.0000
3.00	0.9975	-0.0012	0.0001	0.0001	0.0000

Note  $F_{T_3}(t)$  = exact cdf of the standardized mean taken from Goel (1975),  $\Phi(t)$  = standard normal cdf,  $A_1(t)$  = Edgeworth series expansion up to order  $n^{-1}$ ,  $A_2(t)$  = cdf of the standardized Student's  $t$  with 19 degrees of freedom,  $A_3(t)$  = Edgeworth series expansion up to order  $n^{-3}$ .

Gupta and Han (1992) compared this approximation with the approximations mentioned earlier, and they showed the approximation to be far better than even the Student's  $t$ -approximation suggested by George and Mudholkar (1983). A comparison of these four approximations is presented in Table 23.1 for the sample size  $n = 3$  [taken from Gupta and Han (1992)].

From Table 23.1 it is clear that the approximation using the Edgeworth expansion up to order  $n^{-3}$ , given by Gupta and Han (1992), is superior to the other three approximations, since its maximum error is about 0.0001 for the range of  $t$  considered.

## 5 ORDER STATISTICS

Let  $Y'_1 \mathbf{I} Y'_2 \leq \dots \mathbf{I} Y'_n$  be the order statistics obtained from a sample of size  $n$  from the standard logistic distribution (23.8) and (23.9). Then from the density function of  $Y'_r$  ( $1 \leq r \leq n$ ) given by

$$p_{Y'_r}(y) = \frac{n!}{(r-1)!(n-r)!} \{F_Y(y)\}^{r-1} \{1 - F_Y(y)\}^{n-r} p_Y(y), \quad (23.18)$$

$$-\infty < y < \infty,$$

we obtain the moment-generating function of  $Y'_r$  as

$$\begin{aligned} E[e^{\theta Y'_r}] &= M_{Y'_r}(\theta) = \frac{n!}{(r-1)!(n-r)!} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-(n-r+1)y + \theta y}}{(1 + e^{-y})^{n+1}} dy \\ &= \frac{B(r + \theta, n - r + 1 - \theta)}{B(r, n - r + 1)} \\ &= \frac{\Gamma(r + \theta)\Gamma(n - r + 1 - \theta)}{\Gamma(r)\Gamma(n - r + 1)}. \end{aligned} \quad (23.19)$$

An alternative expression for this moment-generating function of  $Y'_r$  in terms of Bernoulli numbers and Stirling numbers of the first kind has been given by Gupta and Shah (1965). From (23.19) we obtain

$$E[Y'_r] = \psi(r) - \$(n - r + 1) \quad (23.20)$$

and

$$\text{var}(Y'_r) = \psi'(r) + \psi'(n - r + 1), \quad (23.21)$$

where  $\psi(\cdot)$  and  $\psi'(\cdot)$  are the digamma and trigamma functions, respectively (see Chapter 1).

From (23.19) we obtain the cumulant-generating function of  $Y'_r$  as

$$\begin{aligned} K_{Y'_r}(\theta) &= \log M_{Y'_r}(\theta) \\ &= \log \Gamma(r+8) + \log \Gamma(n-r+1-8) \\ &\quad - \log \Gamma(r) - \log \Gamma(n-r+1) \end{aligned} \quad (23.22)$$

from which we get the  $k$ th cumulant of  $Y'_r$  as

$$\kappa_k(Y'_r) = \psi^{(k-1)}(r) + (-1)^k \psi^{(k-1)}(n-r+1), \quad (23.23)$$

$$\kappa_k(Y'_r) = (-1)^k \kappa_k(Y'_{n-r+1}), \quad (23.23)'$$

where  $\psi^{(k-1)}(\theta) = (d^k/d\theta^k)\log \Gamma(\theta)$  is the polygamma function. The expressions for the first four cumulants were given by Plackett (1958); see also Gumbel (1958).

By starting from the joint density function of  $X'_r$  and  $X'_s$  ( $1 \leq r < s \leq n$ ) and proceeding similarly, an expression for the joint moment-generating function of  $X'_r$  and  $X'_s$  and the product moment  $E[X'_r X'_s]$  can be derived; see, for example, Gupta, Qureishi, and Shah (1967) and Gupta and Balakrishnan (1992).

George and Mudholkar (1981a, b, 1982) provided joint characterizations of the logistic and the exponential based on order statistics. They observed that the characteristic function of  $Y'_r$  is

$$\phi_{Y'_r}(\theta) = E[e^{i\theta Y'_r}] = \prod_{j=1}^{r-1} \left(1 + \frac{i\theta}{j}\right) \prod_{k=1}^{n-r} \left(1 - \frac{i\theta}{k}\right) \phi_Y(\theta),$$

where  $\phi_Y(\theta)$  is the characteristic function of the logistic density in (23.8). From this form they observed that  $Y'_r + \sum_{k=1}^{n-r} E_{1k} - \sum_{j=1}^{r-1} E_{2j}$  is distributed as a standard logistic variable with density in (23.8), where  $E_{ij}$ 's are independent exponential random variables with density

$$p_{E_{ij}}(x) = j e^{-jx}, \quad x \geq 0, j = 1, 2, \dots, i = 1, 2.$$

Further characterization results of this nature relating the logistic, exponential and Laplace distributions may be found in the works of George and Mudholkar (1981a, b, 1982), George and Rousseau (1987), and Voorn (1987); see George and Devidas (1992) for a review of all these results.

By making use of the characterizing differential equation (23.16), Shah (1966, 1970) derived the following recurrence relations for single and product moments of the order statistics  $Y_r$  (denoted by  $Y_{r:n}$  for obvious notational

convenience):

$$E[Y_{1:n+1}^{i+1}] = E[Y_{1:n}^{i+1}] - \frac{(i+1)}{n} E[Y_{1:n}^i], \quad n \geq 1. \quad (23.24)$$

$$E[Y_{r+1:n+1}^{i+1}] = E[Y_{r:n+1}^{i+1}] + \frac{(i+1)(n+1)}{r(n-r+1)} E[Y_{r:n}^i],$$

$$1 \leq r \leq n. \quad (23.25)$$

$$E[Y_{r:n+1}Y_{r+1:n+1}] = E[Y_{r:n+1}^2] + \frac{n+1}{n-r+1}$$

$$\times \left\{ E[Y_{r:n}Y_{r+1:n}] - E[Y_{r:n}^2] - \frac{1}{n-r} E[Y_{r:n}] \right\},$$

$$1 \leq r \leq n-1. \quad (23.26)$$

$$E[Y_{r+1:n+1}Y_{r+2:n+1}] = E[Y_{r+2:n+1}^2]$$

$$+ \frac{n+1}{r+1} \left\{ E[Y_{r:n}Y_{r+1:n}] - E[Y_{r+1:n}^2] + \frac{1}{r} E[Y_{r+1:n}] \right\},$$

$$1 \leq r \leq n-1. \quad (23.27)$$

$$E[Y_{r:n+1}Y_{s:n+1}] = E[Y_{r:n+1}Y_{s-1:n+1}]$$

$$+ \frac{n+1}{n-s+2} \left\{ E[Y_{r:n}Y_{s:n}] - E[Y_{r:n}Y_{s-1:n}] \right.$$

$$\left. - \frac{1}{n-s+1} E[Y_{r:n}] \right\},$$

$$1 \leq r < s \leq n; s-r \geq 2. \quad (23.28)$$

$$E[Y_{r+1:n+1}Y_{s+1:n+1}] = E[Y_{r+2:n+1}Y_{s+1:n+1}]$$

$$+ \frac{n+1}{r+1} \left\{ E[Y_{r:n}Y_{s:n}] - E[Y_{r+1:n}Y_{s:n}] + \frac{1}{r} E[Y_{s:n}] \right\},$$

$$1 \leq r < s \leq n; s-r \geq 2. \quad (23.29)$$

Shah (1966,1970) showed that these recurrence relations are complete in the sense that, by starting with the values of moments of  $Y$ , these relations will enable one to determine the single and the product moments of order statistics for all sample sizes in a simple recursive manner.

Birnbaum and **Dudman (1963)** devoted considerable attention to comparison of distributions of order statistics from normal and logistic distributions. Gupta and Shah (1965) derived the distribution of the sample range from the logistic distribution, and compared it with the distribution of the sample range from the normal distribution for sample sizes 2 and 3. Malik (1980)

derived the distribution of the  $r$ th quasi-range,  $Y_{n-r:n} - Y_{r+1:n}$ , for  $r = 0, 1, 2, \dots, [(n-1)/2]$ . Tarter and Clark (1965) discussed properties of the median. Plackett (1958) used the expression of the **cumulants** of  $Y_{r:n}$  in (23.23) to develop some series approximations for the moments of order statistics from an arbitrary continuous distribution.

Kamps (1991), by considering a general class of distributions satisfying

$$\frac{d}{du}F^{-1}(u) = \frac{1}{d}u^p(1-u)^{q-p-1} \text{ on } (0, 1),$$

has presented some characterization results through relations for moments of order statistics. The logistic distribution is, of course, a special case of this class (case  $p = q = -1$ ). Reference may also be made to Kamps and Mattner (1993) for some further results in this direction.

The expression for the density function of the sample range,  $W = Y'_n - Y'_1$ , is

$$p_W(w) = \frac{\sqrt{\pi} \Gamma(n)}{2\sqrt{2} \Gamma(n + \frac{1}{2})} \left\{ 1 + \cosh \frac{w}{2} \right\}^{-(n-(1/2))} \\ \times F\left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}; n + \frac{1}{2}; \left(1 - \cosh \frac{w}{2}\right)\right), \\ w > 0, \quad (23.30)$$

where  $F(a, b; c; x) = 1 + (ab/c)(x/1!) + [a(a+1)b(b+1)/(c(c+1))](x^2/2!) + \dots$  is the hypergeometric function.

Shah (1965) derived the joint density function of  $W$  and the midrange,  $M = (Y'_1 + Y'_n)/2$ , to be

$$p_{M,W}(m, w) = \frac{n(n-1)\{\sinh(w/2)\}^{n-2}}{4\{\cosh m + \sinh(w/2)\}^n}, \quad w > 0, -\infty < m < \infty. \\ (23.31)$$

By considering the symmetrically truncated logistic distribution with density function

$$p_Y(y) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{1-2Q} \cdot \frac{e^{-y}}{(1+e^{-y})^2}, & -\log\left(\frac{1-Q}{Q}\right) \leq y \leq \log\left(\frac{1-Q}{Q}\right), \\ 0, & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases} \\ (23.32)$$

and cumulative distribution function

$$F_Y(y) = \frac{1}{1-2Q} \left\{ \frac{1}{1+e^{-y}} - Q \right\}, \quad -\log\left(\frac{1-Q}{Q}\right) \leq y \leq \log\left(\frac{1-Q}{Q}\right), \quad (23.33)$$

where  $Q$  is the proportion of truncation on the left and the right of the standard logistic density function in (23.8), Balakrishnan and Joshi (1983a) derived several recurrence relations for single and product moments of order statistics. These generalize Shah's results presented in Eqs. (23.24)–(23.29).

Balakrishnan and Kocherlakota (1986) generalized the results of Balakrishnan and Joshi (1983a) by considering the doubly truncated logistic distribution with density function

$$p_Y(y) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{P-Q} \cdot \frac{e^{-y}}{(1+e^{-y})^2}, & \log\left(\frac{Q}{1-Q}\right) \leq y \leq \log\left(\frac{P}{1-P}\right) \\ 0, & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases} \quad (23.34)$$

where  $Q$  and  $1-P$  are the proportions of truncation on the left and the right of the standard logistic density function in (23.8). For this case Tarter (1966) derived explicit expressions for the single and the product moments of order statistics. Braswell and Mandors (1970a, b) and Braswell and Pewitt (1973) considered the doubly truncated logistic distribution (but referred to it as the **FRPDF**, finite range probability distribution function) and discussed several inferential issues concerning the location and scale parameters of this distribution.

For a more detailed discussion on order statistics from the logistic distribution, one may refer to Gupta and Balakrishnan (1992).

## 6 METHODS OF INFERENCE

The maximum likelihood estimators,  $\hat{\xi}, \hat{\sigma}$  of the parameters  $\xi, \sigma$  in (23.14) based on a mutually independent set of random variables  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$ , each having this distribution, satisfy the equations

$$n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \left[ 1 + \exp\left\{ \frac{\pi(X_i - \hat{\xi})}{\hat{\sigma}\sqrt{3}} \right\} \right]^{-1} = \frac{1}{2} \quad (23.35)$$

$$n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \frac{X_i - \hat{\xi}}{\hat{\sigma}} \right) \frac{1 - \exp\left\{ \pi(X_i - \hat{\xi})/(\hat{\sigma}\sqrt{3}) \right\}}{1 + \exp\left\{ \pi(X_i - \hat{\xi})/(\hat{\sigma}\sqrt{3}) \right\}} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{\pi}. \quad (23.36)$$

For large  $n$

$$n \operatorname{var}(\hat{\xi}) \doteq \left( \frac{9}{\pi^2} \right) \sigma^2 \doteq 0.91189 \sigma^2 \quad (23.37)$$

$$n \operatorname{var}(\hat{\sigma}) \doteq \left( \frac{9}{3 + \pi^2} \right) \sigma^2 \doteq 0.69932 \sigma^2. \quad (23.38)$$

Equations (23.35) and (23.36) must be solved by trial and error.

Taking advantage of the similarity in shape between the logistic and normal distributions, initial values of  $\hat{\xi}$  and  $\hat{\sigma}$  might be taken as the maximum likelihood estimators

$$= n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i, \quad \text{and} \quad \sqrt{n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2},$$

respectively, appropriate to the latter distribution. Improvements could then be made, using (23.35) and (23.36), by applying, for example, the Newton-Raphson method.

Similarly, if the available sample is Type-II censored, say  $X'_{r+1}, X'_{r+2}, \dots, X'_{n-s}$  with  $r$  smallest and  $s$  largest observations censored, then the maximum likelihood estimators,  $\hat{\xi}$  and  $\hat{\sigma}$ , of the parameters  $\xi$  and  $\sigma$  in (23.14) satisfy the equations

$$(n - r - s) - r \left\{ \frac{e^{-\pi(X'_{r+1} - \hat{\xi})/(\hat{\sigma}\sqrt{3})}}{1 + e^{-\pi(X'_{r+1} - \hat{\xi})/(\hat{\sigma}\sqrt{3})}} \right\} + s \left\{ \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\pi(X'_{n-s} - \hat{\xi})/(\hat{\sigma}\sqrt{3})}} \right\} - 2 \sum_{i=r+1}^{n-s} \left\{ \frac{e^{-\pi(X'_i - \hat{\xi})/(\hat{\sigma}\sqrt{3})}}{1 + e^{-\pi(X'_i - \hat{\xi})/(\hat{\sigma}\sqrt{3})}} \right\} = 0, \quad (23.39)$$

$$-(n - r - s) \frac{\sqrt{3}}{\pi} - r \left( \frac{X'_{r+1} - \hat{\xi}}{\hat{\sigma}} \right) \left\{ \frac{e^{-\pi(X'_{r+1} - \hat{\xi})/(\hat{\sigma}\sqrt{3})}}{1 + e^{-\pi(X'_{r+1} - \hat{\xi})/(\hat{\sigma}\sqrt{3})}} \right\} + s \left( \frac{X'_{n-s} - \hat{\xi}}{\hat{\sigma}} \right) \left\{ \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\pi(X'_{n-s} - \hat{\xi})/(\hat{\sigma}\sqrt{3})}} \right\} + \sum_{i=r+1}^{n-s} \left( \frac{X'_i - \hat{\xi}}{\hat{\sigma}} \right) - 2 \sum_{i=r+1}^{n-s} \left( \frac{X'_i - \hat{\xi}}{\hat{\sigma}} \right) \left\{ \frac{e^{-\pi(X'_i - \hat{\xi})/(\hat{\sigma}\sqrt{3})}}{1 + e^{-\pi(X'_i - \hat{\xi})/(\hat{\sigma}\sqrt{3})}} \right\} = 0. \quad (23.40)$$

For the case where  $r = s = 0$ , Eqs. (23.39) and (23.40) reduce to (23.35) and (23.36). Here again (23.39) and (23.40) have to be solved by numerical methods.



By using Monte Carlo simulations and solving the likelihood equations by **regula falsi** method, Harter and Moore (1967) determined the bias, variances, covariance, and conditional variances of  $\hat{\xi}$  and  $\hat{\sigma}$  for sample sizes  $n = 10$  and  $20$  and various choices of censoring. A table of asymptotic variances and covariance of  $\hat{\xi}$  and  $\hat{\sigma}$ , for various choices of proportions of censoring  $p_r = r/n$  and  $p_s = s/n$ , was presented by Harter and Moore (1967); see also Harter (1970) and Balakrishnan (1992).

Bain et al. (1992) considered the interval estimation of the parameters  $\xi$  and  $\alpha$  based on **Type-II** censored samples. For this purpose they presented some simulated percentage points of the pivotal quantities  $\sqrt{n}(\hat{\xi} - \xi)/\hat{\sigma}$  and  $\sqrt{n}(\hat{\sigma}/\sigma - 1)$ . These authors have also presented some tables of lower  $\gamma$  tolerance factors for proportion  $\beta, t_\gamma$ , where the lower  $\gamma$  tolerance limit for proportion  $\beta$  is given by

$$L(X) = \hat{\xi} - t_\gamma \hat{\sigma}, \quad (23.41)$$

and it is such that

$$\Pr\{1 - F_X(L(X); \xi, \sigma) \geq \beta\} = \gamma. \quad (23.42)$$

Their tables provide values of the factor  $t_\gamma$  for various values of  $\gamma$  and  $\beta$  and for different sample sizes and choices of right censoring (i.e.,  $r = 0$ ).

Due to the symmetry of the logistic distribution, these tolerance factors  $t_\gamma$  may also be used to determine the upper  $\gamma$  tolerance limit for proportion  $\beta$  given by

$$U(X) = \hat{\xi} + t_\gamma \hat{\sigma}. \quad (23.43)$$

Bain et al. (1992) also demonstrated how their tables of tolerance factors may be used to determine  $100\gamma\%$  lower confidence limits for the reliability function  $R_X(t) = 1 - F_X(t; \xi, \sigma)$ .

Lawless (1972) discussed the conditional methods of inference for the location and scale parameters,  $\xi$  and  $\alpha$ , in (23.14). Approximate linearization of the maximum likelihood equations (23.35) and (23.36) was effected by Plackett (1958). He gave coefficients in estimators  $\hat{\xi}', \hat{\sigma}'$ , that are quite similar to those of the best linear unbiased estimators for parameters of normal distributions, even when the sample size is no greater than 10. Another method of approximate linearization was proposed by Tiku (1968). Fisk (1961) described the maximum likelihood estimation method based on grouped or truncated data; also see Hassanein and Sebaugh (1973).

The parameters  $\xi, \alpha$  may also be estimated by the sample mean and standard deviation,  $m'_1, \sqrt{m'_2}$ , respectively. The asymptotic efficiency of  $m'_1$  is 91.2%; that of  $\sqrt{m'_2}$  is 87.4%. Gupta, Qureishi, and Shah (1967) show that the actual efficiency of  $m'_1$ , as an estimator of  $\xi$ , and of  $\sqrt{m'_2}$ , as an estimator

of  $\sigma$ , is greater than the asymptotic efficiency when the sample size is small. These estimators are, however, less efficient (about 10% less for  $m'_1$ , considerably more so for  $\sqrt{m_2}$ ) than the appropriate best linear unbiased estimators.

A number of methods of fitting parameters of logistic curves were developed in connection with their use as growth curves. Descriptions of such methods can be found in Erkelens (1968), Oliver (1964), Pearl (1940), Rasor (1949), Silverstone (1957), Will (1936), D'Agostino and Massaro (1992), and Tsokos and DiCroce (1992). Many of these are of a heuristic nature and are not based directly on probabilistic considerations, but are nevertheless useful in obtaining quick estimators of the parameters. [The fitting of the distribution is simpler than the fitting as a growth curve, since in the former case there is no need to fit values for  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$ , see Eq. (23.1).]

From (23.13) the expected value of

$$f_x = \frac{\text{Number of } X\text{'s } \leq x}{n}$$

is  $[1 + \exp\{-\pi(x - \xi)/(\sigma\sqrt{3})\}]^{-1}$ . One method of fitting consists of plotting  $\log[f_x/(1 - f_x)]$  against  $x$  and fitting (often by eye) a straight line

$$\log\left[\frac{f_x}{1 - f_x}\right] = \hat{a} + \hat{b}x \quad (23.44)$$

to the data so obtained. Comparison of coefficients in (23.44) and

$$\log\left[\frac{E(f_x)}{1 - E(f_x)}\right] = \frac{\pi}{\sigma\sqrt{3}}(-\xi + x) \quad (23.45)$$

leads to the estimators

$$\hat{\sigma} = \frac{\pi}{\hat{b}\sqrt{3}}, \quad \hat{\xi} = -\frac{\hat{a}}{\hat{b}}$$

Although various refinements (e.g., in the fitting of the line and in reducing bias) can be introduced, this is quite effective as a quick method. Similar methods are not as effective when a growth curve is being fitted, and values of the upper, and possibly also the lower, asymptotes have to be estimated [Oliver (1964)]. When only **quantal** response data (i.e., proportions of observations exceeding certain specified values) are available, special methods must be used.

Despite the simple form of the joint probability density functions of the order statistics corresponding to a random sample from a logistic distribution, the variance-covariance matrix does not have a simple analytic form, as in the cases of the exponential and uniform distributions. As a consequence

we are very nearly in the same position in regard to construction of best linear unbiased estimators of the parameters  $\xi$  and  $\sigma$ , using order statistics, as for the normal distribution. It is again necessary to rely on numerical calculation, using tables rather than analytical formulas.

Gupta, Qureishi, and Shah (1967) showed that the efficiency (relative to the Cramér-Rao lower bounds in (23.37) and (23.38)) of the best linear unbiased estimator of  $\xi$  increases from about 95% for  $n = 5$  to about 98% for  $n = 25$ ; for  $\sigma$  the increase is from about 80% to about 90%.

There are explicit approximate formulas available [Gupta and Gnanadesikan (1966)] for best linear unbiased estimators based on  $k$  selected order statistics  $X'_{n_1}, X'_{n_2}, \dots, X'_{n_k}$  (with  $1 \leq n_1 < n_2 < \dots < n_k \leq n$ ) from  $n$  independent random variables  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$ , each having probability density function (23.14). These formulas should give useful results when  $n$  is large, while  $n_1/n$  and  $n_k/n$  are not "too near" to 0 or 1, respectively. This method is based on large-sample approximations to the expectations, variances and covariances of order statistics [see, e.g., Ogawa (1951)].

The first of these approximate formulas to be described here can be used to estimate  $\xi, \sigma$  being known. It is

$$\xi^* = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} [1 - (n_i/n) - (n_{i-1}/n)] \times [(n_i/n)(1 - (n_i/n))X'_{n_i} - (n_{i-1}/n)(1 - (n_{i-1}/n))X'_{n_{i-1}}] - K_3\sigma}{K_1} \quad (23.46)$$

where

$$K_1 = \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} \left( \frac{n_i}{n} - \frac{n_{i-1}}{n} \right) \left( 1 - \frac{n_i}{n} - \frac{n_{i-1}}{n} \right)^2$$

$$K_3 = \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} \left( 1 - \frac{n_i}{n} - \frac{n_{i-1}}{n} \right) \times \left[ \frac{n_i}{n} \left( 1 - \frac{n_i}{n} \right) \log \left\{ \frac{n_i/n}{(1 - (n_i/n))} \right\} - \frac{n_{i-1}}{n} \left( 1 - \frac{n_{i-1}}{n} \right) \times \log \left\{ \frac{n_{i-1}/n}{1 - (n_{i-1}/n)} \right\} \right],$$

( $X'_{n_0}$  and  $X'_{n_{k+1}}$  are each defined to be zero). Note that the coefficients in  $\xi^*$  depend only on the ratios  $n_i/n$ .

The variance of  $\xi^*$  is approximately  $(\sigma^2 n^{-1})K_1^{-1}$ . For given  $k$  this last quantity is minimized if  $n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k$  are chosen to maximize  $K_1$ . This is achieved by taking  $n_i = ni/(k+1)$ . (In practice of course the nearest suitable integer value would be taken.) With these values of the  $n_i$ 's we have

the estimator

$$\xi^{**} = \frac{6}{k(k+1)(k+2)} \sum_{i=1}^k i(k+1-i) X'_{n_i} \quad (23.47)$$

with  $\text{var}(\xi^{**}) = (9/\pi^2)(\sigma^2/n)[k^{-1}(k+2)^{-1}(k+1)^2]$ .

The **Cramér-Rao** lower bound for an unbiased estimator of  $\xi$  is  $(9/\pi^2)(\sigma^2/n)$ . The relative efficiency of  $[\xi^{**}]$  is approximately  $k^{-1}(k+2)^{-1}(k+1)^2$ . This increases with  $k$ , from a minimum of 75% when  $k=1$  up to 100% as  $k$  increases. (When  $k=1$ ,  $[\xi^{**}] = \text{median}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ .) It may be noted that (23.47) is the estimator obtained by Blom's (1956) method. It is also the estimator obtained by multiplying Jung's (1956) estimator by a constant to make it unbiased. The formula for estimating  $a$ ,  $\xi$  being known, is

$$\sigma^* = \frac{Y - \xi K_3}{K_2}, \quad (23.48)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} Y &= \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} \left[ \frac{n_i}{n} \left( 1 - \frac{n_i}{n} \right) \log \left\{ \frac{n_i/n}{1 - (n_i/n)} \right\} - \frac{n_{i-1}}{n} \left( 1 - \frac{n_{i-1}}{n} \right) \right. \\ &\quad \left. \times \log \left\{ \frac{n_{i-1}/n}{1 - (n_{i-1}/n)} \right\} \right] \\ &\quad \times \frac{\{(n_i/n)(1 - (n_i/n))X'_{n_i} - (n_{i-1}/n)(1 - (n_{i-1}/n))X'_{n_{i-1}}\}}{(n_i/n) - (n_{i-1}/n)} \\ K_2 &= \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} \frac{[(n_i/n)(1 - (n_i/n)) \ln\{(n_i/n)(1 - (n_i/n))\}}{(n_i/n) - (n_{i-1}/n)} \\ &\quad - \frac{(n_{i-1}/n)(1 - (n_{i-1}/n)) \ln\{(n_{i-1}/n)(1 - (n_{i-1}/n))\}}{(n_i/n) - (n_{i-1}/n)}, \end{aligned}$$

with approximate variance  $(\sigma^2/n)K_2^{-1}$ .

Gupta and Gnanadesikan (1966) gave a detailed comparison of the estimators of  $a$  ( $\xi$  not being known) obtained by Blom's (1956, 1958) and Jung's (1956) methods. They concluded that these estimators have high efficiencies. Table 23.2, taken from Gupta and Waknis (1965), gives the coefficients  $a_i$  in Jung's formula  $\sum a_i (X'_{n_{-i+1}} - X'_i)$  modified to make it an unbiased estimator of  $\sigma$ .

The general problem of maximizing  $K_2$ , and so minimizing  $\text{var}(\sigma^*)$ , is rather complex. However, if only two order statistics are to be used then

**Table 23.2** Coefficients of the  $(n - i + 1)$ th-order statistic  $X'_{n-i+1}$  in the linear estimator of  $\sigma$  (by Jung's method) modified to make it unbiased

$n$	$i$													Variance
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	$\sigma^2$
5	0.3538	0.2038	0											0.1706
6	0.2907	0.2024	0.0715											0.1372
8	0.2125	0.1767	0.1147	0.0396										0.0985
10	0.1663	0.1503	0.1170	0.0737	0.0251									0.0769
15	0.1062	0.1048	0.0955	0.0813	0.0636	0.0436	0.0222	0						0.0496
20	0.0774	0.0787	0.0758	0.0700	0.0622	0.0528	0.0422	0.0307	0.0187	0.0063				0.0366
25	0.0605	0.0625	0.0618	0.0592	0.0553	0.0504	0.0445	0.0381	0.0310	<b>0.0236</b>	0.0159	0.0080	0	0.0293

Note: Computed **by** using the same approximate covariance matrix as used in **Blom's** method.

$n_1 \doteq 0.103n$ , and  $n_2 \doteq 0.897n$  gives approximately the minimum value  $1.0227\sigma^2/n$  for  $\text{var}(\sigma^*)$ . The Cramér-Rao lower bound for the variance of an unbiased estimator is  $9(3 + \pi^2)^{-1}\sigma^2/n$ , and so the estimator

$$\sigma^* = 0.4192[X'_{n_1} + X'_{n_2}]$$

(with  $n$ , and  $n_2$  as given above) has approximate efficiency 68.38%. (It may be noted that to get an improved estimator of this form, **four** quantities are needed.)

If neither  $\xi$  nor  $\sigma$  are known, the approximate best linear estimators, obtained by similar methods, are

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\xi}^* &= \Delta^{-1}(K_2X - K_3Y), \\ \hat{\sigma}^* &= \Delta^{-1}(-K_3X + K_1Y),\end{aligned}\quad (23.49)$$

where

$$\Delta = K_1K_2 - K_3^2,$$

$$X = \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} \left(1 - \frac{n_i}{n} - \frac{n_{i-1}}{n}\right) \left[ \frac{n_i}{n} \left(1 - \frac{n_i}{n}\right) X'_{n_i} - \frac{n_{i-1}}{n} \left(1 - \frac{n_{i-1}}{n}\right) X'_{n_{i-1}} \right].$$

[ $K_1$ ,  $K_2$ , and  $K_3$  and  $Y$  have been defined in (23.46) and (23.48).]

Simpson (1967), Hassanein (1969, 1974), Chan (1969), Chan, Chan, and Mead (1971, 1973), Chan and Cheng (1972, 1974), and Cheng (1975) have all discussed the problem of optimal linear estimation of parameters  $\xi$  and  $\sigma$  for the logistic case. All these developments are reviewed by Cheng (1992) who also presents some of the relevant tables. Saleh, Hassanein, and Ali (1992) have discussed the optimal linear estimation of quantiles of the logistic distribution in (23.8) based on selected order statistics and have also presented the required tables; similar work was carried out by Ali and Umbach (1989) for the symmetrically truncated logistic distribution. Linear estimators with polynomial coefficients are examined by Balakrishnan (1992) along the lines of Downton (1966). Raghunandan and Srinivasan (1970) had proposed some simple linear estimators for  $\xi$  and  $\sigma$  based on quasi-midranges and quasi-ranges, respectively.

Construction of confidence intervals for the parameters  $\xi$  and  $\sigma$  was discussed by Antle, Klimko, and Harkness (1970) who determined the necessary percentage points of the pivotal quantities through Monte Carlo simulations. Schafer and Sheffield (1973) and Bain et al. (1992) have provided further discussions on this issue, with the last authors dealing with Type-II censored samples.

Howlader and Weiss (1989) have worked out Bayesian estimators of the reliability function  $R_X(t)$  by employing the methods of Lindley and Tierney

and Kadane. Both squared-error and log-odds squared-error loss functions were used by these authors. Aguirre and Nikulin (1993) have recently discussed the chi-squared goodness-of-fit test for the logistic distribution. Iqbal (1993) has presented asymptotic expansions for confidence limits for the parameters of the logistic distribution.

**7 RECORD VALUES**

Let  $Y_{U(1)}, Y_{U(2)}, Y_{U(3)}, \dots$  denote the upper record values arising from a sequence  $\{Y_i\}$  of i.i.d. random variables with standard logistic density function (23.8). Then the density function of the  $n$ th upper record value  $Y_{U(n)}$  is given by

$$p_{Y_{U(n)}}(y) = \frac{1}{(n - 1)!} \{-\log(1 - F_Y(y))\}^{n-1} p_Y(y), \quad -\infty < y < \infty, \tag{23.50}$$

and the joint density function of  $Y_{U(m)}$  and  $Y_{U(n)}$  ( $1 \leq m < n$ ) is

$$\begin{aligned} p_{Y_{U(m)}, Y_{U(n)}}(y_1, y_2) &= \frac{1}{(m - 1)!(n - m - 1)!} \{-\log(1 - F_Y(y_1))\}^{m-1} \\ &\times \frac{p_Y(y_1)}{1 - F_Y(y_1)} \\ &\times \{-\log(1 - F_Y(y_2)) + \log(1 - F_Y(y_1))\}^{n-m-1} p_Y(y_2) \\ &\quad -\infty < y_1 < y_2 < \infty. \end{aligned} \tag{23.51}$$

For this case Balakrishnan, Ahsanullah, and Chan (1994) examined the moment properties of record values from (23.50) and (23.51). For example, from (23.50) we have for  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} E[Y_{U(n)}] &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y p_{Y_{U(n)}}(y) dy \\ &= \int_0^1 F_Y^{-1}(u) \cdot \frac{1}{(n - 1)!} \{-\log(1 - u)\}^{n-1} du \\ &= \int_0^1 (\log u) \frac{1}{(n - 1)!} \{-\log(1 - u)\}^{n-1} du \\ &\quad + \int_0^1 \frac{1}{(n - 1)!} \{-\log(1 - u)\}^n du \\ &= n - S_n, \end{aligned} \tag{23.52}$$

where

$$S_n = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k(k+1)^n}, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots \quad (23.53)$$

By using the facts that  $S_1 = 1$  and  $S_{n+1} - S_n = 1 - \zeta(n+1)$ , where  $\zeta(\cdot)$  is the Riemann zeta function, Balakrishnan, Ahsanullah, and Chan (1994) established that

$$E[Y_{U(1)}] = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad E[Y_{U(n+1)}] = E[Y_{U(n)}] + \zeta(n+1), \quad n \geq 1. \quad (23.54)$$

Proceeding similarly, they have also derived expressions for the variances and covariances of the upper record values as

$$\text{var}(Y_{U(n)}) = 2n\zeta(n+1) - n - S_n^2 + 2T_n, \quad n \geq 1, \quad (23.55)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \text{cov}(Y_{U(m)}, Y_{U(n)}) &= m\{\zeta(m+1) + \zeta(n+1) - 1\} - S_m S_n \\ &\quad + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k(k+1)^{n-m}} \sum_{l=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{l(l+1+k)^m}, \\ &\quad 1 \leq m < n, \quad (23.56) \end{aligned}$$

where  $S_n$  is as defined in (23.53) and

$$T_n = \sum_{l=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{l(l+1)^n} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \dots + \frac{1}{l-1} \right), \quad n \geq 1. \quad (23.57)$$

By making use of Eqs. (23.55), (23.56), and (23.57), Balakrishnan, Ahsanullah, and Chan (1994) tabulated the means, variances and covariances of the upper record values  $Y_{U(n)}$  for  $n$  up to 10. Due to the symmetry of the logistic density function in (23.8), these tables also readily give the means (negative of the corresponding entries for upper records), variances, and covariances of the lower record values  $Y_{L(n)}$ .

These tables were utilized by Balakrishnan, Ahsanullah, and Chan (1994) to derive the best linear unbiased estimators of the location and scale parameters,  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , in (23.6) based on the observed values of the first  $n$  upper record values. Tables of coefficients of these best linear unbiased estimators and the variances of the estimators were presented for  $n$  up to 10. The problems of constructing prediction intervals for a future record and of



testing for the spuriousity of the current record value were also addressed by these authors, and necessary tables were set up.

## 8 TABLES

Values of the standard density function  $p_Y(y)$  in (23.8) and the corresponding cumulative distribution function  $F_Y(y)$  in (23.9) are presented in the collection of tables by Owen (1962). Each function is tabulated to four decimal places for  $y = 0(0.01)1.00(0.05)3.00$ . Only positive values of  $y$  are needed due to the symmetry of the distribution. Inverse tables give, to four decimal places, values of  $y$  and  $p_Y(y)$  for which the distribution function  $F_Y(y)$  takes the values  $0.5(0.1)0.90(0.005)0.99(0.001)0.999(0.0001)0.9999$ , and some selected higher values up to 0.999999999.

Finney (1947,1952) has presented tables for use in **logit** analysis. These tables include the **logit** transformation,  $y = \log(F/(1 - F))$ . Berkson (1953) has also given short tables of the **logit**. There are similar tables (Tables XI and XI,) in Fisher and Yates (1957).

Tables of  $100\alpha\%$  points, for  $\alpha = 0.50, 0.75, 0.90, 0.95, 0.975, 0.99$ , for all order statistics for sample sizes up to 10 and for extreme and central order statistics for sample sizes from 11 to 25 have been presented by Gupta and Shah (1965). These authors have also presented a table of probability integrals of the sample range  $W$ , at  $w = 0.2(0.2)1.0(0.5)4.0$ , for sample sizes 2 and 3.

Tables of means and standard deviations of order statistics for sample sizes  $n = 1(1)10, 15, 20, 25$  (and some selected order statistics for  $n = 100$ ) were given by Birnbaum and **Dudman** (1963). Tables of covariances of order statistics for sample sizes up to 10 have been presented by Shah (1966). These tables were extended by Gupta, Qureishi, and Shah (1967) for sample sizes up to 25, and by Balakrishnan and **Malik** (1994) for sample sizes up to 50 (to ten decimal accuracy). For the symmetrically truncated logistic distribution in (23.32), Balakrishnan and Joshi (1983b) presented tables of means, variances, and covariances of order statistics for sample sizes up to 10 and for the proportion of truncation  $Q = 0.01, 0.05(0.05)0.20$ .

Tables of asymptotic variances and covariance of the maximum likelihood estimators of  $\xi$  and  $\sigma$  in (23.14) were presented by Harter and Moore (1967) and Harter (1970) for various choices of proportions of censoring on the left and the right of the sample. Tables of coefficients of the best linear unbiased estimators of  $\xi$  and  $\sigma$  and the variances and covariance of these estimators were tabulated by Gupta, Qureishi, and Shah (1967) for sample sizes  $n = 2(1)5(5)25$  and some selected choices of censoring. Balakrishnan (1991) presented more exhaustive tables covering sample sizes  $n = 2(1)25(5)40$  and all possible choices of censoring. Cheng (1992) has given tables of optimal spacings, the corresponding coefficients, and the variances for the asymptotic best linear unbiased estimators of  $\xi$  and  $\sigma$  based on  $k$  selected order

statistics. Similar tables for the asymptotic best linear unbiased estimators of logistic quantiles (based on  $k$  optimally selected order statistics) are presented by Saleh, Hassanein, and Ali (1992). Bain et al. (1992) give tables of percentage points of pivotal quantities involving the maximum likelihood estimators of  $\xi$  and  $\sigma$  from which one can construct confidence intervals for the parameters  $\xi$  and  $\sigma$  based on complete or Type-II censored samples. They also present tables of tolerance factors that are necessary in determining lower and upper tolerance limits, as well as lower confidence limits for the reliability, based on given complete or **Type-II** censored samples. Similar tables of tolerance factors involving best linear unbiased estimators of  $\xi$  and  $\sigma$  were constructed by Hall (1975). Balakrishnan and Fung (1992) extended the tables of Hall, giving one-sided tolerance factors for sample sizes up to 40 and also presenting two-sided tolerance factors. D'Agostino and Massaro (1992) give tables of critical points of various goodness-of-fit tests useful for testing the validity of the assumption of the logistic distribution for the data at hand; also see D'Agostino and Stephens (1986).

Balakrishnan et al. (1991) prepared tables of means, variances, and **covariances** of logistic order statistics in the presence of a single location or scale outlier. These tables are used by Balakrishnan (1992) in examining the robustness features of various linear estimators of the location and scale parameters,  $\xi$  and  $\sigma$ , of the logistic population.

## 9 APPLICATIONS

Some important uses of the logistic curve or distribution have already been mentioned. These include use in describing growth and as a substitute for the normal distribution. Possibly [see Berkson (1944, 1951, 1955, 1957)] included in the latter is its use in the analysis of **quantal** response data. This type of analysis has already been described (Chapter 13) in connection with the use of the normal distribution in **probit** analysis. If a logistic distribution is used, in place of a normal distribution, to represent the population tolerance distribution then the analysis is carried out in terms of **logits** instead of **probits**.

The **logit**  $Y$  and the corresponding observed proportion  $P$  are connected by the equation

$$P = (1 + e^{-Y})^{-1},$$

that is,

$$Y = \log\left(\frac{P}{1 - P}\right).$$

Given observed proportions  $P_i = D_i/n_i$  of "deaths" at "dosages"  $x_i$  ( $i = 1, \dots, k$ ), the **logits**  $Y_i = \log[P_i/(1 - P_i)]$  are calculated. The estimation of values of the constants  $\alpha, \beta$  in the equation

$$P = (1 + e^{-(\alpha + \beta x)})^{-1}$$

is to be based on the  $k$  independent binomial proportions  $P_i$ , or equivalently on the  $k$  independent **logits**  $Y_i$ . The maximum likelihood estimators  $\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta}$  of  $\alpha, \beta$ , respectively, satisfy the equations

$$\sum_{i=1}^k n_i(P_i - \hat{P}_i) = 0 = \sum_{i=1}^k n_i x_i(P_i - \hat{P}_i), \quad (23.58)$$

where

$$\hat{P}_i = \left[ 1 + \exp\left\{ -(\hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta} x_i) \right\} \right]^{-1}.$$

An iterative method for solving these equations, linked with the idea of fitting a weighted regression of  $Y_i$  on  $x_i$ , can be constructed in an exactly similar way to that described for **probit** analysis. In one respect the calculations are simpler, as the weight per unit observation corresponding to  $P_i$  is  $P_i(1 - P_i)$ , which is simpler than the corresponding formula for **probit** analysis. As is to be expected from the similarity in shape of the normal and logistic distributions, the results of **probit** and **logit** analysis of the same data are usually very similar. Agreement is particularly good in respect of estimates of the median of the tolerance distribution [Finney (1947)]. Systems of analysis, using an assumed logistic form for residual variation, were worked out for  $2^n$  factorial experiments by Dyke and Patterson (1952), and for the general linear hypothesis by Grizzle (1961). Multiple comparisons, using the logistic distribution, were discussed by Reiersøl (1961).

The logistic function was also used in studies concerning physiochemical phenomenon by Pearl and Reed (1929), psychological issues by Birnbaum and Dudman (1963), Lord (1965), Sanathanan (1974) and Formann (1982), and geological issues by Aitchison and Shen (1980). Vieira and Hoffmann (1977) applied the logistic function to weight-gain data of Holstein cows, while Glasbey (1979) applied to the weight-gain analysis of Ayrshire steer calves. Leach (1981) and Oliver (1982) used the logistic model for the growth of human population.

The problem of medical diagnosis through the logistic discriminant function was introduced first by Cox (1966) and Day and Kerridge (1967), and later extended by Anderson (1972, 1973, 1974). Wijesinha et al. (1983) and Begg and Gray (1984) applied the polychotomous logistic regression model to a large data set of patients where there were many distinct diagnostic categories. Breslow and Powers (1978) compared the prospective and the

retrospective models of the logistic regression analysis based on data from the Oxford Childhood Cancer Survey reported by **Kneale (1971)**. Johnson (1985) applied the logistic regression to estimate the survival time of diagnosed leukemia patients.

**McCullagh (1977)** extended some simple odds ratio statistics and presented an application concerning the degrees of pneumoconiosis in coal miners. Greenland (1985) discussed some extensions of logistic models to the modeling of probabilities of ordinal responses and illustrated an application in an analysis of the dependence of chronic obstructive respiratory disease prevalence on smoking and age. **Bonney (1986)** introduced the regressive logistic model to merge the goals and methodologies of both the epidemiologist and geneticist in the study of familial disease and other binary traits. **Kay and Little (1986)** used the logistic regression model to analyze the hemolytic uremic syndrome data secured from a number of children. The logistic distribution, the logistic growth model, and the logistic regression model have found numerous other applications. Interested readers may refer to the volume by **Balakrishnan (1992)**.

## 10 GENERALIZATIONS

Several different forms of generalizations of the logistic distribution have been proposed in the literature. The type I generalized logistic distribution has cumulative distribution function

$$F_Y(y) = \frac{1}{(1 + e^{-y})^\alpha}, \quad -\infty < y < \infty, \alpha > 0. \quad (23.59)$$

The standard logistic distribution function in (23.9) corresponds to the case  $a = 1$  in (23.59). **Dubey (1969)** observed that if  $Y$ , given  $\eta$ , has an extreme value distribution with density function  $\eta e^{-y} e^{-\eta e^{-y}}$  ( $\eta > 0$ ) and  $\eta$  has a gamma distribution with density function  $e^{-\eta} \eta^{\alpha-1} / \Gamma(\alpha)$  ( $\alpha > 0$ ), then the unconditional distribution of  $Y$  is the type I generalized logistic distribution in (23.59). **Zelnerman (1987a, b)** considered the three-parameter form of the type I distribution in (23.59) (by introducing location and scale parameters) and discussed methods of estimation of the parameters. **Balakrishnan and Leung (1988a)** and **Zelnerman (1989)** studied order statistics from this distribution, while **Balakrishnan and Leung (1988b)** presented tables of means, variances and covariances of order statistics for various values of the shape parameter  $a$ . By making use of these tables, **Balakrishnan and Leung (1988b)** also derived the best linear unbiased estimators of the location and scale parameters (with  $a$  being assumed known) and presented the necessary tables. **Gerstenkorn (1992)** discussed the estimation of the parameter  $a$ .

The type I distribution in (23.59) is negatively skewed for  $0 < a < 1$  and positively skewed for  $a > 1$ . Ahuja and Nash (1967) showed that if  $Y$  has the type I generalized logistic distribution in (23.59), then  $-\alpha Y$  behaves like a standard exponential random variable when  $a$  is close to 0, and  $Y - \ln a$  behaves like an extreme value random variable with distribution function  $e^{-e^{-y}}$  (see Chapter 22) when  $a$  is large.

The type II generalized logistic distribution has cumulative distribution function

$$F_Y(y) = 1 - \frac{e^{-\alpha y}}{(1 + e^{-y})^\alpha}, \quad -\infty < y < \infty, \alpha > 0. \quad (23.60)$$

It is easy to observe that if  $Y$  has a type I generalized distribution in (23.59), then  $-Y$  has a type II generalized distribution in (23.60). Consequently the type II distribution in (23.60) is positively skewed for  $0 < a < 1$  and negatively skewed for  $a > 1$ .

The type III generalized logistic distribution has density function

$$p_Y(y) = \frac{1}{B(\alpha, \alpha)} \frac{e^{-\alpha y}}{(1 + e^{-y})^{2\alpha}}, \quad -\infty < y < \infty, \alpha > 0. \quad (23.61)$$

The standard logistic density function in (23.8) corresponds to the case  $a = 1$  in (23.61). It is clear that the density in (23.61) is symmetric about 0 for every  $a$ . Davidson (1980) showed that the moment-generating function for this distribution is

$$\begin{aligned} E[e^{\theta Y}] &= \frac{1}{B(\alpha, \alpha)} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-(\alpha - \theta)y}}{(1 + e^{-y})^{2\alpha}} dy \\ &= \frac{\Gamma(\alpha - \theta)\Gamma(\alpha + \theta)}{\{\Gamma(\alpha)\}^2}, \quad -\alpha < \theta < \alpha. \end{aligned} \quad (23.62)$$

From (23.62) we obtain the mean, variance, and the coefficients of skewness and kurtosis to be

$$\begin{aligned} E[Y] &= 0, \quad \text{var}(Y) = 2\psi'(\alpha), \\ \sqrt{\beta_1(Y)} &= 0, \quad \beta_2(Y) = 3 + \frac{\psi'''(\alpha)}{2\{\psi'(\alpha)\}^2}. \end{aligned} \quad (23.63)$$

Thus the type III distribution has thicker tails than the normal distribution. Further, for large values of  $a$ ,  $\sqrt{2/\alpha} Y$  behaves like a standard normal variable.

Gumbel (1944) characterized the type **III** distribution as the limiting distribution of the  $\alpha$ th midrange,  $(X_{\alpha:n} + X_{n-\alpha+1:n})/2$ , from certain symmetric distributions. Davidson (1980) established that the difference of two independent and identically distributed extreme value random variables is distributed as the type **III**. Cutler (1992) has shown that the type **III** distribution arises (asymptotically) in a natural way from statistics based on the  $k$ th nearest neighbor distance. George and Ojo (1980) and George, El-Saidi, and Singh (1986) developed an approximation to Student's *t*-distribution with  $\nu$  degrees of freedom based on the type **III** distribution in (23.61). Specifically, by matching the coefficient of kurtosis in (23.63) with that of the Student's *t* (see Chapter 28), they recommend the use of  $\alpha = (\nu - 3.25)/5.5$  as the appropriate type **III** shape parameter for the required approximation.

The type IV generalized logistic distribution with density function

$$p_Y(y) = \frac{1}{B(p, q)} \frac{e^{-qy}}{(1 + e^{-y})^{p+q}}, \quad -\infty < y < \infty, p, q > 0 \quad (23.64)$$

was studied by Prentice (1976) and Kalbfleisch and Prentice (1980). It is readily observed that types **I**, **II**, and **III** are all special cases of this distribution; further, the type IV density function in (23.64) is the density of  $-\ln Z$  when  $qZ/p$  has a central F-distribution with  $(2p, 2q)$  degrees of freedom (see Chapter 27). If  $Y$  has a type IV density function as in (23.64), it is of interest to note that  $-Y$  also has a type IV distribution with shape parameters  $p$  and  $q$  interchanged. The moment-generating function of  $Y$  is

$$\begin{aligned} E[e^{\theta Y}] &= \frac{1}{B(p, q)} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-(q-\theta)y}}{(1 + e^{-y})^{p+q}} dy \\ &= \frac{\Gamma(p + \theta)\Gamma(q - \theta)}{\Gamma(p)\Gamma(q)}, \quad -p < \theta < q, \end{aligned} \quad (23.65)$$

from which we get

$$\begin{aligned} E[Y] &= \psi(p) - \psi(q), \quad \text{var}(Y) = \psi'(p) + \psi'(q), \\ \sqrt{\beta_1(Y)} &= \frac{\psi''(p) - \psi''(q)}{\{\psi'(p) + \psi'(q)\}^{3/2}}, \quad \beta_2(Y) = 3 + \frac{\psi'''(p) + \psi'''(q)}{\{\psi'(p) + \psi'(q)\}^2}. \end{aligned} \quad (23.66)$$

From (23.66) we observe that the type IV distribution is positively skewed if  $p > q$ , negatively skewed if  $p < q$ , and symmetric if  $p = q$  (becomes type **III**

in this case). George and Ojo (1980) and George and Singh (1987) presented infinite series expressions for the first four cumulants of  $Y$ .

Prentice (1976) proposed the type IV distribution as an alternative for modeling binary response data to the usual logistic model. Kalbfleisch and Prentice (1980) considered the four-parameter form of (23.65) (by introducing location and scale parameters) in survival analysis. They have also shown that the type IV distribution goes in limit to lognormal (when  $p \rightarrow \infty$ ) and Weibull (when  $p = 1$  and  $q \rightarrow \infty$ ); also see Farewell and Prentice (1977). The type IV distribution is referred to as the exponential generalized beta of the second type (denoted by **EGB2**) by McDonald (1991).

All of these generalized logistic distributions can be regarded as special cases of a large class of distributions introduced by Perks (1932). Perks, a British actuary, was primarily interested in obtaining a general function for graduating life-table data, but his formulas are of general applicability.

Perks proposed, as a general form for the probability density function of a random variable,  $Y$ , the ratio

$$p_Y(y) = \frac{\sum_{j=0}^m a_j e^{-j\theta y}}{\sum_{j=0}^{m'} b_j e^{-j\theta y}}. \quad (23.67)$$

The quantities  $a_j, b_j, \theta$  are real parameters. There must be relationships among the values of these parameters to ensure that the conditions

$$p_Y(y) \geq 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \int_{-m}^{\infty} p_Y(y) dy = 1$$

are satisfied. It is always possible to take  $\theta = 1$ , by a suitable choice of scale, and evidently all  $a_j$ 's and  $b_j$ 's can be multiplied by the same (nonzero) constant, without affecting  $p_Y(y)$ .

A particularly interesting subclass of symmetrical distributions is obtained by taking  $m = 1, m' = 2; a_1 = 0, b_0 = b_2$ . Then (23.67) becomes

$$\begin{aligned} p_Y(y) &= \frac{a_1 e^{-y}}{b_0 + b_1 e^{-y} + b_0 e^{-2y}} \\ &= \frac{c_1}{e^y + c_2 + e^{-y}}, \quad \text{with } c_1 + \frac{a_1}{b_0}, c_2 = \frac{b_1}{b_0}. \end{aligned} \quad (23.68)$$

Taking  $c_1 > 0$ , the condition  $p_Y(y) \geq 0$ , for all  $y$ , requires that  $c_2 \geq -2$ . The condition  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p_Y(y) dy = 1$  excludes  $c_2 = -2$ , but, for all  $c_2 > -2$ , (23.68) can represent a probability density function. The logistic distribution is obtained by putting  $c_2 = 2$ , giving (23.8).

Another form of generalized logistic distribution has been considered by Hosking (1989,1991). The cumulative distribution function for this family is given by

$$F_Y(y) = \frac{1}{1 + (1 - ky)^{1/k}}, \quad y \leq \frac{1}{k} \text{ when } k > 0, y \geq \frac{1}{k} \text{ when } k < 0, \quad (23.69)$$

and the probability density function is given by

$$p_Y(y) = \frac{(1 - ky)^{(1/k)-1}}{\{1 + (1 - ky)^{1/k}\}^2}, \quad y \leq \frac{1}{k} \text{ when } k > 0, y \geq \frac{1}{k} \text{ when } k < 0. \quad (23.70)$$

The density function above reduces to the standard logistic density function in (23.8) for the case when the shape parameter  $k \rightarrow 0$ . It may be noted from (23.70) that if  $Y$  has the above generalized logistic distribution with  $k > 0$ , then  $-Y$  also has the generalized logistic distribution with shape parameter  $-k (< 0)$ . From (23.69), we obtain the  $r$ th raw moment of  $Y$  to be

$$\begin{aligned} E[Y^r] &= \int_0^1 \{F_Y^{-1}(u)\}^r du \\ &= \int_0^1 \frac{1}{k^r} \cdot \left\{ 1 - \left( \frac{1-u}{u} \right)^k \right\}^r du \\ &= \frac{1}{k^r} \sum_{i=0}^r (-1)^i \binom{r}{i} B(1 - ki, 1 + ki) \\ &= \frac{1}{k^r} \sum_{i=0}^r (-1)^i \binom{r}{i} \Gamma(1 + ki) \Gamma(1 - ki) \quad (23.71) \end{aligned}$$

for  $r \in (-1/k, 1/k)$ . By using the characterizing differential equation

$$(1 - ky)p_Y(y) = F_Y(y)\{1 - F_Y(y)\}, \quad (23.72)$$

Balakrishnan and Sandhu (1994a) established several recurrence relations for the single and the product moments of order statistics. These authors proved



the following specific relationships:

$$E[Y_{1:n+1}^{i+1}] = \left\{ 1 + \frac{k(i+1)}{n} \right\} E[Y_{1:n}^{i+1}] - \frac{i+1}{n} E[Y_{1:n}^i],$$

$$n \geq 1; i = 0, 1, \dots \quad (23.72a)$$

$$E[Y_{r+1:n+1}^{i+1}] = E[Y_{r:n+1}^{i+1}] + \frac{(i+1)(n+1)}{r(n-r+1)} \{ E[Y_{r:n}^i] - kE[Y_{r:n}^{i+1}] \},$$

$$1 \leq r \leq n; i = 0, 1, \dots \quad (23.72b)$$

$$E[Y_{r:n+1} Y_{r+1:n+1}] = \frac{n+1}{n-r+1} \left\{ \left( 1 + \frac{k}{n-r} \right) E[Y_{r:n} Y_{r+1:n}] \right.$$

$$\left. - \frac{r}{n-r+1} E[Y_{r+1:n+1}^2] - \frac{1}{n-r} E[Y_{r:n}^2] \right\},$$

$$(23.72c)$$

$$E[Y_{r:n+1} Y_{s:n+1}] = E[Y_{r:n+1} Y_{s-1:n+1}]$$

$$+ \frac{n+1}{n-s+2} \left\{ \left( 1 + \frac{k}{n-s+1} \right) E[Y_{r:n} Y_{s:n}] \right.$$

$$\left. - E[Y_{r:n} Y_{s-1:n}] - \frac{1}{n-s+1} E[Y_{r:n}^2] \right\},$$

$$1 \leq r < s \leq n; s-r \geq 2. \quad (23.72d)$$

$$E[Y_{r+1:n+1} Y_{r+2:n+1}] = \frac{n+1}{r+1} \left\{ \frac{1}{r} E[Y_{r+1:n}] + \left( 1 - \frac{k}{r} \right) E[Y_{r:n} Y_{r+1:n}] \right.$$

$$\left. - \frac{n-r}{n+1} E[Y_{r+1:n+1}^2] \right\},$$

$$1 \leq r \leq n-1. \quad (23.72e)$$

$$E[Y_{r+1:n+1} Y_{s+1:n+1}] = E[Y_{r+2:n+1} Y_{s+1:n+1}]$$

$$+ \frac{n+1}{r+1} \left\{ \frac{1}{r} E[Y_{s:n}] + \left( 1 - \frac{k}{r} \right) E[Y_{r:n} Y_{s:n}] \right.$$

$$\left. - E[Y_{r+1:n} Y_{s:n}] \right\},$$

$$1 \leq r < s \leq n; s-r \geq 2. \quad (23.72f)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 E[Y_{r:n+1}Y_{r+2:n+1}] &= E[Y_{r:n+1}Y_{r+1:n+1}] \\
 &\quad - r\{E[Y_{r+1:n+1}Y_{r+2:n+1}] - E[Y_{r+1:n+1}^2]\} \\
 &\quad + \frac{n+1}{n-r}\{E[Y_{r:n}] - kE[Y_{r:n}Y_{r+1:n}]\}, \\
 &\quad 1 \leq r \leq n-1. \quad (23.72g)
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 E[Y_{r:n+1}Y_{s+1:n+1}] &= E[Y_{r:n+1}Y_{s:n+1}] \\
 &\quad - \frac{r}{s-r}\{E[Y_{r+1:n+1}Y_{s+1:n+1}] - E[Y_{r+1:n+1}Y_{s:n+1}]\} \\
 &\quad + \frac{n+1}{(n-s+1)(s-r)}\{E[Y_{r:n}] - kE[Y_{r:n}Y_{s:n}]\}, \\
 &\quad 1 \leq r < s \leq n; s-r \geq 2. \quad (23.72h)
 \end{aligned}$$

When  $k \rightarrow 0$ , these recurrence relations reduce to the results in Eqs. (23.24)–(23.29) due to Shah (1966,1970). Hosking (1989,1991) introduced location and scale parameters into the distribution in (23.69) and studied the probability-weighted moment estimation of the three parameters with relation to maximum likelihood estimates; see Chen and Balakrishnan (1994) for some further remarks in this direction. Balakrishnan and Sandhu (1994a) have discussed the best linear unbiased estimation of parameters.

In considering the truncated form of the generalized logistic distribution in (23.69) and its properties, Balakrishnan and Sandhu (1994b) established similar recurrence relations for the single and the product moments of order statistics. The cumulative distribution function of this truncated distribution is

$$F(y) = \frac{1}{(P-Q)\{1 + (1-ky)^{1/k}\}}, \quad Q_1 \leq y \leq P_1 \leq \frac{1}{k}, k > 0$$

and the probability density function

$$p(y) = \frac{(1-ky)^{(1/k)-1}}{(P-Q)\{1 + (1-ky)^{1/k}\}^2}, \quad Q_1 \leq y \leq P_1 \leq \frac{1}{k},$$

where  $Q_1 = 1 - [(1-Q)/Q]^k/k$  and  $P_1 = 1 - [(1-P)/P]^k/k$ . Here  $Q (> 0)$  and  $1 - P (> 0)$  are the proportions of truncation on the left and right of the generalized logistic distribution in (23.69), respectively. The characterizing differential equation for this distribution is given by

$$(1-ky)p(y) = F(y)\{1 - (P-Q)F(y)\}$$

which has been exploited by Balakrishnan and Sandhu (1994b) in order to derive several recurrence relations for single and product moments of order statistics.

## 11 RELATED DISTRIBUTIONS

Talacko (1956) studied the hyperbolic secant distribution, obtained by putting  $c_2 = 0$  in (23.68), giving

$$p_Y(y) = \frac{c_1}{e^y + e^{-y}} = \frac{1}{2}c_1 \operatorname{sech} y. \quad (23.73)$$

The condition  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p_Y(y) dy = 1$  requires that  $c_1 = 2/\pi$  so that

$$p_Y(y) = \pi^{-1} \operatorname{sech} y \quad (23.74)$$

and the cumulative distribution function is

$$F_Y(y) = \frac{1}{2} + \pi^{-1} \tanh^{-1}(\sinh y). \quad (23.75)$$

Note that if  $Y$  has this distribution then  $e^Y$  has a half-Cauchy distribution (Chapter 16). The distribution of the sum of  $n$  independent random variables, each having the same hyperbolic secant distribution, has been derived by Baten (1934).

Returning for a moment to the more general form of distribution (23.68) the characteristic function  $E[e^{itY}]$  is [Talacko (1956)]

$$\frac{\pi}{\cos^{-1}(c_2/2)} \frac{\sinh[t \cos^{-1}(c_2/2)]}{\sinh t\pi} \quad \text{for } -2 < c_2 < 0, 0 < c_2 \leq 2, \quad (23.76)$$

$$\frac{\pi}{\cosh^{-1}(c_2/2)} \frac{\sin[t \cosh^{-1}(c_2/2)]}{\sinh t\pi} \quad \text{for } c_2 > 2. \quad (23.77)$$

The logistic distribution appears as a limiting case, letting  $c_2 \rightarrow 2$ . The values of  $\cos^{-1}(c_2/2)$  are taken in the range 0 to  $\pi$ . For the hyperbolic secant distribution, the characteristic function is  $\operatorname{sech}(\pi t/2)$ , and the  $r$ th absolute

moment about zero is

$$\begin{aligned}
 v'_r &= E[|Y|^r] = \frac{4}{\pi} \int_0^\infty y^r e^{-y} (1 + e^{-2y})^{-1} dy \\
 &= \frac{4}{\pi} \int_0^\infty \sum_{j=0}^\infty (-1)^j y^r e^{-(2j+1)y} dy \\
 &= \frac{4}{\pi} \sum_{j=0}^\infty (-1)^j \int_0^\infty y^r e^{-(2j+1)y} dy \\
 &= \frac{4}{\pi} \Gamma(r+1) \sum_{j=0}^\infty (-1)^j (2j+1)^{-(r+1)}. \quad (23.78)
 \end{aligned}$$

The expected value of  $Y$  equals zero;  $\text{var}(Y) = (4/\pi) \cdot 2 \cdot \pi^3/32 = (1/4)\pi^2$ ,  $\mu_4(Y) = 5\pi^4/15$ ;  $\beta_2(Y) = \alpha_4(Y) = 5$ . The mean deviation is  $4c/\pi$  (where  $c = 0.916$  is Catalan's constant). For this distribution

$$\frac{\text{Mean deviation}}{\text{Standard deviation}} = \frac{8c}{\pi^2} = 0.742.$$

Harkness and Harkness (1968) have investigated the properties of a class of distributions having characteristic functions

$$(\text{sech } \theta t)^\rho, \quad \rho > 0, \theta > 0,$$

which they term generalized hyperbolic secant distributions. For integer values of  $\rho$  the distributions are those of sums of independent identically distributed hyperbolic secant random variables. They have shown that for  $\rho$  even ( $= 2n$ ) the density function is

$$p_X(x) = \left[ \frac{4^{n-1} x}{(2n-1)! 2\theta^2} \cdot \text{cosech} \frac{\pi x}{2\theta} \right] \prod_{j=1}^{n-1} \left( \frac{x^2}{4\theta^2} + j^2 \right), \quad (23.79)$$

while for  $\rho$  odd ( $= 2n + 1$ )

$$p_X(x) = \left[ \frac{2^{2n-1}}{(2n)! \theta} \cdot \text{sech} \frac{\pi x}{2\theta} \right] \prod_{j=1}^n \left\{ \frac{x^2}{4\theta^2} + \left( j - \frac{1}{2} \right)^2 \right\}. \quad (23.80)$$

Fisk (1961) has shown that the Pareto distribution (Chapter 20) can be regarded as a form related to the logistic for certain extreme values of the variable. Making the substitution  $e^Y = (T/t_0)^n$  in (23.9) (with  $n > 0$ ,  $t_0 > 0$ ),

we have

$$\Pr[T < t] = \Pr\left[(T/t_0)^n < \left(\frac{t}{t_0}\right)^n\right] = (t/t_0)^n \left[1 + \left(\frac{t}{t_0}\right)^n\right]^{-1}.$$

If  $t$  be small compared with  $t_0$ , then approximately

$$\Pr[T < t] \approx t^n.$$

If  $t$  be large compared with  $t_0$ , then

$$\Pr[T > t] = \left(\frac{t}{t_0}\right)^{-n} \left[1 + \left(\frac{t}{t_0}\right)^{-n}\right]^{-1}$$

and approximately

$$\Pr[T > t] \propto t^{-n}.$$

Let  $\{D_j\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$  be a sequence of independent double exponential random variables (see Chapter 24) with density function

$$p_{D_j}(d) = \frac{\gamma}{2} e^{-\gamma|d|}, \quad -\infty < d < \infty, j = 1, 2, \dots$$

Then  $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} D_j$  is distributed as a standard logistic random variable with density in (23.8). Since difference of two i.i.d. exponential random variables is distributed as double exponential, we have  $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} (E_{1j} - E_{2j})$  to be distributed as standard logistic with density in (23.8), where  $E_{ij}$ 's are independent exponential random variables with density function

$$p_{E_{ij}}(x) = j e^{-jx}, \quad x \geq 0, j = 1, 2, \dots, i = 1, 2.$$

Incidentally these two representations prove that the logistic distribution is infinitely divisible.

Galambos and Kotz (1979) provided an interesting joint characterization of the logistic and the exponential distribution as follows: Suppose that  $X$  is a continuous random variable with distribution function  $G_X(x)$ , which is symmetric about 0. Then

$$\Pr[X > -x | X < x] = 1 - e^{-\lambda x}, \quad x > 0,$$

if and only if  $G_X(x) = F_Y(\lambda x)$  with  $F_Y(\cdot)$  being the standard logistic distribution function in (23.9).

Baringhaus (1980) presented a characterization result that connects the geometric and the logistic distributions: Let  $Z_1, Z_2, \dots$  be i.i.d. random variables with nondegenerate distribution function  $G(z)$ , and let  $N$  be a positive integer-valued random variable independent of  $Z$ 's, with  $\rho$  the generating function of  $N$ . Let  $G(z)$  be symmetric about  $0$ , and let  $\gamma$  be a real-valued function of  $\theta \in (0, 1)$ . Then

$$\frac{\rho(\theta G(z))}{\rho(\theta)} = G(z + \gamma(\theta)), \quad -\infty < z < \infty,$$

if and only if  $G(z) = F_V(az)$ , for some  $a > 0$ , where  $F_V(\cdot)$  is the standard logistic distribution function in (23.9) and  $\rho$  is the generating function of a geometric distribution. Voorn (1987) has generalized this result.

Balakrishnan (1985) considered the folded form of the standard logistic distribution (23.8) and termed it the half *logistic distribution*. The density function of this distribution is given by

$$p_X(x) = \frac{2e^{-x}}{(1 + e^{-x})^2}, \quad x \geq 0, \quad (23.81)$$

and the cumulative distribution function is given by

$$F_X(x) = \frac{1 - e^{-x}}{1 + e^{-x}}, \quad x \geq 0. \quad (23.82)$$

Use of this distribution as a possible life-time model has been suggested by Balakrishnan (1985) who has established several recurrence relations for the single and the product moments of order statistics. Balakrishnan and Puthenpura (1986) derived the best linear unbiased estimators of the location and scale parameters for the two-parameter half logistic distribution and presented the necessary tables. Balakrishnan and Wong (1991) derived approximate maximum likelihood estimators for the two parameters based on Type-II censored samples. Balakrishnan and Chan (1992) considered the scaled half logistic distribution and discussed different methods of inference for the scale parameter of the distribution. Similar to the generalized logistic distribution in (23.69), Balakrishnan and Sandhu (1994c) defined a *generalized half logistic distribution* with distribution function

$$F_X(x) = \frac{1 - (1 - kx)^{1/k}}{1 + (1 - kx)^{1/k}}, \quad 0 \leq x \leq \frac{1}{k}, \quad k > 0, \quad (23.83)$$

and probably density function

$$p_X(x) = \frac{2(1 - kx)^{(1/k)-1}}{\{1 + (1 - kx)^{1/k}\}^2}, \quad 0 \leq x \leq \frac{1}{k}, \quad k > 0. \quad (23.84)$$

This family includes the half logistic distribution in (23.82) as the shape parameter  $k \rightarrow 0$ . Balakrishnan and Sandhu (1994c) have discussed various properties of this distribution and derived several recurrence relations for the single and the product moments of order statistics generalizing the results of Balakrishnan (1985). These developments have been extended by Balakrishnan and Sandhu (1994d) to the truncated form of the generalized half logistic density function in (23.84) given by

$$p(x) = \frac{2(1 - kx)^{(1/k)-1}}{P\{1 + (1 - kx)^{1/k}\}^2}, \quad 0 \leq x \leq P_1, \quad k > 0,$$

where  $1 - P$  ( $0 < P \leq 1$ ) is the proportion of truncation on the right of the generalized half logistic density in (23.84), and  $P_1 = (1 - [(1 - P)/(1 + P)]^k)/k$ .

Similar to the case of the normal distribution (see Chapter 12, Section 4.3), three translated families of logistic distributions were proposed by Tadikamalla and Johnson (1982a). These three systems of distributions are derived by ascribing the standard logistic distribution in (23.8) to

$$Y = \gamma + \delta \log X, \quad X > 0 \text{ (for } L_L \text{ system)} \quad (23.85)$$

$$Y = \gamma + \delta \log \left\{ \frac{X}{1 - X} \right\}, \quad 0 < X < 1 \text{ (for } L_B \text{ system)}, \quad (23.86)$$

and

$$Y = \gamma + \delta \sinh^{-1} X, \quad -\infty < X < \infty \text{ (for } L_U \text{ system)}. \quad (23.87)$$

The family of distributions arising from (23.85), called as the log-logistic distributions, were first studied by Shah and Dave (1963). The probability density function is given by

$$p_X(x) = \frac{\delta e^{\gamma x^{\delta-1}}}{(1 + e^{\gamma x^{\delta}})^2}, \quad x \geq 0, \quad \delta > 0. \quad (23.88)$$

The distributions belong to Burr's type XII family of distributions (see Chapter 12, Section 4.5). Dubey (1966) called them Weibull-exponential distributions and fitted them to business failure data. The density in (23.88) is

unimodal; when  $\delta \geq 1$ , the mode is at  $x = 0$  (giving a reverse J-shaped curve), and when  $\delta < 1$ , the mode is at  $x = e^{-\gamma}[(\delta - 1)/(\delta + 1)]$ . The cumulative distribution function is

$$F_X(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\gamma}x^{-\delta}}, \quad x \geq 0, \delta > 0, \quad (23.89)$$

and the  $r$ th raw moment of  $X$  is given by

$$E[X^r] = e^{-r\gamma/\delta} \frac{r\pi}{\delta} \operatorname{cosec} \frac{r\pi}{\delta}, \quad r = 1, 2, \dots \quad (23.90)$$

Johnson and Tadikamalla (1992) have discussed methods of fitting the four-parameter form of the log-logistic distributions. Shoukri, Mian, and Tracy (1988) examined probability-weighted moment estimators for the three-parameter form of the distributions and compared them with the maximum likelihood estimators. Best linear unbiased estimation of the location and scale parameters (with shape parameter  $\delta$  being assumed known) has been discussed by Balakrishnan, Malik, and Puthenpura (1987). Nearly best linear unbiased estimation of the location and scale parameters based on complete as well as singly and doubly **Type-II** censored samples has been discussed by Ragab and Green (1987). Ali and Khan (1987) and Balakrishnan and Malik (1987) have established some recurrence relations satisfied by the single and the product moments of order statistics from log-logistic and truncated log-logistic distributions.

The density function of  $X$  corresponding to the  $L_B$ -system transformation in (23.86) is given by

$$p_X(x) = e^\gamma \frac{x^{\delta-1}(1-x)^{\delta-1}}{\{(1-x)^\delta + e^\gamma x^\delta\}^2}, \quad 0 < x < 1. \quad (23.91)$$

There is a single mode if  $\delta > 1$  or an **antimode** if  $\delta < 1$  at the unique value of  $x \in (0, 1)$  satisfying the equation

$$e^\gamma = \frac{\delta - 1 + 2x}{\delta + 1 - 2x} \left( \frac{1-x}{x} \right)^\delta.$$

If  $\delta > 1$ , the mode is at  $x \leq 1/2$  according as  $\gamma \leq 0$ . If  $\delta < 1$ , the density is U-shaped with the **antimode** being in  $((1 - \delta)/2, 1/2)$  for  $\gamma < 0$  and in  $(1/2, (1 + \delta)/2)$  for  $\gamma > 0$ . The cumulative distribution is given by

$$F_X(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\gamma}[x/(1-x)]^{-\delta}}, \quad 0 < x < 1. \quad (23.92)$$



The  $r$ th raw moment given by

$$E[X^r] = \int_0^1 \{1 + e^{\gamma/\delta}(1-u)^{1/\delta} u^{-1/\delta}\}^{-r} du \quad (23.93)$$

needs to be numerically computed. Johnson and Tadikamalla (1992) have discussed methods of fitting this family of distributions.

The density function of  $X$  corresponding to the  $L_U$ -system transformation in (23.87) is given by

$$p_X(x) = \frac{\delta e^\gamma}{\sqrt{x^2+1}} \frac{\{x + \sqrt{x^2+1}\}^\delta}{[1 + e^\gamma \{x + \sqrt{x^2+1}\}^\delta]^2}, \quad -\infty < x < \infty, \quad (23.94)$$

and the corresponding distribution function is

$$F_X(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\gamma - \delta \sinh^{-1} x}}, \quad -\infty < x < \infty. \quad (23.95)$$

The density in (23.94) is unimodal with mode at the unique value of  $x$  satisfying the equation

$$\delta [1 - e^\gamma \{x + \sqrt{x^2+1}\}] = \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2+1}}.$$

The  $r$ th raw moment of  $X$  can be written

$$E[X^r] = \frac{1}{2^r} \sum_{i=0}^r (-1)^i \binom{r}{i} e^{-(r-2i)\gamma/\delta} (r-2i) \frac{\pi}{\delta} \operatorname{cosec}(r-2i) \frac{\pi}{\delta} \quad (23.96)$$

provided that  $r < S$ . If  $r \geq 6$ ,  $E[X^r]$  is infinite. Tadikamalla and Johnson (1982b) have presented tables of  $\delta$  and  $\gamma/\delta$  corresponding to specified values of  $\sqrt{\beta_1(X)}$  and  $\beta_2(X)$ , along with mean and standard deviation of  $X$ . Bowman and Shenton (1981) presented formulas from which  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$  can be determined from the given values of  $\sqrt{\beta_1(X)}$  and  $\beta_2(X)$ . Reference may be made to Johnson and Tadikamalla (1992) for further details. The  $(\beta_1, \beta_2)$  region for the three transformed logistic distributions are shown in Figure 23.2.

Shah (1963) has discussed mixtures of two logistic distributions. For more details on this and other related distributions, the reader may refer to Balakrishnan (1992).

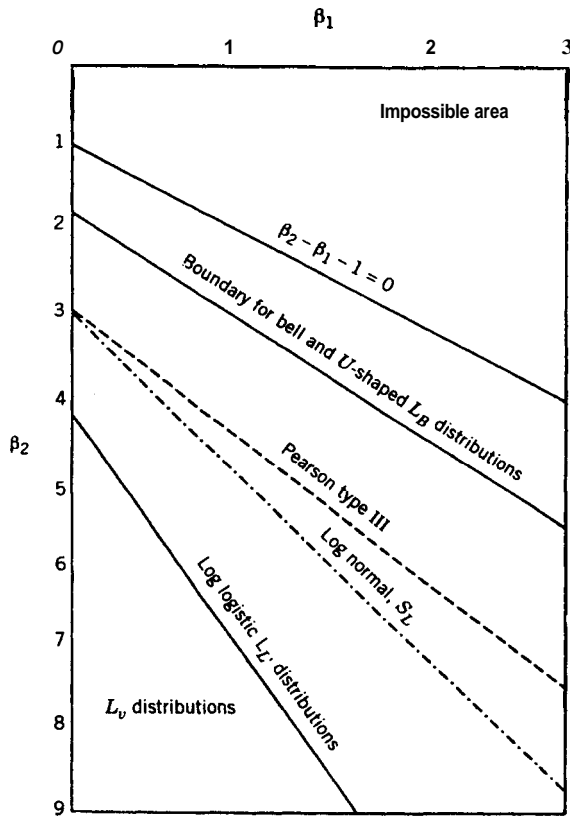


Figure 23.2  $\beta_1, \beta_2$  region for  $L_U, L_L, L_B$ -distributions.

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## CHAPTER 24

# Laplace (Double Exponential) Distributions

### 1 DEFINITION, GENESIS, AND HISTORICAL REMARKS

The double exponential distribution was discovered by Pierre **Laplace** (1774) as the distribution form for which the likelihood function is maximized by setting the location parameter equal to the median of the observed values of an odd number of independent and identically distributed random variables. This result appeared in Laplace's fundamental paper on symmetric distributions for describing errors of measurement, and it is appropriately known as the *first law of Laplace*.

The probability density function of the **Laplace** distribution is

$$p_X(x) = \frac{1}{2\phi} e^{-|x-\theta|/\phi}, \quad -\infty < x < \infty, \phi > 0. \quad (24.1)$$

Another mode of genesis for this distribution is as the distribution of the difference of two independent and identically distributed exponential random variables.

Incidentally **Laplace** (1774) proceeded further. He replaced the median by the arithmetic mean as the value maximizing the likelihood function and derived the corresponding distribution to be the normal distribution (see Chapter 13). This result is called as the *second law of Laplace*. **Stigler** (1975) has chronicled the many significant contributions made by **Laplace** and their impact on the subject.

The **Laplace** distribution in (24.1) is known under different names. One of the most common ones is the *double exponential*. It should be mentioned, however, that this name has also been applied to the extreme value distribution (see Chapter 22). A distinction can be made in terminology by calling the

**Laplace** distribution as double exponential and the extreme value distribution as doubly exponential. In Greenwood, Olkin, and Savage (1962), the **Laplace** distribution is termed the two-tailed exponential; Feller (1966) referred to it as the bilateral exponential, and Weida (1935) called it as Poisson's first law of error.

Yellott (1977) has very nicely elucidated the relationship between Luce's choice axiom, Thurstone's theory of comparative judgment, and the double exponential distribution. Ord (1983) has presented a brief review of various significant developments relating to this distribution.

## 2 MOMENTS, GENERATING FUNCTIONS, AND PROPERTIES

A standard form of the probability density function (24.1) is obtained by putting  $\theta = 0$ ,  $\phi = 1$ , giving

$$p_X(x) = \frac{1}{2}e^{-|x|}. \quad (24.2)$$

(This form is sometimes called *Poisson's first law of error*.) The characteristic function corresponding to this probability density function is

$$E[e^{itX}] = \frac{1}{2}(1 + it)^{-1} + \frac{1}{2}(1 - it)^{-1} = (1 + t^2)^{-1}. \quad (24.3)$$

It is interesting to note that the Fourier transform pair, (24.2) and (24.3), occur in reverse order for the Cauchy distribution (see Chapter 16). The moment-generating function is  $(1 - t^2)^{-1}$ . The cumulant-generating function is

$$-\log(1 - t^2), \quad (24.4)$$

and the  $r$ th cumulant is

$$\kappa_r(X) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } r \text{ is odd,} \\ 2[(r-1)!] & \text{if } r \text{ is even.} \end{cases} \quad (24.5)$$

The  $r$ th central moment is

$$\mu_r(X) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } r \text{ is odd,} \\ r! & \text{if } r \text{ is even.} \end{cases} \quad (24.6)$$

Takano (1988) has discussed the Lévy representation of the characteristic function in the  $d$ -dimensional Euclidean case (including the case  $d = 1$ ).

The distribution is symmetrical about  $x = 0$ ; the values of the first two moment ratios are

$$\sqrt{\beta_1} = 0, \quad \beta_2 = 6. \quad (24.7)$$

$\beta_2$  of 6 reflects the slower rate of decay in the tails of the distribution compared to the normal.

The mean deviation is

$$\nu_1 = E[|X|] = 1. \quad (24.8)$$

So for the **Laplace** distribution

$$\frac{\text{Mean deviation}}{\text{Standard deviation}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \doteq 0.707. \quad (24.9)$$

For the more general distribution (24.1), the ratios (24.7) and (24.9) have the same values as for the standard form (24.2). The expected value and standard deviation of (24.1) are  $\theta$  and  $\sqrt{2}\phi$ , respectively.

The information-generating function is

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (2\phi)^{-u} \exp\{-u|x - \theta|/\phi\} dx = (2\phi)^{1-u} u^{-1}. \quad (24.10)$$

The entropy is  $1 + \log(2\phi)$ .

The probability density function has a maximum at  $x = \theta$ , where there is a cusp. The form of the function is sketched in Figure 24.1. The cumulative distribution function is

$$F_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \exp\left[-\frac{\theta - x}{\phi}\right], & x \leq \theta, \\ 1 - \frac{1}{2} \exp\left[-\frac{x - \theta}{\phi}\right], & x \geq \theta. \end{cases} \quad (24.11)$$

The lower and upper quartiles are  $\theta \pm \phi \log 2 \doteq \theta \pm 0.6934\phi$ .

The probability density function expressed in terms of the expected value,  $\xi$ , and the standard deviation,  $\sigma$ , is

$$p_X(x) = (\sigma\sqrt{2})^{-1} \exp\left[-\frac{\sqrt{2}|x - \xi|}{\sigma}\right]. \quad (24.12)$$

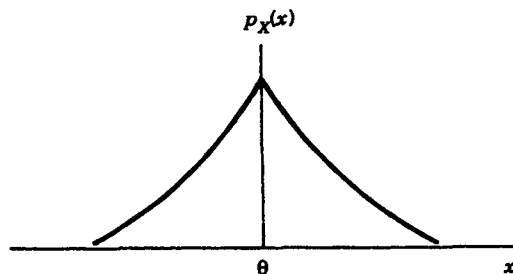


Figure 24.1 Laplace density function.

The upper and lower quartiles are  $\xi \pm \sigma \cdot 2^{-1/2} \log 2 = \xi \pm 0.490\sigma$ . For the normal distribution the corresponding values are  $\xi \pm 0.674\sigma$ . This difference reflects the sharp peak in the **Laplace** distribution. For quantiles further in the tails the comparison is reversed because the **Laplace** probability density function decreases as  $\exp[-\sqrt{2}|x - \xi|/\sigma]$  while the normal decreases as

$$\exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\left[\frac{(x - \xi)^2}{\sigma^2}\right]\right\}.$$

For example the upper and lower 1% points of the **Laplace** distribution are  $\xi \pm 2.722\sigma$ , compared with  $\xi \pm 2.326\sigma$  for the normal distribution.

It is also easily noted that the **Laplace** density in (24.1) with  $\theta = 0$  is exactly the same as the distribution of  $V, -V/2$  when  $V$ , and  $V/2$  are i.i.d. Exponential ( $\phi$ ) random variables. Special tables are not needed for numerical calculations connected with the **Laplace** distribution, as standard tables of the exponential function can be used.

A kurtosis comparison of the **Laplace** and the Cauchy distributions was made by Balanda (1987). Although  $\beta_2$  is 6 for the **Laplace** and infinite for the Cauchy, Balanda pointed out that this moment-based comparison is inadequate, since it does not recognize the dominant features of the two distributions: the Laplace's dramatic peak and the Cauchy's long tail. Horn (1983), for example, identified the **Laplace** as being more peaked than the Cauchy, while Rosenberger and Gasko (1983) identified the Cauchy as having heavier tails than the **Laplace**. Since the moment-based orderings are not useful, as none of the Cauchy's moments are finite (see Chapter 161, Balanda (1987) carried out a kurtosis comparison using kurtosis orderings along the lines of van Zwet (1964).

We note that if  $\theta = 0$ , the probability density function of the arithmetic mean ( $\bar{X}$ ) is

$$\begin{aligned} p_{\bar{X}}(x) &= \frac{n}{\phi^n (n-1)!} \frac{d^{n-1}}{dv^{n-1}} \left\{ \frac{e^{-n|v|}}{(1 + \phi v)^n} \right\} \Bigg|_{v=\phi^{-1}x} \\ &= \frac{(n/\phi) e^{-n|x|/\phi}}{2^{2n-1} (n-1)!} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \frac{2^j (2n-j-2)!}{j! (n-j-1)!} \left| \frac{nx}{\phi} \right|^j. \end{aligned} \quad (24.13)$$

Cases where the underlying variables are double exponential, in the distribution of the arithmetic mean and the distributions of some other statistics, have been discussed by many authors including Hausdorff (1901), Craig (1932), Weida (1935), and Sassa (1968). The density function of  $\bar{X}$  in (24.13) has been used by Balakrishnan and Kocherlakota (1986) in studying the effects of **nonnormality** on  $\bar{X}$ -charts as summarized by the true probabilities of false alarm ( $\alpha$ ) and of true alarm ( $1 - \beta$ ). These authors have shown that no modification to the control charts is necessary in the case of the double exponential distribution, as both  $\alpha$  and  $1 - \beta$  attain values close to their normal counterparts.

Sansing (1976) has discussed the t-statistic arising from a double exponential distribution. Gallo (1979) has derived the sampling distributions of the sum of Laplace variables and the sum of absolute values of the variables, in addition to the distribution of the related t-statistic. Dobrogowski (1976) and Findeisen (1982) have discussed some additional properties of the Laplace distribution.

### 3 ORDER STATISTICS

The simple explicit form of  $F_X(x)$ , as given in (24.11) leads to simple explicit forms for the distributions of order statistics connected with the Laplace distribution. If  $X'_1 \leq X'_2 \leq \dots \leq X'_n$  denote the order statistics corresponding to  $n$  independent random variables  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$ , each having probability density function (24.1) (so that  $X'_r$  is the  $r$ th smallest of  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$ ), then the probability density function of  $X'_r$  is

$$p_{X'_r}(x) = \begin{cases} \left[ \frac{n!}{(r-1)!(n-r)!} \cdot \frac{1}{2\phi} \left\{ 1 - \frac{1}{2} e^{-(\theta-x)/\phi} \right\}^{n-r} \right. \\ \quad \times \exp \left[ -\frac{(r+1)(\theta-x)}{\phi} \right] & \text{for } x \leq \theta, \\ \left. \frac{n!}{(r-1)!(n-r)!} \cdot \frac{1}{2\phi} \left\{ 1 - \frac{1}{2} e^{-(x-\theta)/\phi} \right\}^{r-1} \right. \\ \quad \times \exp \left[ -\frac{(n-r+1)(x-\theta)}{\phi} \right] & \text{for } x \geq \theta. \end{cases} \quad (24.14)$$

The  $s$ th moment of  $X'_r$  about  $\theta$  is

$$E[(X'_r - \theta)^s] = \phi^s \frac{n! \Gamma(s+1)}{(r-1)!(n-r)!} \times \left[ (-1)^s \sum_{j=0}^{n-r} (-1)^j \binom{n-r}{j} 2^{-(r+j+1)} (r+j)^{-(s+1)} + \sum_{j=0}^{r-1} (-1)^j \binom{r-1}{j} 2^{-(n-r+2+j)} \times (n-r+1+j)^{-(s+1)} \right]. \quad (24.15)$$

In particular, if  $n$  is odd, the distribution of the median is obtained by putting  $r = (n+1)/2$  in (24.14). This distribution is symmetrical about 0;

the expected value of the median is 8, and the variance is

$$\frac{4\phi^2 n!}{[(n-11/2)!]} \sum_{j=0}^{(n-1)/2} (-1)^j \times \left[ j! \left( \frac{n-1}{2} - j \right)! 2^{j+(n+1)/2} \left\{ \frac{1}{2}(n+1) + j \right\}^3 \right]^{-1}. \quad (24.16)$$

For any value of  $n$ , the expected value of the largest of  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  is

$$E[X'_n] = \theta + \phi n \left[ \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} (-1)^j \binom{n-1}{j} 2^{-(j+2)} (j+1)^{-2} - 2^{-(1+n)} n^{-2} \right]. \quad (24.17)$$

The expected value of the smallest of  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  is by symmetry  $2\theta - E(X'_n)$ , and the expected value of the range  $W (= X'_n - X'_1)$  is

$$E[W] = 2\phi n \left[ \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} (-1)^j \binom{n-1}{j} 2^{-(j+2)} (j+1)^{-2} - 2^{-(1+n)} n^{-2} \right] = a_n \phi. \quad (24.18)$$

Edwards (1948) gave the values  $a_4 = 2.7708$ ,  $a_5 = 3.1771$ . Edwards also presented the following formulas for the cumulative distribution function of range for  $n = 4, 5$ : For  $n = 4$ ,

$$F_W(w) = 1 + \frac{15}{8}e^{-w} - 3e^{-2w} + \frac{1}{8}e^{-3w} - \frac{3}{4}we^{-w}(4 + e^{-w}), \quad w \geq 0. \quad (24.19)$$

For  $n = 5$ ,

$$F_W(w) = 1 + \frac{77}{12}e^{-w} - \frac{57}{8}e^{-2w} - \frac{1}{4}e^{-3w} - \frac{1}{24}e^{-4w} - \frac{5}{4}we^{-w}(4 + 3e^{-w}), \quad w \geq 0. \quad (24.20)$$

An alternative interesting way of deriving moments of order statistics from the double exponential distribution was presented by Govindarajulu (1963). His method in fact applies to a general symmetric distribution and is as follows: Let  $X'_1 \leq X'_2 \leq \dots \leq X'_n$  denote the order statistics obtained from a random sample of size  $n$  from a symmetric distribution (about zero, without loss of any generality) with cdf  $F_X(x)$ . Let  $Y'_{1:n} \leq Y'_{2:n} \leq \dots \leq Y'_{n:n}$  denote the order statistics obtained from a random sample of size  $n$  from the corresponding folded distribution (folded at zero) with cdf  $G_Y(y) = 2F_X(y) - 1$ ,  $y \geq 0$ . Then, as Govindarajulu (1963) showed, we have the

relations

$$E[X_r^k] = 2^{-n} \left\{ \sum_{i=0}^{r-1} \binom{n}{i} E[Y_{r-i:n-i}^k] + (-1)^k \sum_{i=r}^n \binom{n}{i} E[Y_{i-r+1:i}^k] \right\}, \quad 1 \leq r \leq n, \quad (24.21)$$

and, for  $1 \leq r < s \leq n$ ,

$$E[X_r X_s] = 2^{-n} \left\{ \sum_{i=0}^{r-1} \binom{n}{i} E[Y_{r-i:n-i} Y_{s-i:n-i}] - \sum_{i=r}^{s-1} \binom{n}{i} E[Y_{i-r+1:i}] E[Y_{s-i:n-i}] + \sum_{i=s}^n \binom{n}{i} E[Y_{i-s+1:i} Y_{i-r+1:i}] \right\}. \quad (24.22)$$

From (24.21) and (24.22) we take  $F_X(\mathbf{x})$  to be the standard double exponential distribution with pdf as in (24.2) and corresponding  $G_Y(\mathbf{y})$  to be the standard exponential distribution, and make use of the explicit expressions of the means, variances, and covariances of standard exponential order statistics (see Chapter 18) to obtain

$$E[X_r] = 2^{-n} \left\{ \sum_{i=0}^{r-1} \binom{n}{i} S_1(r-i, n-i) - \sum_{i=r}^n \binom{n}{i} S_1(i-r+1, i) \right\}, \quad 1 \leq r \leq n, \quad (24.23)$$

$$E[X_r^2] = 2^{-n} \left\{ \sum_{i=0}^{r-1} \binom{n}{i} S_2(r-i, n-i) + \sum_{i=r}^n \binom{n}{i} S_2(i-r+1, i) \right\}, \quad 1 \leq r \leq n, \quad (24.24)$$

$$E[X_r X_s] = 2^{-n} \left\{ \sum_{i=0}^{r-1} \binom{n}{i} S_3(r-i, s-i, n-i) - \sum_{i=r}^{s-1} \binom{n}{i} S_1(i-r+1, i) S_1(s-i, n-i) + \sum_{i=s}^n \binom{n}{i} S_3(i-s+1, i-r+1, i) \right\}, \quad 1 \leq r < s \leq n. \quad (24.25)$$



In these formulas, for  $1 \leq r \leq n$ ,

$$S_1(r, n) = \sum_{i=n-r+1}^n \frac{1}{i},$$

$$S_2 = \sum_{i=n-r+1}^n \frac{1}{i^2} + (S_1(r, n))^2,$$

and for  $1 \leq r < s \leq n$ ,

$$S_3(r, s, n) = \sum_{i=n-r+1}^n \frac{1}{i^2} + S_1(r, n) \cdot S_1(s, n).$$

Using Eqs. (24.23)–(24.25) Govindarajulu (1966) tabulated the means, variances, and covariances of standard double exponential order statistics for sample sizes up to 20.

Recently Balakrishnan, Govindarajulu, and Balasubramanian (1993) have given an elegant probabilistic interpretation for the results in (24.21) and (24.22), and used it to establish some generalizations.

Govindarajulu's results in (24.21) and (24.22) were extended by Balakrishnan (1988) to the case when the order statistics arise from a **single-scale-outlier** model consisting of  $n - 1$  symmetric variables and one single symmetric scale outlier. These results were used, along with explicit expressions for the single and the product moments of order statistics from a single-scale-outlier exponential model [Barnett and Lewis (1994)], by Balakrishnan and Ambagasptiya (1988) to study the robustness features of various linear estimators of the parameters  $\theta$  and  $\phi$  of the **Laplace** distribution (24.1). Balakrishnan's (1988) results for the single-scale-outlier double exponential model have been extended in Balakrishnan (1989) to the case when the order statistics  $X'_1, X'_2, \dots, X'_n$  arise from  $n$  independent and nonidentically distributed **Laplace** random variables. Akahira and Takeuchi (1990) have discussed the loss of information associated with the order statistics from the double exponential distribution and related estimators of the parameters  $\theta$  and  $\phi$  (see Section 4).

Lien, Balakrishnan, and Balasubramanian (1992) discussed the moments of order statistics from a doubly truncated **Laplace** distribution with density function

$$p_X(x) = \frac{1}{2(1-P-Q)} e^{-|x|}, \quad \log(2Q) \leq x \leq -\log(2P), \quad (24.26)$$

where  $Q$  and  $P$  are the proportions of truncation on the left and right of the standard **Laplace** density (24.2). They used these moments of order statistics to derive best linear unbiased estimators of the location and scale parameters of a doubly truncated **Laplace** distribution. They also developed some results

for order statistics from a general nonoverlapping mixture model from which the results for the doubly truncated Laplace distribution in (24.26) are deduced as special cases. Khan and Khan (1987) have also derived some recurrence relations for the moments of order statistics from the doubly truncated Laplace distribution (24.26).

## 4 METHODS OF INFERENCE

### 4.1 Maximum Likelihood Estimation

Given observed values of  $n$  mutually independent random variables  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ , each with probability density function (24.1), the likelihood function is

$$-n \log(2\phi) - \phi^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^n |X_j - \theta|. \quad (24.27)$$

Whether the value of  $\phi$  is known or not, any value  $\hat{\theta}$  minimizing  $\sum_{j=1}^n |X_j - \theta|$  with respect to  $\theta$  is a maximum likelihood estimator of  $\theta$ . If  $n$  is odd, then  $\hat{\theta}$  is uniquely defined as the median of  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$ . This result was obtained by Keynes (1911), who also conjectured that this is a characterization of the Laplace distribution (as, indeed, it effectively is). If  $n$  is even, then  $\hat{\theta}$  can be any value between the  $\frac{1}{2}n$ th and  $(\frac{1}{2}n + 1)$ th-order statistics from  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$ . The arithmetic mean of these two values is convenient to use, and is an unbiased estimator of  $\theta$  (as is the median when  $n$  is odd).

If  $\phi$  (as well as  $\theta$ ) is unknown, a maximum likelihood estimator of  $\phi$  is

$$n^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^n |X_j - \hat{\theta}|, \quad (24.28)$$

where  $\hat{\theta}$  is a maximum likelihood estimator of  $\theta$ . If  $\theta$  is known, but  $\phi$  is unknown (most commonly,  $\theta = 0$ ), then the maximum likelihood estimator of  $\phi$  is

$$n^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^n |X_j - \theta|. \quad (24.29)$$

The distribution of the median has been discussed in Section 24.3. Although the median is a maximum likelihood estimator of  $\theta$ , and unbiased, it is not a minimum variance unbiased estimator of  $\theta$ . Indeed for small values of  $n$  (the sample size) it is possible to construct unbiased estimators with smaller variance than the median (e.g., see Table 24.1). Norton (1984) and Hombas (1986) have described the use of calculus to find the maximum likelihood estimators.

Table 24.1 Coefficients and variances of best linear estimators of location ( $\theta$ ) and scale ( $\phi$ ) parameters

$n$	$r$		Coefficients of					Variances
			$X'_n$	$X'_{n-1}$	$X'_{n-2}$	$X'_{n-3}$	$X'_{n-4}$	
2	0	8	0.5000					1.0000
		$\phi$	0.6667					0.7778
3	0	$\theta$	0.1481	0.7037				0.5895
		$\phi$	0.4444	0.0000				0.4321
4	0	$\theta$	0.0473	0.4527				0.4155
		$\phi$	0.3077	0.2145				0.2986
4	1	8		0.5000				0.4201
		$\phi$		1.4545				0.8512
5	0	8	0.0166	0.2213	0.5241			0.3169
		$\phi$	0.2331	0.2264	0.0000			0.2290
5	1	$\theta$		0.2378	0.5244			0.3174
		$\phi$		0.8727	0.0000			0.4387
6	0	8	0.0063	0.1006	0.3931			0.2548
		$\phi$	0.1876	0.1943	0.1132			0.1858
6	1	8		0.1069	0.3931			0.2548
		$\phi$		0.6135	0.1824			0.2996
6	2	8			0.5000			0.2609
		$\phi$			2.2857			0.8866
7	0	$\theta$	0.0025	0.0455	0.2386	0.4267		0.2122
		$\phi$	0.1572	0.1631	0.1439	0.0000		0.1565
7	1	$\theta$		0.0480	0.2386	0.4267		0.2122
		$\phi$		0.4677	0.2104	0.0000		0.2288
7	2	8			0.2862	0.4276		0.2134
		$\phi$			1.3061	0.0000		0.4468
8	0	$\theta$	0.0010	0.0208	0.1316	0.3465		0.1814
		$\phi$	0.1355	0.1391	0.1391	0.0718		0.1351
8	1	$\theta$		0.0219	0.1316	0.3465		0.1814
		$\phi$		0.3767	0.1910	0.0987		0.1856
8	2	6			0.1533	0.3467		0.1816
		$\phi$			0.1977	0.1605		0.3020
8	3	$\theta$				0.5000		0.1873
		$\phi$				3.1411		0.9078
9	0	$\theta$	0.0004	0.0097	0.0698	0.2374	0.3654	0.1581
		$\phi$	0.1191	0.1211	0.1251	0.1013	0.0000	0.1190
9	1	$\theta$		0.0101	0.0698	0.2374	0.3654	0.1581
		$\phi$		0.3153	0.1643	0.1331	0.0000	0.1562
9	2	$\theta$			0.0799	0.2374	0.3655	0.1581
		$\phi$			0.7023	0.1955	0.0000	0.2295
9	3	$\theta$				0.3166	0.3668	0.1596
		$\phi$				1.7451	0.0000	0.4534
10	0	$\theta$	0.0002	0.0046	0.0364	0.1478	0.3110	0.1399
		$\phi$	0.1063	0.1074	0.1110	0.1061	0.0504	0.1062
10	1	$\theta$		0.0047	0.0364	0.1478	0.3310	0.1399
		$\phi$		0.2714	0.1410	0.1347	0.0640	0.1350
10	2	$\theta$			0.0412	0.1478	0.3110	0.1399
		$\phi$			0.5665	0.1854	0.0881	0.1857
10	3	$\theta$				0.1887	0.3113	0.1403
		$\phi$				1.2218	0.1448	0.3044
10	4	$\theta$					0.5000	0.1452
		$\phi$					4.0125	0.9220

Balakrishnan and Cutler (1994) have recently derived explicitly the maximum likelihood estimators of the parameters  $\theta$  and  $\phi$  based on symmetrically Type-II censored samples. To this end, let  $X'_{r+1} \leq X'_{r+2} \leq \dots \leq X'_{n-r}$  be the symmetrically Type-II censored sample available from a sample of size  $n$ , where the smallest  $r$  and the largest  $r$  observations have been censored. Then the likelihood function based on the given censored sample is

$$L(\theta, \phi) = \frac{n!}{(r!)^2} [F_X(X'_{r+1})\{1 - F_X(X'_{n-r})\}]^r \prod_{i=r+1}^{n-r} p_X(X'_i), \quad (24.30)$$

where  $p_X(x)$  and  $F_X(x)$  are as in Eqs. (24.1) and (24.11). If  $\theta$  is in the interval  $[X'_{r+1}, X'_{n-r}]$ , the likelihood function in (24.30) becomes

$$L(\theta, \phi) = \frac{n!}{2^n (r!)^2 \phi^{n-2r}} \exp \left\{ \frac{-r}{\phi} (X'_{n-r} - X'_{r+1}) - \sum_{i=r+1}^{n-r} \left| \frac{X'_i - \theta}{\phi} \right| \right\}, \quad (24.31)$$

from which it is clear that the "restricted MLE" of  $\theta$  is

$$\hat{\theta} = \begin{cases} X'_{m+1} & \text{when } n = 2m + 1, \\ \text{any value in } [X'_m, X'_{m+1}] & \text{when } n = 2m. \end{cases} \quad (24.32)$$

If  $\theta < X'_{r+1}$ , the likelihood function in (24.30) becomes

$$L(\theta, \phi) = \frac{n!}{(r!)^2 (2\phi)^{n-2r}} \left[ \left\{ 1 - \frac{1}{2} e^{-(X'_{r+1}-\theta)/\phi} \right\} \frac{1}{2} e^{-(X'_{n-r}-\theta)/\phi} \right]^r \times e^{-\sum_{i=r+1}^{n-r} (X'_i - \theta)/\phi}, \quad (24.33)$$

which can be shown to be a monotonic increasing function in  $\theta$ . If  $\theta > X'_{n-r}$ , the likelihood function in (24.30) becomes

$$L(\theta, \phi) = \frac{n!}{(r!)^2 (2\phi)^{n-2r}} \left[ \frac{1}{2} e^{(X'_{r+1}-\theta)/\phi} \cdot \left\{ 1 - \frac{1}{2} e^{(X'_{n-r}-\theta)/\phi} \right\} \right]^r \times e^{-\sum_{i=r+1}^{n-r} (\theta - X'_i)/\phi}, \quad (24.34)$$

which can be shown to be a monotonic decreasing function in  $\theta$ .

Consequently, the "restricted MLE" of  $\theta$  in (24.32) becomes the global MLE as well. Now, substituting  $\hat{\theta}$  in (24.30) and maximizing  $L(\hat{\theta}, \phi)$  with

respect to  $\phi$ , we derive the MLE of  $\phi$  as, when  $n = 2m + 1$ ,

$$\hat{\phi} = \frac{1}{2m + 1 - 2r} \left\{ \sum_{i=m+2}^{2m+1-r} X'_i - \sum_{i=r+1}^m X'_i + r(X'_{2m+1-r} - X'_{r+1}) \right\}, \quad (24.35)$$

and, when  $n = 2m$ ,

$$\phi = \frac{1}{2m - 2r} \left\{ \sum_{i=m+1}^{2m-r} X'_i - \sum_{i=r+1}^m X'_i + r(X'_{2m-r} - X'_{r+1}) \right\}. \quad (24.36)$$

Balakrishnan and Cutler (1994) have discussed the bias and the efficiencies of these estimators as compared to the best linear unbiased estimators presented by Govindarajulu (1966) and described below. Balakrishnan and Cutler (1994) have also derived such explicit MLEs for 8 and 4 based on Type-II right-censored samples.

## 4.2 Best Linear Unbiased Estimation

Let  $X'_{r+1} \leq X'_{r+2} \leq \dots \leq X'_{n-s}$  be the doubly Type-II censored sample available from a sample of size  $n$ , where the smallest  $r$  and the largest  $s$  observations have been censored. From Eqs. (24.23)–(24.25), we can compute the means, variances, and covariances of order statistics from the standard Laplace distribution (24.2), and we denote them by  $\mu_i$ ,  $\sigma_{ii}$ , and  $\sigma_{ij}$ . Further let us denote

$$\mathbf{X} = (X'_{r+1}, X'_{r+2}, \dots, X'_{n-s})^T,$$

$$\boldsymbol{\mu} = (\mu_{r+1}, \mu_{r+2}, \dots, \mu_{n-s})^T,$$

$$\mathbf{1} = (1, 1, \dots, 1)_{(n-r-s) \times 1}^T,$$

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = ((\sigma_{ij}))_{i,j=r+1, \dots, n-s}.$$

Then the best linear unbiased estimators of 8 and  $\phi$ , based on the given doubly Type-II censored sample, are given by [see David (1981), Balakrishnan and Cohen (1991, pp. 80–82)]

$$\begin{aligned} \theta^* &= \left\{ \frac{\boldsymbol{\mu}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{1}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{1} \boldsymbol{\mu}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}}{(\boldsymbol{\mu}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{1}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{1}) - (\boldsymbol{\mu}^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{1})^2} \right\} \mathbf{X} \\ &= \sum_{i=r+1}^{n-s} a_i X'_i \end{aligned} \quad (24.37)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}\phi^* &= \left\{ \frac{\mathbf{1}^T \Sigma^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}^T \Sigma^{-1} - \mathbf{1}^T \Sigma^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu} \mathbf{1}^T \Sigma^{-1}}{(\boldsymbol{\mu}^T \Sigma^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{1}^T \Sigma^{-1} \mathbf{1}) - (\boldsymbol{\mu}^T \Sigma^{-1} \mathbf{1})^2} \right\} \mathbf{X} \\ &= \sum_{i=r+1}^{n-s} b_i X'_i.\end{aligned}\quad (24.38)$$

The variances and covariance of these estimators are given by

$$\text{var}(\theta^*) = \phi^2 \left\{ \frac{\boldsymbol{\mu}^T \Sigma^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}}{(\boldsymbol{\mu}^T \Sigma^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{1}^T \Sigma^{-1} \mathbf{1}) - (\boldsymbol{\mu}^T \Sigma^{-1} \mathbf{1})^2} \right\} = \phi^2 V_1, \quad (24.39)$$

$$\text{var}(\phi^*) = \phi^2 \left\{ \frac{\mathbf{1}^T \Sigma^{-1} \mathbf{1}}{(\boldsymbol{\mu}^T \Sigma^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{1}^T \Sigma^{-1} \mathbf{1}) - (\boldsymbol{\mu}^T \Sigma^{-1} \mathbf{1})^2} \right\} = \phi^2 V_2, \quad (24.40)$$

$$\text{cov}(\theta^*, \phi^*) = -\phi^2 \left\{ \frac{\boldsymbol{\mu}^T \Sigma^{-1} \mathbf{1}}{(\boldsymbol{\mu}^T \Sigma^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{1}^T \Sigma^{-1} \mathbf{1}) - (\boldsymbol{\mu}^T \Sigma^{-1} \mathbf{1})^2} \right\} = -\phi^2 V_3. \quad (24.41)$$

For the case where the available sample is symmetrically Type-II censored (i.e.,  $r = s$ ),  $\text{cov}(\theta^*, \phi^*)$  in (24.41) will equal  $\mathbf{0}$ , since  $\boldsymbol{\mu}^T \Sigma^{-1} \mathbf{1} = \mathbf{0}$ . Further in this case the coefficient of  $X'_i$  in  $\theta^*$  in (24.37) is the same as that of  $X'_{n-i+1}$ ; the coefficient of  $X'_i$  in  $\phi^*$  in (24.38) is the same as that of  $X'_{n-i+1}$  in magnitude but is of opposite sign. Govindarajulu (1966) presented tables of the coefficients  $a_i$  and  $b_i$  and the values of  $V_1$ ,  $V_2$ , and  $V_3$  for sample sizes up to 20 and all possible choices of  $r = s$ . Balakrishnan, Chandramouleeswaran, and Ambagaspitiya (1994) presented similar tables for Type-II right-censored samples of sizes up to 20 with  $r = 0$  and  $s = \mathbf{0}(1)n - 2$ .

Table 24.1 [from Govindarajulu (1966)] gives the coefficients of  $\theta^*$  and  $\phi^*$  in samples of sizes  $n = 2(1)10$  and  $r = s = \mathbf{0}(1)(n - 2)/2$ . The final column gives the values of  $\text{var}(\theta^*)/\phi^2$  and  $\text{var}(\phi^*)/\phi^2$ .

Sarhan (1954) has compared the variances of the best linear estimator of  $\theta$ , the median (defined as the arithmetic mean of  $X'_{n/2}$  and  $X'_{(n+1)/2}$  when  $n$  is even), the arithmetic mean ( $n^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^n X'_j$ ), and the midrange [ $\frac{1}{2}(X'_1 + X'_n)$ ]. These are all unbiased estimators of  $\theta$ . Table 24.2 presents the efficiencies (inverse ratio of variances, expressed as a percentage) of the last three estimators relative to the first. Figure 24.2a-c represent these values diagrammatically. The irregular appearance of Figure 24.2c is associated with the different definition of the median in samples of odd and even sizes.

We note that the estimator  $n^{-1} \sum |X'_i - \theta|$  of  $\phi$  (with  $\theta$  known) is distributed as  $(2n)^{-1} \chi^2 \times (\chi^2)$  with  $2n$  degrees of freedom. The distribution of

**Table 24.2** Efficiency of various estimators of  $\theta$ , relative to best linear unbiased estimator

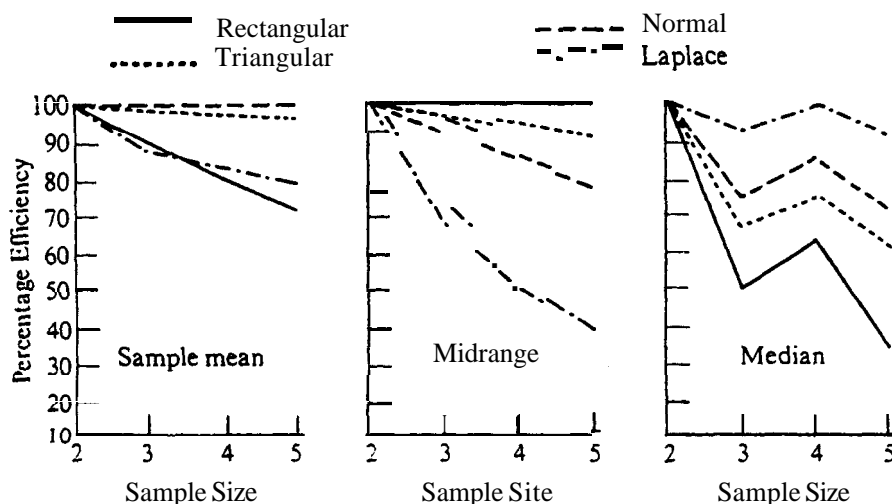
Estimator (%)	Sample Size $n$			
	2	3	4	5
Arithmetic mean	100.00	88.43	82.80	79.21
Midrange	100.00	67.90	49.65	38.29
Median	100.00	92.27	98.90	90.23

Note: Chu and Hotelling (1955) showed that  $\text{var}(\text{median})$  is less than  $\text{var}(\text{arithmetic mean})$  for  $n \geq 7$ .

$n^{-1} \sum |X_i - \hat{\theta}|$ , where  $\hat{\theta}$  is a median value, has been studied by Karst and Polowy (1963).

In Table 24.3 the coefficients for the best linear unbiased estimators of the mean  $\theta$  and the standard deviation  $\sigma = \phi\sqrt{2}$  and the values of  $\text{var}(\theta^*)/\sigma^2$  and  $\text{var}(\sigma^*)/\sigma^2$  [taken from Sarhan (1954)] are presented for  $n = 3, 4$ , and  $5$  for the case of right censoring with  $r = 0$  and  $s = 1(1)n - 2$ . As we mentioned earlier, Balakrishnan, Chandramouleeswaran, and Ambagasptiya (1994) present an extended form of this table for samples sizes up to 20.

If  $\phi$  is known, confidence limits for  $\theta$  may be based on the distribution of the median,  $\hat{\theta}$ . If  $\theta$  is known, then confidence limits for  $\phi$  may be obtained by using the fact that the distribution of  $n^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^n |X_j - \theta|$  is that of  $(2n)^{-1} \phi \chi^2$  ( $\chi^2$  with  $2n$  degrees of freedom). The limits of a  $100(1 - \alpha)\%$  confidence



**Figure 24.2** Percentage efficiencies of the sample mean, midrange, and median in different populations.

**Table 24.3** Coefficients of best linear unbiased estimators of expected value ( $\theta$ ) and standard deviation ( $\sigma = \phi\sqrt{2}$ ) for samples censored by omission of  $s$  largest observed values

n	s	Estimator of	Coefficients of				Variance $\times \sigma^{-2}$	Relative Efficiency <sup>a</sup>
			$X'_1$	$X'_2$	$X'_3$	X		
3	1	$\theta$	-0.3300	1.3000				
		$\sigma$	-1.3578	1.3578				
4	1	$\theta$	0.0662	0.3333	0.6004		0.1860	(98.23)
		$\sigma$	-0.7332	-0.2129	0.9461		0.3339	(89.42)
	2	$\theta$	0.0000	1.0000			0.3335	(62.29)
		$\sigma$	-1.2563	1.2563			0.9457	(31.58)
5	1	$\theta$	0.0114	0.2163	0.5243	0.2479	0.1586	(99.88)
		$\sigma$	-0.4331	-0.4191	0.0037	0.8484	0.3097	(73.88)
	2	$\theta$	-0.6649	0.1666	0.8998		0.1724	(91.85)
		$\sigma$	-0.6655	-0.6233	1.2889		0.4634	(49.37)
	3	$\theta$	-0.5641	1.5641			1.2743	(2.24)
		$\sigma$	-1.3925	1.3925			2.8481	(8.03)

<sup>a</sup>Relative efficiency (inverse ratio of variance to that of best linear unbiased estimator using the complete sample) is shown, as a percentage, in parentheses.

interval for  $\mathbf{4}$  are then

$$2 \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{|X_j - \theta|}{\chi_{2n, 1-\alpha/2}^2} \quad \text{and} \quad 2 \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{|X_j - \theta|}{\chi_{2n, \alpha/2}^2}. \quad (24.42)$$

If neither  $\mathbf{8}$  nor  $\phi$  is known it would be possible to construct confidence intervals for  $\mathbf{8}$  and  $\phi$ , respectively, using the distributions of

$$\frac{\hat{\theta} - \mathbf{e}}{\sum_{j=1}^n |X_j - \hat{\theta}|} \quad \text{and} \quad \phi^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^n |X_j - \hat{\theta}|, \quad (24.43)$$

which are pivotal quantities for the parameters  $\theta$  and  $\mathbf{4}$ , respectively. Bain and Engelhardt (1973) have determined exact distributions for  $n = 3$  and  $n = 5$  and have provided approximate distributions for larger  $n$ . These authors have also given the asymptotic distributions of the pivotal quantities and the powers of the associated tests of hypotheses.

For the case of complete as well as **Type-II** censored samples, Balakrishnan, Chandramouleeswaran, and Arnbagaspiya (1994) considered three pivotal quantities by using the best linear unbiased estimators  $\theta^*$  and  $\phi^*$  in Eqs. (24.37) and (24.38) and their variances in Eqs. (24.39) and (24.40),

$$\frac{\theta^* - \theta}{\phi\sqrt{V_1}}, \quad \frac{\mathbf{e}^* - \mathbf{e}}{\phi^*\sqrt{V_1}}, \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{(\phi^*/\phi) - 1}{\sqrt{V_2}} \quad (24.44)$$



and making inferences on  $\theta$  when  $\phi$  is known, on  $\theta$  when  $\phi$  is unknown, and on  $\phi$  when  $\theta$  is unknown, respectively. These authors presented some percentage points of all three pivotal quantities for sample sizes up to 20 for various choices of censoring. Edgeworth approximations for the distributions of the pivotal quantities in (24.44) have been discussed by Balakrishnan, Chandramouleeswaran, and Govindarajulu (1994) who have also examined their accuracy.

*Referring to the tables of BLUEs given by Govindarajulu (1966), Srinivasan and Wharton (1982) discussed the derivation of one-sided and two-sided confidence bands on the entire cumulative distribution function  $F_X(x)$ . These bands are constructed using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov-type statistics. For example, the two-sided band on  $F_X(x; \theta, \phi)$  is based on the statistic*

$$L_n = \sup_{-\infty < x < \infty} |F_X(x; \theta, \phi) - F_X(x; \theta^*, \phi^*)|, \quad (24.45)$$

while the one-sided upper confidence contour for  $F_X(x; \theta, \phi)$  is based on the statistic

$$L_n^+ = \sup_{x \geq 0} \{F_X(x; \theta, \phi) - F_X(x; \theta^*, \phi^*)\}. \quad (24.46)$$

For  $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ , if  $l_\alpha$  is the  $\alpha$ th quantile of  $L$ , (i.e.,  $\Pr\{L_n \leq l_\alpha\} = \alpha$ ), then a two-sided confidence band for  $F_X(x; \theta, \phi)$  with confidence level  $\alpha$  is given by the planar region bounded above by the function  $y = \min\{F_X(x; \theta^*, \phi^*) + l_\alpha, 1\}$  and bounded below by  $y = \max\{F_X(x; \theta^*, \phi^*) - l_\alpha, 0\}$ . Srinivasan and Wharton (1982) have presented tables of simulated percentage points of  $L_n$  and  $L_n^+$  for  $n$  up to 20; these are presented in Tables 24.4 and 24.5. Srinivasan and Wharton (1982) have also discussed some large-sample approximations for the percentage points of  $L_n$  and  $L_n^+$ . For example, by using the asymptotic result that  $Z_1 = \sqrt{n}\theta^*$  and  $Z_2 = \sqrt{n}(\phi^* - 1)$  are independent standard normal variables (in the case of the standard Laplace distribution), they have shown that the limiting distribution of  $\sqrt{n}L_n$  is the same as that of the random variable  $\sup|X_0(y)|$ , where

$$X_0(y) = \frac{1}{2}e^{-|y|}(U + Vy), \quad -\infty < y < \infty.$$

This expression readily gives approximate quantiles for  $\sqrt{n}L_n$  when  $n$  is large. Srinivasan and Wharton (1982) have mentioned that this asymptotic approximation works quite effectively for  $n > 30$ .

By considering just the location-Laplace model (with  $\phi = 1$ ), Sugiura and Naing (1989) derived improved estimators of  $\theta$  in the form of a weighted linear combination of the sample median and pairs of order statistics (with symmetric distance to both sides from the sample median) and by minimizing with respect to weights and distances. The resulting estimator has been

Table 24.4 Simulated percentage points  $l_\alpha$  of the statistic  $L_n$ 

$n$	$a$				
	0.80	0.85	0.90	0.95	0.99
5	0.31	0.35	0.39	0.45	0.56
6	0.29	0.32	0.35	0.41	0.52
7	0.26	0.29	0.33	0.38	0.48
8	0.25	0.27	0.31	0.36	0.46
9	0.23	0.26	0.29	0.34	0.44
10	0.22	0.24	0.27	0.32	0.41
11	0.21	0.23	0.26	0.31	0.39
12	0.20	0.22	0.25	0.30	0.38
13	0.19	0.22	0.24	0.28	0.36
14	0.18	0.21	0.23	0.27	0.34
15	0.18	0.20	0.22	0.26	0.33
16	0.17	0.19	0.22	0.25	0.32
17	0.16	0.18	0.21	0.24	0.31
18	0.16	0.18	0.20	0.24	0.31
19	0.16	0.18	0.20	0.23	0.31
20	0.15	0.17	0.19	0.23	0.29

Table 24.5 Simulated percentage points  $l_\alpha^+$  of the statistic  $L_n^+$ 

$n$	$a$				
	0.80	0.85	0.90	0.95	0.99
5	0.23	0.27	0.31	0.38	0.51
6	0.21	0.24	0.29	0.35	0.47
7	0.19	0.22	0.26	0.32	0.44
8	0.18	0.21	0.25	0.31	0.42
9	0.16	0.19	0.23	0.28	0.39
10	0.16	0.18	0.22	0.27	0.38
11	0.15	0.17	0.21	0.26	0.36
12	0.14	0.17	0.20	0.25	0.34
13	0.13	0.16	0.19	0.24	0.34
14	0.13	0.15	0.18	0.23	0.32
15	0.12	0.14	0.18	0.22	0.30
16	0.12	0.14	0.17	0.21	0.29
17	0.12	0.14	0.17	0.21	0.28
18	0.12	0.14	0.17	0.21	0.28
19	0.11	0.13	0.16	0.20	0.27
20	0.11	0.13	0.15	0.19	0.26

shown to have smaller asymptotic variance in the second order; see also Akahira (1987,1990) and Akahira and Takeuchi (1993).

### 4.3 Simplified Linear Estimation

By considering the  $i$ th quasi-range,  $W_i = X'_{n-i+1} - X'_i$ , and the  $i$ th quasi-midrange,  $V_i = (X'_{n-i+1} + X'_i)/2$ , Raghunandan and Srinivasan (1971) proposed simplified linear estimators of the parameters  $\phi$  and  $\theta$ . Their estimator of  $\theta$ ,  $\tilde{\theta}$ , is defined to be that  $V_i$  with the smallest variance. The estimator  $\tilde{\theta}$  is presented in Table 24.6 for  $n$  up to 20, and the efficiency of this estimator relative to the best linear unbiased estimator of  $\theta$  based on the complete sample of size  $n$  (Table 24.1) is also presented in this table. The estimator  $\tilde{\phi}$  presented in the table is also applicable when the available sample is symmetrically Type-II censored with  $r \leq i - 1$ . We may note that for  $n = 3$  and 5, the estimator in Table 24.6 is simply the sample median.

Raghunandan and Srinivasan's estimator of  $\phi$ , which is based on a symmetrically Type-II censored sample with  $r$  smallest and  $r$  largest observations censored, is defined to be the one with minimum variance among linear estimators of the form

$$\tilde{\phi} = D \sum_{i=r+1}^{n/2} c_i W_i, \quad (24.47)$$

Table 24.6 Estimator  $\tilde{\theta}$  and its efficiency

$n$	$i$	$\text{var}(\tilde{\theta})/\phi^2$	$\text{Eff}(\tilde{\theta})$
3	2	0.638890	0.923
4	2	0.420135	0.989
5	3	0.351180	0.902
6	3	0.260905	0.977
7	3	0.225805	0.940
8	4	0.187310	0.968
9	4	0.164795	0.959
10	5	0.145225	0.963
11	5	0.129605	0.967
12	6	0.118125	0.960
13	6	0.106670	0.970
14	7	0.099285	0.959
15	7	0.090540	0.972
16	7	0.085190	0.960
17	8	0.078575	0.972
18	8	0.074175	0.967
19	9	0.069350	0.973
20	9	0.065670	0.970

Table 24.7 Estimator  $\tilde{\phi}$  and its efficiency

$n$	$r$	$\tilde{\phi}$	$\text{var}(\tilde{\phi})/\phi^2$	$\text{Eff}(\tilde{\phi})$
4	0	$0.289157 (W_1 + W_2)$	0.300624	0.993
5	0	$0.231325 (W_1 + W_2)$	0.229000	1.000
6	0	$0.183486 (W_1 + W_2 + W_3)$	0.186515	0.996
6	1	$0.666667 W_2$	0.304009	0.985
7	0	$0.157274 (W_1 + W_2 + W_3)$	0.156500	1.000
7	1	$0.390721 (W_2 + W_3)$	0.234731	0.975
8	0	$0.134254 (W_1 + W_2 + W_3 + W_4)$	0.135438	0.997
8	1	$0.324571 (W_2 + W_3)$	0.188570	0.984
8	2	$0.967133 W_3$	0.303726	0.994
9	0	$0.119337 (W_1 + W_2 + W_3 + W_4)$	0.119000	1.000
9	1	$0.282882 (W_2 + W_3)$	0.158812	0.983
9	2	$0.790855 W_3$	0.233068	0.985
10	0	$0.108696 (W_1 + W_2 + W_3 + W_4)$	0.106392	0.998
10	1	$0.238741 (W_2 + W_3 + W_4)$	0.137784	0.980
10	2	$0.681084 W_3$	0.190810	0.973
10	3	$1.267536 W_4$	0.305295	0.997

where each  $c_i$  takes the values 0 or 1 and  $D$  is the constant that would make the estimator unbiased; as a result  $D$  is given by

$$D = \left\{ 2 \sum_{i=r+1}^{n/2} c_i \mu_{n-i+1} \right\}^{-1}. \quad (24.48)$$

In Table 24.7 the estimator  $\tilde{\phi}$  is presented for  $n = 4(1)10$  for various choices of  $r$ . The efficiency of this estimator relative to the BLUE based on the symmetrically Type-11 censored sample (see Table 24.1) is also presented in this table. More elaborate tables have been provided by Raghunandan and Srinivasan (1971). Similar simplified linear estimators for the normal case have been discussed in Chapter 13.

Iliescu and Vodă (1973) have presented minimum mean-square-error estimator of the form

$$b_n \sum_{i=1}^{[n/2]} W_i$$

for the parameter  $\phi$ . These authors have also presented the appropriate values of  $b_n$  for  $n = 2(1)100$ . It may be noted that this estimator is essentially of the same form as Raghunandan and Srinivasan's simplified linear estimator (24.47) (with all  $c_i$ 's taken to be 1).

#### 4.4 Asymptotic Best Linear Unbiased Estimation

Chan and Chan (1969) discussed the estimation of the parameters  $\theta$  and  $\phi$  based on selected order statistics. Ahsanullah and Rahim (1973) discussed the simplified estimation of  $\theta$  and  $\phi$  based on optimally selected order statistics from a middle-censored sample.

By using the theory of the asymptotic best linear unbiased estimation (ABLUEs) of parameters developed by Ogawa (1951), Cheng (1978) established the following:

1. The optimal spacing  $\{\lambda_i\}$  for the ABLUE  $\theta^*$  is just a single-point spacing  $\{\frac{1}{2}\}$ , which is independent of the value of the number ( $k$ ) of selected order statistics, and hence it is unique with  $\text{ARE}(\theta^*) = 1$ ;
2. The optimal spacing  $\{\lambda_i\}$  for the ABLUE  $\phi^*$  is not symmetric about the point  $\frac{1}{2}$  when  $k$  is odd. However, when  $k$  is even, the optimal spacing may be symmetric about the point  $\frac{1}{2}$ .

Cheng (1978) presented the optimal spacing  $\{\lambda_i\}$  and the corresponding coefficients  $\{b_i\}$  for the ABLUE  $\theta^*$ , and the asymptotic efficiency of this estimator relative to the Rao-Cramer lower bound. In Table 24.8, these values are presented for  $k = 1(1)10$  [taken from Cheng (1978)].

Ali, Umbach, and Hassanein (1981) discussed the ABLUE of quantiles  $x_\xi$  of the Laplace distribution in (24.11) [i.e.,  $F_X(x_\xi) = \xi$ ] based on two optimally chosen order statistics. They have provided the explicit form of this estimator of  $x_\xi$  as

$$\begin{aligned}
 x_\xi^{*} &= 0.255 X'_{[0.30506\xi n]+1} + 0.745 X'_{[1.50134\xi n]+1} \\
 &\quad \text{for } 0.0352 \leq \xi \leq 0.3330 \\
 &= -\frac{z_\xi}{1.59362} X'_{[0.10159n]+1} + \left(1 + \frac{z_\xi}{1.59362}\right) X'_{[n/2]+1} \\
 &\quad \text{for } \xi < 0.0352 \text{ and } 0.3330 < \xi < 0.5 \\
 &= X'_{[n/2]+1} \quad \text{for } \xi = 0.5 \\
 &= \left(1 - \frac{z_\xi}{1.59362}\right) X'_{[n/2]+1} + \frac{z_\xi}{1.59362} X'_{[0.89841n]+1} \\
 &\quad \text{for } 0.5 < \xi < 0.6670 \text{ and } \xi > 0.9648 \\
 &= 0.745 X'_{[(1.50134\xi - 0.50134)n]+1} + 0.255 X'_{[(0.30536\xi + 0.69494)n]+1} \\
 &\quad \text{for } 0.6670 \leq \xi \leq 0.9648, \quad (24.49)
 \end{aligned}$$

Table 24.8 The optimal spacing  $\{\lambda_i\}$ , the coefficients  $\{b_i\}$ , and the ARE( $\phi^{**}$ ) of the ABLUE  $\dagger^{**}$ 

$k$	1	2	3	4	5
$\lambda_1$	0.079297	0.101594	0.033422	0.036723	0.016452
$\lambda_2$		0.898406	0.164490	0.180735	0.080968
$\lambda_3$			0.890440	0.819265	0.223999
$\lambda_4$				0.963277	0.810958
$\lambda_5$					0.961589
$b_1$	-0.543063	-0.313750	-0.091528	-0.089540	-0.038492
$b_2$		0.313750	-0.267216	-0.261596	-0.112454
$b_3$			0.299908	0.261596	-0.221847
$b_4$				0.089540	0.262269
$b_5$					0.089868
ARE( $\phi^{**}$ )	0.292036	0.647609	0.730316	0.820263	0.854828
$k$	6	7	8	9	10
$\lambda_1$	0.017277	0.008980	0.009478	0.005620	0.005752
$\lambda_2$	0.085029	0.044197	0.046645	0.027661	0.028311
$\lambda_3$	0.235233	0.122269	0.129043	0.076523	0.078322
$\lambda_4$	0.764767	0.259890	0.274288	0.162653	0.166477
$\lambda_5$	0.914971	0.763397	0.725712	0.296500	0.303472
$\lambda_6$	0.982723	0.914475	0.870957	0.720691	0.696528
$\lambda_7$		0.982622	0.953355	0.868595	0.833523
$\lambda_8$			0.990522	0.952501	0.921678
$\lambda_9$				0.990349	0.971689
$\lambda_{10}$					0.994248
$b_1$	-0.038779	-0.019766	-0.020451	-0.011994	-0.012141
$b_2$	-0.113294	-0.057748	-0.059746	-0.035044	-0.035472
$b_3$	-0.223845	-0.114094	-0.118045	-0.069236	-0.070084
$b_4$	0.223845	-0.192711	-0.195351	-0.114579	-0.115982
$b_5$	0.113294	0.224331	0.195351	-0.171350	-0.173167
$b_6$	0.038779	0.111746	0.118045	0.197019	0.173167
$b_7$		0.038250	0.059746	0.118894	0.115982
$b_8$			0.020451	0.060176	0.070084
$b_9$				0.020597	0.035472
$b_{10}$					0.012141
ARE( $\phi^{**}$ )	0.891047	0.908654	0.926909	0.937134	0.947572

where  $z_\xi$  is the quantile of the standard Laplace distribution (24.2). They have reported some selected asymptotic efficiency values of this estimator relative to  $X'_{[n\xi]+1}$ . For example, for  $\xi = 0.1, 0.2, 0.4,$  and  $0.5$ , the asymptotic relative efficiencies are 122%, 128%, 147%, and 100%, respectively. Further discussion on this problem has been provided by Saleh, Ali, and Umbach (1983). Umbach, Ali, and Saleh (1984) have discussed hypothesis testing using ABLUEs based on optimal spacings.

### 4.5 Conditional Inference

Kappenman (1975) discussed conditional confidence intervals for the parameters  $\theta$  and  $\phi$ ; see also the note by Edwards (1974). With  $\hat{\theta}$  = sample median and  $\hat{\phi}$  as in (24.28) being the MLEs of  $\theta$  and  $\phi$ , and with

$$a_i = \frac{X'_i - \hat{\theta}}{\hat{\phi}}, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n, \quad (24.50)$$

being the ancillary statistics (only  $n - 2$  of which are independent), the joint conditional density function, given the ancillary statistics, is

$$p(\hat{\theta}, \hat{\phi} | \mathbf{a}) = K \cdot \frac{1}{\hat{\phi}^2} \left( \frac{\hat{\phi}}{\phi} \right)^{n-2} \exp \left\{ -\frac{\hat{\phi}}{\phi} \sum_{i=1}^n \left| \frac{\hat{\theta} - \theta}{\hat{\phi}} + a_i \right| \right\}. \quad (24.51)$$

Defining  $U = (\hat{\theta} - \theta)/\hat{\phi}$  and  $V = \hat{\phi}/\phi$  to be the pivotal quantities for  $\theta$  and  $\phi$ , respectively, the conditional joint density function of  $U$  and  $V$ , given the ancillary statistics,  $\mathbf{a}$ , is obtained from (24.51) to be

$$p_{U,V}(u, v | \mathbf{a}) = K' v^{n-1} e^{-v \sum_{i=1}^n |u + a_i|}, \quad (24.52)$$

where the normalizing constant  $K'$  is

$$K' = \frac{1}{2\Gamma(n-1)} \left[ B_n(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) c(\hat{\theta}) \right]^{n-1}. \quad (24.53)$$

Here

$$c(t) = \sum_{i=1}^n |a_i - t| \quad (24.54)$$

and

$$B_n(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$$

$$= \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \frac{c(\hat{\theta})}{c(a_i)} \right)^{n-1} \frac{1}{(2i-n)(n+2-2i)} \right\}^{-1/(n-1)} \quad \text{if } n \text{ is odd}$$

$$= \left\{ (n-1)(a_{(n/2)+1} - a_{n/2}) \frac{1}{2c(\hat{\theta})} + \frac{1}{2} \right.$$

$$\left. + \sum_{\substack{i=1 \\ i \neq n/2, n/2+1}}^n \left( \frac{c(\hat{\theta})}{c(a_i)} \right)^{n-1} \frac{1}{(2i-n)(n+2-2i)} \right\}^{-1/(n-1)}$$

if  $n$  is even.

$$(24.55)$$

Uthoff (1973) essentially calculated the constant  $K'$  in (24.53) while developing the most powerful location and scale invariant test of the normal distribution against the double exponential distribution.

From (24.52) the marginal conditional density function of  $U$  is obtained as

$$p_U(u|\mathbf{a}) = K'\Gamma(n) \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n |u + a_i| \right\}^{-n} \quad (24.56)$$

from which the conditional  $100(1 - \alpha)\%$  confidence interval for the parameter  $\theta$  can be produced as  $(\hat{\theta} - u_2\hat{\phi}, \hat{\theta} - u_1\hat{\phi})$  by finding two constants  $u_1$  and  $u_2$  such that

$$\Pr[U \leq u_1|\mathbf{a}] = \Pr[U \geq u_2|\mathbf{a}] = \alpha/2.$$

Further the marginal conditional density function of  $V$  can be similarly obtained from (24.52), from which we get

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[v_1 < V < v_2|\mathbf{a}] = K' & \left\{ \frac{\Gamma(n-1; v_2c(a_1)) - \Gamma(n-1; v_1c(a_1))}{n(c(a_1))^{n-1}} \right. \\ & + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \frac{\Gamma(n-1; v_2c(a_i)) - \Gamma(n-1; v_1c(a_i))}{(2i-n)(c(a_i))^{n-1}} \\ & - \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \frac{\Gamma(n-1; v_2c(a_{i+1})) - \Gamma(n-1; v_1c(a_{i+1}))}{(2i-n)(c(a_{i+1}))^{n-1}} \\ & \left. + \frac{\Gamma(n-1; v_2c(a_n)) - \Gamma(n-1; v_1c(a_n))}{n(c(a_n))^{n-1}} \right\}, \quad (24.57) \end{aligned}$$

where  $\Gamma(n-1; z) = \int_0^z e^{-t} t^{n-2} dt$ ,  $0 < z < \infty$ , is the incomplete gamma function. The conditional  $100(1 - \alpha)\%$  confidence interval for the parameter

**Table 24.9 Comparison of expected lengths of  $100(1 - \alpha)\%$  conditional and unconditional confidence intervals for  $\theta$  (with  $\phi = 1$ )**

$1 - \alpha$	0.90		0.95		0.98	
	Conditional	Unconditional	Conditional	Unconditional	Conditional	Unconditional
n						
3	3.352	3.641	4.740	4.975	7.495	7.649
5	2.113	2.273	2.575	2.912	3.542	3.787
9	1.375	1.498	1.698	1.949	2.119	2.316
15	0.997	1.061	1.214	1.326	1.484	1.525
33	0.631	0.682	0.761	0.830	0.917	0.942



$\phi$  can be produced as  $(\hat{\phi}/v_2, \hat{\phi}/v_1)$  by finding the constants  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  such that  $\Pr[v_1 < V < v_2 | a]$  in (24.57) equals  $1 - a$ .

Grice, Bain, and Engelhardt (1978) compared the conditional confidence intervals for  $\theta$  resulting from (24.56) with the unconditional confidence intervals for  $\theta$ , based on MLEs, derived from (24.53). Through Monte Carlo simulations they observed that the conditional method gives slightly better results (narrower confidence intervals), although a close agreement develops as  $n$  gets larger. For example, the expected lengths of the conditional and unconditional confidence intervals are presented in Table 24.9 for some selected sample sizes and choices of  $1 - a$  [taken from Grice, Bain, and Engelhardt (1978)].

#### 4.6 Other Developments

Asrabadi (1985) discussed the minimum variance unbiased estimator for  $\phi$  and exact confidence intervals based on it. Harter, Moore, and Curry (1979) proposed some adaptive robust estimates of location and scale parameters of symmetric populations and examined their performance in the case of the **Laplace** distribution. Joshi (1984) discussed an expansion of the Bayes risk in the case of the double exponential family. Ramsey (1971) derived the small-sample power functions for some nonparametric tests of location when the sample is assumed to have come from the **Laplace** distribution; also see Schlittgen (1979).

Awad and Fayoumi (1985) discussed the estimation of  $\Pr\{Y < X\}$  when  $X$  and  $Y$  are distributed as **Laplace**. Patel (1986) considered the double exponential case while discussing in general the estimation of finite mixtures of distributions. Yen and Moore (1988) proposed a modified goodness-of-fit test for testing the validity of the **Laplace** distribution for a given sample. Damsleth and El-Shaarawi (1989) examined ARMA models with double exponentially distributed noise, while Shamma, Amin, and Shamma (1991) discussed a double exponentially weighted moving average control procedure with variable sampling intervals. Ulrich and Chen (1987) considered a **bivariate** form of the **Laplace** distribution and its generalizations. Efron (1986) discussed in detail the double exponential families and their use in generalized linear regression. Hwang and Chen (1986) derived improved confidence sets for the coefficients of a linear model with spherically symmetric errors. Some other interesting issues relating to the **Laplace** distribution can be seen in the works of Brown and Resnick (1977), Hall and Joiner (1983), Loh (1984), Parker (1988), and Davis and Resnick (1988).

### 5 TOLERANCE LIMITS AND PREDICTION INTERVALS

Based on a complete sample of size  $n$  and making use of the MLEs of  $\theta$  and  $\phi$  described in Section 24.4.1, Bain and Engelhardt (1973) discussed the

determination of tolerance limits (approximately). A function  $L(X'_1, \dots, X'_n)$  is said to be a lower one-sided  $(\beta, \gamma)$  tolerance limit if

$$\Pr \left[ \int_L^\infty p_X(x) dx > \beta \right] = \gamma. \quad (24.58)$$

Taking  $L(X'_1, \dots, X'_n) = \hat{\theta} - b\hat{\phi}$ , and with  $k_\beta = \log\{2(1 - \beta)\}$  and  $\xi_\beta = \theta + k_\beta\phi$ , we have  $F_X(\xi_\beta) = 1 - \beta$  and

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr \left[ \int_L^\infty p_X(x) dx \geq \beta \right] &= \Pr \left[ \hat{\theta} - b\hat{\phi} < \theta + k_\beta\phi \right] \\ &= \Pr \left[ \frac{\hat{\theta} - \theta}{\phi} - b \frac{\hat{\phi}}{\phi} < k_\beta \right] \\ &= \Pr \left[ U_n \left( \frac{b}{n} \right) < k_\beta \right] \\ &= \gamma_\beta, \end{aligned} \quad (24.59)$$

where  $P_1 = n(\hat{\theta} - \theta)/\phi$  and  $P_2 = n\hat{\phi}/\phi$  are pivotal quantities for 8 and 4, and  $U_n(c) = P_1 - cP_2$ . Thus  $L(X'_1, \dots, X'_n) = \hat{\theta} - b\hat{\phi}$  is the desired  $(\beta, \gamma_\beta)$  lower tolerance limit, and any desired probability can be obtained by the proper choice of  $b$ . For specified  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$ , Bain and Engelhardt (1973) have used the approximation

$$\Pr \left[ U_n \left( \frac{b}{n} \right) < k_\beta \right] \approx \Phi \left( \frac{\sqrt{n}(k_\beta - b)}{\sqrt{1 + b^2}} \right) = \gamma \quad (24.60)$$

to get an approximate expression for the tolerance factor  $b$  as

$$b \approx \frac{1}{n - z_\gamma^2} \left\{ -nk_\beta + z_\gamma \left[ n(1 + k_\beta^2) - z_\gamma^2 \right]^{1/2} \right\}, \quad (24.61)$$

where  $z_\gamma$  denotes the standard normal  $\gamma$ th quantile.

Due to the symmetry of the Laplace distribution,  $U(X'_1, \dots, X'_n) = \hat{\theta} + b\hat{\phi}$  is an upper  $(\beta, \gamma)$  tolerance limit. Hence an approximate upper  $(\beta, \gamma)$  tolerance limit can be determined by using the approximate expression of the tolerance factor  $b$  in Eq. (24.61).

Kappenman (1977) followed the conditional method elaborated in Section 24.4.5 to derive conditional tolerance intervals. In this approach the interval  $(\hat{\theta} - b\hat{\phi}, \infty)$  becomes a lower  $\gamma$  probability (conditional) tolerance interval

for proportion  $\beta$  ( $\geq 0.5$ ), where

$$b = -a_h - \frac{c(a_h)}{n-2h} + \frac{1}{n-2h} \times \left\{ e^{k_\beta(n-2h)} \left[ \frac{p(n-2h)}{K'\Gamma(n-1)} + (c(a_h))^{-n+1} \right] \right\}^{-1/(n-1)}, \quad (24.62)$$

where  $k_\beta = \log(2(1-\beta))$ ,  $a_i$ 's are the ancillary statistics in (24.50),  $c(t)$  is defined in (24.54),  $K'$  is the normalizing constant defined in (24.531),  $h$  is the largest positive integer ( $\geq 2$ ) such that

$$K'\Gamma(n-1) \left\{ \frac{1}{n(c(a_1))^{n-1}} + \sum_{i=1}^{h-1} \frac{1}{n-2i} \times \left[ \frac{1}{(c(a_{i+1}))^{n-1}} - \frac{1}{(c(a_i))^{n-1}} \right] \right\} \leq 1 - \gamma, \quad (24.63)$$

and  $p$  is the difference between  $1 - \gamma$  and the value of the left-hand side of (24.63) so determined. One needs to find  $h$  from (24.63) by successively setting  $h = 2, 3, \dots$  or by trial and error.

Due to the symmetry of the Laplace distribution, an upper  $\gamma$  probability (conditional) tolerance interval for proportion  $\beta$  is obtained by simply replacing  $b$  by  $-b$  in (24.62), replacing  $1 - \gamma$  by  $\gamma$  in (24.63), and taking  $p$  as the difference between  $\gamma$  and the value of the left-hand side of (24.63) so determined. Then the required upper tolerance interval will be  $(-\infty, \hat{\theta} - b\hat{\phi})$ .

Shyu and Owen (1986a, b, 1987) provide further discussions on one-sided as well as two-sided tolerance intervals, and they also present some valuable tables of necessary tolerance factors. By noting that all the above mentioned works are based on complete samples, Balakrishnan and Chandramouleeswaran (1994a) used the BLUEs of  $\theta$  and  $\phi$  (elaborated in Section 4.2) to develop lower and upper tolerance limits based on Type-II censored samples. They considered the lower  $(\beta, \gamma)$  tolerance limit to be of the form  $L(X'_1, \dots, X'_n) = \theta^* - b\phi^*$ , and presented extensive tables of the tolerance factor  $b$  for  $n = 5(1)10, 12, 15, 20$ , level of right-censoring  $s = 0(1)\{n/2\}$ ,  $\beta = 0.500(0.025)0.975$ , and  $\gamma = 0.75, 0.85, 0.90, 0.95, 0.98, 0.99$  and  $0.995$ . Once again, due to the symmetry of the Laplace distribution, these tables also enable the determination of the upper  $(\beta, \gamma)$  tolerance limit,  $U(X'_1, \dots, X'_n) = \theta^* + b\phi^*$ .

Balakrishnan and Chandramouleeswaran (1994a) have also used the BLUEs,  $\theta^*$  and  $\phi^*$ , to propose a natural estimator for the reliability of  $X$  at

time  $t$  as

$$\begin{aligned} R_X^*(t) &= 1 - F_X(t; \theta^*, \phi^*) = 1 - \frac{1}{2}e^{-(t-\theta^*)/\phi^*}, & t \leq \phi^* \\ &= \frac{1}{2}e^{-(t-\theta^*)/\phi^*}, & t \geq \phi^*. \end{aligned} \quad (24.64)$$

They have examined the bias and variance of this estimator for complete as well as Type-II right-censored samples at various choices of  $t$ . They observed that the estimator in (24.64) is almost unbiased at all the levels of reliability examined even for sample sizes as small as 5. These authors have also explained how the tables of tolerance factors  $b$  could be used successfully to determine the lower 100 $\gamma$ % confidence limit for the reliability  $R_X(t)$ .

Balakrishnan and Chandramouleeswaran (1994b) used the BLUEs of  $\theta$  and  $\phi$ , based on Type-II right-censored samples, to develop prediction intervals. Specifically, by taking  $X'_1 \mathbf{I} X'_2 \mathbf{I} \dots \mathbf{I} X'_{n-s}$  to be the available Type-II censored sample where the largest  $s$  observations have been censored, they have discussed the prediction of  $X'_{n-s+1}$  and  $X'_n$  through the pivotal quantities

$$Q_1 = \frac{X'_{n-s+1} - X'_{n-s}}{\phi^*} \quad \text{and} \quad Q_2 = \frac{X'_n - X'_{n-s}}{\phi^*}, \quad (24.65)$$

respectively. Balakrishnan and Chandramouleeswaran (1994b) have presented necessary tables of percentage points of  $Q_1$  and  $Q_2$  (determined through Monte Carlo simulations) for various choices of  $n$  and  $s$ . They have in addition discussed the prediction of observations from a future sample of size  $m$  (particularly for  $Y'_1$  and  $Y'_m$ ) based on the pivotal quantities

$$Q_3 = \frac{Y'_1 - \theta^*}{\phi^*} \quad \text{and} \quad Q_4 = \frac{Y'_m - \theta^*}{\phi^*}, \quad (24.66)$$

and presented some necessary tables of percentage points of  $Q_3$  and  $Q_4$ . Ling (1977) and Ling and Lim (1978) have discussed a Bayesian approach to these prediction problems.

## 6 RELATED DISTRIBUTIONS

If  $X$  has probability density function (24.1), then  $|X - \theta|$  is distributed exponentially, in fact, as  $\frac{1}{2}\phi \times (\chi^2$  with two degrees of freedom). In particular, if  $\theta = 0$ , then  $|X|$  is so distributed. For this reason, if  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are independent random variables, each having probability density function (24.1) with  $\theta = 0$ , then the distribution of any statistic depending only on the absolute values  $|X_1|, |X_2|, \dots, |X_n|$  can be derived from an initial joint

distribution of independent multiples of  $\chi^2$  variables. For example,  $|X_1|/|X_2|$  is distributed as F with 2,2 degrees of freedom (see Chapter 27).

An interesting connection between the normal and **Laplace** distributions has been established by Nyquist, Rice, and Riordan (1954). They showed that if  $U_1, U_2, U_3$ , and  $U_4$  are independent unit normal variables, then the probability density function of

$$D = \begin{vmatrix} U_1 & U_2 \\ U_3 & U_4 \end{vmatrix} = U_1U_4 - U_2U_3$$

is of form (24.1) with  $\theta = 0, \phi = 2$ . It may be noted here that  $U_1U_4 - U_2U_3$  and  $U_1U_4 + U_2U_3$  have the same distribution. [The case when the expected values of the  $U$ 's are not equal to zero leads to a more complicated distribution, and it was considered by Nicholson (1958).] Missiakoulis and Darton (1985) and Mantel (1987) have made some additional remarks on this result.

Mantel and Pasternack (1966) gave a heuristic demonstration that  $Y = U_1U_4 + U_2U_3$  follows the **Laplace** distribution; see also Mantel (1969). A simple proof of this result through the use of characteristic functions has been provided by Mantel (1970). First, the characteristic function of  $Y$  is given by

$$E[e^{itY}] = E[e^{it(U_1U_4 + U_2U_3)}] = \{E[e^{itU_1U_4}]\}^2, \quad (24.67)$$

since  $U_1U_4$  and  $U_2U_3$  are independently and identically distributed. Now  $E[e^{itU_1U_4}]$  can be evaluated in two stages. The conditional expectation

$$E[e^{itU_1U_4}|U_4] = e^{-U_4^2t^2/2}, \quad (24.68)$$

since  $U_1$  is  $N(0, 1)$  (Chapter 13). Next, the unconditional expectation

$$E[e^{itU_1U_4}] = E[e^{-U_4^2t^2/2}] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+t^2}} \quad (24.69)$$

since  $U_4^2$  is  $\chi_1^2$  (Chapter 18). Using (24.69) in (24.67), we get

$$E[e^{itY}] = \frac{1}{1+t^2}$$

which agrees with the characteristic function in (24.3), thus proving that  $Y$  is distributed as **Laplace**.

The two reciprocal Fourier integrals

$$\frac{1}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp(itx - |x|) dx = (1 + t^2)^{-1}$$

and

$$\pi^{-1} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (1 + t^2)^{-1} \exp(itx) dx = e^{-|x|}$$

represent a formal connection between the Cauchy and **Laplace** distributions [see also (24.2), (24.3) and Chapter 16].

Transformed forms of the **Laplace** distribution have been discussed by Johnson (1954). He considered (by analogy with the lognormal,  $S_U$  and  $S_B$  systems; see Chapters 14 and 12) distributions of a random variable  $Y$  when (with  $\delta > 0$ )

$$X = \begin{cases} \gamma + \delta \log Y & (S'_L \text{ system}), \\ \gamma + \delta \sinh^{-1} Y & (S'_U \text{ system}), \\ \gamma + \delta \log \left( \frac{Y}{1 - Y} \right) & (S'_B \text{ system}), \end{cases}$$

and  $X$  has the standard **Laplace** distribution (24.2).

The  $(\beta_1, \beta_2)$  points of the  $S'_L$  system lie on the line with parametric equations

$$\beta_1(Y) = \frac{4(\delta^2 - 4)(15\delta^4 + 7\delta^2 + 2)^2}{\delta^2(\delta^2 - 9)^2(2\delta^2 + 1)^3}, \quad \delta > 3, \quad (24.70)$$

$$\beta_2(Y) = \frac{3(\delta^2 - 4)(8\delta^8 + 212\delta^6 + 95\delta^4 + 33\delta^2 + 12)}{\delta^2(\delta^2 - 9)(\delta^2 - 16)(2\delta^2 + 1)^2}, \quad \delta > 4. \quad (24.71)$$

The  $(\beta_1, \beta_2)$  points of  $S'_U$  lie "below" this line (i.e., larger values of  $\beta_2$  for given  $\beta_1$ ); those of  $S'_B$  lie above it. All possible values of  $(\beta_1, \beta_2)$  are covered by these three systems combined. For both  $S'_L$  and  $S'_U$  the  $r$ th moment is infinite if  $r \geq 6$ .

The  $S'_L$  system of distributions is referred as the log-Laplace distributions (analogous to the lognormal and log-logistic distributions). Kotz, Johnson, and Read (1985) provide a brief review of this system of distributions, and Uppuluri (1981) discuss some of its properties.

Asymmetrical **Laplace** distributions, with probability density functions of form

$$p_X(x) = \begin{cases} (2\phi_1)^{-1} \exp\left[-\frac{|x-\theta|}{\phi_1}\right], & x \geq \theta, \\ (2\phi_2)^{-1} \exp\left[-\frac{|x-\theta|}{\phi_2}\right], & x < \theta, \end{cases} \quad (24.72)$$

where  $\phi_1 \neq \phi_2$  and  $\phi_1, \phi_2 > 0$ , are sometimes used [see McGill (1962)]. Lingappaiah (1988), terming this as two-piece double exponential distribution, has discussed some properties.

Another form of asymmetrical **Laplace** distribution has probability density function

$$p_X(x) = \begin{cases} p\phi^{-1} \exp\left[-\frac{|x-\theta|}{\phi}\right], & x \geq \theta, \\ (1-p)\phi^{-1} \exp\left[-\frac{|x-\theta|}{\phi}\right], & x < \theta, \end{cases} \quad (24.73)$$

with  $0 < p < 1$ . Holla and Bhattacharya (1968) have used this distribution as the compounding distribution of the expected value of a normal distribution. The characteristic function of the resulting compound normal distribution is

$$(1 + t^2\phi^2)^{-1} \{1 + (2p-1)it\phi\} \exp[it\theta - \frac{1}{2}t^2\sigma^2] \quad (24.74)$$

where  $\sigma^2$  is the variance of the compounded normal distribution. The probability density function (with argument  $y$ ) is

$$\begin{aligned} (\phi\sqrt{2\pi})^{-1} e^{\sigma^2/(2\phi^2)} & \left[ p e^{-(y-\theta)/\phi} \left\{ \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2}} - S_1 M\left(\frac{1}{2}; \frac{3}{2}; -\frac{1}{2}S_1^2\right) \right\} \right. \\ & \left. + (1-p) e^{(y-\theta)/\phi} \left\{ \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2}} - S_2 M\left(\frac{1}{2}; \frac{3}{2}; -\frac{1}{2}S_2^2\right) \right\} \right], \end{aligned} \quad (24.75)$$

where

$$S_j = (\sigma/\phi) + (-1)^j \left\{ \frac{x-\theta}{\sigma} \right\}, \quad j = 1, 2,$$

and  $M(\cdot)$  is the confluent hypergeometric function (Chapter 1).

For the particular case of  $p = \frac{1}{2}$  we have the distribution

$$\text{Normal}(\xi, a) \underset{\xi}{\wedge} \text{Laplace}(\theta, \phi).$$

This distribution is symmetrical, with mean  $\theta$ . The variance is  $(a^2 + 2\phi^2)$  and the moment ratio  $a$ , ( $\equiv \beta_2$ ) is

$$3 + 12\phi^4(\sigma^2 + 2\phi^2)^{-2}.$$

Holla and Bhattacharya obtained an expression for the distribution of the sum of  $n$  independent random variables each having this distribution. They also obtained the following formula for the cumulative distribution function (argument  $y$ ):

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi\left(\frac{y-\theta}{\sigma}\right) - \frac{1}{2}e^{\sigma^2/(2\phi^2)} \sinh\left(\frac{y-\theta}{\sigma}\right) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{\sigma^2/(2\phi^2)} \\ \times \left\{ e^{(y-\theta)/\phi} S_2 M\left(\frac{1}{2}; \frac{3}{2}; -\frac{1}{2} S_2^2\right) - e^{-(y-\theta)/\phi} S_1 M\left(\frac{1}{2}; \frac{3}{2}; -\frac{1}{2} S_1^2\right) \right\}. \end{aligned} \quad (24.76)$$

Among compound *Laplace* distributions, we note, first,

$$\text{Laplace}(\theta, \phi) \underset{\theta}{\wedge} \text{Normal}(\xi, a).$$

The probability density function is

$$\begin{aligned} p_X(x) = \frac{1}{2\phi} \left\{ \exp\left(\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{\sigma}{\phi}\right)^2\right) \right\} \left[ \Phi\left(\frac{x-\xi}{\sigma} - \frac{\sigma}{\phi}\right) \exp\left(-\frac{x-\xi}{\phi}\right) \right. \\ \left. + \Phi\left(-\frac{x-\xi}{\sigma} - \frac{\sigma}{\phi}\right) \exp\left(\frac{x-\xi}{\phi}\right) \right] \quad (24.77) \end{aligned}$$

where  $\Phi(x) = (2\pi)^{-1/2} \int_{-\infty}^x \exp(-\frac{1}{2}t^2) dt$ . Second,

$$\text{Laplace}(\theta, \phi) \underset{\phi^{-1}}{\wedge} \text{Gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$$

(The gamma distribution is as given in Chapter 17.)

The probability density function is

$$p_X(x) = \frac{1}{2}\alpha\beta[1 + |x - \theta|\beta]^{-(\alpha+1)}. \quad (24.78)$$



The relation between distributions of form (24.78) and **Laplace** distributions is rather similar to that between **Pearson** Type VII and normal distributions (Chapter 28). We note, for example, that as  $\beta$  tends to zero and  $\alpha$  to infinity, with  $\alpha\beta = 1$ ,  $p_X(x) \rightarrow \frac{1}{2}\exp(-|x - \theta|)$ .

Distribution (24.78) is symmetrical about  $\theta$ . Moments of order  $\alpha$  or greater do not exist. For  $r$  even and less than  $\alpha$

$$\mu_r = \alpha\beta^r \sum_{j=0}^r (-1)^j \binom{r}{j} (\alpha + j - r)^{-1}. \quad (24.79)$$

In particular, the variance is

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{2\beta^2}{(\alpha - 1)(\alpha - 2)}, \quad \alpha > 2, \quad (24.80)$$

and also

$$\beta_2 = \frac{6(\alpha - 1)(\alpha - 2)}{(\alpha - 3)(\alpha - 4)}, \quad \alpha > 4. \quad (24.81)$$

The mean deviation is

$$\nu_1 = \frac{\beta}{\alpha - 1}. \quad (24.82)$$

Thus

$$\frac{\text{Mean deviation}}{\text{Standard deviation}} = \sqrt{\frac{2(\alpha - 2)}{\alpha - 1}}.$$

The cumulative distribution function is of very simple form:

$$F_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}\{1 + |x - \theta|\beta\}^{-\alpha}, & x \leq \theta, \\ 1 - \frac{1}{2}\{1 + |x - \theta|\beta\}^{-\alpha}, & x \geq \theta. \end{cases}$$

Subbotin (1923), on the basis of certain broad requirements for "error distributions," obtained the class

$$p_X(x) = \left[ 2^{(\delta/2)+1} \Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\delta + 1\right) \right]^{-1} \phi^{-1} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\left|\frac{x - \theta}{\phi}\right|^{2/\delta}\right],$$

$$\delta, \phi > 0. \quad (24.83)$$

[See also Fréchet (1924), where Subbotin's arguments are criticized.] This class of distributions includes Laplace ( $\delta = 2$ ), normal ( $\delta = 1$ ), and, as a limiting ( $\delta \rightarrow 0$ ) case, rectangular distributions. It is symmetrical about  $\theta$ , and has finite moments of all positive orders. The  $r$ th central moment is

$$\mu_r = \begin{cases} 0, & r \text{ odd,} \\ \frac{\phi^r 2^{r\delta/2} \Gamma((r+1)\delta/2)}{\Gamma(\delta/2)}, & r \text{ even.} \end{cases} \quad (24.84)$$

The variance is

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{2^\delta \Gamma(3\delta/2)}{\Gamma(\delta/2)} \phi^2 \quad (24.85)$$

and the mean deviation is

$$\nu'_1 = \frac{2^{\delta/2} \Gamma(\delta)}{\Gamma(\delta/2)} \phi. \quad (24.86)$$

Thus

$$\frac{\text{Mean deviation}}{\text{Standard deviation}} = \frac{\Gamma(\delta)}{[\Gamma(\delta/2)\Gamma(3\delta/2)]^{1/2}}. \quad (24.87)$$

Also

$$\beta_2 = \frac{\Gamma(5\delta/2)\Gamma(\delta/2)}{[\Gamma(3\delta/2)]^2}. \quad (24.88)$$

Some values of  $\beta_2$  and the ratio (24.87) are given in Table 24.10. The cumulative distribution function corresponding to (24.83) can be expressed in terms of incomplete gamma functions. Maximum likelihood estimation of the parameters was discussed by Diananda (1949); see also Turner (1960).

The classes of distributions (24.78) and (24.83) were used by Box and Tiao (1962) as prior distributions for certain Bayesian statistical analyses. Distribution (24.83) provides a convenient set of alternatives to normality, if symmetry can be assumed, and hence has been used often in robustness studies. Tiao and Lund (1970), for example, discussed the use of linear minimum variance unbiased estimators in inference robustness studies of the location parameter of the distribution (24.83). Order statistics from this distribution and their properties have also been discussed by these authors. With  $\theta = 0$  and  $\delta$  assumed to be known, Jakuszenkow (1979) discussed the estimation of variance of the distribution (24.83) which is a multiple of  $\phi^2$ . Sharma (1984) presented an improved estimator in this case. Zeckhauser and Thompson

**Table 24.10** Ratio of mean deviation to standard deviation and  $\beta_2$  for Subbotin distributions

$\delta$	Mean Deviation	
	Standard Deviation	
0 (uniform)	0.866	1.800
0.25	0.858	1.923
0.5	0.841	2.188
0.75	0.815	2.548
1 (normal)	0.798	3.000
1.5	0.757	4.222
2 (Laplace)	0.707	6.000
3	0.623	12.257
4	0.548	25.200
5	0.481	51.951

(1970) discussed linear regression with errors having the Subbotin density in (24.83). Specifically these authors investigated the model

$$y_i = a + bx_i + e_i, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n,$$

where the manifest observations are the  $(x_i, y_i)$  pairs, and the error random variables are i.i.d. with density (24.83) with  $\theta = 0$ . The parameters of the model are  $a$ ,  $b$ ,  $\phi$ , and  $\delta$ . The likelihood function based on the entire sample is

$$L(a, b, \phi, \delta) = c e^{-S/\phi^{2/\delta}},$$

where

$$S = \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i - a - bx_i|^{2/\delta}.$$

It is then clear that  $\phi$  has no effect on the maximum likelihood estimation of parameters of the regression line and that the maximum likelihood estimator of  $\phi$  is

$$\hat{\phi} = \left( \frac{2S}{n\delta} \right)^{\delta/2}.$$

Zeckhauser and Thompson (1970) then examined the maximum likelihood estimation of the parameters  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $S$ . Kryszicki (1966) gave formulas for estimating the parameters in a mixture of two Laplace distributions, each having  $\theta = 0$ . Sródka (1966) discussed the distributions obtained if  $\phi^{-1}$  is

supposed to have a generalized gamma distribution (as defined in Chapter 17). Kanji (1985) and Jones and McLachlan (1990) have discussed the *Laplace-normal mixture distribution* with density function

$$p_X(x; \theta, \phi, \sigma, p) = \frac{p}{2\phi} e^{-|x-\theta|/\phi} + \frac{1-p}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-(x-\theta)^2/2\sigma^2}, \quad -\infty < x < \infty, \quad (24.89)$$

and applied the distribution to fit wind shear data. Maximum likelihood estimation of parameters of the distribution (24.89) has been discussed recently by Scallan (1992).

The *reflected gamma distribution* with density function

$$p_X(x) = \frac{1}{2\phi\Gamma(\alpha)} \left| \frac{x-\theta}{\phi} \right|^{\alpha-1} e^{-|x-\theta|/\phi}, \quad -\infty < x < \infty, \alpha, \phi > 0, \quad (24.90)$$

introduced by Borghi (1965), includes the **Laplace** distribution as a special case when the shape parameter  $\alpha = 1$ . Kantam and Narasimham (1991), while studying the best linear unbiased estimator and some other linear estimators of  $\theta$ , observed that the median (unlike in the **Laplace** case) becomes an inefficient estimator of  $\theta$  when  $\alpha$  becomes large. Harvey (1967) introduced a more general form of the reflected gamma distribution in (24.90) which naturally becomes a four-parameter generalization of the **Laplace** distribution (24.1). Unlike in the case of (24.90), Harvey's generalized density will not, in general, be zero at  $x = \theta$ .

The *double Weibull distribution* with density function

$$p_X(x) = \frac{c}{2\phi} \left| \frac{x-\theta}{\phi} \right|^{c-1} e^{-|x-\theta|/\phi}, \quad -\infty < x < \infty, c, \phi > 0, \quad (24.91)$$

introduced by Balakrishnan and Kocherlakota (1985), is a symmetric family of distributions which includes the **Laplace** distribution as a special case when the shape parameter  $c = 1$ . Balakrishnan and Kocherlakota (1985) and Dattatreya Rao and Narasimham (1989) derived the BLUEs of  $\theta$  and  $\phi$ , assuming  $c$  to be known, based on complete and Type-II censored samples, respectively. Assuming  $\theta$  to be known, Vasudeva Rao, Dattatreya Rao, and Narasimham (1991) discussed optimal linear estimators of  $\theta$  based on the values of  $|X'_i - \theta|$ . [Observe that the MLE of  $\phi$  in the case of **Laplace** distribution in (24.29) is a linear form in  $|X'_i - \theta|$ .] An interesting relationship between the logistic and the **Laplace** distributions was brought out by George and Rousseau (1987) while discussing the distribution of the midrange in a sample from a logistic distribution (see Chapter 23).

Along the lines of skew-normal distributions (see Chapters 12 and 13) introduced by Azzalini (1985), Balakrishnan and Ambagasptiya (1994) considered the *skew-Laplace distribution* with density function

$$2p_X(x)F_X(\lambda x), \quad (24.92)$$

where  $p_X(x)$  is the two-parameter Laplace density in (24.1) and  $F_X(\cdot)$  is the corresponding distribution function (24.11). Balakrishnan and Ambagasptiya (1994) discussed various properties of this distribution, which becomes the Laplace distribution when  $A = 0$  and the two-parameter exponential distribution with  $A \rightarrow \infty$ . These authors also studied order statistics from this distribution and derived BLUEs of the parameters  $\theta$  and  $\lambda$ , assuming that the shape parameter  $A$  is known.

The distribution with characteristic function

$$\phi_X(t) = (1 + |t|^\alpha)^{-1}, \quad -\infty < t < \infty, 0 < \alpha \leq 2 \quad (24.93)$$

is called an *a-Laplace distribution* since  $a = 2$  corresponds to the Laplace characteristic function (24.3). This has been shown to be a unimodal distribution by Linnik and Laha; see, for example, Lukacs (1970). Pillai (1985) has introduced a larger class of distributions, termed *semi-a-Laplace distributions*, of which a-Laplace distribution is a special case. Let  $\phi(t)$  be a characteristic function, which is never zero, defined by

$$\phi(t) = (1 + f(t))^{-1}. \quad (24.94)$$

Then, from the properties of  $\phi(t)$ , it is clear that  $f(0) = 0$  and  $f(t)$  is continuous. A distribution function  $f$  is called *semi-a-Laplace* if  $f(t)$  in (24.94) has the property

$$f(t) = af(bt) \quad \text{for } 0 < b < 1, \quad (24.95)$$

where  $a$  is the unique solution of the equation

$$ab'' = 1, \quad 0 < \alpha \leq 2. \quad (24.96)$$

The numbers  $b$  and  $a$  are termed *order* and *exponent* of the semi-a-Laplace distribution, respectively. Pillai (1985) has also proved the following characterization of this distribution:

" $F(x)$  is semi-a-Laplace distribution of some variable  $X$  with order  $b$  iff  $F(x)$  satisfies the equation

$$F(x) = pF_1(x) + (1 - p)F_2(x) \quad (24.97)$$

for some  $p \in (0, 1)$  where  $F_1(x)$  is the distribution of  $bX$  and  $F_2(x) = F * F,$ "

More properties of this distribution have been discussed by Pillai (1985) and Divanji (1988).

The distribution corresponding to the characteristic function (24.93) has also been referred to as *Linnik's distribution* [see Devroye (1990)]. By making use of the fact that for  $a \leq 1$ ,  $\phi_X(t)$  in (24.93) is a Pólya characteristic function (convex on the positive halfline), Devroye (1986) presented a simple algorithm for generating pseudorandom observations from this distribution. Subsequently Devroye (1990) presented an algorithm for all values of  $a$  which is based on the following observation: Suppose that  $S_\alpha$  is a symmetric stable random variable with characteristic function  $e^{-|t|^\alpha}$  and that  $V_\beta$  is an independent random variable with density

$$\frac{e^{-v^\beta}}{\Gamma\left(1 + \frac{1}{\beta}\right)}, \quad v > 0.$$

Then  $X = S_\alpha V_\beta^{\beta/\alpha}$  has characteristic function

$$\begin{aligned} \phi_X(t) &= E[e^{itX}] = E[e^{-|t|^\alpha V_\beta^\beta}] \\ &= \frac{1}{\Gamma(1 + 1/\beta)} \int_0^\infty e^{-v^\beta - |t|^\alpha v^\beta} dv \\ &= (1 + |t|^\alpha)^{-1/\beta}. \end{aligned} \quad (24.98)$$

For the case  $\beta = 1$  the characteristic function (24.98) is that of the Linnik distribution in (24.93). This result, in addition to showing that the characteristic function in (24.93) is the same as that of  $S_\alpha V_1^{1/\alpha}$ , where  $V_1$  is exponentially distributed, provides a short proof of the validity of the Linnik's characteristic function (24.93). Lin (1994) has recently investigated some basic properties such as self-decomposability and also established two characterizations.

Kotz and Ostrovskii (1994) have recently given a mixture representation of the Linnik distribution. Specifically, with  $X_\alpha$  and  $X_\beta$  denoting two random variables possessing the Linnik distribution (24.93) with parameters  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , respectively ( $0 < \alpha < \beta \leq 2$ ) and  $Y_{\alpha\beta}$  a nonnegative random variable (independent of  $X_\beta$ ) with density function

$$g(s; \alpha, \beta) = \left( \frac{\beta}{\pi} \sin \frac{\pi\alpha}{\beta} \right) \cdot \frac{s^{\alpha-1}}{1 + s^{2\alpha} + 2s^\alpha \cos(\pi\alpha/\beta)}, \quad 0 < s < \infty. \quad (24.99)$$

Kotz and Ostrovskii (1994) have shown that

$$X_\alpha \stackrel{d}{=} X_\beta Y_{\alpha\beta}. \quad (24.100)$$

From this representation the infinite divisibility of mixtures of Linnik distributions with respect to the parameter  $\mathbf{a}$  and a scale parameter follows easily.

Kotz, Ostrovskii, and Hayfavi (1994) have presented convergent asymptotic series expansions for the Linnik density function. The analytic structure of the density depends substantially on the arithmetic nature of the parameter  $\mathbf{a}$ . For example, when  $\mathbf{a} = 1$ , the density is given by

$$p_1(x) = \frac{1}{\pi} (\cos x) \log \frac{1}{|x|} + \frac{1}{2} \sin|x| + \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (-1)^k \frac{\Gamma'(2k+1)}{\Gamma^2(2k+1)} x^{2k}. \quad (24.101)$$

## 7 APPLICATIONS

As mentioned already in Section 2, the **Laplace** distribution (being heavier tailed than the normal) has been used quite commonly as an alternative to the normal distribution in robustness studies; for example, see Andrews et al. (1972) and Hoaglin, **Mosteller**, and Tukey (1985).

In addition the **Laplace** distribution has found some interesting applications on its own. Manly (1976) gave some examples of fitness functions based on the double exponential distribution. Easterling (1978) considered a model for steam generator inspection as exponential responses with double exponential measurement error. Hsu (1979), while discussing the use of long-tailed distributions for position errors in navigation, suggested the **Laplace** distribution. Okubo and Narita (1980) used the double exponential for the distribution of extreme winds expected in Japan. As mentioned in the last section, the Laplace-normal mixture distribution in (24.89) has been used to fit some wind shear data by Kanji (1985) and Jones and **McLachlan** (1990). **Bagchi**, Hayya, and Ord (1983) used the **Laplace** distribution while modeling demand during lead time for slow-moving items. Dadi and Marks (1987) discussed detector relative efficiencies in the presence of **Laplace** noise. A few more applications of the distribution were indicated in Sections 4 and 6.

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## CHAPTER 25

# Beta Distributions

### 1 DEFINITION

The family of beta distributions is composed of all distributions with probability density functions of form:

$$p_Y(y) = \frac{1}{B(p, q)} \frac{(y-a)^{p-1}(b-y)^{q-1}}{(b-a)^{p+q-1}}, \quad a \leq y \leq b, \quad (25.1)$$

with  $p > 0$ ,  $q > 0$ . It is denoted beta  $(p, q)$ . This will be recognized as a Pearson Type I or II distribution (see Chapter 12, Section 4.1). If  $q = 1$ , the distribution is sometimes called a *power-function* distribution.

If we make the transformation

$$X = \frac{Y - a}{b - a},$$

we obtain the probability density function

$$p_X(x) = \frac{1}{B(p, q)} x^{p-1}(1-x)^{q-1}, \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1. \quad (25.2)$$

This is the *standard form* of the beta distribution with *parameters*  $p, q$ . It is the form that will be used in most of this chapter. The *standard power-function* density is

$$p_X(x) = px^{p-1}, \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1. \quad (25.2)'$$

Harter (1978) introduced the family of symmetric ( $p = q$ ) *standardized* beta



variables with the density function

$$p_X(x) = \left[ \frac{\Gamma(2p)}{\Gamma^2(p)(2\sqrt{2p+1})^{2p-1}} \right] (2p+1-x^2)^{p-1}, \quad (25.3)$$

$$-\sqrt{2p+1} \leq x \leq \sqrt{2p+1}.$$

Of course  $E[X] = 0$  and  $\text{var}(X) = 1$ . For  $p = 1.5(0.5)4.0$  he provides explicit formulas for the cdfs. The simplest, for  $p = 2$ , is

$$F_X(x) = \left( \frac{3\sqrt{5}}{100} \right) \left( 5x - \frac{1}{3}x^3 \right) + \frac{1}{2}, \quad -\sqrt{5} \leq x \leq \sqrt{5}. \quad (25.4)$$

The probability density function of a symmetric beta distribution with parameter  $p$ , mean  $\mu$ , and standard deviation  $\sigma$  is

$$p_X(x) = \frac{\Gamma(2p)}{\sigma\{\Gamma(p)\}^2(2\sqrt{2p+1})^{2p-1}} \left[ 2p+1 - \left( \frac{x-\mu}{\sigma} \right)^2 \right]^{p-1}, \quad (25.5)$$

$$\mu - \sigma\sqrt{2p+1} \leq x \leq \mu + \sigma\sqrt{2p+1}.$$

The probability integral of the distribution (25.2) up to  $x$  is the *incomplete beta function ratio*, and it is denoted by  $I_x(p, q)$  so that

$$I_x(p, q) = \frac{1}{B(p, q)} \int_0^x t^{p-1}(1-t)^{q-1} dt \quad (25.6)$$

The word "ratio," which distinguishes (25.6) from the *incomplete beta function*,

$$B_x(p, q) = \int_0^x t^{p-1}(1-t)^{q-1} dt, \quad (25.7a)$$

is often omitted. A description of the properties of  $I_x(p, q)$  is contained in Chapter 1 (Section A5) and in Chapter 3 (Section 6).

Dutka (1981) provides a detailed account of the history of  $B_x(p, q)$  and  $I_x(p, q)$ , tracing it back to 1676, in a letter from Isaac Newton to Henry Oldenberg. The formula given is the special case of

$$B_x(p, q) = p^{-1}x^p(1-x)^q {}_2F_1(p+q, 1; p+1; x), \quad (25.7b)$$

where  ${}_2F_1(\cdot)$  denotes the Gaussian hypergeometric function defined in Eq. (1.104) of Chapter 1.

## 2 GENESIS AND RANDOM NUMBER GENERATION

in "normal theory" the beta distribution arises naturally as the distribution of  $V^2 = X_1^2 / (X_1^2 + X_2^2)$ , where  $X_1^2, X_2^2$  are independent random variables, and  $X_j^2$  is distributed as  $\chi^2$  with  $\nu_j$  degrees of freedom ( $j = 1, 2$ ) (see Chapter 18). The distribution of  $V^2$  is then a standard beta distribution, as in (25.2), with  $p = \frac{1}{2}\nu_1, q = \frac{1}{2}\nu_2$ . Generally  $Y = W_1 / (W_1 + W_2)$  has a standard beta distribution with parameters  $p_1$  and  $p_2$  if  $W_j$  has the gamma density (see Chapter 17) with parameters  $(p_j, \beta)$  ( $j = 1, 2$ ) (for any  $\beta > 0$ ).

Notice that  $V^2$  and  $(X_1^2 + X_2^2)$  are mutually independent. An extension of this result is that if  $X_1^2, X_2^2, \dots, X_k^2$  are mutually independent with  $X_j^2$  distributed as  $\chi^2$  with  $\nu_j$  degrees of freedom ( $j = 1, 2, \dots, k$ ) (see Chapter 18), then

$$\begin{aligned} V_1^2 &= \frac{X_1^2}{X_1^2 + X_2^2} \\ V_2^2 &= \frac{X_1^2 + X_2^2}{X_1^2 + X_2^2 + X_3^2} \\ &\vdots \\ V_{k-1}^2 &= \frac{X_1^2 + \dots + X_{k-1}^2}{X_1^2 + \dots + X_k^2} \end{aligned}$$

are mutually independent random variables, each with a beta distribution, the values of  $p, q$  for  $V_j^2$  being  $\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^j \nu_i, \frac{1}{2} \nu_{j+1}$ , respectively. Under these conditions the product of any consecutive set of  $V_j^2$ 's also has a beta distribution [see Jambunathan (1954) and Section 8]. This property also holds when the  $\nu$ 's are any positive numbers (not necessarily integers). **Kotlarski** (1962) has investigated general conditions under which products of independent variables have a beta distribution.

The special standard beta distribution with  $p = q = \frac{1}{2}$  [known as the arc-sine distribution because  $\Pr\{X \leq x\} = (2/\pi) \sin^{-1} \sqrt{x}$  for  $0 \leq x \leq 1$ ] arises in an interesting way in the theory of "random walks." Suppose that a particle moves along the real line by steps of unit length, starting from zero, it being equally likely that a step will be to the left (decreasing) or right (increasing). Let the random variable  $T_{2n}$  denote the number of times in the first  $2n$  steps for which the point is in the interval  $0$  to  $2n$  inclusive at the conclusion of a step. Then

$$\Pr\{T_{2n} = 2k\} = \binom{2k}{k} \binom{2n-2k}{n-k} 2^{-2n}, \quad k = 0, 1, \dots, n.$$

The ratio  $T_{2n}/(2n)$  can be regarded as the fraction of time spent on the

positive part of the real line. As  $n$  tends to infinity, the limiting distribution of  $T_{2n}/(2n)$  is the arc-sine distribution:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left\{ \sum_{k \leq nx} \Pr[T_{2n} = 2k] \right\} = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^x t^{-1/2} (1-t)^{-1/2} dt = \left( \frac{2}{\pi} \right) \sin^{-1} \sqrt{x}. \quad (25.8)$$

Standard beta distributions with  $p + q = 1$ , but  $p \neq \frac{1}{2}$ , are sometimes called generalized arc-sine distributions. For more details on the arc-sine distribution, see Section 7.

A beta distribution can also be obtained as the limiting distribution of eigenvalues in a sequence of random matrices. Suppose that  $A_n$  to be a symmetric  $n \times n$  matrix whose elements  $a_{ij}$ , ( $i \leq j$ ) are independent random variables, all  $a_{ij}$ 's with  $i \neq j$  having a common distribution, and all  $a_{ii}$ 's another common distribution, both distributions being symmetrical about zero with variance  $\sigma^2$  and with all absolute moments finite. Under these conditions Wigner (1958) has shown that the proportion of eigenvalues of the "normalized" matrix  $(2\sigma\sqrt{n})^{-1}A_n$ , which are less than  $x$ , tends to the limit

$$2\pi^{-1} \int_{-1}^x \sqrt{1-t^2} dt$$

as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . This is of form (25.1) with  $a = -1$ ,  $b = 1$ ,  $p = q = 3/2$ . Arnold (1967) has shown that this result holds under much weaker conditions on the distributions of the  $a_{ij}$ 's.

A class of distributions that includes the beta  $(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$  and beta  $(2, 2)$  distributions, can be generated by the following procedure: Starting with the interval  $(0, 1)$ , observe the value of a random variable  $X_1$  distributed uniformly over  $(0, 1)$  [i.e., as beta  $(1, 1)$ ]. Then choose one of the two subintervals  $(0, X_1)$ ,  $(X_1, 1)$ , with probabilities  $p$ ,  $1 - p$  of choosing the longer or shorter one, respectively. Denoting the chosen interval by  $(L_1, U_1)$ , then observe the value of a random variable  $X_2$ , uniformly distributed over  $(L_1, U_1)$ , and choose as  $(L_2, U_2)$ , the longer or shorter of the intervals  $(L_1, X_2)$ ,  $(X_2, U_1)$  with probabilities  $p$ ,  $1 - p$ , respectively. Continue in this way, choosing  $(L_{n+1}, U_{n+1})$  as the longer or shorter of  $(L_n, X_{n+1})$ ,  $(X_{n+1}, U_n)$  with probabilities  $p$ ,  $1 - p$ , respectively. It is easy to see that as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , the interval length  $(U_n - L_n)$  tends to zero with probability one, and there is a limiting value  $Y_p$ , say, to which  $L_n$  and  $U_n$  tend.

The distribution of  $Y_{1/2}$  is beta  $(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$  [Chen, Lin, and Zame (1981)], and the distribution of  $Y_1$  is beta  $(2, 2)$  [Chen, Goodman, and Zame (1984)]. It is natural to conjecture that  $Y_p$  has an approximate (but not exact) beta distribution for values of  $p$  other than  $\frac{1}{2}$  or 1. Johnson and Kotz (1994) show

that

$$\text{var}(Y_p) = \frac{2(7 - 6p)}{4(11 - 6p)} \quad (25.9)$$

and that

$$\beta_2(Y_p) = \frac{3(11 - 6p)(151 - 204p + 60p^2)}{(7 - 6p)^2(79 - 30p)}. \quad (25.10)$$

If  $Y_p$  had a beta  $(a, \alpha)$  distribution, the value of  $\alpha$  giving the correct value for  $\text{var}(Y_p)$  would be  $2(7 - 6p)^{-1}$ . This would result in a "nominal" value

$$\beta_2 = 3(11 - 6p)(25 - 18p)^{-1}. \quad (25.11)$$

Table 25.1 compares values of  $\beta_2$  from (25.10) (actual) and (25.11) (nominal), for selected values of  $p$ .

The agreement between actual and nominal values supports the conjecture that beta  $[2(7 - 6p)^{-1}, 2(7 - 6p)^{-1}]$  would be a good approximation to the distribution of  $Y_p$ . O'Connor, Hook, and O'Connor (1985) came to the same conclusion on the basis of simulations.

Another procedure leading to limiting beta distributions has been described by Kennedy (1988). Values of  $k$  independent variables  $Z_{n1}, \dots, Z_{nk}$  each uniformly distributed over  $(L_n, U_n)$  are observed. The interval  $(L_{n+1}, U_{n+1})$  is then chosen as  $(L_n, \max(Z_{n1}, \dots, Z_{nk}))$ ,

$$(\min(Z_{n1}, \dots, Z_{nk}), U_n), \text{ or } (\min(Z_{n1}, \dots, Z_{nk}), \max(Z_{n1}, \dots, Z_{nk}))$$

with probabilities  $p, q, r$ , respectively ( $p + q + r = 1$ ). Kennedy (1988) showed that if the initial interval is  $(0, 1)$ , the limit to which both  $L_n$  and  $U_n$  converge (with probability 1) is distributed as beta  $(k(p + r), k(q + r))$  over  $(0, 1)$ . [Of course, if the initial interval is  $(A, B)$ , the limit distribution is beta  $(k(p + r), k(q + r))$  over  $(A, B)$ .] There is an alternative proof, based on moment calculations, in Johnson and Kotz (1993).

Yet another way in which a beta distribution arises is as the distribution of an ordered variable from a rectangular distribution (Chapter 26). If  $Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n$  are independent random variables each having the standard

Table 25.1 Actual and Nominal Values of  $\beta_2$

P	0	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0
Actual $\beta_2$	1.287	1.315	1.348	1.388	1.438	1.500	1.580	1.687	1.831	2.019	2.143
Nominal $\beta_2$	1.320	1.345	1.374	1.408	1.449	1.500	1.563	1.645	1.754	1.909	2.143

rectangular distribution so that

$$p_{Y_j}(y) = 1, \quad 0 \leq y \leq 1, \quad (25.12)$$

and the corresponding order statistics are  $Y'_1 \leq Y'_2 \leq \dots \leq Y'_n$ , the  $s$ th-order statistic  $Y'_s$  has the beta distribution

$$p_{Y'_s}(y) = [B(s, n - s + 1)]^{-1} y^{s-1} (1 - y)^{n-s}, \quad 0 \leq y \leq 1. \quad (25.13)$$

Fox (1963) suggested that this result may be used to generate beta-distributed random variables from standard rectangularly distributed variables. By this method only integer values can be obtained for  $n$  and  $n - s$ . A method applicable for fractional values of  $n$  and  $n - s$  was constructed by Johnk (1964). He showed that if  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent standard rectangular variables, then the conditional distribution of  $X^{1/n}$ , given that  $X^{1/n} + Y^{1/r} \leq 1$ , is a standard beta distribution with parameters  $n, r + 1$ , and the conditional distribution of  $Y^{1/r}$  is beta with parameters  $n + 1$  and  $r$ .

This process involves the calculation of  $X^{1/n}$  and  $Y^{1/r}$ , which may be awkward. If  $n$  and/or  $r$  are large, then a large number of pairs of values  $(X, Y)$  is likely to be needed to ensure  $X^{1/n} + Y^{1/r} \leq 1$ , as pointed out by Pekh and Marchenko (1992). [In fact  $\Pr[X^{1/n} + Y^{1/r} \leq 1] < 1 - \Pr[X^{1/n} > \frac{1}{2}] \Pr[Y^{1/r} > \frac{1}{2}] < 2^{-n} + 2^{-r}$ . Hence, if  $\min(n, r) \geq 11$ ,  $\Pr[X^{1/n} + Y^{1/r} \leq 1]$  is less than 0.001.] Bankovi (1964) has suggested a method whereby these calculations may be avoided if  $n$  and  $r$  are both rational. This consists of selecting integers  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_M, b_1, b_2, \dots, b_N$  such that

$$n = \sum_{j=1}^M a_j, \quad r = \sum_{j=1}^N b_j^{-1}.$$

Then using the fact that if  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_M, Y_1, \dots, Y_N$  are independent standard rectangular variables,  $\max(X_1^{a_1}, X_2^{a_2}, \dots, X_M^{a_M})$  and  $\max(Y_1^{b_1}, Y_2^{b_2}, \dots, Y_N^{b_N})$  are distributed as  $X^{1/n}, Y^{1/r}$ , respectively.

If  $n$  (or  $r$ ) is not a rational fraction, it may be approximated as closely as desired by such a fraction. Bankovi has investigated the effects of such approximation on the desired beta variates. The GR method is based on the property that  $X = Y/(Y + Z)$  has a beta  $(p, q)$  distribution if  $Y$  and  $Z$  are independent gamma variables with shape parameters  $p$  and  $q$ , respectively (see the beginning of this section).

Generation of beta random variables based on acceptance/rejection algorithms was studied by Ahrens and Dieter (1974) and Atkinson and Pearce (1976), among others. The latter authors recommend the Forsythe (1972) method, which was originally applied to generate random normal deviates. Chen (1978) proposed a modified algorithm BA:  $(p, q > 0)$ .

Initialization: Set  $a = p + q$ . If  $\min(p, q) \leq 1$ , set  $\beta = \max(p^{-1}, q^{-1})$ ; otherwise set  $\beta = \sqrt{(\alpha - 2)/(2pq - \alpha)}$ . Set  $\gamma = p + \beta^{-1}$ .

1. Generate uniform (0, 1) random numbers  $U_1, U_2$ , and set  $V = \beta \log\{U_1/(1 - U_1)\}$ ,  $W = pe^V$ .
2. If  $a \log\{\alpha/(q + W)\} + \gamma V - 1.3862944 < \log(U_1^2 U_2)$ , go to 1.
3. Deliver  $X = W/(q + W)$ .

This algorithm is reasonably fast for values of  $p$  and  $q$  down to about 0.5. More complicated versions (**BB**)(**BC**), also described by Chen (1978), cover all  $a, b > 0$  and offer quicker variate generation speed. Here is

Algorithm BB ( $\min(p_0, q_0) > 1$ )

Initialization: Set  $p = \min(p_0, q_0)$ ,  $q = \max(p_0, q_0)$ ,  $\alpha = p + q$ ,  $\beta = \sqrt{(\alpha - 2)/(2pq - \alpha)}$ ;  $\gamma = p + \beta^{-1}$ .

1. Generate uniform (0, 1) random numbers  $U_1, U_2$ , and set  $V = \beta \log\{U_1/(1 - U_1)\}$ ,  $W = pe^V$ ,  $Z = U_1^2 U_2$ ,  $R = \gamma^V - 1.3862944$ ,  $S = p + R - W$ .
2. If  $S + 2.609438 \geq 5Z$ , go to 5.
3. Set  $T = \log Z$ . If  $S \geq T$ , go to 5.
4. If  $R + a \log\{\alpha/(q + W)\} < T$ , go to 1.
5. If  $p = p_0$ , deliver  $X = W/(q + W)$ ; otherwise deliver  $X = q/(q + W)$ .

Schmeiser and Shalaby (1980) developed three exact methods applicable for  $\min(p, q) > 1$  (corresponding to Chen's BB algorithm). One of the methods is a minor modification of the Ahrens and Dieter (1974) algorithm: BNM. All the methods use the property that points of inflexion of the beta density are at

$$x = \frac{(p - 1) \pm [(p - 1)(q - 1)]/(p + q - 3)^{1/2}}{p + q - 2}$$

if these values lie between zero and one, and are real.

A detailed comparison of the various methods, carried out by Schmeiser and Shalaby (1980), shows that BB is the fastest for heavily skewed distributions but yields to BNM for heavy-tailed symmetric distributions. No algorithm does better than BB for the following values of the parameters:

$p = 1.01$	$q = 1.01, 1.50, 2.00, 5.00, 10.00, 100.00$
$p = 1.50$	$q = 1.50, 2.00, 5.00, 10.00, 100.00$
$p = 2.00$	$q = 2.00$
$p = 5.00$	$q = 5.00$
$p = 10.00$	$q = 10.00$
$p = 100.00$	$q = 100.00$

Devroye (1986) contains summaries of methods of generating random variables with beta distributions.

### 3 PROPERTIES

If  $X$  has the standard beta distribution (25.2), its  $r$ th moment about zero is

$$\begin{aligned} \mu'_r &= \frac{B(p+r, q)}{B(p, q)} = \frac{\Gamma(p+r)\Gamma(p+q)}{\Gamma(p)\Gamma(p+q+r)} \\ &= \frac{1}{(p+q)^{[r]}} \quad (\text{if } r \text{ is an integer}), \end{aligned} \tag{25.14}$$

where  $y^{[r]} = y(y+1)\dots(y+r-1)$  is the ascending factorial. In particular

$$E[X] = \frac{p}{p+q}, \tag{25.15a}$$

$$\text{var}(X) = pq(p+q)^{-2}(p+q+1)^{-1}, \tag{25.15b}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_3(X) &= \sqrt{\beta_1(X)} \\ &= 2(q-p)\sqrt{p^{-1}+q^{-1}+(pq)^{-1}} \cdot (p+q+2)^{-1}, \end{aligned} \tag{25.15c}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_4(X) = \beta_2(X) &= 3(p+q+1)\{2(p+q)^2 + pq(p+q-6)\} \\ &\times [pq(p+q+2)(p+q+3)]^{-1}, \end{aligned} \tag{25.15d}$$

$$E[X^{-1}] = (p+q-1)(p-1)^{-1}, \tag{25.15e}$$

$$E[(1-X)^{-1}] = (p+q-1)(q-1)^{-1}. \tag{25.15f}$$

Pham-Gia (1994) has recently established some simple bounds for  $\text{var}(X)$ . Specifically, he has shown that  $\text{var}(X) < 1/4$ , and if the density of  $X$  is unimodal (i.e.,  $p > 1$  and  $q > 1$ ) then  $\text{var}(X) < 1/12$ ; further, if the density of  $X$  is U-shaped (i.e.,  $p < 1$  and  $q < 1$ ), then he has proved that  $\text{var}(X) > 1/12$ .

Writing  $A = (p+q)^{-1}$  and  $\theta = p(p+q)^{-1}$ , we have the following recurrence relation among the central moments of the standard beta distribution:

$$\mu_{s+1} = -\frac{s\lambda}{1+s\lambda}\mu_s + \theta \sum_{j=1}^s \binom{s}{j} \frac{\lambda^j(1-\theta)^j j!}{(1+s\lambda)\dots(1+[s-j]\lambda)} \mu_{s-j}, \tag{25.16}$$

with  $\mu_0 = 1$ ,  $\mu_1 (= E[X - E[X]]) = 0$ ,  $\mu_2 = \lambda\theta(1 - \theta)/(1 + \lambda)$ ,

$$\mu_3 = \frac{2\lambda^2\theta(1 - \theta)}{(1 + \lambda)(1 + 2\lambda)}(1 - 2\theta) \quad [\text{Mühlbach (1972)}].$$

The moment-generating function can be expressed as a confluent hypergeometric function [Eq. (1.1211, Chapter 1):

$$E[e^{tX}] = M(p; p + q; t) \quad (25.17)$$

and, of course, the characteristic function is  $M(p; p + q; it)$ .

The moment-generating function of  $(-\log X)$ , where  $X$  is a standard beta, is

$$M(t) = E[\exp(-t \log X)] = \frac{B(p - t, q)}{B(p, q)}, \quad (25.17)'$$

and the corresponding cumulant-generating function is

$$K(t) = \log \left[ \frac{\Gamma(p + q)}{\Gamma(p)} \right] - \log \left[ \frac{\Gamma(p + q - t)}{\Gamma(p - t)} \right].$$

The cumulants are

$$\kappa_r = (r - 1)! \sum_{j=0}^{q-1} (p + j)^{-r}, \quad r = 1, 2, \dots, \quad (25.17)''$$

if  $q$  is an integer. In the general case

$$\kappa_r = (-1)^r [\psi^{(r-1)}(p) - \psi^{(r-1)}(p + q)], \quad (25.17)'''$$

where  $\psi^{(r-1)}(x) = (d^r/dx^r) \log \Gamma(x)$  is the  $(r + 1)$ -gamma function (see Chapter 1, Section A2).

The mean deviation of  $X$  is

$$\delta_1(X) = E(|X - E[X]|) = \frac{2}{B(p, q)} \frac{p^p q^q}{(p + q)^{p+q+1}}. \quad (25.18a)$$

If  $p = q$ , the expression reduces to

$$\bar{\delta}_1(X) = [B(p, p) p 2^{2p}]^{-1}. \quad (25.18b)$$

The authors thank Dr. T. Pham-Gia for pointing out an error in the



expression for  $\delta_1(X)$  which appeared in the first edition of this volume. [See also Pham-Gia and Turkkan (1992).]

For  $p$  and  $q$  large, using Stirling's approximation to the gamma function, the mean deviation is approximately

$$\sqrt{\frac{2pq}{\pi(p+q)}} \cdot \frac{1}{p+q} \left\{ 1 + \frac{1}{12}(p+q)^{-1} - \frac{1}{12}p^{-1} - \frac{1}{12}q^{-1} \right\}, \quad (25.19)$$

and

$$\frac{\text{Mean deviation}}{\text{Standard deviation}} \doteq \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \left\{ 1 + \frac{7}{12}(p+q)^{-1} - \frac{1}{12}p^{-1} - \frac{1}{12}q^{-1} \right\}.$$

The mean deviation about the median ( $m$ ) is

$$\frac{2m^p(1-m)^q}{(p+q)B(p,q)} = 2\text{var}(X) \left\{ \frac{1}{B(p+1,q+1)} m^p(1-m)^q \right\}. \quad (25.20)$$

If  $p > 1$  and  $q > 1$ , then  $p_X(x) \rightarrow 0$  as  $x \rightarrow 0$  or  $x \rightarrow 1$ ; if  $0 < p < 1$ ,  $p_X(x) \rightarrow \infty$  as  $x \rightarrow 0$ ; and if  $0 < q < 1$ ,  $p_X(x) \rightarrow \infty$  as  $x \rightarrow 1$ . If  $p = 1$  ( $q = 1$ ),  $p_X(x)$  tends to a finite nonzero value as  $x \rightarrow 0$  (1).

If  $p > 1$  and  $q > 1$ , the density function has a single mode at  $x = (p - 1)/(p + q - 2)$ . If  $p < 1$  and  $q < 1$ , there is an **antimode** (minimum value) of  $p_X(x)$  at this value of  $x$ . Such distributions are called U-shaped beta (or Type I or II) distributions. If  $(p - 1)(q - 1)$  is not positive, the probability density function does not have a mode or an **antimode** for  $0 < x < 1$ . Such distributions are called J-shaped or reverse J-shaped beta (or Type I) distributions. [Peleg and Normand (1986) advocate using the reparametrization  $am = p - 1$ ,  $m = q - 1$  so that the mode is at  $a/(a + 1)$  and does not depend on  $m$ . Although they call this a **modified** beta distribution, it is in fact just a regular beta distribution that is differently parametrized.] If  $p = q$ , the distribution is symmetrical about  $x = \frac{1}{2}$ .

For all positive values of  $p$  and  $q$ , there are points of inflexion at

$$\frac{p-1}{p+q-2} \pm \frac{1}{p+q-2} \sqrt{\frac{(p-1)(q-1)}{p+q-3}} \quad (25.21)$$

provided these values are real and lie between 0 and 1. Note that as for all **Pearson** curves, the points of inflexion are equidistant from the modes.

The expected value  $p/(p + q)$  depends on the ratio  $p/q$ . If this ratio is kept constant, but  $p$  and  $q$  are both increased, the variance decreases, and the (standardized) distribution tends to the unit normal distribution. Some of the properties of beta distributions described in this section are shown in Figures 25.1a, b. Note that if the values of  $p$  and  $q$  are interchanged, the distribution is "reflected" about  $x = \frac{1}{2}$ .

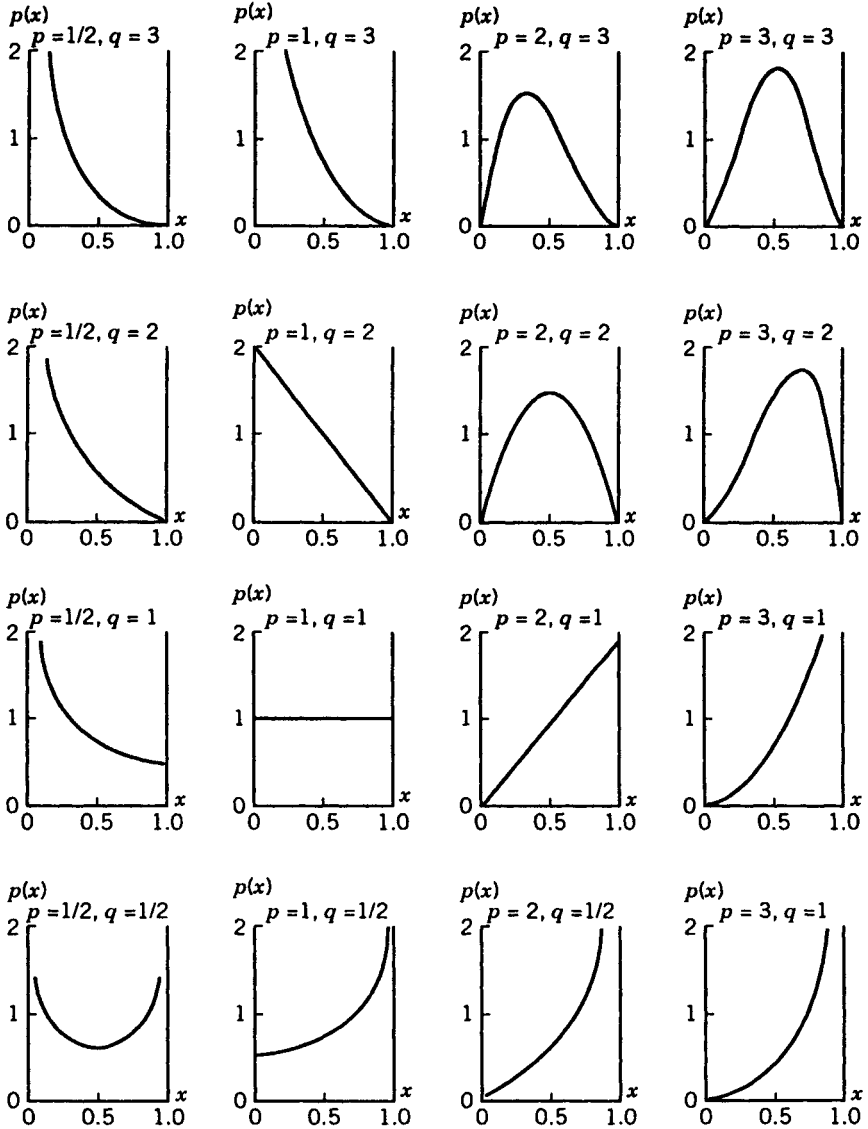


Figure 25.1a Beta density functions

The Lorenz curve [see Chapter 12, Eq. (12.1611) has coordinates

$$[I_x(p, q), I_x(p+1, q)],$$

and the Gini index [Chapter 12, Eq. (12.911) is

$$\frac{2B(2p, 2q)}{p[B(p, q)]^2}. \quad (25.22)$$

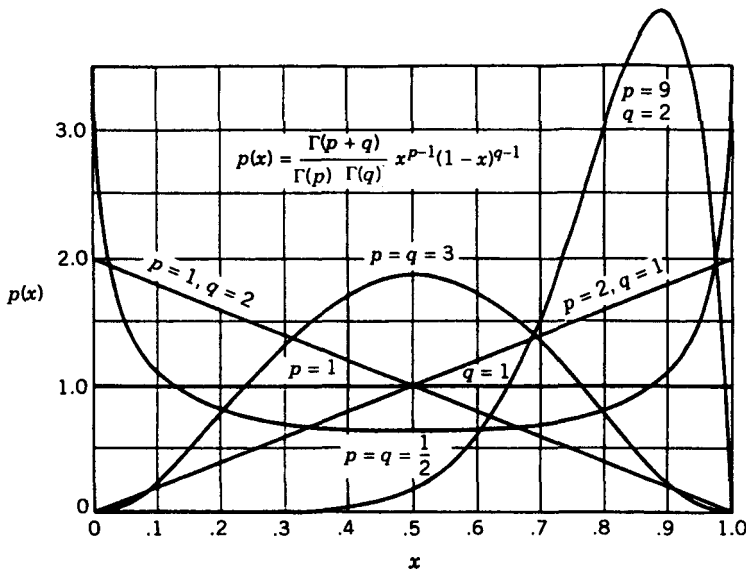


Figure 25.1b Beta density functions

#### 4 ESTIMATION

Discussion of parameter estimation for beta distributions goes back to Pearson's classical paper of 1895 where the method of moments was introduced. Direct algebraic solution of the ML equations cannot be obtained for beta distributions. Koshal (1933, 1935) tackled the ML estimation of four-parameter beta distributions, approximating the actual ML parameter estimates by an interactive method using estimates derived by the method of moments as initial values.

Estimation of all four parameters in distribution (25.1) can be effected by equating sample and population values of the first four moments. Calculation of  $a$ ,  $b$ ,  $p$ , and  $q$  from the mean  $\mu'_1$  and central moments  $\mu_2, \mu_3, \mu_4$  uses the following formulas [Elderton and Johnson (1969)]. Putting

$$r = \frac{6(\beta_2 - \beta_1 - 1)}{6 + 3\beta_1 - 2\beta_2},$$

then

$$p, q = \frac{1}{2}r \left\{ 1 \pm (r+2) \sqrt{\beta_1 \{ (r+2)^2 \beta_1 + 16(r+1) \}^{-1}} \right\} \quad (25.23)$$

with  $p \leq q$  according as  $\alpha_3 = \sqrt{\beta_1} \geq 0$ . Also

$$\frac{p-1}{q-1} = \frac{\text{mode}(Y) - a}{b - \text{mode}(Y)} \quad (25.24)$$

[where  $\text{mode}(Y) = a + (b-a)(p-1)/(p+q-2)$ ] and

$$b-a = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\mu_2} \sqrt{(r+2)^2 \beta_2 + 16(r+1)}. \quad (25.25)$$

If the values of  $a$  and  $b$  are known, then only the first and second moments need to be used, giving

$$\mu'_1 = a + (b-a)p/(p+q),$$

$$\mu_2 = (b-a)^2 pq(p+q)^{-2} (p+q+1)^{-1},$$

whence

$$\frac{\mu'_1 - a}{b-a} = \frac{p}{p+q}, \quad (25.26)$$

$$\frac{\mu_2}{(b-a)^2} = \frac{p}{p+q} \left(1 - \frac{p}{p+q}\right) \frac{1}{p+q+1}. \quad (25.27)$$

Thus

$$p+q = \frac{[(\mu'_1 - a)/(b-a)][1 - (\mu'_1 - a)/(b-a)]}{(\mu_2/(b-a)^2)} - 1, \quad (25.28)$$

$$p = \left(\frac{\mu'_1 - a}{b-a}\right)^2 \left(1 - \frac{\mu'_1 - a}{b-a}\right) \left(\frac{\mu_2}{(b-a)^2}\right)^{-1} - \frac{\mu'_1 - a}{b-a}. \quad (25.29)$$

The existence, consistency, and asymptotic normality and efficiency of a root of the likelihood equations are usually proved under conditions similar to those given by **Cramér** (1946) or **Kulldorff** (1957), which, among other things, allow Taylor expansion of the derivative of the log-likelihood function in a **fixed** neighborhood of the true parameter value.

When it is necessary to estimate at least one of the end points ( $a$  or  $b$ ) of the four-parameter beta distribution, no such fixed neighborhood of Taylor expansion validity exists. But if the true shape parameters ( $p$  and  $q$ ) are large enough ( $> 2$ , regular case), **Whitby** (1971) has shown that the conditions can be weakened to allow Taylor expansion in a sequence of shrinking neighborhoods, and the usual asymptotic results, with  $n^{1/2}$  normalization, can be proved.

If  $a$  and  $b$  are known and  $Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n$  are independent random variables each having distribution (25.1), the maximum likelihood equations for estimators  $\hat{p}, \hat{q}$  of  $p, q$ , respectively are

$$\psi(\hat{p}) - \psi(\hat{p} + \hat{q}) = n^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^n \log\left(\frac{Y_j - a}{b - a}\right), \quad (25.30a)$$

$$\psi(\hat{q}) - \psi(\hat{p} + \hat{q}) = n^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^n \log\left(\frac{b - Y_j}{b - a}\right), \quad (25.30b)$$

where  $\psi(\cdot)$  is the digamma function [Eq. (1.371, Chapter 1)]. The Cramér and Kulldorff conditions cover this case and Eqs. (25.30a) and (25.30b) have to be solved by trial and error. If  $\hat{p}$  and  $\hat{q}$  are not too small, the approximation

$$\psi(t) \doteq \log(t - \frac{1}{2})$$

may be used. Then approximate values of  $(\hat{p} - \frac{1}{2})/(\hat{p} + \hat{q} - \frac{1}{2})$  and  $(\hat{q} - \frac{1}{2})/(\hat{p} + \hat{q} - \frac{1}{2})$  can be obtained from (25.30a) and (25.30b), whence follow, as first approximations to  $p$  and  $q$ ,

$$p \doteq \frac{\frac{1}{2} \{1 - \prod_{j=1}^n ((b - Y_j)/(b - a))^{1/n}\}}{1 - \prod_{j=1}^n ((Y_j - a)/(b - a))^{1/n} - \prod_{j=1}^n ((b - Y_j)/(b - a))^{1/n}}, \quad (25.31a)$$

$$\hat{q} \doteq \frac{\frac{1}{2} \{1 - \prod_{j=1}^n ((Y_j - a)/(b - a))^{1/n}\}}{1 - \prod_{j=1}^n ((Y_j - a)/(b - a))^{1/n} - \prod_{j=1}^n ((b - Y_j)/(b - a))^{1/n}}. \quad (25.31b)$$

Starting from these values, solutions of (25.30a) and (25.30b) can be obtained by an iterative process. Gnanadesikan, Pinkham, and Hughes (1967) give exact numerical solutions for a few cases.

The asymptotic covariance matrix of  $\sqrt{n}\hat{p}$  and  $\sqrt{n}\hat{q}$  (as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ) is

$$\begin{aligned} & [\psi'(p)\psi'(q) - \psi'(p+q)\{\psi'(p) + \psi'(q)\}]^{-1} \\ & \times \begin{pmatrix} \psi'(q) - \psi'(p+q) & \psi'(p+q) \\ \psi'(p+q) & \psi'(p) - \psi'(p+q) \end{pmatrix}. \quad (25.32) \end{aligned}$$

Introducing approximations for  $\psi'(\cdot)$ , we have for large values of  $p$  and  $q$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}\text{var}(\hat{p}) &\doteq p(2p-1)n^{-1}, \\ \text{var}(\hat{q}) &\doteq q(2q-1)n^{-1}, \\ \text{corr}(\hat{p}, \hat{q}) &\doteq \sqrt{(1-2p^{-1})(1-2q^{-1})}. \quad (25.33)\end{aligned}$$

Fielitz and Myers (1975, 1976) and Romesburg (1976), in brief communications, discuss the comparative advantages and disadvantages of the method of moments versus the maximum likelihood method for estimating parameters  $p$  and  $q$ . The difficulties involved in the maximum likelihood method are related to employing efficient search procedures to maximize the likelihood function. The Newton-Raphson method is extremely sensitive to the initial values of  $\tilde{p}$  and  $\tilde{q}$ , and there is no guarantee that convergence will be achieved. Fielitz and Myers (1976) point out that for the sample problem considered by Gnanadesikan, Pinkham, and Hughes (1967), the method of moments yield more accurate estimates of  $p$  and  $q$  than does the method of maximum likelihood, possibly due to bias introduced by the computational method used in determining the ML estimators.

Beckman and Tietjen (1978) have shown that the equations (25.30a) and (25.30b) can be reduced to a single equation for  $\hat{q}$  alone:

$$\psi(\hat{q}) - \psi\left\{\left[\psi^{-1}\{\log G_1 - \log G_2 + \psi(\hat{q})\} + \hat{q}\right] - \log G_2\right\} = 0, \quad (25.34a)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}G_1 &= \prod_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{Y_i - a}{b - a}\right)^{1/n}, \\ G_2 &= \prod_{j=1}^n \left(\frac{b - Y_j}{b - a}\right)^{1/n}.\end{aligned}$$

Having solved (25.34a) for  $\hat{q}$ , the estimator,  $\hat{p}$ , of  $p$  is calculated from

$$\hat{p} = \psi^{-1}\{\log G_1 - \log G_2 + \psi(\hat{q})\}. \quad (25.34b)$$

Lau and Lau (1991) provide a detailed investigation of methods of calculating good *initial* estimators  $p_e$ ,  $q_e$  of  $p$  and  $q$ , respectively.

For  $G_1 + G_2 = G_T \leq 0.95$  they recommend

$$\log p_e = -3.929 + 10.523G_2 - 3.026G_1^3 + 1.757 \exp(G_2\sqrt{G_1}) \quad (25.35a)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \log q_e = & -3.895 + 1.222\sqrt{G_2} - 6.9056G_1^3 \\ & + 39.057G_1^2G_1^3 + 1.5318 \exp(G_T). \end{aligned} \quad (25.35b)$$

But for  $0.95 \leq G_T \leq 0.999$  they suggest

$$\begin{aligned} \log p_e = & 110706.79 + 3.0842\sqrt{G_1} + 110934.01 \log G_T \\ & + 6.3908 \exp(G_1G_1^2) - 233851.3G_T + 45300.7 \exp(G_T) \end{aligned} \quad (25.35c)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \log q_e = & 113753.4 - 2.1G_1^2 + 113979.94 \log G_T + 2.154G_1G_1^6 \\ & - 240149.9G_T + 46500.7 \exp(G_T). \end{aligned} \quad (25.35d)$$

They also study the sampling distribution of the ML estimators  $\hat{p}$  and  $\hat{q}$  and provide a table of the sample values of percentage bias  $d = 100 \times (m - p)/p$ , where  $m = \Sigma p_e/K$  [computed for  $K = 1000$  values of  $n, p, q$  ( $n = 30, 60, 100, p(=q) = 2, 6, 10, 20, \text{ and } 40$ )], skewness  $K^{-1}\Sigma(p_e - m)^3/S^3 = a$ , and kurtosis  $b_2 = K^{-1}\Sigma(p_e - m)^4/S^4$ , where  $S^2 = \Sigma(p_e - m)^2/K$ .

For  $p = q = 10$  representative values are

$n =$	30	100
$d$	11.1%	3.1%
$a_1$	1.17	0.59
$b_2$	5.6	3.7

The same authors also provide a procedure for estimating a confidence interval for  $p$ , using Bowman and Shenton's (1979a, 1979b) method for calculating fractiles of distributions belonging to Pearson's system.

If  $a$  and  $b$  are unknown, and maximum likelihood estimators of  $a, b, p$ , and  $q$  are required, the procedure based on (25.31a) and (25.31b) can be repeated using a succession of trial values of  $a$  and  $b$ , until the pair  $(a, b)$ , for which the maximized likelihood (given  $a$  and  $b$ ) is as great as possible, is attained.

Carnahan (1989) investigated in detail maximum likelihood estimation for four-parameter beta distributions. He adds to (25.31a) and (25.31b) the

additional ML equations

$$\frac{1}{n(p-1)} \cdot \frac{\partial \log L}{\partial a} = \frac{p+q-1}{p-1} - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \frac{b-a}{Y_i-a} \right) = 0, \quad (25.31c)$$

and

$$-\frac{1}{n(q-1)} \cdot \frac{\partial \log L}{\partial b} = \frac{p+q-1}{q-1} - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \frac{b-a}{b-Y_i} \right) = 0. \quad (25.31d)$$

(Note that these are essentially "method of moments" expressions, relating the sample values of the harmonic means  $E[(Y-a)^{-1}]^{-1}$ ,  $E[(b-Y)^{-1}]^{-1}$  to the corresponding theoretical values; see Section 2.) Unfortunately, the likelihood function for the distribution is unbounded and has a global maximum that is infinite, so values of  $a$  "near" to  $Y'_1$ , and of  $b$  "near" to  $Y'_n$  must be excluded. There is also a possibility of local maxima, which may not be well defined for small sample sizes and which plague various numerical schemes for maximizing likelihood. The ML estimators are asymptotically normal and unbiased with variances asymptotically equal to the **Cramér-Rao** lower bounds provided that  $\min(p, q) > 2$ . However, a numerical study by Carnahan indicates that only for very large sample sizes ( $n \geq 500$ ) does the bias become small and the **Cramér-Rao** bound become a good approximation to the variance. The author recommends employing the least and greatest order statistics to improve the estimates of the end points.

The information matrix, from which the asymptotic variances and **covariances** of ML estimates can be obtained, (in the regular case of  $p, q > 2$ ) is

$$\mathbf{I} = n \begin{pmatrix} \frac{q(p+q-1)}{(p-2)(b-a)^*} & \frac{(p+q-1)}{(b-a)'} & \frac{q}{(p-1)(b-a)} & -\frac{1}{b-a} \\ \frac{p+q-1}{(b-a)^2} & \frac{p(p+q-1)}{(q-2)(b-a)^2} & \frac{1}{b-a} & -\frac{p}{(q-1)(b-a)} \\ \frac{q}{(p-1)(b-a)} & \frac{1}{b-a} & -\psi'(p+q) + \psi'(p) & -\psi'(p+q) \\ -\frac{1}{b-a} & \frac{-p}{(q-1)(b-a)} & -\psi'(p+q) & \psi'(p+q) + \psi'(q) \end{pmatrix}. \quad (25.36)$$

The diagonal elements of  $\mathbf{I}^{-1}$  are the asymptotic variances of the parameter estimates. Explicit inversion has not been attempted. Carnahan (1989) provides numerical results.

AbouRizk, Halpin, and Wilson (1993) [see also **AbouRizk**, Halpin, and Wilson (1991)], using their program "Beta Fit," compare several methods for estimating the parameters of four-parameter beta distributions as in (25.1)



(which they term "generalized beta distributions"). Among these were the following:

1. Moment methods. Equating first four sample and population moments; next taking  $a = Y'_1$  and  $b = Y'_n$  and using only the first two moments [e.g., as suggested by Riggs (1989)].
2. "Feasibility moment matching" method. Minimizing the (unweighted) sum of squares of differences between sample and population means, variances, skewness ( $\sqrt{b_1}$  and  $\sqrt{\beta_1}$ ) and kurtosis ( $b_2$  and  $\beta_2$ ), subject to  $a < Y'_1$  and  $b > Y'_n$ , and possibly other restrictions (e.g.,  $a > 0$ ,  $b > 0$ ).
3. Maximum likelihood method. Maximizing with arbitrary values of  $a$  and  $b$  [as described formally in (25.30)]; any variation of  $a$  and  $b$  is not considered.
4. "Regression-based" methods [see Swain, Venkataraman, and Wilson (1988)]. Using order statistics and the relationships [see Chapter 12, Eq. (12.20)]

$$E[F_Y(Y'_j)] = \frac{j}{n+1},$$

$$\text{var}(F_Y(Y'_j)) = \frac{j(n-j+1)}{(n+1)^2(n+2)},$$

$$\text{cov}(F_Y(Y'_j), F_Y(Y'_k)) = \frac{j(n-k+1)}{(n+1)^2(n+2)}, \quad j < k.$$

Two variants of a least-squares method are used in minimizing  $\sum_{j=1}^n w_j \{F_Y(Y'_j) - j/(n+1)\}^2$  with respect to  $a$ ,  $b$ ,  $p$ , and  $q$ .

Case 1.  $w_j = 1$  for all  $j$  ("ordinary least squares"),

Case 2.  $w_j = \{\text{var}(F_Y(Y'_j))\}^{-1}$ ,  $j = 1, \dots, n$  ("diagonally weighted least squares").

In each case minimization is subject to the restrictions  $a < Y'_1$ ,  $b > Y'_n$  ( $a > 0$ ,  $b > 0$ ), as in the third method mentioned above.

Dishon and Weiss (1980) provide small sample comparisons of maximum likelihood and moment estimators for standard beta distributions (25.2) ( $a = 0$  and  $b = 1$ ): The maximum likelihood estimators  $\hat{p}$  and  $\hat{q}$ , which in

this case are solutions of the equations,

$$\psi(\hat{p} + \hat{q} + 2) - \psi(\hat{p} + 1) = \frac{1}{n} \sum \log\left(\frac{1}{X_i}\right) \quad (25.37a)$$

and

$$\psi(\hat{p} + 4 + 2) - \psi(\hat{q} + 1) = \frac{1}{n} \sum \log\left(\frac{1}{1 - X_i}\right) \quad (25.37b)$$

are compared with the moment estimators

$$\bar{p} = \frac{\bar{\mu}'_1(\bar{\mu}'_1 - \bar{\mu}'_2)}{\bar{\mu}'_2 - (\bar{\mu}'_1)^2} - 1 \quad (25.38a)$$

and

$$\bar{q} = \frac{(1 - \bar{\mu}'_1)(\bar{\mu}'_1 - \bar{\mu}'_2)}{\bar{\mu}'_2 - (\bar{\mu}'_1)^2} - 1, \quad (25.38b)$$

where  $\bar{\mu}'_1$  and  $\bar{\mu}'_2$  are estimators of the first and second moments, respectively.

The results are summarized in Table 25.2. The authors generated a number of beta variables with known values of  $p$  and  $q$  and calculated, for different values of sample size  $n$  with 100 replications,  $\hat{p}$ ,  $\hat{q}$ ,  $\bar{p}$ , and  $\bar{q}$  by means of the equations given above. (Both estimators tend to produce errors of the same sign.) They defined

$$R_p = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{100} (\hat{p}_j - p)^2}{\sum_{j=1}^{100} (\bar{p}_j - p)^2}$$

(with an analogous definition for  $R_q$ ), where  $\hat{p}_j$  is the ML estimator of  $p$  and  $\bar{p}_j$  is the moment estimator of  $p$  in the  $j$ th replication. [The authors also develop efficient procedures for computing  $\psi(z)$  using the expansion

$$\psi(1+z) = -\gamma + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{z}{n(n+z)}, \quad z \neq -1, -2, -3, \dots,$$

where  $\gamma = 0.57722\dots$  is Euler's constant, as defined in Chapter 1, Eq. (1.19), and the Euler-Maclaurin summation formula.] The data in the table show that when  $n$  is low, the ML estimator is usually more accurate than the moment estimator (with notable exception when  $p = q$ ).

**Table 25.2** Comparison of estimates obtained from ML and moment estimates for a univariate beta distribution. Each row is for 100 replications

Parameter Values		Sample Size <i>n</i>	<i>N</i> <sup>a</sup>		<i>R<sub>p</sub></i>	<i>R<sub>q</sub></i>
<i>p</i>	<i>q</i>		<i>p</i>	<i>q</i>		
- $\frac{1}{2}$	- $\frac{1}{2}$	25	58	56	0.935	0.888
		50	58	64	0.911	0.799
		100	53	57	0.805	0.847
- $\frac{1}{2}$	1	25	64	61	0.793	0.802
		50	70	57	0.765	0.953
		100	62	56	0.646	0.829
1	1	25	42	44	1.020	1.020
		50	48	51	1.004	0.977
		100	51	50	0.962	0.975
- $\frac{1}{2}$	5	25	75	66	0.663	0.778
		50	66	63	0.564	0.706
		100	61	59	0.728	0.758
5	1	25	57	56	0.984	0.984
		50	57	59	0.932	0.912
		100	55	51	0.961	0.940
5	5	25	44	46	1.007	1.000
		50	41	42	1.017	1.021
		100	58	63	0.980	0.970
10	5	25	54	58	1.000	0.996
		50	57	58	0.996	0.989
		100	51	59	0.984	0.981
- $\frac{1}{2}$	100	25	64	67	0.806	0.852
		50	70	67	0.777	0.840
		100	76	68	0.693	0.801
1	100	25	56	61	0.915	0.889
		50	70	70	0.837	0.833
		100	62	64	0.914	0.896
50	100	25	53	54	0.996	0.996
		50	55	56	0.992	0.993
		100	50	50	1.000	1.000
100	100	25	57	55	0.999	0.999
		50	43	47	1.000	1.000
		100	57	57	1.000	1.000

<sup>a</sup>*N* = number of cases in which the MLE is closer to the true value of *p*, *q*, than the moment estimator.

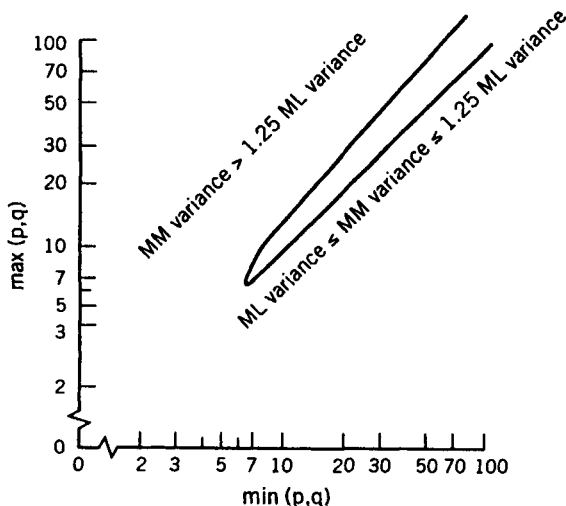


Figure 25.2 Comparison of the variances associated with MM and ML estimators

As Figure 25.2 from Kottes and Lau (1978) indicates, when  $p$  and  $q$  are small or their difference is large, the (asymptotic) method of moments variance exceeds the (asymptotic) maximum likelihood variance by at least **25%**. These are the situations when the need to fit beta distributions is the greatest. Fortunately, in many cases  $a$  and  $b$ , or at least one of these parameters, can be assigned known values.

If only the  $r$  smallest values  $X'_1, X'_2, \dots, X'_r$  are available, the maximum likelihood equations are

$$\frac{r}{n} \log \left[ \left( \prod_{j=1}^r X'_j \right)^{1/r} \right] = \psi(\hat{p}) - \psi(\hat{p} + \hat{q}) - \left( 1 - \frac{r}{n} \right) \frac{\partial}{\partial \hat{p}} \log \left[ \int_{X'_r}^1 t^{\hat{p}-1} (1-t)^{\hat{q}-1} dt \right] \quad (25.39a)$$

and

$$\frac{r}{n} \log \left[ \left( \prod_{j=1}^r (1 - X'_j) \right)^{1/r} \right] = \psi(\hat{q}) - \psi(\hat{p} + \hat{q}) - \left( 1 - \frac{r}{n} \right) \frac{\partial}{\partial \hat{q}} \log \left[ \int_{X'_r}^1 t^{\hat{p}-1} (1-t)^{\hat{q}-1} dt \right] \quad (25.39b)$$

[Gnanadesikan, Pinkham, and Hughes (1967)].

Fang and Yuan (1990) apply the sequential algorithm for optimization by number theoretic methods (SNT0) proposed by Fang and Wang (1989) to obtain ML estimators of parameters of standard beta distributions. The method is superior to the Newton-Raphson method. It does not require unimodality or existence of derivatives (only continuity of the likelihood) and is not sensitive to the initial values. For the data provided by Gnanadesikan, Pinkham, and Hughes (1967), this method yields more accurate values than those of moment estimators or Gnanadesikan, Pinkham, and Hughes's (1967) estimators.

If one of the values  $p$  and  $q$  is known, the equations are much simpler to solve. In particular, for the standard power-function distribution ( $q = 1$ ), the maximum likelihood estimator of  $p$  is

$$\hat{p} = \left[ n^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^n \log X_j \right]^{-1}, \quad (25.40)$$

and we have

$$n \text{ var } \hat{p} \doteq p^2. \quad (25.41)$$

A moment estimator of  $p$  in this case is

$$\tilde{p} = \bar{X}(1 - \bar{X})^{-1}, \quad (25.42)$$

for which

$$n \text{ var } \tilde{p} \doteq p(p+1)^2(p+2)^{-1}. \quad (25.43)$$

Note that  $(\text{var } \hat{p})/(\text{var } \tilde{p}) = p(p+2)(p+1)^{-2}$ . The asymptotic relative efficiency of  $\tilde{p}$  increases with  $p$ ; it is as high as 75% for  $p = 1$ , tends to 100% as  $p \rightarrow \infty$ , but tends to zero as  $p \rightarrow 0$ . There is further discussion of power-function distributions in Chapter 20, Section 8.

Interestingly Guenther (1967) has shown that for the special case of the standard power-function distribution, with the pdf

$$p_X(x) = px^{p-1}, \quad 0 < x < 1, j = 1, \dots, n, \quad (25.44)$$

the minimum variance unbiased estimator of  $p$  is  $-(n-1)[\sum_{j=1}^n \log X_j]^{-1}$ . Its variance is  $p^2(n-2)^{-1}$ , while the Cramér-Rao lower bound (Chapter 1, Section B15) is  $p^2n^{-1}$ .

In operations research applications (especially in connection with PERT) it is often *assumed* that the standard deviation *must* be one-sixth of the

range of variation (!). Thus, for a standard beta ( $p, q$ ) distribution (range 0 to 1), it is assumed that

$$\sigma(X) = \frac{1}{6}, \quad (25.45)$$

while for the more general distribution (25.1),

$$\sigma(X) = \frac{1}{6}(b - a). \quad (25.46)$$

This assumption is used in fitting a beta distribution on the basis of "least possible" ( $a^*$ ), "greatest possible" ( $b^*$ ), and "most likely" ( $m^*$ ) values as estimated from engineers' experience of a process. These are used as estimates of  $a, b$  and the modal value

$$m = a + \frac{p - 1}{p + q - 2}(b - a) \quad [\min(p, q) > 1], \quad (25.47)$$

respectively [Hillier and Lieberman (1980)].

Values of estimates  $p^*, q^*$  of  $p, q$ , respectively, can be obtained from the simultaneous equations

$$\frac{p^* q^*}{(p^* + q^*)^2 (p^* + q^* + 1)} = \frac{1}{36} \quad (\text{cf. (25.46)}) \quad (25.48a)$$

and

$$\frac{p^* - 1}{p^* + q^* - 2} = \frac{m^* - a^*}{b^* - a^*}. \quad (\text{cf. (25.47)}) \quad (25.48b)$$

It would be, perhaps, more natural to use an estimated expected value,  $\bar{X}$ , say, and equate that to the population value, leading to

$$\frac{p^*}{p^* + q^*} = \frac{\bar{X} - a^*}{b^* - a^*} \quad (25.48c)$$

in place of (25.48b). In fact it appears to be customary to use an equation like (25.48c) but with  $\bar{X}$  replaced by an estimate of the expected value

$$a^* + \frac{1}{6} \left\{ \frac{4(m^* - a^*)}{b^* - a^*} + 1 \right\} (b^* - a^*) = a^* + \frac{1}{6} (4m^* + b^* - 5a^*),$$

leading to

$$\frac{p^*}{p^* + q^*} = \frac{1}{6} \left\{ 4 \left( \frac{m^* - a^*}{b^* - a^*} \right) + 1 \right\}. \quad (25.48d)$$

From (25.48a), (25.48c), or (25.48d),  $(p^* + q^*)$  can be expressed in terms of  $p^*$ ,  $a^*$ , and  $b^*$ . Inserting this expression for  $(p^* + q^*)$  in (25.48a), we obtain an equation in  $p^*$ . For example, using (25.48c),

$$p^* + q^* = \left( \frac{b^* - a^*}{\bar{X} - a^*} \right) p^*$$

and

$$\frac{p^* q^*}{(p^* + q^*)^2} = \left( \frac{\bar{X} - a^*}{b^* - a^*} \right) \left( 1 - \frac{\bar{X} - a^*}{b^* - a^*} \right),$$

whence (25.48a) becomes

$$\left( \frac{\bar{X} - a^*}{b^* - a^*} \right) \left( 1 - \frac{\bar{X} - a^*}{b^* - a^*} \right) = \frac{1}{36} \left\{ \left( \frac{b^* - a^*}{\bar{X} - a^*} \right) p^* + 1 \right\},$$

that is,

$$p^* = \frac{\bar{X} - a^*}{b^* - a^*} \left\{ 36 \left( \frac{\bar{X} - a^*}{b^* - a^*} \right) \left( 1 - \frac{\bar{X} - a^*}{b^* - a^*} \right) - 1 \right\}. \quad (25.49)$$

Using (25.48d) would also lead to a simple explicit value for  $p^*$ , but (25.48b) would lead to a cubic equation for  $p^*$ .

Farnum and Stanton (1987) carried out a critical investigation of the accuracy of the assumption that for a standard beta  $(p, q)$  variable

$$\text{Expected value} = \frac{1}{6} \{ 4(\text{mode}) + 1 \},$$

that is,

$$\frac{p}{p + q} \doteq \frac{1}{6} \left( \frac{4(p - 1)}{p + q - 2} + 1 \right) \quad (25.50)$$

[presumably when (25.48a) is satisfied]. They found the approximation is correct to within 0.02 when the mode is between 0.13 and 0.87, and they

suggest using improved approximations

$$\frac{2}{2 + (\text{mode})^{-1}} \quad \text{for mode} < 0.13, \quad (25.51a)$$

and

$$(3 - 2(\text{mode}))^{-1} \quad \text{for mode} > 0.87. \quad (25.51b)$$

Moitra (1990) suggested that some allowance should be made for "skewness" (which he measures by  $E[(X - E[X])^3]$ , rather than the shape factor  $\sqrt{\beta_1}$ , which would be  $6\sqrt{6}E[(X - E[X])^3]$  if  $\sigma(X) = 1/6$ ). Moitra noted that the "traditional" assumptions can be expressed as

$$E[X] = \frac{a + b + k(\text{mode})}{k + 2} \quad (25.52a)$$

and

$$\sigma(X) = c^{-1}(b - a), \quad (25.52b)$$

with  $k = 4$ ,  $c = 6$ . He found that  $c = 6$  is not "optimal for values of  $k$  other than 4 or 5, and  $k = 4$  is not optimal for values of  $c$  other than 6."

Moitra made the following recommendations: "If the skewness is judged or known to be high,  $p$  would be between 2 and 3, and since we are estimating subjective distributions, we can set  $p = 2.5$ ." But "if the skewness is judged to be moderate, then we can see from the graphs that  $p$  is very likely to be between 3 and 4, and so we can similarly set  $p = 3.5$ . Finally, if the skewness is considered to be only a little, we set  $p = 4.5$ ." He also provided the "best" combinations of values for  $k$  and  $c$ , which are given in Table 25.3, and an analysis appropriate to triangular distributions (see Chapter 26, Section 9) for which

$$E[X] = \frac{1}{3}(a + b + m). \quad (25.53)$$

Table 25.3 Best combinations of  $k$  and  $c$ .

c	k					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Best					
4		Best	Good			
5			Good	Best		
6				Good	Best	
7						Best
8						Best



In the case  $a = 0$ ,  $b = 1$ , we have

$$E\{X\} = f(1 + m), \quad (25.54a)$$

$$[\sigma(X)]^2 = \frac{1}{16}(1 - m + m^2). \quad (25.54b)$$

The values of  $\sigma(X)$  varies from 0.25 (for  $m = 0$  or 1) to 0.22 for  $m = 0.5$ . These values are quite close to each other, and somewhat greater than the traditional value (used in connection with beta distributions) of  $1/6$ . Setting  $k = 1$  and  $c = 4$  or 4.5, estimators can be approximated using a triangular distribution. "The advantage of this procedure is that by invoking the triangular distribution we do not have to make any further assumptions, nor do we need any additional information." However, as Table 25.3 indicates, the choice of  $k = 2$  (rather than 1), with  $c = 4$  or 4.5, may be more appropriate.

## 5 APPLICATIONS

Beta distributions are very versatile (see Figures 25.1a, b) and a variety of uncertainties can be usefully modeled by them. This flexibility encourages its empirical use in a wide range of applications [see, e.g., Morgan and Henrion (1990)].

The beta distributions are among the most frequently employed to model theoretical distributions. Usually the range of variation ( $a, b$ ) of such distributions is known, and fitting is effected by equating the first and second moments of the theoretical and fitted curve. No random sample values enter into this calculation so that maximum likelihood methods are inapplicable, and a fortiori, arguments based on asymptotic efficiency are irrelevant.

An example of some importance is the use of beta distributions to fit the distributions of certain criteria used in statistical likelihood ratio tests. Usually the range of variation of the likelihood ratio is known to be from zero to one, and that of any monotonic function of the likelihood ratio can be derived from this knowledge. If the likelihood ratio is based on  $n$  independent identically distributed random variables, it is often found that a usefully good fit can be obtained by supposing

$$(\text{likelihood ratio})^{2/n}$$

to have a beta distribution with  $a = 0$ ,  $b = 1$ . Use of the power  $2n^{-1}$  is suggested by Wilks's theorem that under certain fairly broad conditions,  $-2n^{-1} \log(\text{likelihood ratio})$  has an asymptotic  $\chi^2$  distribution (as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ). (See also Chapter 29, Section 9, where some additional cases are discussed.) Of course a general power  $c$  might be used, and  $c$ , as well as  $p$  and  $q$ , if fitted a substantially improved fit could be expected by using this method.

This would be equivalent to fitting a "generalized" beta distribution, to be described in Section 25.7.

A standard Type I distribution has been found to give good approximation when fitted (by equation of first two moments) to relative frequencies of a **binomial distribution** [Benedetti (1956)]. If the **binomial** parameters are  $N$ ,  $\omega$ , then the approximate value for the probability that the binomial variable is less than  $r$  is

$$I_{(r-1/2)}((N-1)\omega, (N-1)(1-\omega)), \quad (25.55a)$$

as compared with the exact value

$$I_{1-\omega}(N-r+1, r). \quad (25.55b)$$

[See also Eq. (3.34), Chapter 3.] Numerical comparisons given in Benedetti (1956), and also in Johnson (1960), show that except in the "tails" (probabilities between 0.05 and 0.95) a good practical approximation is obtained for  $N \geq 50$  and  $0.1 \leq \omega \leq 0.9$ .

For many years a fashionable use for beta distributions has been as "prior" distributions for binomial proportions (see Section 2.2, Chapter 6). While this leads to some conveniently simple mathematics, and beta distributions are often referred to as "natural" prior distributions for the binomial parameter  $p$  (in that the posterior distribution obtained by its use is also of the same form), there seems to be little definite evidence in their favor. This was pointed out at an early date by **Barnard (1957)**, in the course of discussion of **Horsnell (1957)**. Much more recently a similar remark was made by **Ganter (1990)**, commenting on **Hart (1990)**. **Shaw (1991)** proposes use of beta priors to reduce the number of tests needed in routine checks on reliability, apparently without initial examination of validity of assumptions. There has been, however, some attention to the need for care in selection of prior distributions. For example, **Chaloner and Duncan (1983)** describe methods of "elicitation" of parameter values for beta priors, though the basis for using beta distributions in this context is not addressed. **Pham-Gia (1994)** has recently studied the information gain or loss by considering changes in the reciprocal of the expected posterior variance. Specifically, he has shown that the ratio of the expected values of the posterior variances of two beta distributions provides a convenient criterion that is consistent with many Bayesian results and, in addition, enables the determination of the least informative beta prior distribution.

In recent years beta distributions have been used in modeling distributions of hydrologic variables [**Janardan and Padmanabhan (1986)**], logarithm of aerosol sizes [**Bunz et al. (1987)**; **Van Dingenan, Raes, and Vanmarcke (1987)**], activity time in PERT analysis [**Golenko-Ginzburg (1988)**], errors in forms [**Yang, Li, and Li (1988)**], isolation data in photovoltaic system analysis [**Rahman, Khallat, and Salameh (1988)**], porosity/void ratio of soil [**Harrop-**

Williams (1989)], phase derivatives in communication theory [Andersen, Lauritzen, and Thommesen (1990); Lauritzen, Thommesen, and Andersen (1990)], conductance of catfish retinal zones [Haynes and Yau (1990)], variables affecting reproductivity of cows [McNally (1990)], size of progeny in *Escherchia Coli* [Koppes and Grover (1992)], ventilation from inert gas washout distributions [Meyer, Groebe, and Thews (1990)], dissipation rate in breakage models [Yamazaki (1990)], proportions in gas mixtures [Agrawal and Yang (1991)], sea-state reflectivity [Delignon, Garello, and Hillion (1991)], atmospheric transmittance and related indices for solar radiation [Graham and Hollands (1990); Milyutin and Yaromenko (1991)], clutter and power of radar signals [Maffett and Wackerman (1991); Sopol'nik and Lerchenko (1991), respectively], acoustic emissions in evaluation of chip forms [Sukvitayawong and Inasaki (1991)], traffic flow [Ressel (1991)], construction duration [AbouRizk and Halpin (1992); AbouRizk, Halpin, and Wilson (1991)], particle size [Boss (1992a, b); Popplewell and Peleg (1992)], gas absorption [Karavias and Myers (1992)], and tool wear [Wang and Dornfeld (1992)].

Wiley, Herschokoru, and Padiou (1989) developed a model to estimate the probability of transmission of HIV virus during a sexual contact between an infected and a susceptible individual. Let  $\beta$  be the per contact infectivity associated with sexual contact between an infected and a susceptible individual. The authors model each sexual encounter as an independent event where HIV is transmitted with probability  $\beta$ . Thus, if the couple has  $n$  sexual encounters, the probability of  $T$ , the infection of the seronegative partner, is

$$\Pr(T|\beta) = 1 - (1 - \beta)^n.$$

To allow for heterogeneity of infectivity among couples, they consider  $\beta$  as a random variable with the beta density function

$$p(\beta) = \frac{\Gamma(a+b)}{\Gamma(a)\Gamma(b)} \beta^{a-1} (1-\beta)^{b-1}, \quad 0 < \beta < 1.$$

The marginal distribution of  $T$  is then

$$\Pr(T) = E[\Pr(T|\beta)] = 1 - \prod_{j=0}^{n-1} \left( \frac{b+j}{a+b+j} \right).$$

Using data on the number of contacts and seroconversion of couples, they fit this model by the maximum likelihood method. The estimates indicate that heterogeneity is indeed quite extreme.

Thompson (1990) describes applications in the analysis of probabilistic informational retrieval in "expert systems." Treacy et al. (1991) use truncated beta distributions in automated tolerance analysis of assemblies. Beta distributions are widely used in many areas of operations research. Moitra (1990)

provides a number of examples in risk analysis for strategic planning, finance and marketing, engineering systems simulation, and decision theory.

Pham and Turkkan (1994) discussed recently the exact distribution of the sum of two independent beta variables and applied it to a standby system with beta-distributed component lives. They show that this enables the calculation of the exact reliability of such a system when the exact values of the parameters are known, and also greatly improves the available approximate methods of computing the reliability.

## 6 APPROXIMATIONS AND TABLES

### 6.1 Approximations

Several approximations to the incomplete beta function ratio  $I_x(p, q)$  have been described in Section 6.1 of Chapter 3. Relevant references, given at the end of this chapter for convenience, include Aroian (1941, 1950), Cadwell (1952), Hartley and Fitch (1951), Nair (1948), Pearson and Pearson (1935), Thomson (1947), and Wise (1950, 1960). Here we add only several further approximations which came to our attention subsequent to the completion of the first edition of *Discrete Distributions*. The first approximation is one of a number proposed in Peizer and Pratt (1968) and Pratt (1968). For the incomplete beta function ratio, their approximations are

$$I_x(p, q) = \Phi(z),$$

where

$$z = \frac{d}{|q - \frac{1}{2} - n(1-x)|} \left\{ \frac{2}{1 + (6n)^{-1}} \left[ \left( q - \frac{1}{2} \right) \log \left( \frac{q - \frac{1}{2}}{n(1-x)} \right) + \left( p - \frac{1}{2} \right) \log \left( \frac{p - (1/2)}{nx} \right) \right] \right\}^{1/2} \quad (25.56)$$

with  $n = p + q - 1$ . The value of  $d$  is either

$$d = q - \frac{1}{3} - (n + \frac{1}{3})(1-x) \quad (\text{case 1})$$

or

$$d = q - \frac{1}{3} - \left( n + \frac{1}{3} \right) (1-x) + \frac{1}{5} \bar{q} - \frac{1-x}{p} + \frac{x - (1/2)}{p+q} \quad (\text{case 2})$$

Case 2 generally gives the more accurate results. Using this value of  $d$ , the error of  $I_x(p, q)$  is less than 0.001 for  $p, q \geq 2$  and less than 0.01 for

$p, q \geq 1$ . Limits on the *proportional* error are

$$\frac{|\Phi(z) - I_x(p, q)|}{I_x(p, q)} < \begin{cases} 0.01 & \text{if } p, q \geq 3 \text{ and } 0.2 \leq R \leq 5.0, \\ 0.02 & \text{if } p, q \geq 1.75 \text{ and } 0.125 \leq R \leq 8, \\ 0.03 & \text{if } p, q \geq 1.5 \text{ and } 0.1 \leq R \leq 10, \end{cases} \quad (25.57)$$

where

$$R = \frac{(q - (1/2))x}{(p - (1/2))(1 - x)}.$$

Mudholkar and Chaubey (1976) provide Patnaik-type, Pearson-type, and Sankaran-type approximations to  $I_x(p, q)$  based on the distribution of  $-\log X$  when  $X$  has a standard beta  $(p, q)$  distribution. We have of course

$$I_x(p, q) = \Pr[-\log X > -\log x].$$

The  $s$ th cumulant of  $-\log X$  is

$$\kappa_r(-\log X) = (-1)^r \{\psi^{(r-1)}(p) - \psi^{(r-1)}(p+q)\} \quad (25.58)$$

[see (25.17)''].]

1. *Patnaik-type approximation.* Approximating  $-\log X$  by  $c\chi_\nu^2$ , where  $c$  and  $\nu$  are chosen to give the correct first two moments,

$$c = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\psi'(p) - \psi'(p+q)}{\psi(p+q) - \psi(p)}, \quad \nu = \frac{2\{\psi(p+q) - \psi(p)\}^2}{\psi'(p) - \psi'(p+q)},$$

we obtain

$$I_x(p, q) \doteq \Pr\left[\chi_\nu^2 \geq \frac{-\log x}{c}\right]. \quad (25.59a)$$

Using the Wilson-Hilferty approximation [Chapter 18, Eq. (18.26)], we obtain

$$I_x(p, q) \doteq 1 - \Phi(z), \quad (25.59b)$$

where

$$z = \left[ \left( \frac{-\log x}{c\nu} \right)^{1/3} - \left( 1 - \frac{2}{9\nu} \right) \right] \left( \frac{2}{9\nu} \right)^{-1/2}.$$

2. Pearson-type approximation. Approximating  $-\log X$  by  $(c'\chi_{\nu'}^2 + b)$  with  $c'$ ,  $\nu'$ , and  $b$  chosen to give the correct first three moments, we obtain (25.59a) with  $c$ ,  $\nu$  replaced by  $c'$ ,  $\nu'$ , respectively, and  $-\log x$  replaced by  $-(\log x + b)$ .
3. Sankaran-type approximation. We determine  $h$  so that the leading term in the third cumulant of  $\{(-\log X)/\kappa_1\}^h$  vanishes. This value of  $h$  is  $\{1 - \kappa_1\kappa_3/(3\kappa_2^2)\}$ . Approximating  $\{(-\log X)/\kappa_1\}^h$  by a normal variable with

$$\text{Expected value} = 1 - \frac{h\kappa_3}{6\kappa_1\kappa_2} = \mu$$

and

$$\text{Variance} = \frac{h^2\kappa_2}{\kappa_1^2} = \sigma^2,$$

we obtain (25.59b) with

$$z = \frac{\{(-\log x)/\kappa_1\}^h - \mu}{\sigma}. \quad (25.60)$$

The next approximation is of a more general nature. Consider a standard beta ( $kn, l$ ) distribution. Keeping  $k$  and  $l$  fixed, let  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . It is known that the standardized density function tends to a unit normal  $[N(0, 1)]$  density. Królikowska (1966) investigated the behavior of the leading term of the absolute difference between the standardized beta and the unit normal distribution as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . She found that it is of order  $n^{-1/2}$ , except when  $k = l$ , in which case it is of order  $n^{-1}$ .

Volodin (1970) obtained the approximate formula

$$I_x(p, q) \doteq \frac{qx}{p+q} \left\{ {}_2F_1(1, 1; 1+p; 1-x) + \frac{p}{1+q^2} {}_2F_1(1, 1; 2+q; x) \right\}, \quad (25.61)$$

where  ${}_2F_1(a, b; c; x)$  is a hypergeometric function (see Chapter 1, Section A6). It is very accurate for small values of  $p$  and  $q$ . The approximation is based on the observation that the characteristic function of the random variable

$$W = (p+q) \log \left\{ \frac{X}{1-X} \right\}, \quad (25.62)$$

where  $X$  has distribution (25.1), is

$$\frac{\Gamma(1 + p + [p + q]it)\Gamma(1 + q - [p + q]it)}{\{1 + it(p + q)/p\}\{1 - it(p + q)/q\}/\{\Gamma(1 + p)\Gamma(1 + q)\}}. \quad (25.63)$$

This shows that  $W$  can be regarded as the sum of three independent variables,  $W$ ,  $W_2$ , and  $W_3$ , where  $W$ , and  $W_2$  have exponential distributions (see Chapter 19) with parameters  $p/(p + q)$  and  $q/(p + q)$ , respectively, and  $W_3$  has the standard beta  $(p + 1, q + 1)$  distribution. The approximation (25.61) is obtained by replacing  $W_3$  with a random variable having a uniform distribution over  $(0, 1)$ .

If  $W_3$  is neglected in this representation (as might be possible if  $q$  is small compared with  $p$ ), the following approximation is obtained:

$$I_x(p, q) \doteq J_x(p, q) = \begin{cases} \frac{q}{p + q} \left(\frac{x}{1 - x}\right)^p & \text{for } 0 \leq x \leq \frac{1}{2}, \\ 1 - \frac{p}{p + q} \left(\frac{1 - x}{x}\right)^q & \text{for } \frac{1}{2} \leq x \leq 1. \end{cases} \quad (25.64)$$

This approximation is also very good for small values of  $p$  and  $q$ . In fact, if  $p + q < 1$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{0 \leq x \leq 1} |I_x(p, q) - J_x(p, q)| &\leq \frac{p}{1 + q} \left[ \exp\left\{\frac{\pi^2}{24}(p + q)\right\} - 1 \right]^{1+q} \\ &\leq \frac{p(p + q)}{1 + q} \leq p(p + q). \end{aligned} \quad (25.65)$$

Molina (1932) obtained the following approximation to the incomplete beta function:

$$I_x(p, q) \doteq \sum_{j=0}^6 \frac{A_j}{j!} \left(\frac{z}{N}\right)^{q+j} D(q + j, z), \quad (25.66)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} N &= p + \frac{1}{2}q - \frac{1}{2}, \quad z = -N \log x, \\ A_0 &= 1, \quad A_1 = A_3 = A_5 = 0, \\ A_2 &= \frac{1}{12}(q - 1), \quad A_4 = \frac{1}{240}(q - 1)(5q - 7), \\ A_6 &= \frac{1}{4032}(q - 1)(35q^2 - 112q + 93), \\ D(a, b) &= \int_0^1 t^{a-1} e^{-bt} dt = b^{-a} \Gamma_b(a), \end{aligned}$$

where  $\Gamma_b(a)$  is an incomplete gamma function, as defined in Chapter 1, Section **A5**. [See also appendix in Gnanadesikan, Pinkham, and Hughes (1967), where more computational details are given.]

Woods and Posten (1968), have constructed computer programs based on the Fourier expansion

$$I_x(p, q) = 1 - \theta\pi^{-1} - \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} b_j \sin(j\theta), \quad (25.67)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \theta &= \cos^{-1}(2x - 1), \\ b_1 &= 2\pi^{-1}(p - q)(p + q)^{-1}, \\ b_2 &= \pi^{-1}(p + q)^{-1}(p + q + 1)^{-1} \\ &\quad \times \{2(p - q)^2 - (p + q)(p + q - 1)\}, \\ (j + 2)b_{j+2} &= (j + p + q + 1)^{-1} \\ &\quad \times \{2(p - q)(j + 1)b_{j+1} \\ &\quad + (j + 1 - p - q)jb_j\}. \end{aligned}$$

They found that (for  $m$  sufficiently large) if the infinite series be terminated at the term containing  $b_m$ , the error is less than

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2}m|b_m|\{\min(p, q)\}^{-1} &\quad \text{if } p \neq q, \\ \frac{1}{4}m|b_m|p^{-1} &\quad \text{if } p = q, \text{ } m \text{ is even.} \end{aligned}$$

In some special cases there are simple explicit formulas for the  $b$ 's:

Case 1.  $p = q$ :

$$\begin{aligned} b_{2j-1} &= 0, \\ b_{2j} &= (j\pi)^{-1} \prod_{i=1}^j \left( \frac{2j - 1 - 2p}{2j - 1 + 2p} \right). \end{aligned}$$

Case 2.  $q = 1/2$ :

$$b_j = 2(j\pi)^{-1} \prod_{i=1}^j \left( \frac{2p - 2j + 1}{2p + 2j - 1} \right).$$

If both  $p$  and  $q$  have fractional part equal to one-half, then  $b_j = 0$  for



$j \geq p + q$ . An attractive feature of this method is that

$$\sum_{j=0}^N b_j \sin(j\theta)$$

can be evaluated without using trigonometric functions as

$$2u_1(x - x^2)^{1/2},$$

where

$$x = \frac{1}{2}(1 + \cos \theta),$$

and  $u_1$  is obtained by application of the backward recurrence relation

$$u_j = b_j + 2(2x - 1)u_{j+1} - u_{j+2}$$

for  $j = N, N - 1, \dots, 1$  with  $u_{N+1} = u_{N+2} = 0$ .

Kalinin (1968) has obtained the expansion

$$[B(p, q)]^{-1} x^{p-1} (1-x)^{q-1} = (pq)^{-1/2} (p+q)^{3/2} \phi(y) \exp \left[ \sum_{j=1}^{\mu-1} W_j p^{-(1/4)j} + R_\mu \right], \quad (25.68)$$

where

$$y = (p+q)(p^{-1} + q^{-1})^{1/2} \left\{ x - \frac{p}{p+q} \right\},$$

$$R_\mu = O(p^{-(1/2)\mu}),$$

$$\phi(y) = (\sqrt{2\pi})^{-1} \exp(-\frac{1}{2}y^2),$$

$$W_j = \frac{y^j}{j} \left( \frac{p}{p+q} \right)^{j/2} \left[ \left( \frac{p}{q} \right)^{j/2} - \left( \frac{q}{p} \right)^{j/2} \right] - \frac{y^{j+2}}{j+2} \left( \frac{p}{p+q} \right)^{(j/2)+1} \left[ \left( \frac{p}{q} \right)^{j/2} - \left( \frac{q}{p} \right)^{j/2+1} \right], \quad \text{for } j \text{ odd,}$$

$$W_{2k} = \frac{y^{2k}}{2k} \left( \frac{p}{p+q} \right)^k \left[ \left( \frac{p}{q} \right)^k + \left( \frac{q}{p} \right)^k \right] - \frac{y^{2k+2}}{2k+2} \left( \frac{p}{p+q} \right)^{k+1} \left[ \left( \frac{p}{q} \right)^k + \left( \frac{q}{p} \right)^{k+1} \right] + \frac{B_{k+1}}{k(k+1)} \left[ \left( \frac{p}{p+q} \right)^k - \left( \frac{p}{q} \right)^k - 1 \right].$$

Kalinin also gives similar (but rather more complicated) expansions for the density functions of gamma, F-, and t-distributions. Because of their complexity we have not reproduced these in the appropriate chapters.

Frankl and Maehara (1990) obtain the following inequalities for the tail areas of a standard beta ( $p, q$ ) distribution [ $\mu = E[X] = p/(p + q)$ ]:

$$\Pr[|X - \mu| > \varepsilon\mu] < 2a_\varepsilon^{-1}(2\pi q\mu)^{-1/2} \exp(-p\varepsilon a_\varepsilon), \quad (25.69a)$$

where

$$a_\varepsilon = \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon - \frac{1}{3}\varepsilon^2,$$

$$\Pr[|X - \mu| > \varepsilon\mu] < 2(\varepsilon a_\varepsilon)^{-1} \log(2q). \quad (25.69b)$$

## 62 Tables

The first edition (1934) of Pearson's tables included values of  $I_x(p, q)$  to seven decimal places for

$$p, q = 0.5(0.5)11.0(1)50 \quad \text{with } p \geq q, \\ x = 0.00(0.01)1.00.$$

The second edition (1968) also includes values of  $I_x(p, q)$  to seven decimal places for

$$p = 11.5(1.0)14.5 \quad \text{with } q = 0.5, \\ x = 0.00(0.01)1.00,$$

and to eight decimal places for  $p = 0.5(0.5)11.0(1)16$ ;  $q = 0.5$ ,  $x = 0.988(0.0005)0.9985$ ,  $0.9988(0.0001)0.9999$ , and for  $q = 1.0(0.5)3.0$ ,  $x = 0.988(0.001)0.999$ . Values to seven decimal places are also given for  $x = 0.975, 0.985$ .

Further values have been calculated by Osborn and Madey (1968). These cover values of  $p, q$  in a region where interpolation using Pearson's tables is difficult. Values of  $B_x(p, q)$  and  $I_x(p, q)$  are to five significant figures for

$$p, q = 0.50(0.05)2.00, \\ x = 0.10(0.01)1.00.$$

The formulas used for calculation were

$$B_x(p, q) = x^p \left[ \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1-q}{p+1}x + \frac{(1-q)(2-q)}{2!(p+2)}x^2 + \dots \right] \quad (25.70a)$$

for  $0 < x \leq \frac{1}{2}$ , and

$$\begin{aligned}
 B_x(p, q) = & B_{0.5}(p, q) + \frac{1 - w^q}{(q)2^q} + \frac{(1 - p)(1 - w^{q+1})}{1!(q + 1)2^{q+1}} \\
 & + \frac{(1 - p)(2 - p)(1 - w^{q+2})}{2!(q + 2)2^{q+2}} + \dots, \quad (25.70b)
 \end{aligned}$$

with  $w = 2(1 - x)$  for  $\frac{1}{2} < x < 1$ .

Percentage points of the beta distribution have been tabulated by Thompson (1941), Clark (1953), Harter (1964), and Vogler (1964). Thompson gave values of  $X(P; p; q)$ , where

$$I_{X(P; p; q)}(p, q) = P$$

to five significant figures for

$$\begin{aligned}
 p &= 0.5(0.5)15.0, 20, 30, 60, \\
 q &= 0.5(0.5)5.0, 6, 7.5, 10, 12, 15, 20, 30, 60, \\
 P &= 0.50, 0.25, 0.10, 0.05, 0.025, 0.01, 0.005.
 \end{aligned}$$

These tables are included in Pearson and Hartley (1954), the third edition (1966) of which contains also values for  $P = 0.0025$  and  $0.001$ , calculated by Amos (1963). Harter (1964) gives  $X(P; p; q)$  to seven significant figures for  $p, q = 1(1)40$ ;  $P = 0.0001, 0.0005, 0.001, 0.005, 0.01, 0.025, 0.05, 0.1(0.1)0.5$ . Vogler (1964) gives  $X(P; p; q)$ , and also  $B(p, q)$ , to six significant figures for

$$\begin{aligned}
 p &= 0.50(0.05)1.00, 1.1, 1.25(0.25)2.50(0.5)5.0, 6, 7.5, 10, 12, 15, 20, 30, 60, \\
 q &= 0.5(0.5)5.0, 6, 7.5, 10, 12, 15, 20, 30, 60, \\
 P &= 0.0001, 0.001, 0.005, 0.01, 0.025, 0.05, 0.1, 0.25, 0.5.
 \end{aligned}$$

Bouver and Bargmann (1975) used a continued fraction expression

$$I_x(p, q) = \{B(p, q)\}^{-1} p^{-1} x^p (1 - x)^q \left\{ \frac{1}{1 -} \frac{c_1}{1 +} \frac{d_1}{1 -} \frac{c_2}{1 +} \frac{d_2}{1 -} \dots \right\}, \quad (25.71)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}
 c_j &= \frac{(p + j - 1)(p + q + j - 1)x}{(p + 2j - 2)(p + 2j - 1)}, \\
 d_j &= \frac{j(q - j)}{(p + 2j - 1)(p + 2j)}.
 \end{aligned}$$

This formula was obtained earlier by Aroian (1941, 1950), and it is referred to in Abramowitz and Stegun (1964), Boardman (1975), Tretter and Walster (1979), and Kennedy and Gentle (1980). Bouver and Bargmann (1975) recommend this formula for use when  $p$  and  $q$  are both within the (very broad) range  $10^{-8}$  to 70,000, and especially when either or both of  $p$  and  $q$  are less than 1. [See Posten (1986) for further details.] However, Kennedy and Gentle (1980) prefer the IMSL (1977) subroutine for calculation of  $I_x(p, q)$  based on Bosten and Battiste (1974).

Recurrence relations, such as Eq. (1.95) of Chapter 1, can be used in calculating  $I_x(p, q)$  from available values for smaller  $p$  and/or  $q$ . Other useful relations are

$$I_x(p+1, q) = I_x(p, q) - \{pB(p, q)\}^{-1} x^p(1-x)^q, \quad (25.72a)$$

$$I_x(p, q+1) = I_x(p, q) + \{qB(p, q)\}^{-1} x^p(1-x)^q. \quad (25.72b)$$

Combining (25.72a) and (25.72b), we obtain

$$I_x(p+1, q+1) = I_x(p, q) + \{B(p, q)\}^{-1} \\ \times \{q^{-1}x^{p+1}(1-x)^q - p^{-1}x^p(1-x)^{q+1}\} \quad (25.73)$$

[Soper (1921); Gleissner (1984)]. Bosten and Battiste (1974) use (25.73), and give explicit details of application in a computer routine. [See also Lee (1989, 1992a, b).]

For the case where  $q$  is less than 1, we get by direct expansion of  $(1-x)^{-(1-q)}$  and term-by-term integration

$$I_x(p, q) = \frac{1}{B(p, q)} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{(1-q)^{[j]}}{j!} \frac{x^{p+j}}{p+j} \\ = \frac{x^p}{B(p, q)} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \left\{ \prod_{i=1}^j (1-qi^{-1}) \right\} \frac{x^j}{p+j} \quad (25.74)$$

[with  $(1-q)^{[j]} = (1-q)(2-q) \cdots (j-q)$ ;  $(1-q)^{[0]} = 1$ ]. The expression

$$I_x(p, q) = \frac{x^p}{pB(p, q)} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{(1-q^*)^{[j]} x^j}{p+j} \frac{1}{j!} \\ + \frac{x^p(1-x)^q}{qB(p, q)} \sum_{j=1}^{[q]} \frac{q^{(j)}}{(p+q)^{(j)}} (1-x)^{-j}, \quad (25.75)$$

where

$$q^* = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } q \text{ is an integer} \\ q - [q] & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

and  $a^{(j)} = a(a-1)\cdots(a-j+1)$  was used by Ludwig (1963) and improved for computation purposes by Bosten and Battiste (1974).

Majumder and Bhattacharjee (1973a, b) applied (25.72a) recursively, obtaining the formula

$$\begin{aligned} I_x(p+j+t, q-1) &= I_x(p, q) - \{pB(p, q)\}^{-1} x^p (1-x)^{q-1} \\ &\times \left[ 1 + \frac{q-1}{p+1} \frac{x}{1-x} \left[ 1 + \frac{q-2}{p+2} \frac{x}{1-x} \right. \right. \\ &\times \left[ 1 + \frac{q-j+1}{p+j-1} \frac{x}{1-x} \left[ 1 + \frac{q-j}{p+j} x \right. \right. \\ &\times \left. \left. \left[ 1 + \cdots \left[ 1 + \frac{p+q+t-2}{p+j+t-1} x \right] \cdots \right] \right. \right. \end{aligned} \quad (25.76)$$

Lee (1992a) carried out a comparison of computing time taken in applying

Aroian's (1941, 1950) continued fraction (25.71),

Bosten and Battiste's (1974) formula (25.75),

Lee's (1989, 1992b) formula (25.73),

Majumder and Bhattacharjee's formula (25.76).

Lee found that the last of these occupied considerably less CPU time (from tests on an IBM 3090 VM/CMS system) than the other three formulas. He remarked, however, that the Bosten and Battiste formula (25.75) is more accessible in the form used in an IMSL (1985) package.

## 7 RELATED DISTRIBUTIONS

The distribution of  $-\log X$ , when  $X$  has the standard beta ( $p, q$ ) distribution (25.2) has been discussed in Section 25.3. Goldfarb and Gentry (1979) [see also Barrett, Normand, and Peleg (1991)] suggest the possible use of log-beta distributions in place of lognormal distributions when fitting data which come from parent distributions which may be positively or negatively skew. As the name indicates,  $Y$  has a log-beta distribution if  $\log Y$  has a beta distribution (i.e.,  $Y$  is distributed as  $e^X$ , where  $X$  has a beta distribution).

Clearly the support of  $Y$  must be over a finite positive interval,  $0 \leq \eta_1 \leq Y \leq \eta_2$ . Then  $X = \log Y$  has a beta  $(p, q)$  distribution over the interval  $(\eta_1, \eta_2)$ , and  $(\log Y - \eta_1)/(\eta_2 - \eta_1) = U$  has a standard beta  $(p, q)$  distribution. The moments can be expressed as

$$\begin{aligned} \mu'_r(Y) &= \frac{e^{r\eta_1}}{B(p, q)} \int_0^1 u^{p-1} (1-u)^{q-1} \exp\{r(\eta_2 - \eta_1)u\} du \\ &= e^{r\eta_1} {}_1F_1(p; p+q; r(\eta_2 - \eta_1)) \end{aligned} \quad (25.77)$$

[where  ${}_1F_1(\cdot)$  is a confluent hypergeometric function; see Chapter 1, Eq. (1.125)]. Further references include Bunz et al. (1987), Chang et al. (1988), Han et al. (1989), and Runyan et al. (1988).

If  $X$  has the beta distribution (25.2), then by the transformation

$$T = \frac{X}{1-X} \quad (25.78)$$

we obtain a distribution with probability density function

$$\begin{aligned} p_T(t) &= \frac{1}{B(p, q)} \left(\frac{t}{1+t}\right)^{p-1} \left(\frac{1}{1+t}\right)^{q-1} \frac{1}{(1+t)^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{B(p, q)} \frac{t^{p-1}}{(1+t)^{p+q}}, \quad t > 0. \end{aligned} \quad (25.79)$$

This is a standard form of **Pearson Type VI** distribution, sometimes called a beta-prime distribution [Keeping (1962)].

It is also known as a beta distribution of the second kind (while the ordinary beta distributions discussed in this chapter are referred to as beta distributions of the first kind.) This distribution and its generalizations are discussed in Chapter 27, Section 6, dealing with the F-distribution. The relationship between the Type VI and beta distributions is exploited in Chapter 27 to express the probability integral of a central F-distribution in terms of an incomplete beta function ratio.

Little work has been done on "Weibullized" beta distributions, obtained by supposing a random variable  $Z$  to be such that (for some  $c$ )  $Z^c$  has a standard beta distribution. It is of course easy to write down the moments of such a distribution, since

$$\mu'_r(Z) = E[Z^r] = E[(Z^c)^{r/c}],$$

and so  $\mu'_r(Z)$  is the  $(r/c)$ th moment of the corresponding beta distribution.

If  $X$  has a power-function distribution (Section 25.1), then  $X^{-1}$  has a Pareto distribution (Chapter 20). *Compound beta* distributions may be formed by ascribing distributions to some or all of the parameters  $p, q, a$  and  $b$  of distribution (25.1). However, such distributions have not been used much in applied statistical work. Continuous distributions for  $p$  and  $q$  usually present analytical difficulties, owing to the presence of the beta function  $B(p, q)$  in (25.1) [or (25.2)]. As a matter of interest, we may note that if we suppose that  $p$  and  $q$  are positive integers and that for  $p + q = s (\geq 2)$  fixed,  $p$  is equally likely to take values  $1, 2, \dots, (s - 1)$ , then the probability density function of  $X$ , given  $p + q = s$ , is

$$p_X(x|s) = \frac{(s - 1) \sum_{p=1}^{s-2} \binom{s-2}{p-1} x^{p-1} (1-x)^{s-2-(p-1)}}{s-1} = 1, \quad (25.80)$$

that is, the distribution is rectangular (Chapter 26).

It follows that *whatever the distribution of  $(p + q)$* , the compound distribution is rectangular if the conditional distribution of  $p$ , given  $(p + q)$ , is discrete rectangular as described above. The *length-biased* distribution corresponding to standard beta  $(p, q)$  is standard beta  $(p - 1, q)$ . [Lingappaiah (1988) contains a discussion.]

Roy, Roy, and Ali (1993) have introduced the binomial mixture of beta distributions (of the first kind) with density function

$$p_X(x|n, p, a, b) = \sum_{r=0}^n \binom{n}{r} p^r (1-p)^{n-r} \frac{x^{(a/2)+r-1} (1-x)^{(b/2)-1}}{B((a/2) + r, b/2)},$$

$0 < x < 1$ . The  $k$ th moment about zero of  $X$  is given by

$$E[X^k] = \sum_{r=0}^n \binom{n}{r} p^r (1-p)^{n-r} \frac{\Gamma((a/2) + r + k) \Gamma((a+b)/2 + r)}{\Gamma((a+b)/2 + r + k) \Gamma((a/2) + r)}$$

from which, in particular, we obtain the mean and variance of  $X$  to be

$$E[X] = \sum_{r=0}^n \binom{n}{r} p^r (1-p)^{n-r} (a + 2r) / (a + b + 2r)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \text{var}(X) &= \sum_{r=0}^n \binom{n}{r} p^r (1-p)^{n-r} (a + 2r)(a + 2r + 2) \\ &\quad \times \{(a + b + 2r)(a + b + 2r + 2)\}^{-1} \\ &\quad - \left\{ \sum_{r=0}^n \binom{n}{r} p^r (1-p)^{n-r} (a + 2r) / (a + b + 2r) \right\}^2. \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, these authors also introduced the binomial mixture of beta distributions (of the second kind) with density function

$$p_X(x|n, p, a, b) = \sum_{r=0}^n \binom{n}{r} p^r (1-p)^{n-r} \frac{x^{(a/2)+r-1}}{B((a/2)+r, (b/2))(1+x)^{((a+b)/2)+r}}$$

$0 < x < \infty.$

The  $k^{\text{th}}$  moment about zero of  $X$  is given by

$$E[X^k] = \sum_{r=0}^n \binom{n}{r} p^r (1-p)^{n-r} \Gamma\left(\frac{a}{2} + r + k\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{b}{2} - k\right) / \left\{ \Gamma\left(\frac{a}{2} + r\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{b}{2}\right) \right\};$$

the mean and variance are, in particular, given by

$$E[X] = (a + 2np)/(b - 2)$$

and

$$\text{var}(X) = \frac{2a(a+b-2)}{(b-2)^2(b-4)} + \frac{4[p\{2(na+nb-2) + np(2na-b-4n)\}]}{(b-2)^2(b-4)}$$

Johnson (1949) has considered the distribution of  $\log[X/(1-X)]$  when  $X$  has distribution (25.2). The moment-generating function of  $\log[X/(1-X)]$  is

$$E[X^t(1-X)^{-t}] = \frac{B(p+t, q-t)}{B(p, q)} = \frac{\Gamma(p+t)\Gamma(q-t)}{\Gamma(p)\Gamma(q)} \quad [\text{cf. (25.63)}],$$

(25.81)

whence the  $r^{\text{th}}$  cumulant is

$$\kappa_r = \psi^{(r-1)}(p) + (-1)^r \psi^{(r-1)}(q). \quad (25.82)$$

Compare with (25.17)' and (25.17)'' in Section 25.3.

Approximating the polygamma functions we obtain (for  $p, q$  large)

$$\beta_1 \doteq p^{-1} + q^{-1} - 4(p+q)^{-1}, \quad (25.83)$$

$$\beta_2 \doteq 3 + 2p^{-1} + 2q^{-1} - 6(p+q)^{-1}.$$



These may be compared with the approximations [derived from (25.15c) and (25.15d)] for the moment ratios of  $X$ :

$$\beta_1(X) \doteq 4(p^{-1} + q^{-1}) - 16(p + q)^{-1}, \quad (25.84)$$

$$\beta_2(X) \doteq 3 + 6(p^{-1} + q^{-1}) - 30(p + q)^{-1}.$$

Ratnaparkhi and Mosimann (1990) provide tables of  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$  for all combinations of  $p, q = 0.1(0.2)0.5, 1, 3, 5(5)20$  with addition of  $q = 25$ . We have already remarked (Section 25.2) that beta distributions can be generated as the distributions of ratios  $X_1/(X_1 + X_2)$  where  $X_1, X_2$  are independent random variables having chi-squared distributions.

If one or both of  $X_1, X_2$  have *noncentral*  $\chi^2$  distributions (Chapter 29), the distribution of the ratio is called a *noncentral beta* distribution [Hodges (1955); Seber (1963)]. These distributions are evidently related to singly or doubly noncentral F-distributions (and will be discussed in Chapter 30) in the same way as beta distributions are related to central F-distributions (see the earlier part of this section).

Pham-Gia and Duong (1989) investigate the generalized three-parameter beta distribution [ $\text{G3B}(\alpha_1, a, ; \lambda)$ ] with pdf,

$$p_Y(y|\alpha_1, \alpha_2; \lambda) = \frac{\lambda^{\alpha_1} y^{\alpha_1-1} (1-y)^{\alpha_2-1}}{B(\alpha_1, \alpha_2)[1 - (1-\lambda)y]^{\alpha_1+\alpha_2}},$$

$$0 \leq y \leq 1; \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \lambda > 0, \quad (25.85)$$

which is the distribution of the ratio  $X_1/(X_1 + X_2)$  where  $X_i$  ( $i = 1, 2$ ) are independent two-parameter gamma  $(\alpha_i, \beta_i)$  random variables (and  $A = \beta_1/\beta_2$ ). It reduces to the standard beta distribution when  $A = 1$ . If  $Y \sim \text{G3B}(\alpha_1, a, ; \lambda)$  then  $(1 - Y) \sim \text{G3B}(\alpha_2, a, ; \lambda^{-1})$ , which is a property similar to the one enjoyed by standard beta distributions. Libby and Novick (1982) studied these distributions in a multivariate setting and used them for fitting utility functions. Chen and Novick (1984) used them as priors for binomial sampling models.

The presence of the parameter  $A$  allows G3B to take a wider variety of shapes than the standard beta distributions. For example,  $\text{G3B}(\alpha, a; A)$  can be positively or negatively skewed depending on the value of  $A$ . In general, for  $0 < A < 1$ , the pdf of  $\text{G3B}(\alpha_1, a, ; \lambda)$  is below that of the corresponding standard beta near zero but crosses the latter to become the greater at  $y_0 = \{1 - \lambda^{\alpha_1/(\alpha_1+\alpha_2)}\}^{-1} - (1-\lambda)^{-1}$ . For  $A > 1$  the reverse is true, with the same crossing point.

Figure 25.3 shows density functions of G3B for some selected values of  $a, ,$  and  $A$ . It can be seen that  $\text{G3B}(\alpha_1, \alpha_2; A)$  and  $\text{G3B}(\alpha_2, \alpha_1; \lambda^{-1})$  are symmetrical about  $y = 0.50$ . For  $a, = a, = \frac{1}{2}$  and  $A = 2.5$ , the G3B is U-shaped with *antimode* at  $y, = \frac{2}{3}$  [ $y, = \frac{1}{2}$  for  $\text{beta}(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$ ]. Also  $\text{G3B}(1, 1; 2.5)$

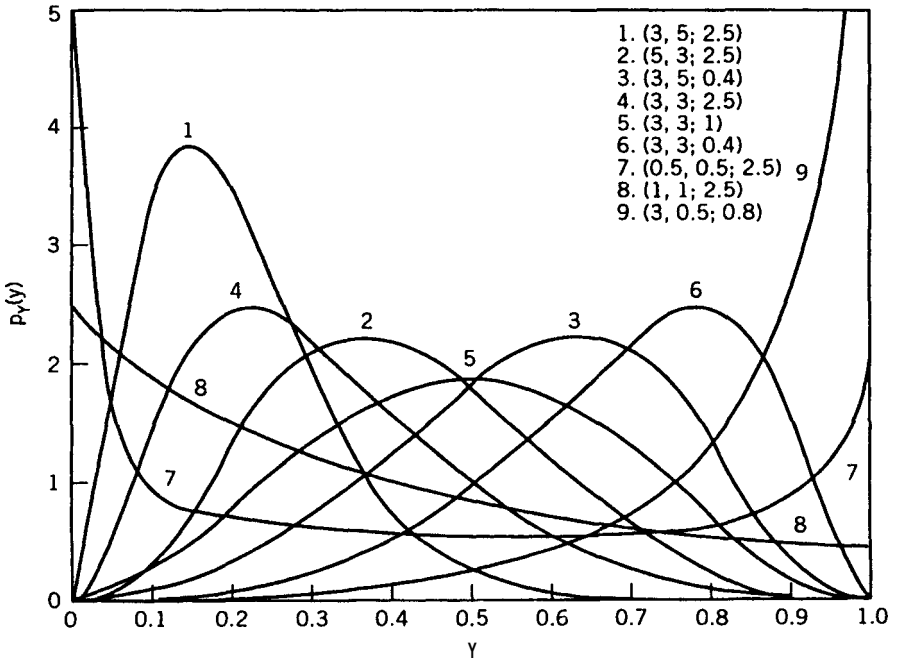


Figure 25.3 Densities of generalized beta distributions  $p_Y(y|\alpha_1, \alpha_2; \lambda)$ . (cf. Figs. 25.1a, b)

is strictly decreasing while beta (1, 1) is the uniform distribution on (0, 1). Finally  $G3B(3, 0.5; 0.8)$  is J-shaped like beta(3, 0.5) but crosses the latter from below near  $y_0 = 0.8704$ .

Volodin (1994) has considered some generalized forms of the beta distribution. The generalized beta random variable  $X$  has its cumulative distribution function to be

$$F_X(x) = \frac{1}{B(\alpha, \beta + \gamma)} \int_0^x z^{\alpha-1} (x-z)^{\beta} (1-z)^{\gamma-1} dz$$

and its probability density function as

$$p_X(x) = \frac{\beta}{B(\alpha, \beta + \gamma)} \int_0^x z^{\alpha-1} (x-z)^{\beta-1} (1-z)^{\gamma-1} dz.$$

The  $k^{\text{th}}$  moment of  $X$  (about 0) is

$$E[X^k] = \frac{\beta}{B(\alpha, \beta + \gamma)} \sum_{i=0}^k \binom{k}{i} B(\alpha + k - i, \beta + \gamma + i) / (\beta + i).$$

If we define  $Y = 1 - X$ , then we have

$$F_Y(y) = 1 - \frac{1}{B(\alpha + \beta, \gamma)} \int_y^1 z^{\gamma-1} (z-y)^\beta (1-z)^{\alpha-1} dz,$$

$$p_Y(y) = \frac{\beta}{B(\alpha + \beta, \gamma)} \int_y^1 z^{\gamma-1} (z-y)^{\beta-1} (1-z)^{\alpha-1} dz,$$

and

$$E[Y^k] = \frac{\beta}{B(\alpha + \beta, \gamma)} B(\alpha + \beta + k, \gamma) B(k + 1, \beta).$$

Note that in the particular case when  $\beta = 0$ , the above distribution becomes a beta distribution.

The following generalization of the beta distribution was suggested by Armero and Bayarri (1994) in connection with marginal **prior/posterior** distribution for parameter  $p$  ( $0 < p < 1$ ) representing traffic intensity in a  $M/M/1$  queue (or, equivalently, the parameter of a geometric distribution  $\Pr\{N = n|\rho\} = (1 - \rho)\rho^n, n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ ). A random variable  $X$  has a Gauss *hypergeometric distribution* with parameters  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$  and  $z$  ( $\alpha > 0, \beta > 0$ ) if it has a continuous distribution with probability density function

$$p_X(x|\alpha, \beta, \gamma, z) = Cx^{\alpha-1}(1-x)^{\beta-1}/(1+zx)^\gamma, 0 \leq x \leq 1,$$

where the normalizing constant  $C$  is given by

$$C^{-1} = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta)} F(\gamma, \alpha; \alpha + \beta; -z).$$

Here,  $F$  represents the Gauss hypergeometric function (see Chapter 1). The  $k^{\text{th}}$  moment (about zero) of  $X$  is

$$E[X^k] = \frac{B(k + \alpha, \beta)}{B(\alpha, \beta)} \cdot \frac{F(\gamma, \alpha + k; \alpha + \beta + k; -z)}{F(\gamma, \alpha; \alpha + \beta; -z)}.$$

The above given Gauss hypergeometric distribution becomes the **beta**( $\alpha, \beta$ ) distribution when either  $\gamma$  or  $z$  equals zero. Some plots of the Gauss hypergeometric density are shown in Fig. 25.4.

The arc-sine distribution [Eq. (25.8)] has been studied by Norton (1975, 1978), Shantaram (1981), and Arnold and Groeneveld (1980), among others.

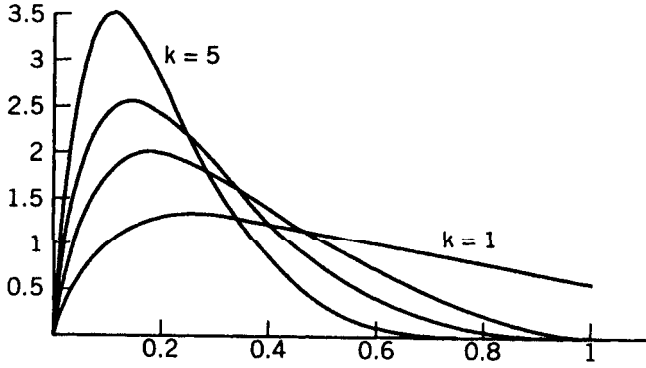


Figure 25.4 Gauss hypergeometric density  $p_X(x|2, k, 3, 2)$  for  $k = 1, 2, 3, 5$

The central moments of the standard arc-sine density,

$$p_U(u) = \frac{(1 - u^2)^{-1/2}}{\pi}, \quad -1 \leq u \leq 1,$$

are

$$\mu_{2j} = \binom{2j}{j} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2j}, \quad j = 1, 2, 3, \dots \tag{25.86}$$

Also for the distribution with the pdf,

$$p_U(u|b) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\pi \sqrt{\left(\frac{2}{b}\right)^2 - x^2}}, & |x| < \left|\frac{2}{b}\right| \\ 0, & |x| \geq \left|\frac{2}{b}\right| \end{cases}, \quad b \neq 0, \tag{25.87}$$

we have [Norton (1975)]

$$\mu_{2j} = b^{-2j} \binom{2j}{j},$$

and these moments characterize the distribution. If  $U$  and  $V$  are i.i.d. uniform  $(-\pi, \pi)$  random variables, then  $\sin U, \sin 2U, -\cos 2U, \sin(U + V)$ , and  $\sin(U - V)$  all have arc-sine distributions.

The following characterizations of the arc-sine distribution are based on the fact that the moments characterize this distribution (because its support is finite):

1. If  $X$  is a symmetric random variable, the random variables  $X^2$  and  $(1 + X)/2$  are identically distributed if and only if  $X$  has the arc-sine distribution (25.8).
2. If  $X$  is a symmetric random variable and  $X^2$  and  $1 - X^2$  are identically distributed, then  $X$  and  $2X\sqrt{1 - X^2}$  are identically distributed if and only if  $X$  has the arc-sine distribution (25.8).
3. If  $X_i$  and  $X_2$  are symmetric i.i.d. random variables and  $X_i^2$  and  $1 - X_i^2$  are identically distributed, then  $X_1^2 - X_2^2$  and  $X_1X_2$  are identically distributed if and only if  $X_i$  have the arc-sine distribution (25.8).

Characterization (1) can be expressed in terms of the fraction of time,  $W$ , spent by a symmetric random walk on the positive side of zero as follows: From (25.8),  $X = 2W - 1$  has density (25.1) Seller (1966) noted that  $W$  is more likely to be near 0 or 1 than to be near  $\frac{1}{2}$ . Indeed, since  $X^2$  and  $W = (1 + X)/2$  are identically distributed, it follows that  $4(W - \frac{1}{2})^2$  and  $W$  are identically distributed. Thus we have for  $t \in (0, 1)$ ,

$$\Pr[W \leq 1 - t] = \Pr\left[|W - \frac{1}{2}| \leq \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{t}\right]. \tag{25.88}$$

For example,  $\Pr\{W \leq 0.011\} = \Pr\{W \geq 0.991\} = \Pr\{0.45 \leq W \leq 0.551\}$ . Shantaram (1981) proved that if  $X$  and  $Y$  are i.i.d. random variables, then  $X + Y$  and  $XY$  are identically distributed if and only if  $X$  has an arc-sine distribution or is one of a certain class of discrete random variables, consisting of two degenerate random variables and for each  $K \geq 2$  a unique random variable whose support consists of  $K$  mass points. A similar result was obtained by Norton (1978).

Patel and Khatri (1978) studied the Lagrangian-beta distribution with the cdf,

$$F_T(t|n, \alpha, \beta, r) = 1 - \sum_{j=0}^{r-1} \frac{\alpha^j}{n + \beta_j} \binom{n + \beta_j}{j} (\alpha t)^{n + \beta_j - j} \tag{25.89}$$

and the pdf,

$$p_T(t|n, \alpha, \beta, r) = \sum_{j=0}^{r-1} n(n + \beta_j)^{-1} \binom{n + \beta_j}{j} \alpha(\alpha t)^j (1 - \alpha t)^{n + \beta_j - j - 1},$$

$$0 \leq \alpha t \leq 1. \tag{25.90}$$

For  $\beta = 1$  we have

$$p_T(t|n, a, 1, r) = \frac{a}{B(n, r)} (\alpha t)^{r-1} (1 - \alpha t)^{n-1}. \quad (25.91)$$

The motivation is as follows. The time between occurrences of a classical negative binomial process (see Chapter 5) follows a beta distribution. Suppose that the process is controlled by the generalized negative binomial (GNB) distribution

$$\Pr[X = x|n, a, t] = \frac{n}{x!} \frac{\Gamma(n + \beta x)}{\Gamma(n + \beta x - x + 1)} (\alpha t)^x (1 - \alpha t)^{n + \beta x - x},$$

$$x = 0, 1, \dots \quad (25.92)$$

[Jain and Consul (1971), Chapter 6, Section 1] where  $t \geq 0$  is the time between occurrences of the GNB process,  $0 \leq \alpha t \leq 1$ . Then the cdf of the random variable  $T$ , which is the time until the  $r$ th occurrence of the GNB process, is given by (25.89).

Patel and Khatri (1978) calculated the moments of this distribution. In particular,

$$E[T] = \frac{n}{\alpha} \sum_{x=0}^{r-1} \frac{1}{(n + \beta x)(n + \beta x + 1)} \quad (25.93a)$$

and

$$E[T^2] = \frac{2}{n\alpha} E[T] + \frac{2}{\alpha^2} \sum_{x=0}^{r-1} \frac{x(n - \beta) - 2}{(n + \beta x)(n + \beta x + 1)(n + \beta x + 2)}. \quad (25.93b)$$

( $E[T]$  decreases as  $\beta$  increases.) They also provide graphical representation of the distribution.

Recently, Fosam and Sapatinas (1994) have presented some regression type characterization results for the Pareto and power-function distributions, basing them on beta random variables, thus relating these distributions.

## 8 PRODUCTS, QUOTIENTS, AND DIFFERENCES OF INDEPENDENT BETA VARIABLES

Early results on the distribution of products of independent beta variables were obtained by Kotlarski (1962). Since then a small 'cottage industry' has developed in statistical literature on these topics. A few examples are presented here.

Since the product of  $k$  independent random variables with standard beta  $(p_i, q_i)$  distributions ( $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$ ) has finite range of variation (from 0 to 1), its distribution is determined by its moments. With  $k = 2$ ,  $Y = X_1 X_2$  has a beta distribution if and only if

$$\mu'_r = \frac{\Gamma(p_1 + r)\Gamma(p_1 + q_1)}{\Gamma(p_1)\Gamma(p_1 + q_1 + r)} \cdot \frac{\Gamma(p_2 + r)\Gamma(p_2 + q_2)}{\Gamma(p_2)\Gamma(p_2 + q_2 + r)}, \quad r = 1, 2, \dots, \tag{25.94a}$$

can be expressed in the form

$$\mu'_r = \frac{\Gamma(P + r)\Gamma(p + q)}{\Gamma(p)\Gamma(p + q + r)} \quad \text{for all } r \tag{25.94b}$$

For the requirement of cancelling of terms in the numerator and denominator of (25.94a) means that either  $p_1 = p_2 + q_2$  or  $p_2 = p_1 + q_1$ . In the first case we have  $p = p_2, q = q_1 + q_2$  in (24.94b); in the second case  $p = p_1, q = q_1 + q_2$ . Generally the  $r$ th moment of  $Y = \prod_{i=1}^k X_i$  is

$$\mu'_r(Y) = \prod_{i=1}^k \left\{ \frac{\Gamma(p_i + r)\Gamma(p_i + q_i)}{\Gamma(p_i)\Gamma(p_i + q_i + r)} \right\}, \quad r = 1, 2, \dots, \tag{25.95a}$$

and  $Y$  has a standard beta  $(p, q)$  distribution if and only if (25.94b) is satisfied. This condition is satisfied if

$$P_i = p + \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} q_j \quad \text{with} \quad \sum_{j=1}^0 q_j = 0.$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \mu'_r(Y) &= \left\{ \frac{\Gamma(p + r)\Gamma(p + q_1)}{\Gamma(p)\Gamma(p + q_1 + r)} \right\} \cdot \left\{ \frac{\Gamma(p + q_1 + r)\Gamma(p + q_1 + q_2)}{\Gamma(p + q_1)\Gamma(p + q_1 + q_2 + r)} \right\} \dots \\ &\quad \times \left\{ \frac{\Gamma(p + q_1 + \dots + q_{k-1} + r)\Gamma(p + q_1 + \dots + q_k)}{\Gamma(p + q_1 + \dots + q_{k-1})\Gamma(p + q_1 + \dots + q_k + r)} \right\} \\ &= \frac{\Gamma(p + r)\Gamma(p + q_1 + \dots + q_k)}{\Gamma(p)\Gamma(p + q_1 + \dots + q_k + r)} \end{aligned} \tag{25.95b}$$

so that  $Y$  has a standard beta  $(p, \sum_{i=1}^k q_i)$  distribution. [See, e.g., Fan (1991) for a different analysis leading to this result.]

Using the Mellin transform [Chapter 1, Eq. (1.166)], Steece (1976) showed that the pdf of  $Y = X_1 X_2$  is

$$\begin{aligned}
 p_Y(y) &= \frac{\Gamma(p_1 + q_1)\Gamma(p_2 + q_2)}{\Gamma(p_1)\Gamma(p_2)\Gamma(q_1 + q_2)} y^{p_1-1}(1-y)^{q_1+q_2-1} \\
 &\quad \times {}_2F_1(q_2, p_1 - p_2 + q_1; q_1 + q_2; 1 - y) \\
 &= \frac{\Gamma(p_1 + q_1)\Gamma(p_2 + q_2)}{\Gamma(p_1)\Gamma(p_2)\Gamma(q_2)\Gamma(p_1 - p_2 + q_1)} \\
 &\quad \times \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\Gamma(q_2 + n)\Gamma(p_1 - p_2 + q_1 + n)}{n!\Gamma(q_1 + q_2 + n)} \\
 &\quad \times y^{p_1-1}(1-y)^{q_1+q_2+n-1}, \tag{25.96a}
 \end{aligned}$$

where  ${}_2F_1(\cdot)$  is the (Gauss) hypergeometric function (defined in Chapter 1, Section A6). The cdf of  $Y$  is

$$\begin{aligned}
 F_Y(y) &= \frac{\Gamma(p_1 + q_1)\Gamma(p_2 + q_2)}{\Gamma(p_1)\Gamma(p_2)\Gamma(p_1 - p_2 + q_1)} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\Gamma(q_2 + n)\Gamma(p_1 - p_2 + q_1 + n)}{n!\Gamma(p_1 + q_1 + q_2 + n)} \\
 &\quad \times I_y(p_1, q_1 + q_2 + n), \tag{25.96b}
 \end{aligned}$$

where  $I_y(\cdot)$  denotes the incomplete beta function ratio [defined in Chapter 1, Eq. (1.91)]. [Note that different formulas are obtained by interchanging  $(p_1, q_1)$  with  $(p_2, q_2)$ . See also Fan (1991).]

Exact formulas for the distributions of products and quotients of independent standard beta  $(p_i, q_i)$  random variables  $X_1, \dots, X_k$  can be derived straightforwardly (though somewhat tediously) provided at least one parameter of each variable is an integer. Dennis (1994) has recently derived closed form expressions (involving infinite series) for the cumulative distribution function and probability density function of the product of  $k$  independent beta random variables when  $p_i$  and  $q_i$  ( $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$ ) are real-valued parameters. Through these expressions, he has also illustrated the computation of the distribution of the product of three independent beta variables.

The joint pdf of  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  is

$$\begin{aligned}
 p_{X_1, X_2}(x_1, x_2) &= \{B(p_1, q_1)B(p_2, q_2)\}^{-1} \\
 &\quad \times x_1^{p_1-1} x_2^{p_2-1} (1-x_1)^{q_1-1} (1-x_2)^{q_2-1}, \\
 &\quad 0 < x_1, x_2 < 1. \tag{25.97}
 \end{aligned}$$



If  $q_1$  and  $q_2$  are integers, (25.97) can be rewritten as

$$p_{X_1, X_2}(x_1, x_2) = \{B(p_1, q_1)B(p_2, q_2)\}^{-1} \times \sum_{t_1=0}^{q_1-1} \sum_{t_2=0}^{q_2-1} (-1)^{t_1+t_2} \binom{q_1-1}{t_1} \binom{q_2-1}{t_2} x_1^{p_1+t_1-1} x_2^{p_2+t_2-1}.$$

To evaluate the cdfs of  $V = X_1 X_2$  and  $W = X_2/X_1$ , we need to integrate functions of form  $x_1^{c_1} x_2^{c_2}$  over regions  $x_1 x_2 \leq v$ ,  $x_2/x_1 \leq w$ , respectively. We have

$$J_v(c_1, c_2) = \iint_{x_1 x_2 \leq v} x_1^{c_1} x_2^{c_2} dx_2 dx_1 = \begin{cases} \frac{(c_1 + 1)v^{c_2+1} - (c_2 + 1)v^{c_1+1}}{(c_1 + 1)(c_2 + 1)(c_1 - c_2)}, & c_1 \neq c_2, \\ \frac{v^{c+1}}{(c + 1)^2} \{1 - (c + 1) \log v\}, & c_1 = c_2 = c, \end{cases} \tag{25.98a}$$

and

$$J_w^*(c_1, c_2) = \iint_{x_2/x_1 \leq w} x_1^{c_1} x_2^{c_2} dx_2 dx_1 = \begin{cases} \frac{w^{c_2+1}}{(c_2 + 1)(c_1 + c_2 + 1)}, & w < 1, \\ \frac{1}{(c_1 + 1)(c_2 + 1)} - \frac{w^{-c_1-1}}{(c_1 + 1)(c_1 + c_2 + 1)}, & w > 1. \end{cases} \tag{25.98b}$$

Then

$$F_V(v) = \frac{1}{B(p_1, q_1)B(p_2, q_2)} \sum_{t_1=0}^{q_1-1} \sum_{t_2=0}^{q_2-1} (-1)^{t_1+t_2} \binom{q_1-1}{t_1} \binom{q_2-1}{t_2} \times J_v(p_1 + t_1 - 1, p_2 + t_2 - 1) \tag{25.99a}$$

and

$$F_W(w) = \frac{1}{B(p_1, q_1)B(p_2, q_2)} \sum_{t_1=0}^{q_1-1} \sum_{t_2=0}^{q_2-1} (-1)^{t_1+t_2} \binom{q_1-1}{t_1} \binom{q_2-1}{t_2} \times J_w^*(p_1 + t_1 - 1, p_2 + t_2 - 1). \tag{25.99b}$$

Note that

$$\frac{dJ_t(c_1, c_2)}{dv} = \begin{cases} \frac{v^{c_2} - v^{c_1}}{c_1 - c_2} & \text{if } c_1 \neq c_2, \\ -\frac{v}{c+1} \log v & \text{if } c_1 = c_2 = c \end{cases} \quad (25.100a)$$

and that

$$\frac{dJ_w^*(c_1, c_2)}{dw} = \begin{cases} \frac{w^{c_2}}{c_1 + c_2 + 2} & \text{if } w < 1, \\ \frac{w^{-c_1-2}}{c_1 + c_2 + 2} & \text{if } w > 1. \end{cases} \quad (25.100b)$$

For the case where  $p_i$  and  $q_i$  are both integers, for all  $i = 1, \dots, k$ , the book by Springer (1978) presents the following formula for the pdf of  $Y = \prod_{i=1}^k X_i$ :

$$p_Y(y) = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=0}^{g_i-1} \frac{K_{ij}}{(g_i - 1 - j)! j!} y^{d_i-1} (-\log y)^{g_i-j-1}, \quad (25.101)$$

where  $d_i$  is the number of different integers occurring with multiplicity  $g_i$  in the collection of integers

$$p_h - 1, p_h, p_h + 1, \dots, p_h + q_h - 2 \quad \text{for } h = 1, 2, \dots, k,$$

and  $m$  is the number of different multiplicities. (Note that there are  $q_h$  members of the  $h$ th set, so  $\sum_{i=1}^m g_i d_i = \sum_{h=1}^k q_h$ .) The constants  $K_{ij}$  are determined by the recurrence relation

$$K_{ij} = \sum_{s=0}^{j-1} \sum_{t=1}^m (-1)^{s+1} \frac{\binom{j-1}{s} s! g_t}{(d_t - d_i)^{s+1}} K_{i, j-1-s}, \quad j > 0, \quad (25.102)$$

with

$$K_{i0} = \sum_{\substack{t=1 \\ t \neq i}}^m (d_t - d_i)^{-g_t}.$$

For example, if we have  $k = 3$  and  $p_1 = 9, q_1 = 3; p_2 = 8, q_2 = 3; p_3 = 4, q_3 = 2$ , the collection of integers is

$$8, 9, 10; 7, 8, 9; 3, 4.$$

The integers have the frequencies

$$g_1 = 1 \quad \text{for } 3, 4, 7, \text{ and } 10,$$

$$g_2 = 2 \quad \text{for } 8 \text{ and } 9.$$

Hence  $m = 2, d_1 = 4, d_2 = 2$ ,

$$K_{10} = (2 - 4)^{-2} = \frac{1}{4}, \quad K_{20} = (4 - 2)^{-1} = \frac{1}{2},$$

$$K_{21} = -\frac{\binom{0}{0} 0! 1}{(4 - 2)} K_{20} = -\frac{1}{4}.$$

The pdf is

$$p_Y(y) = \frac{3960}{7} y^3 - 1980 y^4 + 99,000 y^7 + (374,220 + 356,400 \log y) y^8 - (443,520 - 237,600 \log y) y^9 - \frac{198,000}{7} y^{10}. \quad (25.103a)$$

It is shown in Figure 25.5.

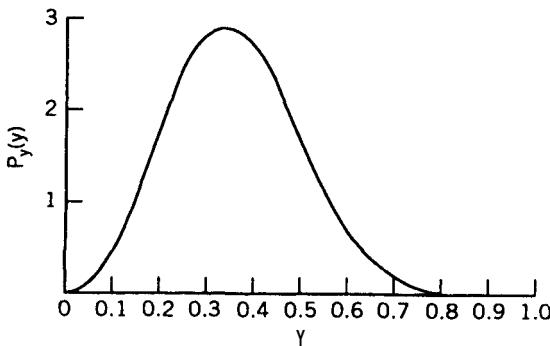


Figure 25.5 Probability density function of product of three beta variables

Pederzoli (1985), using a factorial expansion of ratios of gamma functions, obtained

$$p_Y(y) = \left\{ \prod_{i=1}^k B(p_i, q_i) \right\}^{-1} \sum_{r_1=0}^{\infty} \cdots \sum_{r_k=0}^{\infty} \prod_{j=1}^k \frac{(1 - q_j)^{[r_j]}}{r_j!} \\ \times \left\{ \sum_{h=1}^k a_h y^{p_h + r_h - 1} \right\}, \quad 0 < y < 1, \quad (25.103b)$$

where

$$a_h = \prod_{j=1}^k (p_i - p_j + q_i - q_h)^{-1}$$

and  $a^{[m]} = a(a+1) \cdots (a+m-1)$  (provided that  $p_j + s_i \neq p_i + s_j$  for all  $i \neq j$ , where the  $s_i$ 's are nonnegative integers). The  $p_i$ 's and  $q_i$ 's need not be integers but must be positive.

If all of the  $q_i$ 's are positive integers, (25.103b) becomes

$$p_Y(y) = \left\{ \prod_{i=1}^k B(p_i, q_i) \right\}^{-1} \sum_{r_1=0}^{q_1-1} \cdots \sum_{r_k=0}^{q_k-1} (-1)^{r_1 + \cdots + r_k} \\ \times \left\{ \sum_{h=1}^k a_h y^{p_h + r_h - 1} \right\}. \quad (25.103c)$$

Tang and Gupta (1984) obtained

$$p_Y(y) = \prod_{j=1}^k \left\{ \frac{\Gamma(p_j + q_j)}{\Gamma(q_j)} \right\} y^{p_k - 1} (1 - y)^{f(k) - 1} \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} a_{r,k} (1 - y)^r, \quad (25.103d)$$

where  $f(k) = \sum_{j=1}^k q_j$  and the  $a_{r,k}$ 's satisfy the recursive relations

$$a_{r,k} = \frac{\Gamma(f(k-1) + r)}{\Gamma(f(k) + r)} \sum_{s=0}^r (p_k + q_k - p_{k-1})^{[s]} a_{r-s, k-1},$$

with  $a_{0,1} = 1/\Gamma(q_1)$ . For  $k = 2$ , we obtain Steece's formula (25.96a).

Fan (1991) has provided an approximation to the distribution of  $Y$  in which  $Y$  has an approximate standard beta  $(p, q)$  distribution with

$$p = S(T - S^2)^{-1}, \\ q = (1 - S)(S - T)(T - S^2)^{-1},$$

where

$$S = \prod_{i=1}^k \left( \frac{p_i}{p_i + q_i} \right) \quad \text{and} \quad T = \prod_{i=1}^k \left\{ \frac{p_i(p_i + 1)}{(p_i + q_i)(p_i + q_i + 1)} \right\}.$$

This approach ensures that the approximation has the correct expected value and variance. He compared the first ten (!) moments of the approximate with those of the exact distribution over a considerable range, with quite good results. For example, with  $k = 3$ ,  $(p_1, p_2, p_3) = (778, 43, 23)$  and  $(q_1, q_2, q_3) = (567, 57, 12)$ , the approximate eighth moment is  $0.10554 \times 10^{-5}$ , while the exact value is  $0.103925 \times 10^{-5}$ .

Pham-Gia and Turkkan (1993) have derived the distribution of the difference  $D = X_1 - X_2$ . The pdf of  $D$  is

$p_D(d)$

$$= \begin{cases} B(p_2, q_1)d^{q_1+q_2-1}(1-d)^{p_2+q_1-1} \frac{F_1(q_1, p_1 + p_2 + q_1 + q_2 - 2, 1 - p_1; p_2 + q_1; 1 - d, 1 - d^2)}{A} & \text{for } 0 \leq d \leq 1, \\ B(p_1, q_2)(-d)^{q_1+q_2-1}(1+d)^{p_1+q_2-1} \frac{F_1(q_2, 1 - p_2, p_1 + p_2 + q_1 + q_2 - p_1 + q_2; 1 - d^2, 1 + d)}{A} & \text{for } -1 \leq d \leq 0, \end{cases} \quad (25.103e)$$

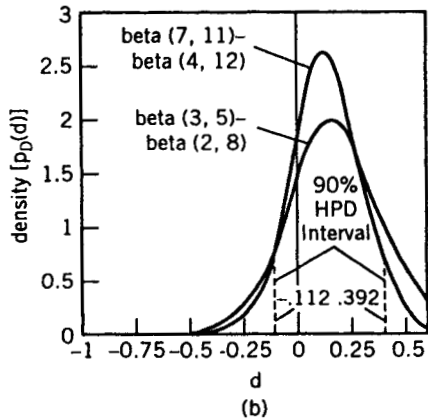
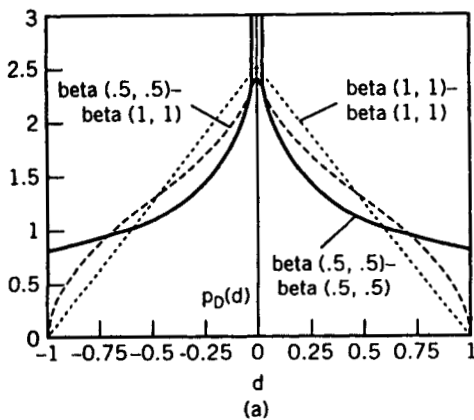


Figure 25.6 Probability density functions of differences between independent beta variables

where  $A = B(p_1, q_1)B(p_2, q_2)$  and

$$F_1(a, b_1, b_2; c; x_1, x_2) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{a^{i+j}}{c^{i+j}} \frac{b_1^{[i]} b_2^{[j]} x_1^i x_2^j}{i! j!}$$

is the first Appell hypergeometric function in two variables; here,  $a^{[b]} = a(a+1) \cdots (a+b-1)$ . ( $F_1$  is convergent for  $|x_1| < 1$  and  $|x_2| < 1$ .) The distributions can have a great variety of shapes depending on the values of  $(p_i, q_i)$ ,  $i = 1, 2$ . Some cases are presented in Figures 25.6a, b [Pham-Gia and Turkkan (1993)].

Recently, Pham and Turkkan (1994) derived the distribution of sum of two independent beta random variables. Let  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  be independently distributed as beta with parameters  $(p_1, q_1)$  and  $(p_2, q_2)$ , respectively. Then, they have shown that the density function of  $S = X_1 + X_2$  is as follows:

$$p_S(s) = \begin{cases} B^*(p_1, q_1; p_2, q_2) s^{p_1+p_2-1} (1-s)^{q_1-1} F_1\left(p_2, 1-q_1, 1-q_2; p_1+p_2; \frac{s}{s-1}, s\right), & 0 \leq s < 1, \\ B(p_1+q_2-1, p_2+q_1-1) / \{B(p_1, q_1)B(p_2, q_2)\}, & s = 1, \\ B^*(q_2, p_2; q_1, p_1) (s-1)^{p_2-1} (2-s)^{q_1+q_2-1} F_1\left(q_1, 1-p_1, 1-p_2; q_1+q_2; 2-s, \frac{2-s}{1-s}\right), & 1 < s \leq 2, \end{cases} \quad (25.104)$$

where  $B^*(p_1, q_1; p_2, q_2) = \Gamma(p_1+q_1)\Gamma(p_2+q_2) / \{\Gamma(q_1)\Gamma(q_2)\Gamma(p_1+p_2)\}$ . Compare this density with that of the difference D presented in Eq. (25.103e).

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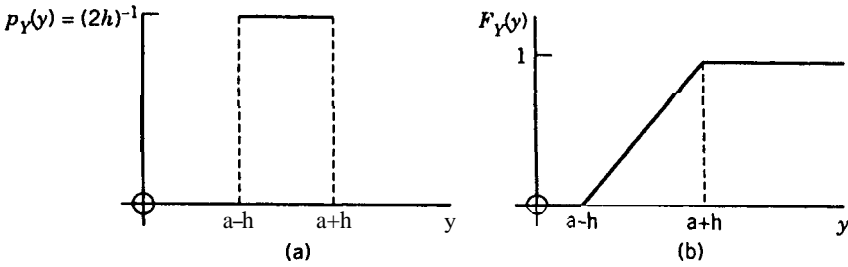


Figure 26.1 (a) Uniform density function; (b) Uniform distribution function.

The linear transformation transforming the uniform  $(0, \theta)$  back to uniform  $(a - h, a + h)$  is  $Y = a - h + (2h/\theta)Z$ . One may similarly define the uniform distribution on the interval  $(a, a + \theta)$  with probability density function

$$p_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\theta}, & a \leq x \leq a + \theta, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The *standardized* uniform distribution (having mean 0 and standard deviation 1) has the pdf

$$p_U(u) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}}, \quad -\sqrt{3} \leq u \leq \sqrt{3}. \tag{26.3}$$

We will refer to the uniform distribution over  $(0, 1)$ , with the pdf

$$p_R(r) = 1, \quad 0 \leq r \leq 1, \tag{26.4}$$

as the *standard* uniform distribution. If  $R$  is uniformly distributed between 0 and 1, then

$$U = \sqrt{3}(2R - 1)$$

has the standardized uniform distribution.

## 2 GENESIS

The uniform distribution (26.1), with  $a = 0$  and  $h = \frac{1}{2} \times 10^{-k}$ , is often used to represent the distribution of **roundoff** errors in values tabulated to the nearest  $k$  decimal places. Of course, if the rounding were applied to figures expressed in a binary scale, we would have  $h = 2^{-(k+1)}$ .

Nagaev and Mukhin (1966) have investigated conditions under which a rectangular distribution of **roundoff** errors is to be expected. In particular they have shown that if  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  are independent random variables with characteristic functions  $E[e^{itX_j}] = \phi_j(t)$ , then for any positive integer  $a$ , a necessary and sufficient condition for

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pr \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^n X_j - a \left[ \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{X_j}{a} \right] \leq x \right\} = \frac{x}{a}, \quad 0 \leq x < a,$$

is that

$$\prod_{j=1}^n \phi_j \left( \frac{2\pi k}{a} \right) = 0 \quad \text{for } k = \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$$

In the expression above  $[\sum_{j=1}^n X_j/a]$  means "integral part of  $\sum_{j=1}^n X_j/a$ ," so  $\sum_{j=1}^n X_j - a[\sum_{j=1}^n X_j/a]$  is the **roundoff** error of  $\sum_{j=1}^n X_j$ , in units of  $a$ . The condition  $\prod_{j=1}^n \phi_j(2\pi k/a) = 0$  is certainly satisfied if all  $X$ 's have the same distribution and if  $|\phi_j(2\pi k/a)| < \eta_k < 1$  for infinitely many  $j$  and some  $\eta_k < 1$ . Holewijn (1969) showed that if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^n \phi_j(2\pi k) = 0, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots,$$

then the fractional part sequence is uniformly distributed "almost certainly" — that is, nearly all the variables  $\{X_j - [X_j]\}$  have unit uniform distributions.

A rectangular distribution also arises as a result of the probability integral transformation [see Quesenberry (1986)]. If  $X$  is a continuous variable and  $\Pr\{X \leq x\} = F(x)$ , then  $F(X)$  is distributed according to (26.1) with  $a = h = 1$  or equivalently according to (26.4). This result [first employed by Fisher (1932)] has been applied in a number of ways [Durbin (1961), Pearson (1938), Stephens (1966)] in various techniques for combining results of statistical tests (see Section 9).

### 3 HISTORICAL REMARKS

The uniform distribution is so natural a conception that it has probably been in use far more than can be inferred from printed records. Among such records we may mention, in particular, descriptions of the use of the distribution by Bayes (1763) and Laplace (1812).

Some particular historical interest attaches to the distribution of the sum of independent random variables, each having the same rectangular distribution. Seal (1950) gives an extensive bibliography on this subject (see also Section 26.9).

### 4 GENERATING FUNCTIONS, MOMENTS, AND ORDER STATISTICS

The expected value of a random variable  $Y$  with probability density function (26.1) is  $a$ . The distribution is symmetrical, and all odd central moments are zero. If  $r$  is even, the  $r$ th central moment of  $Y$  is

$$\mu_r(Y) = (r + 1)^{-1} h^r. \tag{26.5}$$

It follows that  $\text{var}(Y) = (1/3)h^2$  and that  $\sqrt{\beta_1} = \alpha_3 = 0$  and  $\beta_2 = \alpha_4 = 1.8$ . For the standard uniform distribution (26.4) the expected value is  $1/2$  and the variance is  $1/12$  (corresponding to  $h = 1/2$ ).

Formula (26.5) gives the values of the  $r$ th absolute central moment for all positive  $r$ . In particular, the mean deviation is  $h/2$ . Hence for this distribution

$$\frac{\text{Mean deviation}}{\text{Standard deviation}} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} = 0.866. \tag{26.6}$$

The characteristic function is  $E[e^{itY}] = e^{ita}\{\sin(th)/th\}$ . The moment-generating function is  $E[e^{tY}] = e^{ta}\{\sinh(th)/th\} = \frac{1}{2}(th)^{-1}\{e^{t(a+h)} - e^{t(a-h)}\}$ . The cumulants are

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \kappa_1 = a, \kappa_r = 0 \quad (r > 1 \text{ and odd}), \\ \kappa_r = \frac{2^{r-1} h^r B_r}{r} \quad (r \text{ even}) \end{array} \right. \tag{26.7}$$

( $B_r$  is the  $r$ th Bernoulli number; see Chapter 1, Section A9).

The information-generating function [( $u - 1$ )th frequency moment] is

$$T(u) = (2h)^{1-u}. \tag{26.8}$$

The entropy is  $-T'(1) = \log(2h)$ . The characteristic function of the uniform (0, 1) variable can be written

$$\phi_X(t) = \frac{e^{it} - 1}{it} = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{(it)^j}{(j + 1)!}. \tag{26.9}$$

The moment-generating function of this variable is  $(e^t - 1)/t$ . More generally, the moment-generating function of uniform (0,  $\theta$ ) random variable is

$$\frac{e^{\theta t} - 1}{\theta t} = e^{\theta t/2} \frac{\sinh(\theta t/2)}{\theta t/2}.$$

[Note that Haight (1961) gave an erroneous expression.]

For the uniform distribution on the interval  $(a, a + \theta)$ , the **Lorenz** curve is given by

$$L(u) = \{au + (\theta u^2/2)\} / \{a + (\theta/2)\},$$

and the Gini index is  $\theta\{3(\theta + 2a)\}$ .

The pdf's of order statistics  $X'_1 \leq X'_2 \leq \dots \leq X'_n$  of random samples of size  $n$  from the uniform distribution (26.1) can be computed from the general formula [Chapter 12, Eq. (12.14)], which gives:

$$p_{X'_1, \dots, X'_n}(x_1, \dots, x_n) = n!(2h)^{-n}, \quad a - h \leq x_1 \leq \dots \leq x_n \leq a + h, \quad (26.10a)$$

or, for the standard uniform distribution ( $a = h = \frac{1}{2}$ )

$$p_{X'_1, \dots, X'_n}(x_1, \dots, x_n) = n!, \quad 0 \leq x_1 \leq \dots \leq x_n \leq 1. \quad (26.10b)$$

The distribution of  $X'_j$  corresponding to (26.10b) is

$$p_{X'_j}(x) = \frac{n!}{(j-1)!(n-j)!} x^{j-1} (1-x)^{n-j}, \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1. \quad (26.11a)$$

This is a standard beta ( $j, n - j + 1$ ) distribution (cf. Equation (25.2) in Chapter 25).

The joint distribution of  $X'_i$  and  $X'_j$  is

$$p_{X'_i, X'_j}(x_i, x_j) = \frac{n!}{(i-1)!(j-i-1)!(n-j)!} x_i^{i-1} (x_j - x_i)^{j-i-1} (1-x_j)^{n-j}, \quad 0 \leq x_i \leq x_j \leq 1. \quad (26.11b)$$

We have

$$E[X_i^{r'}(1-X_j)^s] = \frac{i^{r'}(n-j+1)^{s'}}{(n+1)^{r'+s'}} \\ \text{with } a^{[b]} = a(a+1)\dots(a+b-1), \quad (26.11c)$$

whence

$$E[X'_j] = (n+1)^{-1}j, \\ \text{var}(X'_j) = (n+1)^{-2}(n+2)^{-1}j(n+1-j), \\ \text{cov}(X'_i, X'_j) = (n+1)^{-2}(n+2)^{-1}i(n+1-j).$$

From the joint distribution of the least and greatest order statistics ( $X'_1$  and  $X'_n$ ) the distribution of range ( $W = X'_n - X'_1$ ) can be shown to have the pdf

$$p_w(w) = n(n - 1)w^{n-2}(1 - w), \quad 0 < w < 1. \quad (26.12)$$

So  $W$  has a beta ( $n - 1, 2$ ) distribution.

The distribution of the ratio  $W_{ij} = X'_i/X'_j$  ( $i < j$ ) corresponding to (26.11b) is just that of the  $i$ th order statistic in a sample of size  $j - 1$  from a standard uniform distribution; this is given by (26.11a) with  $n$  replaced by  $j - 1$  and  $j$  replaced by  $i$ , namely a standard beta ( $i, j - i$ ) distribution. The distribution of the product  $Y_{ij} = X'_i X'_j$  ( $i < j$ ) based on a random sample of size  $n$  from the uniform (0, 1) distribution, can be derived from (26.11b). The pdf is

$$p_Y(y) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \frac{n!}{(i-1)!(n-j)!(j-i)!} y^{(j/2)-1} (1-y)^{j-i} \sum_{k=0}^{n-j} (-1)^k \binom{n-j}{k} y^{k/2} \\ \times {}_2F_1(j-i, \frac{1}{2}(j+k) - i + 1; j-i+1; 1-y), & 0 < y < 1 \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases} \quad (26.13a)$$

For  $i = 1$  and  $j = n$  we have

$$p_Y(y) = \begin{cases} ny^{(n/2)-1} (1-y)^{n-1} {}_2F_1(n-1, \frac{1}{2}n-1; n; 1-y), & 0 < y < 1, \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere,} \end{cases} \quad (26.13b)$$

where the function  ${}_2F_1$  is as defined in Chapter 1, Section A6.

### 5 CHARACTERIZATIONS

Characterizations of the uniform distribution often provide useful tools for constructing goodness-of-fit statistics, simulation of complex statistical procedures, and testing the quality of pseudorandom number generators. Many characterizations of the uniform distribution can be traced to the corresponding characterizations of the exponential distribution (Chapter 19) since the simple monotone transformation  $X = e^{-Y}$  of a standard exponential random variable  $Y$  yields a uniform (0, 1) random variable.

For example, Hamdan (1972) has shown that  $X$  is uniformly distributed over  $(0, 1)$  if and only if

$$E[-\log(1 - X)|X > y] = -\log(1 - y) + 1 \quad \text{for } y \in [0, 1). \quad (26.14a)$$

Pusz (1988) provides alternative characterizations of the type

$$E[h(X)|X \geq x] = g(x), \quad (26.14b)$$

where  $h(\cdot)$  and  $g(\cdot)$  are certain known functions.

A random variable  $X$  has the uniform distribution on  $(0, 1)$  if and only if for any  $a \in (0, 1)$

$$E[X^{-\alpha}|X < y] = \frac{1}{1 - \alpha} y^{-\alpha} \quad \text{for } y \in (0, 1). \quad (26.14c)$$

[Compare characterizations of the exponential distributions (Chapter 19, Section 8) by the properties of conditional expectations. Galambos and Kotz (1978) provide additional details.] Moreover there are several characterizations of the uniform distributions on abstract spaces which would be more appropriately designated for spherical uniform distributions [see, e.g., Brown, Cartwright, and Eagleson (1986)]. Herer (1993) obtained the following characterization: A real random variable  $X$ , with finite support, has a (continuous or discrete) uniform distribution if and only if, for any  $a < b$  in its support,  $E[X|a \leq X \leq b] = \frac{1}{2}(a + b)$  when  $Pr[a \leq X \leq b] > 0$ . The same result follows from the paper by Das Gupta, Goswami, and Rao (1993) to be discussed below. In fact, Ouyang (1993) (see below), Herer (1993), and Das Gupta, Goswami, and Rao (1993) all provide, independently, essentially the same characterization. Popular characterizations are based on correlations of order statistics.

Terrell (1983) and Abdelhamid (1985), among others, provide the following characterization: Let  $X'_1 < X'_2$  be the order statistics of a sample of size 2 from a continuous distribution with finite variance. Then the correlation between  $X'_1$  and  $X'_2$  is less or equal to  $\frac{1}{2}$ , with equality if and only if  $F$  is a uniform distribution. Papathanasiou (1990) similarly established that, in a sample of size 2,  $\text{cov}(X'_1, X'_2) \leq \frac{1}{3}\text{var}(X)$ , with equality holding if and only if the population distribution is uniform; also see Ma (1992). Balakrishnan and Balasubramanian (1993) showed that this characterization is equivalent to the one based on the inequality  $E[X'_2 - E(X)] \leq (\frac{1}{3}\text{var}(X))^{1/2}$  due to Hartley and David (1954) and Gumbel (1954). Székely and Móri (1985) extended Terrell's result by showing that

$$\text{corr}(X'_r, X'_s) \leq \left( \frac{r(n+1-s)}{s(n+1-r)} \right)^{1/2}, \quad 1 \leq r < s \leq n, \quad (26.15)$$

with equality if and only if the population distribution is uniform. The proofs provided by **Terrell**, **Abdelhamid**, and **Székely** and **Mori** are all different, but all use the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality. These characterizations show that for the uniform distribution the order statistics are the most highly correlated.

The structure of the expected spacings between consecutive order statistics was utilized for a characterization of the uniform distribution by **Saleh** (1976) [implicit in **Cox and Lewis** (1966)]. This states that under appropriate conditions on  $G(u) = \inf_x \{x: F(x) \geq u\}$  and finiteness of the mean ( $\xi$ ), the property  $E[V_i] = \sigma/(n + 1)$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , where  $V_i = X'_i - X'_{i-1}$  ( $X'_0 = \xi - \sigma/2$ ;  $X'_{n+1} = \xi + \sigma/2$ ) characterizes the uniform distribution on  $[\xi - \frac{1}{2}\sigma, \xi + \frac{1}{2}\sigma]$ . Applications of this characterization are plentiful in problems related to queueing theory.

**Huang, Arnold, and Ghosh** (1979) show that for a superadditive continuous cdf  $F(\cdot)$  [satisfying  $F(x + y) \geq F(x) + F(y)$  for all  $x, y$  and  $x + y$  in the support of  $F$ ], identical distribution of  $V$ , and  $V_k$  for some  $k = 2, \dots, n$  implies that  $F$  is uniform. If superadditivity is replaced by bounded support and absolute continuous and monotonic density then this modified condition also characterizes uniform distributions [**Ahsanullah** (1989)]. [Compare with corresponding characterizations of the exponential distribution (Chapter 19, Section 8) under somewhat more restrictive conditions.] Note that for a Bernoulli random variable with probability of success  $n/(n + 1)$ ,  $V_1 \stackrel{d}{=} V_2$  and so some smoothness condition on  $F$  is essential.

**Shimizu and Huang** (1983) show that, in the class of absolutely continuous distributions, uniform  $(0, \theta)$  distributions are characterized by the property

$$X_j - X_j \stackrel{d}{=} X_j ; . \tag{26.16}$$

**Lin** (1986) showed that for a sample of size 2 from any distribution with finite second moment,

$$\{E[X'_2]\}^2 \leq (\frac{4}{3})E[X^2], \tag{26.17}$$

with equality if and only if  $F$  is degenerate at  $x = 0$  or uniform on  $[0, c)$  with  $c = \{3E[X^2]\}^{1/2} > 0$ . [The proof involves the explicit expression of  $E[X'_2]$  in terms of  $F^{-1}(\cdot)$ :

$$E[X'_2] = \int_0^1 F^{-1}(t)2t dt$$

and utilization of the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality.]



Lukacs (1979) characterizes uniform distribution over  $[-1, 1]$  by the property that the expected values of

$$S = \frac{1}{n(n-1)} \sum_{j \neq k}^n (2X_j^3 X_k - 4X_j X_k - 6X_j^2 X_k^2) + \frac{4}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n X_j^2 \quad (26.18a)$$

and

$$T = \frac{1}{n(n-1)} \sum_{j \neq k}^n (X_j^4 X_k - 2X_j^2 X_k^3) + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n (2X_j^3 - X_j) \quad (26.18b)$$

do not depend on  $X_1 + \dots + X_n$ . The proof involves solution of complicated differential equations for the characteristic functions.

Das Gupta, Goswami, and Rao (1993) have discovered that the conditional expectation property,

$$\Pr[E[X_1 | X'_1, X'_n] = \frac{1}{2}(X'_1 + X'_n)] = 1 \quad (26.19)$$

for some  $n \geq 3$ , implies that the underlying distribution is either uniform over an interval or discrete uniform (see Chapter 6, Section 10.1) supported on a set of equispaced points. The main idea is that the above cited property, involving conditional expectation, determines the structure of the support of the underlying distribution.

We now note some characterizations based on inequalities among the moments, and also the so-called Chernoff-type inequalities (which are variants of the Chebyshev Type I inequalities) due to Sumitra and Kumar (1990). If  $X$  has an absolutely continuous distribution, with support  $[-1, 1]$ , and a symmetric density with its only mode at  $x = 0$ , then

$$E[X^2] \leq \sup \left\{ \frac{E[g(X)]^2}{E[g'(X)]^2} \right\} \leq (8\pi^{-2})E[|X|] \quad (26.20)$$

where the supremum is taken over all even *convex* functions on  $[-1, 1]$  with  $g(0) = 0$ . The upper bound is achieved if and only if  $X$  has a uniform distribution on  $[-1, 1]$ . As is the case for many characterizations based on inequalities, the final step in the proof of (26.20) is provided by the **Cauchy-Schwarz** inequality.

A characterization useful for testing goodness-of-fit was introduced by Seshadri and Shuster (1971) in an unpublished manuscript. It asserts that under appropriate regularity conditions, a necessary and sufficient condition that i.i.d. random variables  $Y_1, Y_2$  possess a uniform  $[0, \theta]$  distribution for some  $\theta > 0$  is that  $T = \min(Y_1, Y_2) / \max(Y_1, Y_2)$  is uniformly distributed on  $(0, 1)$  [see, e.g., Kotz (1974) for more details].

Some remarkable characterizations are related to the following property, noted by Feller (1966): If  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are mutually independent random variables assuming values in  $(0, 1)$  and  $X_1$  has a uniform  $(0, 1)$  distribution, then the fractional part of  $(X_1 + X_2)$ —namely  $Z = X_1 + X_2 - [X_1 + X_2]$ , where  $[a]$  is an integer part of  $a$ —also has a uniform  $(0, 1)$  distribution if and only if  $X_2$  has a uniform  $(0, 1)$  distribution. [Stapleton (1963) discusses this problem in a more abstract setting.] Arnold and Meeden (1976) point out that these assumptions imply that  $X_1$  and  $Z$  are mutually independent.

Goldman (1968) showed that if  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are *i.i.d.* and  $Z [= (X_1 + X_2) \bmod 1]$  and  $X_1$  have the same distribution, then  $X_1$  has a uniform distribution on  $(0, 1)$  or a discrete rectangular distribution on a set of values  $\{0, m^{-1}, 2m^{-1}, \dots, (m - 1)m^{-1}\}$  for some  $m$ . An alternative version of this result, useful in operations research, is that if  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are independent random variables on  $(0, 1)$  with the same cdf  $F$ , the distribution of  $[(X_1 + X_2) \bmod 1]$  is  $F$  if and only if  $X_1$  (and  $X_2$ ) are uniform on  $(0, 1)$  (discrete or continuous, depending on  $F$ ). Arnold and Meeden (1976) obtained a similar result. Driscoll (1978) generalized the result to variables  $X_1$  and  $X_2$ , which are mutually independent, each having a positive pdf over a finite interval  $[a, b]$ , and

$$Z = \begin{cases} X_1 + X_2 - a & \text{for } 2a \leq X_1 + X_2 < a + b, \\ X_1 + X_2 - b & \text{for } a + b < X_1 + X_2 \leq 2b \end{cases} \quad (26.21)$$

$[a = 0, b = 1]$  gives  $Z = (X_1 + X_2) \bmod 1$ . This result has been a source for examples of sets of three identically distributed variables that are **pairwise** but not jointly independent.

For a continuous random variable  $X$  defined on the interval  $[a, b]$ , Ouyang (1993) shows that  $E[X|X > c] = (b + c)/2$  for  $a < c < b$  iff  $X$  is uniform. Similarly, for a sample of size  $n$ , the condition  $E[X'_{k+1} - X'_k | X'_k = c] = (b - c)/(n - k + 1)$  for any  $1 \leq k < n$  and  $a < c < b$ , has also been shown by Ouyang (1993) to be a characterization of the uniform distribution. There is considerable overlap among papers discussing this type of characterizations. Somewhat different results that are useful in random number generation were obtained by Deng and George (1992). These results are summarized below.

Let  $U$  and  $V$  be independent random variables distributed over  $(0, 1)$  with continuous pdfs. Then statements (26.22a)–(26.22d) are equivalent:

$$U \sim U(0, 1), \quad (26.22a)$$

$$W_1 = \min\left(\frac{U}{W}, \frac{1 - U}{1 - V}\right) \sim U(0, 1), \quad \text{and independent of } V, \quad (26.22b)$$

$$W_2 = |U - V| \left(\frac{\Delta}{V} + \frac{1 - \Delta}{1 - V}\right) \sim U(0, 1), \quad \text{and independent of } V, \quad (26.22c)$$

where  $A = I_{(V > U)}$ , the indicator function of  $V > U$ , and

$$W_3 = (U + V) \bmod 1 \sim U(0, 1), \text{ and independent of } V. \quad (26.22d)$$

These results provide a partial answer to the important problem of determining the family of functions  $g$  for which the uniformity of  $U$  and  $V$  implies (and is implied by) uniformity of  $g(U, V)$  if  $U$  and  $V$  are independent random variables having continuous pdfs with support  $(0, 1)$ . (This is relevant to construction of methods for improving pseudorandom number generators to make them give results closer to standard uniform distributions.)

### 6 ESTIMATION OF PARAMETERS

If observations in a random sample are represented by independent random variables  $Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n$  each with distribution (26.1), the likelihood function is equal to  $(2h)^{-n}$  for  $a - h \leq \min(Y_1, \dots, Y_n) \leq \max(Y_1, \dots, Y_n) \leq a + h$ . This likelihood is maximized by making  $h$  as small as possible. In other words, the maximum likelihood estimator of  $h$  is

$$\hat{h} = \frac{1}{2} [\text{range}(Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n)]. \quad (26.23)$$

The maximum likelihood estimator of  $a$  is therefore

$$\hat{a} = \frac{1}{2} [\min(Y_1, \dots, Y_n) + \max(Y_1, \dots, Y_n)] = \text{midrange}(Y_1, \dots, Y_n). \quad (26.24)$$

In fact the best linear unbiased estimators of  $h$  and  $a$  are

$$(n + 1)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{a}, \quad (26.25a)$$

respectively. The variances of these estimators are

$$2h^2(n - 1)^{-1}(n + 2)^{-1} \quad \text{and} \quad 2h^2(n + 1)^{-1}(n + 2)^{-1}, \quad (26.25b)$$

respectively.

The estimators  $\hat{a}$  and  $\hat{h}$  are uncorrelated but not independent. In fact their joint probability density function is

$$p_{\hat{a}, \hat{h}}(a', h') = \left(\frac{2}{h'}\right)^{n-1} n(n - 1)h'^{n-2},$$

$$0 \leq h' \leq h, 0 \leq a' - a - h \leq a' - a + h' \leq 2h. \quad (26.26)$$

The distribution of  $\hat{h}$  alone is

$$p_{\hat{h}}(h') = 2\left(\frac{2}{h}\right)^{n-1} n(n-1)h'^{n-2}(h-h'), \quad 0 \leq h' < h. \quad (26.27)$$

The distribution of  $\hat{a}$  alone is

$$p_{\hat{a}}(a') = \left(\frac{f}{h}\right)^{n-1} n\left(\frac{1}{2} - \left|a' - a - \frac{1}{2}\right|\right)^{n-2}, \quad a-h \leq a' \leq a+h. \quad (26.28)$$

Cumulative probabilities  $\Pr[\hat{h} < H]$ ,  $\Pr[\hat{a} < A]$  are easily evaluated from these probability density functions. The arithmetic mean  $\bar{Y}$  and the median  $\tilde{Y}$  are also unbiased estimators of the parameter  $a$ .

It was noted by Carlton (1946) that

$$\frac{\text{var}(\hat{a})}{\text{var}(\bar{Y})} = \frac{6n}{(n+1)(n+2)}$$

and that

$$\frac{\text{var}(\tilde{Y})}{\text{var}(\bar{Y})} = \frac{3n}{(n+2)}.$$

If  $n$  is allowed to increase,  $\text{var}(\hat{a})/\text{var}(\bar{Y})$  tends to zero and  $\text{var}(\tilde{Y})/\text{var}(\bar{Y})$  tends to 3. Consequently the "efficiency" of the mean is zero, and the median is only one-third as efficient as the mean. (However, since  $\hat{a}$  does not have a normal limiting distribution, the concept of efficiency cannot be strictly applied here.)

It will be noted that these estimators are functions of order statistics (in fact of the smallest and greatest values). The theory of order statistics for random samples from rectangular distributions (see Section 26.4) is remarkably simple. This has led to the proliferation of methods of estimation based on various combinations of order statistics. We will discuss some of these in the next section.

The maximum likelihood estimator of the population standard deviation in the case of a uniform distribution is the sample range divided by  $2\sqrt{3}$  (equivalently, sample semirange divided by  $\sqrt{3}$ ):

$$\hat{\sigma} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}}(Y_n - Y_1),$$

which is also an adaptive robust estimator [Harter (1978)]. Sometimes the

Table 26.1 Comparison of  $\hat{N}'$  and  $\hat{N}'''$ 

$n$	Mean Square Error Ratio	Closeness
1	1.333	0.571
2	1.029	0.530
3	1.001	0.505
4	1.002	0.509
5	1.008	0.519
10	1.036	0.542
20	1.061	0.556
$\infty$	1.094	0.571

Source: Johnson (1950).

lower limit ( $a - h$ ) is known, and it is desired to estimate  $2h$ . Such a case was achieved as a continuous approximation to a problem proposed by Schrodinger [referred to by Geary (1944)], who called for estimation of a number  $N$  (positive integer) given  $n$  independent integers, each equally likely to be  $1, 2, 3, \dots, N$ . Geary's (1944) model regards  $N$  as a parameter that can take any positive value and assumes the observed values  $Y_i$  to be uniformly distributed continuous variables:

$$p_{Y_i}(y) = N^{-1}, \quad 0 \leq y \leq N, \quad (26.29)$$

which is (26.1) with  $a = \frac{1}{2}N$ ,  $h = \frac{1}{2}N$ .

Johnson (1950) discussed four estimators of  $N$ , each depending only on  $\max(Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n) = Y'_n$ :

1. The maximum likelihood estimator  $Y'_n$ .
2. The minimum mean square error estimator  $\hat{N}' = (n + 2)Y'_n / (n + 1)$ .
3. The unbiased estimator  $\hat{N}'' = (n + 1)Y'_n / n$ .
4. The closest estimator  $\hat{N}''' = 2^{1/n} Y'_n$ .

Table 26.1 shows how Johnson's **method of comparison** affects the assessment of "relative merit" of estimators  $\hat{N}'$  and  $\hat{N}'''$ . The second **column shows** the ratio of the mean square error of  $\hat{N}'''$  to the mean square error of  $\hat{N}'$ ; the "closeness criterion" is expressed as

$$\Pr\left[|\hat{N}''' - N| < |\hat{N}' - N|\right].$$

Clearly,  $\hat{N}'''$  is always a closer estimator of  $N$  than  $\hat{N}'$ , but  $\hat{N}'$  has the smaller mean square error.

Gibbons (1974) investigated three estimators of the parameter  $\theta$  in a population uniformly distributed over  $(0, \theta)$ :

1. The maximum likelihood estimator  $\hat{\theta}$  which is the largest sample observation  $X'_n$  with moments

$$E[\hat{\theta}] = \frac{n\theta}{(n+1)},$$

$$\text{var}(\hat{\theta}) = \frac{n\theta^2}{(n+1)^2(n+2)}. \quad (26.30a)$$

2. The unbiased estimator  $\tilde{\theta} = (n+1)X'_n/n$  with moments

$$E[\tilde{\theta}] = \theta,$$

$$\text{var}(\tilde{\theta}) = \frac{\theta^2}{n(n+2)}. \quad (26.30b)$$

3. The symmetric estimator  $\theta^* = X'_1 + X'_n$  with moments

$$E[\theta^*] = \theta,$$

$$\text{var}(\theta^*) = \frac{2\theta^2}{(n+1)(n+2)}. \quad (26.30c)$$

She found that the probabilities of relative errors of the estimators  $\hat{\theta}$  and  $\theta^*$ , given by

$$\Pr\left[\left|\frac{\hat{\theta} - \theta}{\theta}\right| < \varepsilon\right] \quad \text{and} \quad \Pr\left[\left|\frac{\theta^* - \theta}{\theta}\right| < \varepsilon\right],$$

respectively, are the same  $[= 1 - (1 - \varepsilon)^n]$  for  $0 < \varepsilon < 1$ . Gibbons and Litwin (1974) studied simultaneous estimation of the parameters  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  in the uniform density (26.1)—namely of  $(\alpha - h)$  and  $(\alpha + h)$  in (26.1).

The simultaneous maximum likelihood estimators  $\hat{\alpha} = Y'_1$  and  $\hat{\beta} = Y'_n$  are jointly sufficient, consistent, and complete for  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , but they are only asymptotically unbiased estimators. The marginal distributions of these estimators are quite skewed, with modes at the end points of the interval  $(\alpha, \beta)$ , respectively. Gibbons and Litwin suggest using the linear unbiased uniformly

minimum variance estimators given by

$$\hat{\alpha}' = \frac{nY'_1 - Y'_n}{n - 1} \tag{26.31a}$$

and

$$\hat{\beta}' = \frac{nY'_n - Y'_1}{n - 1}, \tag{26.31b}$$

which are consistent and locally symmetric, that is,  $p_{\hat{\alpha}'}(\alpha + \delta) = p_{\hat{\alpha}'}(\alpha - \delta)$  and  $p_{\hat{\beta}'}(\beta + \delta) = p_{\hat{\beta}'}(\beta - \delta)$  provided that  $\delta/(\beta - \alpha) \rightarrow 0$ . They concluded that the expected value of the maximum absolute error [where the maximum absolute error of a pair of estimators  $\hat{\theta}_1, \hat{\theta}_2$  is defined as  $e(\hat{\theta}_1, \hat{\theta}_2) = \max(|(\hat{\theta}_1 - \alpha)/(\beta - \alpha)|, |(\hat{\theta}_2 - \beta)/(\beta - \alpha)|)$ ] for estimators  $\hat{\alpha}', \hat{\beta}'$  is considerably smaller for all  $n$  than the corresponding expected value for estimators  $Y_1, Y_n$ , due to unbiasedness and local symmetry. The limiting values as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  are  $(0.5 + 4e^{-2})/(n + 1) = 1.04/(n + 1)$  and  $1.5/(n + 1)$ , respectively.

A numerical example of simultaneous confidence regions for  $(\alpha, \beta)$  with confidence coefficient of at least 0.95, based on the  $(Y'_1, Y'_n)$  and  $(\hat{\alpha}', \hat{\beta}')$  sets of estimators, respectively, is presented in Figure 26.2, corresponding to  $n = 20, Y'_1 = 10$ , and  $Y'_n = 50$ . Note that the region includes the "impossible" sample values  $Y'_1 < \alpha$  and  $Y'_n > \beta$ .

Rukhin, Kuo, and Dey (1990) studied minimax estimation of the scale parameter  $h$  of the uniform distribution (26.1) on the interval where both  $h$  and  $a$  are unknown parameters. A version of the complete sufficient statistic

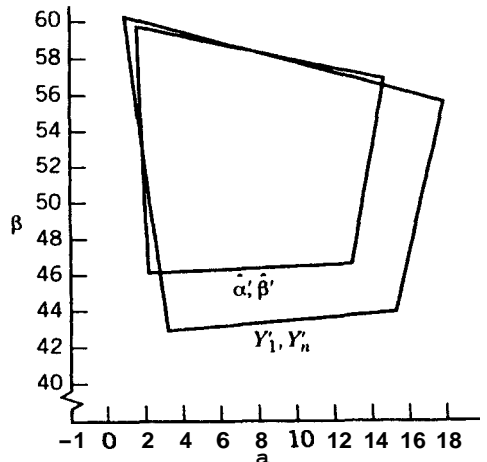


Figure 26.2 Confidence regions for  $(\alpha, \beta)$  based on  $(\hat{\alpha}', \hat{\beta}')$  and on  $(Y'_1, Y'_n)$ .

for this distribution is  $(Y, S)$  with

$$Y = \frac{1}{2} \left( \max_i Y_i + \min_i Y_i \right) = \frac{1}{2} (Y'_n + Y'_1),$$

$$S = \max_i Y_i - \min_i Y_i = Y'_n - Y'_1, \quad (26.32)$$

and an estimator (under a quadratic loss function) of the form  $\delta(Y, S) = c_0 S [1 - g(Y/S)]$ , where  $g$  is a symmetric nonnegative function (under a quadratic loss function). This is a minimax estimator provided  $\theta \mathbf{I} g(z) \mathbf{I} D \leq 1/(2^{n+2} - 1)$ , where  $D$  is a constant and subject to some additional, rather cumbersome, conditions on  $g(\cdot)$ .

Uniform distributions thus form a location-scale family admitting a two-dimensional sufficient statistic for their two parameters. However, the best equivariant estimator (of the form above) can be shown to be inadmissible. Rukhin, Kuo, and Dey (1990) provide an explicit expression for a  $g(z)$  that yields a minimax estimator:

$$g(z) = \begin{cases} D & \text{for } -0.5 \leq z \leq 0.5, \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere.} \end{cases} \quad (26.33)$$

Fan (1991) notes that the statistics

$$T_k = \frac{Y'_{k+1} + Y'_{k+2} + \cdots + Y'_{n-k}}{n - 2k} \quad (26.34a)$$

and

$$H_k = \frac{Y'_1 + Y'_2 + \cdots + Y'_k + Y'_{n-k+1} + Y'_{n-k+2} + \cdots + Y'_n}{2k},$$

$$k = 1, \dots, \left[ \frac{n}{2} \right], \quad (26.34b)$$

are each unbiased estimators of the population mean  $(\frac{1}{2}\theta)$  for the uniform distribution over the interval  $(0, \theta)$ , and, for even  $n (= 2s)$ ,

$$\text{var}(H_1) < \text{var}(H_2) < \cdots < \text{var}(H_s) < \text{var}(\bar{X}) < \text{var}(T_1) < \text{var}(T_2) \\ < \cdots < \text{var}(T_{s-1}).$$

Móri (1983) [improving on an approach developed by Vincze (1979)] showed that for any unbiased estimator  $\bar{a}$  of  $a$  based on random samples of



size  $n$  from distribution (26.1),

$$\liminf_{c \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2c} \int_{-c}^c \text{var}(\bar{a}|a) da \geq \frac{2h^2}{(n+1)(n+2)}.$$

In this way a lower bound is attained for "average variance" of  $a$ , using the estimator

$$a^* = \frac{1}{2}(Y'_1 + Y'_n) \quad [\text{cf. (26.24)}]. \quad (26.35a)$$

Nikulin (1991) observed that  $a^*$  and

$$h^* = \frac{1}{2}(n-1)^{-1}(n+1)(Y'_n - Y'_1) \quad (26.35b)$$

are minimum variance unbiased estimators of  $a$  and  $h$ , respectively. We have

$$\text{var}(a^*) = 2(n+1)^{-1}(n+2)^{-1}h^2, \quad (26.36a)$$

$$\text{var}(h^*) = 2(n-1)^{-1}(n+2)^{-1}h^2, \quad (26.36b)$$

and

$$\text{cov}(a^*, h^*) = 0. \quad (26.36c)$$

Joó and Szabó (1992) present a discussion of the accuracy of  $a^*$  for general symmetrical distributions. If  $a$  is known, we use the statistic

$$Z = \min(|Y'_1 - a|, |Y'_n - a|), \quad (26.37)$$

which has the pdf

$$p_Z(z) = nh^{-n}z^{n-1}, \quad 0 < z.$$

The minimum variance unbiased estimator of  $h$  is

$$h^{**} = (1 + n^{-1})Z. \quad (26.38)$$

Note that

$$\text{var}(h^{**}) = n^{-1}(n+2)^{-1}h^2, \quad (26.39)$$

which is less than half of  $\text{var}(h^*)$ .

Eltessi and Pal (1992) investigate estimation of the minimum and the maximum of the scale parameters  $0, \theta_2$  of two uniform  $(0, \theta_j)$  ( $j = 1, 2$ ) distributions. Let  $X_{1j}, \dots, X_{jn}$  ( $j = 1, 2$ ) represent values from independent

random samples of size  $n$  from uniform  $(0, \theta_j)$ , and define  $\theta_{(L)} = \min(\theta_1, \theta_2)$ ,  $\theta_{(U)} = \max(\theta_1, \theta_2)$ . The statistic  $X'_{jn} = \max(X_{j1}, \dots, X_{jn})$  has the pdf

$$p_{X'_{jn}}(x) = \left(\frac{n}{\theta_j}\right) \left(\frac{x}{\theta_j}\right)^{n-1}, \quad 0 \leq x \leq \theta_j, \quad j = 1, 2. \quad (26.40)$$

Let  $Z_{(L)} = \min(X'_{1n}, X'_{2n})$  and  $Z_{(U)} = \max(X'_{1n}, X'_{2n})$ . There are no unbiased estimators of  $\theta_{(L)}$  and  $\theta_{(U)}$  that are functions of only  $Z_{(L)}$  and  $Z_{(U)}$  [unless  $\theta_1 = \theta_2 (= \theta_{(L)} = \theta_{(U)})$ ]. The estimators

$$\bar{\theta}_{(\phi)} = \frac{2(n+1)(2n+1)}{n\{4n+2g(\phi)-1\}} Z_{(\phi)}, \quad (\phi = (L, U)), \quad (26.41)$$

with  $g(L) = 1$ ,  $g(U) = 2$ , are "minimax<sup>v</sup>-biased estimators of  $\theta_{(L)}, \theta_{(U)}$ , respectively, that minimize the maximum values of the proportional bias:

$$\left| E \left[ \frac{\bar{\theta}_{(\phi)}}{\theta_{(\phi)}} - 1 \right] \right| \quad \text{over} \quad 0 \leq \frac{\theta_{(L)}}{\theta_{(U)}} \leq 1, \quad \text{where as above } \phi = (L, U).$$

Estimators minimizing the maximum risk are

$$\frac{2(n+2)}{2n+1} Z_{(\phi)}, \quad (\phi = (L, U)), \quad (26.42)$$

which appear to perform better than the other estimators for  $n \leq 5$  and  $\theta_1/\theta_2 = 0.1(0.1)0.9$ .

## 7 ESTIMATION USING ORDER STATISTICS — CENSORED SAMPLES

The variances and covariances of ordered variables  $Y'_1 \leq Y'_2 \leq \dots \leq Y'_n$  corresponding to a random sample of size  $n$  from (26.1) are given in (26.11c). These formulas make it possible to obtain best linear unbiased estimators of  $a$  and  $h$ . Such estimators were discussed by Lloyd (1952), Sarhan (1955), and Sarhan and Greenberg (1959). Some of their results are summarized below.

If the smallest  $r_1$ , and largest  $r_2$  values (out of a random sample of total size  $n$ ) are omitted, the best linear unbiased estimator of  $a$  is

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{a}^* = & \frac{1}{2} [(n - 2r_2 - 1) (\text{Least observed value}) \\ & + (n - 2r_1 - 1) (\text{Greatest observed value})] \\ & \times (n - r_1 - r_2 - 1)^{-1}. \end{aligned} \quad (26.43a)$$

The best linear unbiased estimator of  $h$  is

$$\hat{h}^* = \frac{1}{2}(n+1) [( \text{Greatest observed value} ) - ( \text{Least observed value} )] \\ \times (n - r_1 - r_2 - 1)^{-1}. \quad (26.43b)$$

The variances of these estimators are

$$\text{var}(\hat{a}^*) = h^2 [(r_1 + 1)(n - 2r_2 - 1) + (r_2 + 1)(n - 2r_1 - 1)] \\ \times (n + 1)^{-1} (n + 2)^{-1} (n - r_1 - r_2 - 1)^{-1}, \quad (26.44a)$$

$$\text{var}(\hat{h}^*) = h^2 (r_1 + r_2 + 2)(n + 2)^{-1} (n - r_1 - r_2 - 1)^{-1}. \quad (26.44b)$$

The correlation between  $\hat{a}^*$  and  $\hat{h}^*$  is

$$(r_2 - r_1) \left[ \frac{n + 1}{(r_1 + r_2 + 2) \{ (r_1 + 1)(n - 2r_2 - 1) + (r_2 + 1)(n - 2r_1 - 1) \}} \right]^{1/2}. \quad (26.45)$$

It will be noted that we again use only the least and greatest of all the observed values (just as when all the sample values are available).

By putting  $r_1 = 0$ , the special case of censoring only the largest  $r_2$  values is obtained. In this case

$$\hat{a}^* = \frac{1}{2} [(n - 2r_2 - 1)(\text{Least observed value}) \\ + (n - 1)(\text{Greatest observed value})] \\ \times (n - r_2 - 1)^{-1} \quad (26.46a)$$

and

$$\hat{h}^* = \frac{1}{2}(n+1) [( \text{Greatest observed value} ) - ( \text{Least observed value} )] \\ \times (n - r_2 - 1)^{-1}. \quad (26.46b)$$

The corresponding estimator of the lower limit of the range of variation is

$$\hat{a}^* - \hat{h}^* = \frac{1}{2} [2(n - r_2)(\text{Least observed value}) \\ - 2(\text{Greatest observed value})] (n - r_2 - 1)^{-1}.$$

Putting  $r_2 = 0$ , the special case of censoring only the  $r_1$  smallest values is obtained.

## 8 TABLES OF RANDOM NUMBERS

A set of numbers 0 to 9 chosen independently of each other, with each number equally likely to be any one of the ten digits 0–9, is known as a table of random numbers. Although the distribution corresponding to the individual recorded number is a discrete rectangular distribution (Chapter 6, Section 10.1), good approximations to samples from (continuous) rectangular distributions are obtainable by combining several integers together and applying an appropriate linear transformation. For example, taking groups of four numbers, adjoining a 5 at the right-hand end, and dividing by 100,000 gives a good approximation to random samples from a standard uniform distribution (over the interval 0 to 1). The best-known published sets of random numbers are (in chronological order):

**Tippett (1927)**

Kendall and Babington Smith (1938, 1940)

Rand Corporation (1955)

Clark (1966).

At present, tables of random numbers have been largely supplanted by random number generators [see, e.g., Devroye (1986) and Section 11].

By combining uniformly distributed random variables in various ways, a number of other distributions can be built up. For example, if  $Y$  has a standard rectangular distribution (over the interval 0 to 1) then  $-2\log Y$  is distributed as  $\chi^2$  with two degrees of freedom (see the beginning of Section 26.9). Additional examples are given in Marsaglia (1961).

Dharmadhikari [cited in Troutt (1991)] notes that given the Laplace density (Chapter 24)

$$p_X(x) = \frac{1}{2} \exp(-|x|), \quad -\infty < x < \infty,$$

the ordinate  $p_X(X)$ , considered as a random variable (the so-called vertical density function) is uniform. The same is true for the standard exponential density  $p_X(x) = e^{-x}$  ( $0 < x$ ). Similarly for the uncorrelated bivariate normal density [Troutt (1991)]

$$p_{X_1, X_2}(x_1, x_2) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(x_1^2 + x_2^2)\right\},$$

the ordinate  $p_{X_1, X_2}(X_1, X_2)$ , considered as a random variable, is uniform  $[0, 1/(2\pi)]$  providing an intuitive interpretation of the Box-Muller method for generating normal variables (Chapter 13, Section 9). (At the time of writing, extension to a general multivariate setting remains an unproven conjecture.)

## 9 RELATED DISTRIBUTIONS

As we mentioned in Chapter 25, the rectangular distribution is a special form of beta distribution. If  $X$  is rectangularly distributed over  $(0, 1)$ , according to (26.4), then  $Z = -\log X$  has the exponential distribution (Chapter 19)

$$p_Z(z) = e^{-z}, \quad z > 0, \quad (26.47)$$

[and conversely, if  $Z^*$  has a standard exponential distribution,  $X = \exp(-Z^*)$  has a standard uniform distribution]. That is,  $Z$  is distributed as  $\chi^2$  with two degrees of freedom (Chapter 18). This relationship is used in the construction of certain methods for the combination of tests. Fisher (1932) proposed that values of independent random variables  $Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_k$  obtained from  $k$  independent tests be combined by checking the value of  $\sum_{i=1}^k Z_i$  against a  $\chi^2$  distribution with  $2k$  degrees of freedom. [See also Quesenberry (1986).] The distribution of  $\prod_{i=1}^k X_i$  is easily derived from the fact that its logarithm is distributed as  $-\frac{1}{2}\chi_{2k}^2$ .

The distribution of  $S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ , where  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are independent  $U(0, 1)$  random variables, can be derived successively using standard convolution formulas. The result is the Irwin-Hall distribution [Hall (1932); Irwin (1932)]:

$$p_{S_n}(s) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{(n-1)!} \sum_{j=0}^k (-1)^j \binom{n}{j} (s-j)^{n-k-1}, & k \leq s \leq k+1, 0 \leq k \leq n-1, \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere.} \end{cases} \quad (26.48)$$

For the more general case of  $U(0, a)$  the pdf of  $S_n$  is

$$p_{S_n}(s) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{(n-1)! a^n} \sum_{j=0}^k (-1)^j \binom{n}{j} (s-aj)^{n-1}, & k \leq sa^{-1} < k+1, 0 \leq k \leq n-1, \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere.} \end{cases} \quad (26.49)$$

The rectangular mean distribution is the distribution of the sum ( $S_n$ ) as in (26.48), divided by the sample size  $n$ , namely the arithmetic mean  $T$ . It has

the pdf

$$p_T(t) = \frac{n^n}{(n-1)!} \sum_{j=0}^{\lfloor nt \rfloor} (-1)^j \binom{n}{j} \left(t - \frac{j}{n}\right)^{n-1}, \quad 0 \leq t \leq 1. \quad (26.50)$$

This is also known as *Bates's distribution* [Bates (1955)]. This distribution is sometimes confused with the Irwin-Hall distribution. The remarkable history of investigation of these distributions [as described by Seal (1950)] has been mentioned in Section 26.3.

When  $n = 2$ , the distribution of  $\bar{X}_2 = \frac{1}{2}S_2$  is a symmetrical *triangular distribution*:

$$p_{\bar{X}_2}(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x - a + h}{h^2}, & a - h \leq x \leq a, \\ \frac{a + h - x}{h^2}, & a \leq x \leq a + h, \end{cases} \quad (26.51)$$

or equivalently

$$p_{\bar{X}_2}(x) = \frac{h - |x - a|}{h^2}, \quad a - h \leq x \leq a + h. \quad (26.51)'$$

The standard triangular distribution [see Ayyangar (1941)] is represented (possibly after linear transformation) by a probability density function of form

$$p_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{2x}{H}, & 0 \leq x \leq H, \\ \frac{2(1-x)}{1-H}, & H \leq x \leq 1. \end{cases} \quad (26.52)$$

The graph of  $p_X(x)$  sketched in Figure 26.3 indicates why the name *triangular* is given to these distributions. If  $H = \frac{1}{2}$ , the distribution is symmetrical.

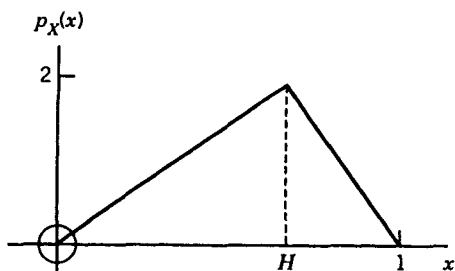


Figure 26.3 Triangular density function.

Symmetrical triangular distributions have been called *tine distributions* [Schmidt (1934)].

The  $r$ th moment about  $H$  is

$${}_H\mu_r(X) = E[(X - H)^r] = \frac{2[(-1)^r H^{r+1} + (1 - H)^{r+1}]}{(r + 1)(r + 2)}. \quad (26.53)$$

The expected value is

$$H + {}_H\mu_1(X) = \frac{1}{3}(1 + H), \quad (26.54)$$

and the variance is

$${}_H\mu_2(X) - [{}_H\mu_1(X)]^2 = \frac{1}{18}(1 - H + H^2). \quad (26.55)$$

The median is at

$$\begin{cases} 1 - \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} \max(H, 1 - H)}, & H \leq \frac{1}{2}, \\ \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} H} & H \geq \frac{1}{2}. \end{cases}$$

The mean deviation is

$$\begin{cases} (1 - H)^{-1}(2 - H)^3 & \text{if } H < \frac{1}{2}, \\ \frac{2}{81}H^{-1}(1 + H)^3 & \text{if } H > \frac{1}{2}. \end{cases} \quad (26.56)$$

The ratio (mean deviation)/(standard deviation) has the following values:

H	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9
Ratio	0.816	0.820	0.827	0.833	0.837

When each  $X_j$  can have different values of  $a_j$  and  $h_j$ , the distribution of the sum  $S_n$  is much more complicated. Tach (1958) gives five decimal place tables of the cumulative distribution function of  $S_n$  for  $n = 2, 3, 4$ , with  $a_j = 0$  for all  $j$ , and various  $h_j$  (subject to  $\sum_{j=1}^n h_j = 1$ ).

Barrow and Smith (1979) provided a succinct formula for the cdf of a *linear* function of independent uniform (0, 1) random variables. A detailed investigation of the probability distribution of *roundoff* errors (essentially a linear combination of independent uniform  $(-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$  random variables; see Section 26.2) was provided by Mitra and Banerjee (1971). Their derivation was based on the formula for the volume of the intersection of a "half-space" with a hypercube in  $R^n$ , involving concepts related to the theory of splines.

Barrow and Smith's formula is based on the relation:

$$\Pr \left[ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i X_i \leq w \right] = \frac{1}{\alpha_1} \int_0^1 \cdots \int_0^1 \times \left[ \left( w - \sum_{i=2}^n \alpha_i x_i \right)_+^n - \left( w - \alpha_1 - \sum_{i=2}^n \alpha_i x_i \right)_+^n \right] dx_2 \cdots dx_n \tag{26.57a}$$

where

$$(x)_+^k = \begin{cases} x^k & \text{if } x > 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } x < 0, \end{cases}$$

and  $w$  is a real number, leading to

$$\Pr \left[ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i X_i \leq w \right] = \frac{\sum_{\mathbf{v} \in C} (\text{sgn } \mathbf{v}) \cdot (w - \boldsymbol{\alpha} \cdot \mathbf{v})_+^n}{n! (\prod_{i=1}^n \alpha_i)}, \tag{26.57b}$$

where  $C$  is the "cube"  $\{\mathbf{x} \in R^n; 0 \leq x_i \leq 1 \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, n\}$ ; the summation is over the  $2^n$  vertices of  $C$  and  $\text{sgn } \mathbf{v} \equiv (-1)^m$ , where  $m = \sum_{i=1}^n v_i$ .

Mitra and Banerjee's (1971) formula [earlier results are due to Lowan and Laderman (1939)] for the cdf of

$$\rho_n = \sum_{s=0}^n (-1)^s \omega_s R_s,$$

where

$$p_{R_s}(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } -\frac{1}{2} \leq x \leq \frac{1}{2}, \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere,} \end{cases} \tag{26.58}$$

[note that the transformed variables  $T_s = (-1)^s R_s + \frac{1}{2}$  are  $U(0, 1)$ ] is

$$\Pr[\rho_n \leq x] = \int_D \cdots \int dt_0 dt_1 \cdots dt_n \tag{26.59a}$$

with the region  $D$  defined by  $0 \leq t_i \leq 1$  and

$$\omega_0 t_0 + \omega_1 t_1 + \cdots + \omega_n t_n \leq x + 2^{n-1}.$$



The integral is similar to the Dirichlet integral, for which the domain of integration is  $(0 \leq t_s)$  ( $s = 0, 1, \dots, n$ ) and  $t_0 + t_1 + \dots + t_n \leq 1$ . The authors utilize the Dirichlet integrals and obtain

$$\Pr[\rho_n \leq x] = \frac{\sum_s (-1)^{s_0+s_1+\dots+s_n} \left(x + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=0}^n \omega_i - \Omega\right)^{n+1}}{(n+1)! \omega_0 \omega_1 \cdots \omega_n}$$

$$\text{for } -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \omega_i \leq x \leq \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \omega_i, \quad (26.59b)$$

where

$$\Omega = \sum_{i=1}^n s_i \omega_i \leq x + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=0}^n \omega_i,$$

and the summation is over  $s_i = 0, 1$  for all  $i$ .

The even moments are

$$E[\rho_n^{2\nu}] = 2^{-2\nu} \sum \frac{(2\nu)! \prod_{i=0}^n \omega_i^{h_i}}{\prod_{i=0}^n (h_i + 1)!}, \quad (26.60)$$

where summation is over all **even** integral values of  $h_i$ ,  $h_1, \dots, h_n$  such that  $\sum_{i=0}^n h_i = 2\nu$ ; all odd order moments vanish. The variance is  $\sum_{i=0}^n \omega_i^2 / 12$ , and the kurtosis is

$$\beta_2 - 3 = \frac{\kappa_4}{\kappa_2^2} = -\frac{6}{5} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n \omega_i^4 \right) \left( \sum_{i=1}^n \omega_i^2 \right)^{-2},$$

which is always negative, indicating that the distribution is always *platykurtic*. The density is more flattened than the corresponding normal distribution near the median. For small values of  $x$  the asymptotic pdf is

$$p_{\rho_n}(x) \approx \left( 6\pi^{-1} \sum_{i=0}^n \omega_i^2 \right)^{-1/2} \exp \left\{ - \left( 6 \sum_{i=0}^n \omega_i^2 \right)^{-1} x^2 \right\}. \quad (26.61)$$

[Mitra and Banerjee's formula is of course equivalent to that of Barrow and Smith (1979), derived at the request of H. O. Hartley.]

The joint distribution of the differences of successive order statistics of standard **uniform** variables is a Dirichlet distribution (Chapter 40). If  $Y'_1 \leq Y'_2 \leq \dots \leq Y'_n$  are defined as at the beginning of Section 7, and  $V_i = Y'_i - Y'_{i-1}$  [ $i = 1, \dots, (n + 1)$ ],  $Y'_0 = a - h$ ;  $Y'_{n+1} = a + h$ , then

$$p_{V_1, \dots, V_n}(v_1, \dots, v_n) = n!(2h)^{-n}, \quad 0 \leq v_i, \sum_{i=1}^n v_i \leq 2h. \quad (26.62)$$

Putting  $h = \frac{1}{2}$  (corresponding to a range of 1) we have

$$p_{V_1, \dots, V_n}(v_1, \dots, v_n) = n!, \quad 0 \leq v_i, \sum_{i=1}^n v_i \leq 1 \text{ [cf. (26.10a) and (26.10b)].} \quad (26.63)$$

More insight into the nature of this joint distribution is gained by noting that the same distribution (26.63) would be obtained if

$$V_i = \frac{W_i}{\sum_{j=1}^{n+1} W_j}, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, (n + 1),$$

where  $W_1, W_2, \dots, W_{n+1}$  are mutually independent random variables each distributed as  $\chi^2$  with **two** degrees of freedom. From this point of view it is clear that the ratio  $(Y'_{n-s+1} - Y'_s)/(Y'_{n-r+1} - Y'_r)$ , with  $s > r$ , has a standard beta distribution with parameters  $(n - 2s + 1), 2(s - r)$  (Chapter 25, Section 2). Criteria of this kind were suggested by David and Johnson (1956) as tests for kurtosis when the probability integral transformation can be used. As another example demonstrating that the range  $(Y'_n - Y'_1)$  is equal to  $\sum_{i=2}^n V_i$ , it is clear that range has a beta distribution with parameters  $(n - 1), 2$ , as can be confirmed from (26.22); see also (26.27).

The distribution of the ratio ( $U$ ) of ranges calculated from independent random samples of sizes  $n'$ ,  $n''$  from distributions (26.1) with the same value of  $h$  has been studied by Rider (1951, 1963). The probability density function of this ratio (sample size  $n'$  in numerator) is

$$p_U(u) = \begin{cases} C[(n' + n'')u^{n'-2} - (n' + n'' - 2)u^{n'-1}], & 0 \leq u \leq 1, \\ C[(n' + n'')u^{-n''} - (n' + n'' - 2)u^{-n''-1}], & 1 \leq u, \end{cases} \quad (26.64)$$

with  $C = n'(n' - 1)n''(n'' - 1)/[(n' + n'')(n' + n'' - 1)(n' + n'' - 2)]$ . Tables of upper 10%, 5%, and 1% points are given in Rider (1951); more extensive tables are given in Rider (1963).

The distribution of the ratio ( $V$ ) of maximum values when both random samples come from  $U(0, 2h)$  distribution(s) was studied by Murty (1955). He found that

$$p_V(v) = \begin{cases} \frac{n'n''}{n' + n''} v^{n'-1} & \text{for } 0 \leq v \leq 1, \\ \frac{n'n''}{n' + n''} v^{-n''-1} & \text{for } v \geq 1. \end{cases} \quad (26.65)$$

Murty gives tables of the upper 5% point of the distribution of  $\max(V, V^{-1})$  for  $n', n'' = 2(1)20$ , ( $n'$  = sample size with *greater* maximum value).

These last two criteria might be used in testing for identity of two rectangular distributions with respect to changes in range of variation (in the second case, with known initial point). A criterion introduced by Hyrenius (1953) uses "cross-ranges." If we denote by  $L', L''$  the smallest observations in the two samples, and by  $U', U''$  the largest (with the samples chosen so that  $L' \leq L''$ ), then the cross-ranges are  $U'' - L', U' - L''$ . For  $V = (U'' - L') / (U' - L'')$ , Hyrenius obtained the probability density function

$$p_V(v) = \begin{cases} \frac{(n' - 1)n''}{n' + n'' - 1} v^{n''-1} & \text{for } 0 \leq v \leq 1, \\ \frac{(n' - 1)n''}{n' + n'' - 1} v^{-n'} & \text{for } v \geq 1. \end{cases} \quad (26.66)$$

He also considered  $T = (L'' - L') / (U' - L'') = V + 1$  (ratio of ranges of the two samples).

### 9.1 Mixtures of two uniform distributions

Mixtures of uniform distributions have some importance in data analysis. They provide a tool for constructing histograms from a data set without attempting to estimate the underlying distribution. Gupta and Miyawaki (1978) studied estimation problems in the mixture of two uniform distributions with a pdf of the form

$$p_Y(y) = pf_1(y, \beta) + (1 - p)f_2(y, \beta), \quad (26.67)$$

where

$$f_1(y, \beta) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\beta} & \text{for } 0 < y < \beta, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

and

$$f_2(y, \beta) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{1 - \beta} & \text{for } \beta < y < 1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The mixture is identifiable unless  $p = \beta$ . The  $k$ th crude moment of distribution (26.67) is

$$\mu'_k = p \frac{\beta^k}{k + 1} + q \frac{1 - \beta^k}{1 - \beta} \frac{1}{k + 1}, \quad q = 1 - p. \quad (26.68)$$

Given observed values of  $Y_1, \dots, Y_n$ -independent random variables distributed with the pdf (26.67) with  $\beta$  known, one can use the moment estimator (ME) of  $p$ ,

$$\bar{p} = 1 + \beta - 2\bar{Y}, \quad (26.69)$$

where  $\bar{Y} = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i$ , which is unbiased, with variance

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{4}{n} \left[ \frac{\beta^2}{12} + \frac{q}{6} (8 - 6q - \beta) \right], \quad (26.70)$$

while the maximum likelihood estimator is

$$\hat{p} = \frac{\text{Number of } Y\text{'s } \leq \beta}{n} \quad (26.71)$$

which is **UMVUE** and consistent.

If  $p$  is known, a consistent and unbiased moment estimator of  $\beta$  is

$$\tilde{\beta} = 2\bar{Y} - q. \quad (26.72)$$

The maximum likelihood estimator (MLE) of  $\beta$  is in the interval  $[Y'_r, Y'_{r+1}]$ , where  $Y'_r < p < Y'_{r+1}$ . In fact

$$\hat{\beta} = \begin{cases} Y'_r & \text{for } \left( \frac{Y'_{r+1}}{Y'_r} \right)^r > \left( \frac{1 - y :}{1 - Y'_{r+1}} \right)^{n-r}, \\ Y'_{r+1} & \text{for } \left( \frac{Y'_{r+1}}{Y'_r} \right)^r < \left( \frac{1 - Y'_r}{1 - Y'_{r+1}} \right)^{n-r}, \end{cases} \quad (26.73)$$

where  $r$  is determined by the inequalities  $Y'_r \leq p \leq Y'_{r+1}$ . No comparison of the properties of  $\hat{\beta}$  and  $\tilde{\beta}$  is available in the literature, as far as we know.

In the general case where both  $p$  and  $\beta$  are unknown, there are moment estimators of the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} \tilde{q} \\ \tilde{\beta} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{4M_1^2 - 3M_2}{2M_1 - 1} \\ \frac{3M_2 - 2M_1}{2M_1 - 1} \end{bmatrix}, \quad (26.74)$$

where  $M_r = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i^r$ . These estimators are asymptotically unbiased and consistent. Gupta and Miyawaki (1978) provide expressions for the asymptotic variance-covariance matrix of the joint distribution of  $\begin{pmatrix} \tilde{q} \\ \tilde{\beta} \end{pmatrix}$ , which is asymptotically normal.

To calculate the maximum likelihood estimators  $\hat{p}, \hat{\beta}$ , the following iterative procedure has been suggested. Calculate the moment estimators  $\tilde{p} [= (1 - \tilde{q})]$  and  $\tilde{\beta}$  as indicated above. Next calculate  $\hat{\beta}$  from (26.73). Then turn to  $\hat{p} = (\text{number of } Y\text{'s} < \hat{\beta})/n$  and go back to (26.73), repeating until the values of  $\hat{p}$  and  $\hat{\beta}$  stabilize. Again, there are no comparative investigations of the MLE and ME for the general case in the literature, so far as we know.

Roy, Roy, and Ali (1993) have introduced the binomial mixture of uniform  $(0, a)$  distributions with density given by

$$p_X(x|n, p, a) = \sum_{r=0}^n \binom{n}{r} p^r (1-p)^{n-r} (r+1) x^r / a^{r+1}, \quad 0 < x < a.$$

The  $k$ th moment about zero of  $X$  is given by

$$E[X^k] = a^k \sum_{r=0}^n \binom{n}{r} p^r (1-p)^{n-r} (r+1) / (r+k+1).$$

## 9.2 Other Related Distributions

Among other distributions derived (at least in part) from the rectangular distribution there may be mentioned five:

1. The Student's  $t$  (Chapter 28) when the variables  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  from which the  $t$  is calculated are independent and have a common rectangular distribution. Rider (1929) showed that for samples of size  $n = 2$ , the probability density function is of the form  $\frac{1}{2}(1 + |t|)^{-2}$ . Perlo (1933) derived the distribution for samples of size  $n = 3$ , and Siddiqui (1964)

obtained a general formal result for any size of sample and noted some inequalities for the cumulative distribution function.

2. Various distributions arising from the construction of tests of adherence to a specified distribution, using the probability integral transformation. **Pearson (1938)** pointed out that if  $Y$  has distribution (26.1) with  $a = h$ , so do  $2h - Y$ ,  $2|Y - h|$ , and so on. **Durbin (1961)** showed that if the differences  $V_1, V_2, \dots, V_{n+1}$  ( $V_j = Y'_j - Y'_{j-1}$ , with  $Y'_0 = 0$ ,  $Y'_{n+1} = 1$ ) are arranged in ascending order of magnitude  $V'_1 \leq V'_2 \leq \dots \leq V'_{n+1}$ , the joint probability density function of  $V'_1, \dots, V'_n$  is (for  $h = \frac{1}{2}$ ):

$$p_{V'_1, \dots, V'_n}(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) = (n+1)!n!, \quad 0 \leq y_1 \leq \dots \leq y_n, \quad \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \leq 1. \quad (26.75)$$

Also, if

$$G_j = (n+2-j)(V'_j - V'_{j-1})$$

[Sukhatme's (1937) transformation], then

$$p_{G_1, \dots, G_n}(g_1, g_2, \dots, g_n) = n!, \quad g_j \geq 0, \quad \sum_{j=1}^n g_j \leq 1. \quad (26.76)$$

Hence the quantities

$$W'_r = \sum_{j=1}^r G_j, \quad r = 1, \dots, n, \quad (26.77)$$

have the same joint distribution as the original ordered variables  $Y'_r$ , so any function of the  $W'$ 's has the same distribution as the corresponding function of the  $Y'_r$ 's. **Durbin** gave a considerable number of references to other work on "random division of an interval," namely on uniform distributions. More recent works on random division of an interval are due to **Chen, Lin, and Zame (1981)**, **Chen, Goodman, and Zame (1984)**, **Van Assche (1987)**, and **Johnson and Kotz (1990)**; see also Chapter 25 for further discussions.

3. The distribution of the ratio of a rectangular variable  $Y$  to an independent normal variable  $Z$  was described by **Broadbent (1954)**. Calculations are facilitated by noting that, for example, with  $a = 0$  in (26.1),

$$\Pr \left[ \frac{Y}{Z} \leq K (> 0) | Z > 0 \right] = \Pr [Y \leq KZ | Z > 0] = \frac{\int_0^\infty p_Z(z) F_Y(Kz) dz}{\int_0^\infty p_Z(z) dz}.$$

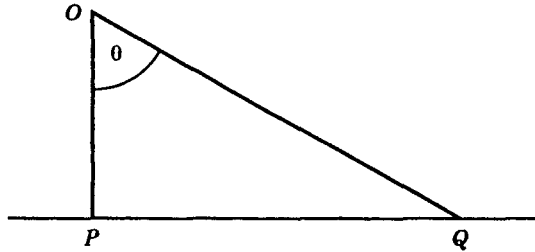


Figure 26.4 Connection between a uniform angular distribution around a semicircle and a Cauchy distribution

4. There is a connection between a uniform angular distribution around a semicircle and a Cauchy distribution (Chapter 16) on a line. If, as shown in Figure 26.4,  $\theta$  has the uniform probability density

$$p_{\theta}(t) = \pi^{-1}, \quad -\frac{\pi}{2} \leq t \leq \frac{\pi}{2}, \quad (26.79)$$

then the probability density function of  $X = PQ$  ( $OP$  is perpendicular to  $PQ$ ) is

$$p_X(x) = \pi^{-1} \frac{d}{dx} \tan^{-1} \frac{x}{|OP|} = \frac{1}{\pi|OP|} \frac{1}{[1 + (x/|OP|)^2]}. \quad (26.80)$$

Hence  $X$  has a Cauchy distribution with scale parameter  $|OP|$ .

Cowan (1980) noted that if  $W$  and  $Z$  are independent random variables distributed as gamma ( $a, 1$ ) and beta ( $a, a - a$ ), respectively, then  $WZ$  has a gamma ( $a, 1$ ) distribution. Taking  $a = 2$  and  $a = 1$  (so that  $WZ$  has a standard exponential distribution, and  $Z$  has a standard uniform distribution) and remembering that

- since  $W$  has a gamma ( $2, 1$ ) distribution, we have  $W = W_1 + W_2$ , where  $W_1$  and  $W_2$  are independent standard exponential variables, so that,
- $X_i = \exp(-W_i)$  ( $i = 1, 2$ ) are independent, each being a standard uniform variable as is  $\exp(-WZ) = \exp(-(W_1 + W_2)Z) = (X_1 X_2)^Z$ , we obtain the following remarkable result: If  $X_1, X_2$ , and  $Z$  are mutually independent standard uniform variables, then  $(X_1 X_2)^Z$  also has a standard uniform distribution.

Alternative proofs were given by Zhao-Guo and Hong-Zhi (1980) who use characteristic functions, Scott (1980) who uses moments, and Westcott (1980) who provides an interpretation using Poisson processes. Westcott also obtained the following generalization: If

$$Y_n = \left( \prod_{i=1}^n X_i \right)^Z,$$

where  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are mutually independent standard uniform random variables, then the pdf of  $Y_n = -\log W_n$  is

$$p_{Y_n}(y) = \frac{1}{(n-1)!} \int_y^\infty t^{n-2} e^{-t} dt = (n-1)^{-1} \left\{ 1 - \frac{\Gamma_y(n-1)}{\Gamma(n-1)} \right\}, \tag{26.81}$$

where  $\Gamma_y(n-1)/\Gamma(n-1)$  is the incomplete gamma function ratio (see Chapter 1, Section A5).

5. Proctor (1987) introduced "generalized uniform" distributions, with cdfs of

$$F_X(x) = 1 - \{1 - k(x - a)^c\}^h, \quad k, c, h > 0; \text{ a r x r a } + k^{-1/c}. \tag{26.82}$$

These distributions are a counterpart to Burr type XII distributions (Chapter 12, Section 4.5) which have cdfs of form

$$F_X(x) = 1 - (1 + x^c)^{-k}, \quad 0 < x. \tag{26.83}$$

They cover parts of the  $(\beta_1, \beta_2)$  plane not covered by the latter.

## 10 APPLICATIONS

A frequent use of uniform distributions is in an explanatory capacity to clarify difficult theory in the classroom and in the literature. Chu (1957) and Leone (1961) utilized uniform distributions in connection with sample quasi-ranges. Anderson (1942) provided an early example of their use in stratified sampling. Levene (1952) among many others applied them to determine power functions of tests of randomness. Naus (1966) applied uniform distributions in a power comparison of tests of nonrandom clustering. There are also numerous applications in nonparametric tests, such as the Kolmogorov-Smirnov type.

Irwin-Hall and Bates distributions (see Section 26.9) have found applications in accident proneness models [e.g., Haight (1965)]. Some applications in physics are presented in Feller (1966).



### 10.1 Corrections for Grouping

The uses of uniform distributions to represent the distribution of **roundoff** errors, and in connection with the probability integral transformation, have already been mentioned in Sections 26.2 and 26.9. These distributions also play a central role in the derivation of Sheppard's *corrections* (1907), which adjust the values of sample moments to allow for (on the average) effects of grouping.

Suppose that the probability density function of  $X$  is  $p_X(x)$ . If the observed value is not  $X$  but the nearest value ( $\tilde{X}$ ) to  $X$  in the set of values  $\{\alpha + jh\}$ , where  $j$  can take any (positive, negative, or zero) integer value, then

$$\Pr[\tilde{X} = \alpha + jh] = \int_{\alpha+(j-\frac{1}{2})h}^{\alpha+(j+\frac{1}{2})h} p_X(x) dx. \quad (26.84)$$

We now seek to find an "average" relation between the cumulants of  $X$  and those of  $\tilde{X}$ . If we assume that  $(\tilde{X} - X)$  has a uniform distribution over  $(-\frac{1}{2}h, \frac{1}{2}h)$ , then

$$\tilde{X} = X + Y,$$

where  $Y$  has a uniform distribution with a probability density function

$$p_Y(y) = h^{-1}, \quad -\frac{1}{2}h \leq y \leq \frac{1}{2}h.$$

Also  $X$  and  $Y$  are mutually independent, so

$$\kappa_r(\tilde{X}) = \kappa_r(X) + \kappa_r(Y).$$

Using (26.7), we find that

$$\begin{aligned} \kappa_1(X) &= \kappa_1(\tilde{X}), & (26.85) \\ \kappa_2(X) &= \kappa_2(\tilde{X}) - \frac{1}{12}h^2, \\ \kappa_3(X) &= \kappa_3(\tilde{X}), \\ \kappa_4(X) &= \kappa_4(\tilde{X}) + \frac{1}{120}h^4. \end{aligned}$$

The last equation implies that  $\mu_4(X) = \mu_4(\tilde{X}) - h^2\mu_2(\tilde{X})/2 + 7h^4/240$ .

### 10.2 Life Testing

We give the distribution of a statistic based on the  $r$  smallest of  $n$  independent observations from a standard uniform distribution. In life-testing terminology, this statistic includes as special cases (1) the sum of the  $r$  earliest

failure times, (2) the total observed life up to the  $r$ th failure, and (3) the sum of all  $n$  failure times.

The statistic is given by

$$T_{r,m}^{(n)} = t_1 + t_2 + \dots + t_r + (m - r)t_r, \tag{26.86}$$

where  $t_i$  is the  $i$ th smallest of  $n$  independent observations and  $m$  is greater than  $r - 1$  but is not necessarily an integer. For the case where  $m = n$ , this statistic can be interpreted as the total observed life in a life-testing experiment without replacement. The results presented below are due to Gupta and Sobel (1958).

The density function and the distribution function of  $T_{r,m}^{(n)}$  are given by

$$p_{T_{r,m}^{(n)}}(t) = A_{r-1,m}^{(n,n)}(m - t) \tag{26.87a}$$

and

$$F_{T_{r,m}^{(n)}}(t) = 1 - \frac{1}{n + 1} A_{r-1,m}^{(n,n+1)}(m - t), \tag{26.87b}$$

respectively, where  $0 \leq t \leq m$  and

$$A_{r-1,m}^{(n,n)}(m - t) = \frac{n}{(r - 1)!} \times \left\{ \frac{(m - t)^{n-1}}{m^{n-r+1}} - \binom{r-1}{1} \frac{(m - 1 - t)^{n-1}}{(m - 1)^{n-r+1}} + \dots \right\}.$$

From these expressions we can get as special cases the densities and cumulative distribution functions of case 1:  $T_{r,r}^{(n)}$ ; case 2:  $T_{r,n}^{(n)}$ ; and case 3:  $T_{n,n}^{(n)}$ .

The mean and the variance of  $T_{r,m}^{(n)}$  are given by the formulas

$$E[T_{r,m}^{(n)}] = \frac{r(2m - r + 1)}{(2n + 1)}, \tag{26.88a}$$

$$\text{var}[T_{r,m}^{(n)}] = \frac{r(n - r + 1)(2m - r + 1)^2}{4(n + 1)^2(n + 2)} + \frac{r(r + 1)(r - 1)}{12(n + 1)(n + 2)}. \tag{26.88b}$$

The distribution of the statistic  $T_{r,m}^{(n)}$  is asymptotically normal for  $r = An$ ,  $m = \gamma n$  ( $\gamma$  and  $A$  fixed with  $0 < A \leq 1$  and  $A \leq \gamma < \infty$ ), and  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Other earlier applications for life testing are given in Epstein (1948).

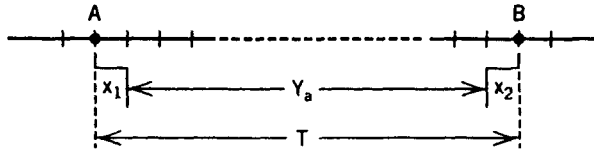


Figure 26.5 Representation of the distance from a vehicle **A** to the next vehicle **B**, ahead of it

### 10.3 Traffic Flow Applications

Allan (1966) applied the uniform distribution to form a model of the distribution of traffic along a straight road. The road is divided into intervals each of length  $h$ , and it is supposed that for each interval there are probabilities  $p$  of one vehicle being in the interval,  $q$  of no vehicles being there. (For the purpose of this model the possibility of two vehicles being in the same interval is neglected, and likewise are the lengths of the vehicles.) It is further supposed that given that a vehicle is in an interval, its position is uniformly distributed over the interval. From Figure 26.5 it can be seen that the distance from a vehicle **A** to the next vehicle **B** ahead of it is distributed as

$$L = hY + X_1 + X_2,$$

where  $Y$  represents the number of empty intervals between **A** and **B** and has the geometric distribution (Chapter 5, Section 2)

$$\Pr\{Y = y\} = q^y p, \quad y = 0, 1, \dots,$$

and  $X_1, X_2$  are independent random variables (also independent of  $Y$ ) each having the distribution

$$p_X(x) = h^{-1}, \quad 0 \leq x \leq h.$$

The distribution of  $S = X_1 + X_2$  has density function

$$p_S(s) = h^{-2}(h - |s - h|), \quad 0 \leq s \leq 2h \quad (26.89)$$

[cf. (26.51)]. The distribution of  $T = hY + S$  has density function

$$p_T(t)$$

$$= \begin{cases} ph^{-2}t, & 0 \leq t \leq h, \\ ph^{-2}\{q^{k-1}[(k+1)h - t] + q^k(t - kh)\} \\ = pq^{k-1}h^{-2}\{(1 + kp)h - pt\}, & kh \leq t \leq (k+1)h, k \leq 1. \end{cases} \quad (26.90)$$

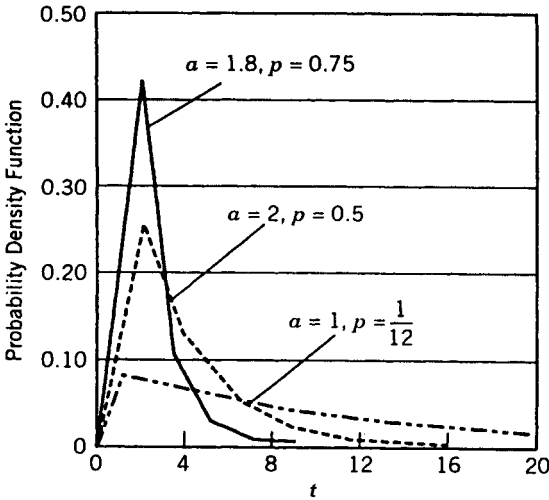


Figure 26.6 Allan's Binomial-Uniform (Headway) Distribution

Allan called this distribution a binomial-uniform distribution. It should not be confused with the binomial-beta distribution of Chapter 8 (Section 3.3). The graph of the density function (26.90) consists of a succession of straight lines. Figure 26.6, taken from Allan (1966), shows some examples.

Since  $Y$ ,  $X_1$ , and  $X_2$  are mutually independent, it is easy to find the moments of  $T$ . The  $r$ th cumulant is

$$\kappa_r(T) = h^r \kappa_r(Y) + 2\kappa_r(X_1),$$

whence we find

$$E[T] = hp^{-1}, \tag{26.91a}$$

$$\text{var}(T) = (hp^{-1})^2 \left( q + \frac{1}{6}p^2 \right), \tag{26.91b}$$

$$\sqrt{\beta_1(T)} = q(1+q) \left( q + \frac{1}{6}p^2 \right)^{-3/2}, \tag{26.91c}$$

$$\beta_2(T) = 3 + (6q^2 + qp^2 - \frac{1}{60}p^4) \left( q + \frac{1}{6}p^2 \right)^{-2}. \tag{26.91d}$$

Allan (1966) also obtained the distribution of the sum of an independent identically distributed binomial-uniform variables and provided tables of the cumulative distribution function to four decimal places for  $p = 0.4(0.1)0.9$ ,  $t/h = 0.5(0.5)25$ ,  $n = 1(1)20$ . Applications to queueing theory—with waiting time uniformly distributed—were provided by Haight (1958, 1960).

### 10.4 Applications in Statistical Tests and Models

We have already noted the probability integral transformation (at the end of Section 26.2) and its use in formulation of procedures for combining results of significance tests [see (26.77) and beginning of Section 26.91. The use of uniform distributions in constructing models of distributions of **roundoff** error has been described in Section 26.2.

## 11 RANDOM NUMBER GENERATION

Routines for generating uniform random numbers play an important role in many Monte Carlo or simulation studies. Uniform random generators facilitate in principle simulation of pseudorandom numbers from any continuous distribution, using the inverse cumulative distribution function transformation.

There are many random number generators available in the literature. A common one is the "multiplicative congruential method" which has a generator of the form

$$x_i = cx_{i-1} \bmod(2^{31} - 1). \quad (26.92)$$

The generator needs to be initialized ( $x_0$ ) by selecting a "seed" or an initial value. Each  $x_i$  is then scaled into the unit interval (0, 1). If the multiplier  $c$  is a primitive root modulo  $2^{31} - 1$  (which is a prime), then the generator in (26.92) will have maximal period of  $2^{31} - 2$ .

The lattice structure induced by the congruential generator above can be assessed by Marsaglia's (1972) lattice test or by Coveyou and MacPherson's (1967) spectral test. Fishman and Moore (1982) carried out an empirical study and observed that different values of the multiplier, all of which perform very well under both lattice and spectral tests, can yield quite different performances based on the criterion of similarity of samples generated to actual samples from uniform distribution.

The possible choices for  $c$  are 16807, 37204094, and 950706376. The first choice has been observed to result in the fastest execution time, while the last choice has been observed by Fishman and Moore to give the best performance. The method or routine described above is portable in the sense that given the same seed or initial value, it will produce the same sequence in all computer/compiler environments.

One may also use a "shuffled" version of this generator. The shuffled generators use a scheme due to Learmonth and Lewis (1973) under which a table is filled with the first 128 standard uniform pseudorandom numbers resulting from the multiplicative congruential generator in (26.92). Then, for each  $x_i$  obtained from the generator, the low-order bits of  $x_i$  are used to select a random integer  $I$  from 1 to 128. The  $i$ th entry in the table is then

delivered as the pseudorandom number, and  $x_i$  (after being scaled into the unit interval) is inserted into the  $i$ th position in the table. Books by Kennedy and Gentle (1980) and Devroye (1986) provide elaborate discussions on other simulational methods for uniform as well as nonuniform populations.

Order statistics from a uniform population play a key role in many statistical problems. Computer simulation of uniform order statistics is essential, since it enables one to evaluate the performance of these statistical procedures through Monte Carlo simulations. A simple and direct way of simulating uniform order statistics is to generate a pseudorandom sample from the uniform distribution (by the routine described above) and then to sort the sample through an efficient algorithm like quick-sort. This direct method will naturally be time-consuming, slow, and expensive. A considerable amount of work has been done to improve this general method and to provide efficient algorithms for generating uniform order statistics.

Schucany (1972) suggested a method of simulating uniform order statistics by making use of the fact that  $X'_i$  (in a sample of size  $n$ ) is distributed as beta  $(i, n - i + 1)$  (see Section 26.4). For example, if the largest order statistic  $X'_n$  is required, it may be generated as  $u_1^{1/n}$ , where  $u_1$  is a pseudorandom uniform  $(0, 1)$  observation. Then the second largest order statistic  $X'_{n-1}$  may be generated as  $u_1^{1/n} u_2^{1/(n-1)}$ , where  $u_2$  is another independent (of  $U_1$ ) pseudorandom uniform  $(0, 1)$  observation. Proceeding similarly, the order statistic  $X'_{n-i+1}$  may be generated as

$$X'_{n-i+1} = u_1^{1/n} u_2^{1/(n-1)} \dots u_i^{1/(n-i+1)}. \quad (26.93)$$

This method is called the descending method, and it avoids sorting altogether.

Lurie and Hartley (1972) presented a similar method that generates the uniform order statistics in an ascending order starting from the smallest order statistic. This method is called the ascending method. By conducting an empirical comparison, Lurie and Mason (1973) observed the descending method to be slightly faster than the ascending method.

Ramberg and Tadikamalla (1978) and Horn and Schlipf (1986) have presented algorithms for generating some central uniform order statistics. Lurie and Hartley (1972) provided another interesting algorithm for generating uniform order statistics. This algorithm is based on the result that if  $Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_{n+1}$  are independent standard exponential random variables, then (with  $Z = Y_1 + Y_2 + \dots + Y_{n+1}$ ),

$$\frac{Y_1}{Z}, \frac{Y_2}{Z}, \dots, \frac{Y_n}{Z}$$

are distributed as  $X'_1, X'_2 - X'_1, \dots, X'_n - X'_{n-1}$ . Therefore the uniform order

statistic  $X'_i$  for a random sample of size  $n$  may be generated as

$$X'_i = \frac{Y_1 + Y_2 + \cdots + Y_i}{Y_1 + Y_2 + \cdots + Y_{n+1}}, \quad (26.94)$$

or equivalently as

$$X'_i = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^i \log U_j}{\sum_{j=1}^{n+1} \log U_j}, \quad (26.94)'$$

where  $U_1, U_2, \dots, U_{n+1}$  are pseudorandom uniform  $(0, 1)$  observations. This "exponential method" needs fewer steps to be performed, but one extra uniform observation is necessary than for the descending method.

Recently Balakrishnan and Sandhu (1995) proposed a simple and efficient simulational algorithm for generating progressive **Type-II** censored samples from the uniform  $(0, 1)$  distribution. Under this censoring scheme,  $n$  units are placed on a life test; after the first failure,  $R_1$  surviving items are removed at random from further observation; after the second failure,  $R_2$  surviving items are removed at random, and so on; finally, after the  $m$ th failure (last observed failure),  $R_m$  remaining items are withdrawn so that  $n = m + (R_1 + R_2 + \dots + R_m)$ . Denoting  $X_{(1)}, X_{(2)}, \dots, X_{(m)}$  to be the progressive censored sample from the uniform  $(0, 1)$  distribution and

$$Y_i = \frac{1 - X_{(m-i+1)}}{1 - X_{(m-i)}}, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, m-1, Y_m = 1 - X_{(1)}, \quad (26.95)$$

Balakrishnan and Sandhu (1995) have established that

$$U_i = Y_i^{i+R_m+R_{m-1}+\dots+R_{m-i+1}}, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, m, \quad (26.96)$$

are independent with a common uniform  $(0, 1)$  distribution. Their simulational algorithm is based on this distributional result. All of these algorithms for generating uniform order statistics can be used to generate order statistics from any other continuous population through the inverse cdf method (since it is order preserving). [See also Gerontidis and Smith (1982).]

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## CHAPTER 27

# F-Distributions

### 1 INTRODUCTION

If  $X_1, X_2$  are independent random variables distributed as  $\chi_{\nu_1}^2, \chi_{\nu_2}^2$ , respectively, then the distribution of

$$\left(\frac{X_1}{\nu_1}\right)\left(\frac{X_2}{\nu_2}\right)^{-1}$$

is the F-distribution with  $\nu_1, \nu_2$  degrees of freedom. As a special case note that if  $Y_1, Y_2$  are independent random variables with a common **Laplace** distribution (see Chapter 24) centered at zero then  $|Y_1/Y_2|$  has a  $F_{2,2}$  distribution. We will use the symbol  $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2}$  generically to denote a random variable having this distribution. The phrase " $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2}$ -distribution" can be used as an abbreviation for "F-distribution with  $\nu_1, \nu_2$  degrees of freedom."

Note that the order  $\nu_1, \nu_2$  is important. From the definition it is clear that the random variables  $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2}$  and  $F_{\nu_2, \nu_1}^{-1}$  have identical distributions. In particular, using the suffix  $\alpha$  to denote "lower  $100\alpha\%$  point,"

$$F_{\nu_1, \nu_2, \alpha} = F_{\nu_2, \nu_1, 1-\alpha}^{-1} \quad (27.1)$$

(since  $\Pr[F_{\nu_1, \nu_2} \leq K] = \Pr[F_{\nu_2, \nu_1} \geq K^{-1}]$ ).

The importance of the F-distribution in statistical theory derives mainly from its applicability to the distribution of ratios of independent 'estimators of variance'. If  $\{X_{ti}\}$  ( $t = 1, 2; i = 1, 2, \dots, n_t; n_t \geq 2$ ) denote independent random variables each normally distributed, and the expected value and standard deviation of  $X_{ti}$  are  $\xi_t, \sigma_t$ , respectively (not depending on  $i$ ), then

$$S_t^2 = (n_t - 1)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n_t} (X_{ti} - \bar{X}_t)^2 \quad \text{with } \bar{X}_t = n_t^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n_t} X_{ti}$$

is distributed as  $\chi_{n_t-1}^2 \sigma_t^2 (n_t - 1)^{-1}$  ( $t = 1, 2$ ). The ratio  $(S_1^2/S_2^2)$  is therefore

distributed as

$$\frac{\chi_{n_1-1}^2 \sigma_1^2 (n_1 - 1)^{-1}}{\chi_{n_2-1}^2 \sigma_2^2 (n_2 - 1)^{-1}},$$

that is, as

$$\left(\frac{\sigma_1}{\sigma_2}\right)^2 F_{n_1-1, n_2-1}.$$

The statistic  $(S_1/S_2)^2$  is used in testing the hypothesis of equality between  $\sigma_1$  and  $\sigma_2$ . The hypothesis is rejected if either

$$\left(\frac{S_1}{S_2}\right)^2 \leq F_{n_1-1, n_2-1, \alpha_1} \quad \text{or} \quad \left(\frac{S_1}{S_2}\right)^2 \geq F_{n_1-1, n_2-1, 1-\alpha_2}$$

with  $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 < 1$ . The significance level of the test is  $(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2)$ , and the power (with respect to a specified value of the ratio  $\sigma_1/\sigma_2$ ) is

$$\begin{aligned} 1 - \Pr \left[ F_{n_1-1, n_2-1, \alpha_1} < \left(\frac{S_1}{S_2}\right)^2 < F_{n_1-1, n_2-1, 1-\alpha_2} \left| \frac{\sigma_1}{\sigma_2} \right. \right] \\ = 1 - \Pr \left[ \left(\frac{\sigma_2}{\sigma_1}\right)^2 F_{n_1-1, n_2-1, \alpha_1} < F_{n_1-1, n_2-1} < \left(\frac{\sigma_2}{\sigma_1}\right)^2 F_{n_1-1, n_2-1, 1-\alpha_2} \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (27.2)$$

Since

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr \left[ \left(\frac{\sigma_1}{\sigma_2}\right)^2 F_{n_1-1, n_2-1, \alpha_1} < \left(\frac{S_1}{S_2}\right)^2 < \left(\frac{\sigma_1}{\sigma_2}\right)^2 F_{n_1-1, n_2-1, 1-\alpha_2} \left| \frac{\sigma_1}{\sigma_2} \right. \right] \\ = 1 - \alpha_1 - \alpha_2, \end{aligned}$$

the values

$$\left(\frac{S_1}{S_2}\right)^2 (F_{n_1-1, n_2-1, 1-\alpha_2})^{-1},$$

$$\left(\frac{S_1}{S_2}\right)^2 (F_{n_1-1, n_2-1, \alpha_1})^{-1},$$



enclose a confidence interval for  $(\sigma_1/\sigma_2)^2$ , with confidence coefficient  $(1 - \alpha_1 - \alpha_2)$ . For a given value  $a$ , say of  $(a, \pm a)$ , the length of this interval is minimized by choosing  $a, \alpha_2$ , (subject to  $a, \pm \alpha_2 = \alpha$ ) to minimize

$$(F_{n_1-1, n_2-1, \alpha_1})^{-1} - (F_{n_1-1, n_2-1, 1-\alpha_2})^{-1} = F_{n_2-1, n_1-1, 1-\alpha_1} - F_{n_2-1, n_1-1, \alpha_2}.$$

This is achieved by making the ordinates of the probability density function of  $F_{n_2-1, n_1-1}$  equal at the values  $F_{n_2-1, n_1-1, 1-\alpha_1}$  and  $F_{n_2-1, n_1-1, \alpha_2}$  if  $n_1 \geq 3$ ; if  $n_2 < 3$ , then  $a$ , must be taken equal to  $a$ , and  $\alpha_2 = 0$ , so that

$$F_{n_2-1, n_1-1, \alpha_2} = 0.$$

It must be noted that minimization of the length of confidence interval for  $(\sigma_1/\sigma_2)^2$  does not usually minimize the length of interval for  $(\sigma_2/\sigma_1)^2$  (or for  $\sigma_1/\sigma_2$  or  $\sigma_2/\sigma_1$ ). It is more natural to minimize the length of interval for  $\log(\sigma_1/\sigma_2)$ —this will minimize the length for  $\log(\sigma_2/\sigma_1)$ , or indeed for  $\log[(\sigma_1/\sigma_2)^r]$  for any  $r \neq 0$ . To do this, we need to choose  $a, \alpha_2$ , (subject to  $a, \pm \alpha_2 = \alpha$ ) so that the probability density function of  $F_{n_1-1, n_2-1}$  has the same value at  $f = F_{n_1-1, n_2-1, 1-\alpha_2}$  and at  $f = F_{n_1-1, n_2-1, \alpha_1}$ . Tables giving appropriate values for  $\alpha = 0.01, 0.05, 0.10, 0.25$ , and  $n_1, n_2 = 6(1)31$  (with  $n_1 \geq n_2$ ) have been constructed by Tiao and Lochner (1966). Further applications for the F-distribution are described in Section 27.6.

Figure 27.1 [reproduced from Hald (1952)] contains graphs of the probability density function of  $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2}$  for  $\nu_1 = 10$  and a number of values of  $\nu_2$ . It can be seen that the graphs appear to approach a limiting form. This is, in fact the distribution of  $\chi_{\nu_1}^2/\nu_1$  with  $\nu_1 = 10$ .

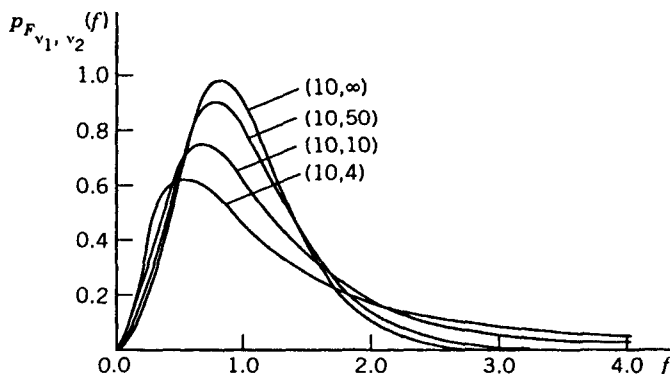


Figure 27.1 F Density Functions

For a brief recent description of various properties of the F-distribution and information regarding available tables and approximations, interested readers may refer to Stuart and Ord (1994, pp. 549–555).

## 2 PROPERTIES

If  $X_1, X_2$  are distributed as described in Section 27.1, then the probability density function of  $G_{\nu_1, \nu_2} = X_1/X_2$  is

$$p_{G_{\nu_1, \nu_2}}(g) = \frac{1}{B(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1, \frac{1}{2}\nu_2)} \frac{g^{(\nu_1/2)-1}}{(1+g)^{(\nu_1+\nu_2)/2}}, \quad 0 < g. \quad (27.3)$$

This is a **Pearson Type VI** distribution (Chapter 12, Section 4), also known as a *beta distribution of the second kind* (see Chapter 25, Section 7). We will omit the subscripts  $\nu_1, \nu_2$  unless there might be confusion arising from the omission.

The probability density function of  $F = \nu_2 G / \nu_1$  is

$$p_F(f) = \frac{(\nu_1/\nu_2)^{\nu_1/2}}{B(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1, \frac{1}{2}\nu_2)} \frac{f^{(\nu_1/2)-1}}{(1+\nu_1\nu_2^{-1}f)^{(\nu_1+\nu_2)/2}}, \quad 0 < f. \quad (27.4)$$

As  $f$  tends to infinity,  $p_F(f)$  tends to zero; this is also the case as  $f$  tends to zero, provided that  $\nu_1 > 2$ . In this case there is a single mode, at

$$f = [\nu_2(\nu_1 - 2)][\nu_1(\nu_2 + 2)]^{-1}.$$

If  $\nu_1 = 2$ , there is a mode at  $f = 0$ ; if  $\nu_1 = 1$ ,  $p_F(f) \rightarrow \infty$  as  $f \rightarrow 0$ .

The  $r$ th moment of  $F$  about zero is

$$\begin{aligned} \mu'_r &= \left(\frac{\nu_2}{\nu_1}\right)^r E[(X_{\nu_1}^2)^r] E[(X_{\nu_2}^2)^{-r}] \\ &= \left(\frac{\nu_2}{\nu_1}\right)^r \frac{\nu_1(\nu_1 + 2) \dots (\nu_1 + 2 \cdot \overline{r - 1})}{(\nu_2 - 2)(\nu_2 - 4) \dots (\nu_2 - 2r)}. \end{aligned} \quad (27.5)$$

Note that if  $r \geq \frac{1}{2}\nu_2$ ,  $\mu'_r$  is infinite. In particular,

$$E[F] = \frac{\nu_2}{\nu_2 - 2}, \quad \nu_2 > 2, \quad (27.6a)$$

$$\text{var}(F) = \frac{2\nu_2^2(\nu_1 + \nu_2 - 2)}{\nu_1(\nu_2 - 2)^2(\nu_2 - 4)}, \quad \nu_2 > 4, \quad (27.6b)$$

$$\text{Coefficient of variation [CV}(F)] = \left\{ \frac{2(\nu_1 + \nu_2 - 2)}{\nu_1(\nu_2 - 4)} \right\}^{1/2}, \quad (27.6b)'$$

$$\sqrt{\beta_1} = \sqrt{\frac{8(\nu_2 - 4)}{(\nu_1 + \nu_2 - 2)\nu_1} \cdot \frac{(2\nu_1 + \nu_2 - 2)}{(\nu_2 - 6)}}, \quad \nu_2 > 6, \quad (27.6c)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \beta_2 &= 3 + \frac{12\{(\nu_2 - 2)^2(\nu_2 - 4) + \nu_1(\nu_1 + \nu_2 - 2)(5\nu_2 - 22)\}}{\nu_1(\nu_2 - 6)(\nu_2 - 8)(\nu_1 + \nu_2 - 2)} \\ &= \frac{3\{\nu_2 - 4 + \frac{1}{2}(\nu_2 - 6)\beta_1\}}{\nu_2 - 8}, \quad \nu_2 > 8 \end{aligned} \quad (27.6d)$$

[Wishart (1946)].

After pointing out the error in the form of the characteristic function given by Ifram (1970) (and also in the first edition of this volume), Awad (1980) presented the characteristic function of the distribution of  $G_{\nu_1, \nu_2}$  in (27.3) as

$$\frac{1}{B(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1, \frac{1}{2}\nu_2)} \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{(it)^r}{r!} \frac{1}{r+j+\frac{1}{2}\nu_1} \binom{r+j-\frac{1}{2}\nu_2}{j}; \quad (27.7)$$

see also Pestana (1977).

Phillips (1982) has presented the characteristic function of the  $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2}$  distribution in another form involving the confluent hypergeometric function of the second kind. To this end, noting that for the complex variable  $z$  and complex parameters  $a$  and  $c$  such that  $\text{Re}(z) > 0$  and  $\text{Re}(a) > 0$

$$\int_0^{\infty} e^{-zt} t^{a-1} (1+t)^{c-a-1} dt = \Gamma(a) \Psi(a, c; z)$$

which defines the confluent hypergeometric function of the second kind,

Phillips(1982) has shown that the characteristic function of  $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2}$  is given by

$$\frac{\Gamma[\frac{1}{2}(\nu_1 + \nu_2)]}{\Gamma(\nu_2/2)} \Psi\left(\frac{\nu_1}{2}, 1 - \frac{\nu_2}{2}; -\frac{\nu_2}{\nu_1}it\right). \tag{27.7'}$$

From (27.3) it can be seen that  $G(1 + G)^{-1} = \nu_1 F(\nu_2 + \nu_1 F)^{-1}$  has a standard beta distribution (as defined in Chapter 25) with parameters  $\frac{1}{2}\nu_1, \frac{1}{2}\nu_2$ . It follows that

$$\Pr[F \leq f] = I_f(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1, \frac{1}{2}\nu_2) \tag{27.8}$$

where

$$f_1 = \frac{\nu_1 f}{\nu_2 + \nu_1 f}.$$

This identity can be used for computer evaluation, using the methodology described in Chapter 25, Section 6.2, for the beta distribution. Note also that the relation [Chapter 1, Eq. (3.37)] connecting binomial distributions and incomplete beta function ratios means that cdfs of F-distributions can be expressed in terms of sums of binomial probabilities, and vice versa. Exact series expansions of the distribution function of an  $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2}$  variable are given by

$$\Pr[F_{\nu_1, \nu_2} \leq y]$$

$$= \begin{cases} \frac{2\theta(y)}{\pi} & \text{if } \nu_1 = \nu_2 = 1, \\ \frac{A(\nu_2)}{\pi} & \text{if } \nu_1 = 1, \nu_2 > 1 \text{ odd,} \\ \frac{2\theta(y)}{\pi} - c(\nu_1, 1) & \text{if } \nu_2 = 1, \nu_1 > 1 \text{ odd,} \\ A(\nu_2) - c(\nu_1, \nu_2) & \text{if } \nu_1 > 1, \nu_2 > 1 \text{ both odd,} \\ \left. \begin{aligned} & 1 - x^{\nu_2/2} \left\{ 1 + \frac{\nu_2}{2}(1-x) + \frac{\nu_2(\nu_2+2)}{2 \cdot 4}(1-x)^2 + \dots \right. \\ & \left. + \frac{\nu_2(\nu_2+2) \dots (\nu_2 + \nu_1 - 4)}{2 \cdot 4 \dots (\nu_1 - 2)} (1-x)^{(\nu_1-2)/2} \right\} \end{aligned} \right\} & \text{if } \nu_1 \text{ even,} \\ \left. \begin{aligned} & (1-x)^{\nu_1/2} \left\{ 1 + \frac{\nu_1}{2}x + \frac{\nu_1(\nu_1+2)}{2 \cdot 4}x^2 + \dots \right. \\ & \left. + \frac{\nu_1(\nu_1+2) \dots (\nu_2 + \nu_1 - 4)}{2 \cdot 4 \dots (\nu_2 - 2)} x^{(\nu_2-2)/2} \right\} \end{aligned} \right\} & \text{if } \nu_2 \text{ even,} \end{cases} \tag{27.9}$$

where

$$\theta(y) = \tan^{-1} \left( y \sqrt{\frac{\nu_1}{\nu_2}} \right),$$

$$x = \frac{\nu_2}{\nu_2 + \nu_1 y^2},$$

$$A(\nu_2) = \frac{2}{\pi} \left\{ \theta + \sin \theta \cos \theta \right. \\ \left. \times \left\{ 1 + \frac{2}{3} \cos^2 \theta + \dots + \frac{2 \cdot 4 \cdots (\nu_2 - 3)}{3 \cdot 5 \cdots (\nu_2 - 2)} \cos^{\nu_2 - 3} \theta \right\} \right\}, \quad \nu_2 > 1,$$

$$c(\nu_1, \nu_2) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \frac{((\nu_2 - 1)/2)!}{((\nu_2 - 2)/2)!} \sin \theta \cos^{\nu_2} \theta \\ \times \left( 1 + \frac{\nu_2 + 1}{3} \sin^2 \theta + \dots \right. \\ \left. + \frac{(\nu_2 + 1)(\nu_2 + 3) \cdots (\nu_1 + \nu_2 - 4)}{3 \cdot 5 \cdots (\nu_1 - 2)} \sin^{\nu_1 - 3} \theta \right), \quad \nu_2 > 1.$$

For fractional  $a$ ,  $a! \equiv \Gamma(a + 1)$ . These formulas were presented in Abramowitz and Stegun (1964) (Chapter 26, written by M. Zelen and N. C. Severo) and were verified by Chen and Makowsky (1976) (who discovered a minor misprint and provided a FORTRAN subprogram). Lee (1988) used (27.9) (with corrections) to evaluate cdf values for  $F$  and reported some advantages over the MDFD subroutine in IMSL (1985).

Random variates following  $F$ -distributions are easily constructed from beta variates, which can be obtained by methods described in Chapter 25, Section 2. Grzegórski (1972) provided a procedure, "PF *Snedecor*," to evaluate the cdf of  $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2}$ . The procedure is much faster than an algorithm "Fisher," proposed for integral degrees of freedom  $\nu_1$  and  $\nu_2$  by Donner (1968), and in some cases faster than Morris's (1969) procedure "F test." ("F test" is twice as long as "PF *Snedecor*" and uses twice as many variables.)

Grzegórski uses the formulas

$$\Pr[F_{\nu_1, \nu_2} \leq f] = \begin{cases} P(\nu_1, \nu_2, x) & \text{for } \nu_2 \text{ even,} \\ 1 - P(\nu_2, \nu_1, 1 - x) & \text{for } \nu_1 \text{ even,} \\ 0.5 + [R(\nu_1, \nu_2, x) \\ - \sqrt{2(1-x)} \frac{[(\nu_1 - 1)/2]!}{[(\nu_2 - 1)/2]!} P(\nu_1, \nu_2, x)]/\pi & \text{for } \nu_1, \nu_2 \text{ odd,} \end{cases} \quad (27.10)$$

where  $x = \nu_1 f / (\nu_1 f + \nu_2)$  and

$$P(\nu_1, \nu_2, x) = \frac{1}{2} x^{\nu_1/2} \sum_{k=0}^{(\nu_2/2)-1} \frac{((\nu_1/2) + k - 1)!}{((\nu_1/2) - k)! k!} \{2(1 - x)\}^k,$$

$$R(\nu_1, \nu_2, x) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} x(1 - x)} \sum_{k=0}^{(\nu_1/2)-1} \frac{k!}{\left(k + \frac{1}{2}\right)!} x^k + \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{x}{\sqrt{2x(1-x)}} \right).$$

[If  $y$  is fractional, one would use  $y! = \Gamma(y + 1)$ .] As  $\nu_2$  increases, the value of  $\chi_{\nu_2}^2 / \nu_2$  tends to 1 with probability 1. If  $\nu_1$  remains constant, the distribution of  $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2}$  tends to that of  $\chi_{\nu_1}^2 / \nu_1$  as  $\nu_2$  tends to infinity.

Let  $U_n = \chi_{\nu}^2 / (\chi_n^2 / n)$ , where  $\chi_{\nu}^2$  and  $\chi_n^2$  are mutually independent chi-square variables with  $\nu$  and  $n$  degrees of freedom, respectively. Note that  $U_n / \nu$  has a F-distribution with  $\nu, n$  degrees of freedom. Then, with  $G(x)$  and  $g(x)$  denoting the distribution and the density functions of  $\chi_{\nu}^2$  (see Chapter 18), Fujikoshi (1987) has shown that

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[U_n \leq x] &= G(x) - g(x) \\ &\times \left[ \frac{1}{n} \left( \frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{x}{2}(\nu - 2) \right) \right. \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{n^2} \left\{ \frac{x^4}{16} - \frac{x^3}{48}(9\nu - 2) + \frac{x^2}{48}(\nu - 2)(9\nu - 4) \right. \\ &\quad \left. \left. - \frac{x}{16}(\nu - 2)(\nu - 4)(3\nu - 2) \right\} + \dots \right]. \end{aligned}$$

Further, by considering the transformed random variable

$$V_n = \left\{ n + \frac{1}{2}(\nu - 2) \right\} \log \left( 1 + \frac{U_n}{n} \right),$$

where  $n > \max\{0, (2 - \nu)/2\}$ , Fujikoshi and Mukaihata (1993) have shown that

$$\Pr[V_n \leq x] = G(x) + O(n^{-2})$$

for all real  $x$ . (These authors have also presented some approximations and bounds for the quantiles of the distribution of  $V_n$ .)

For purposes of approximation it is often convenient to study the **distribution** of  $z_{\nu_1, \nu_2} = \frac{1}{2} \log F_{\nu_1, \nu_2}^*$  rather than that of  $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2}$  itself. [This variable was in fact used by Fisher (1924).] The distribution of  $\log F_{\nu_1, \nu_2}$  is sometimes called the logarithmic F-distribution. Approximations themselves will be discussed in the next section, but here we give formulas for the moments of  $z_{\nu_1, \nu_2}$ . Dropping the suffices for convenience, we have the moment-generating function

$$E[e^{tz}] = E[F^{t/2}] = \left(\frac{\nu_2}{\nu_1}\right)^{t/2} \frac{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(\nu_1 + t))\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(\nu_2 - t))}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1)\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu_2)}. \quad (27.11)$$

The cumulants of  $z$  are

$$\kappa_1(z) = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \log\left(\frac{\nu_2}{\nu_1}\right) + \psi\left(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1\right) - \psi\left(\frac{1}{2}\nu_2\right) \right], \quad (27.12a)$$

$$\kappa_r(z) = 2^{-r} \left[ \psi^{(r-1)}\left(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1\right) + (-1)^r \psi^{(r-1)}\left(\frac{1}{2}\nu_2\right) \right], \quad r \geq 2, \quad (27.12b)$$

where  $\psi(z) = (d/dz) \log \Gamma(z)$  is the **digamma** function. Note that all moments of  $z$  are finite. For  $r \geq 2$  an alternative formula is

$$\kappa_r(z) = (r-1)! \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \left[ (-1)^r (\nu_1 + 2j)^{-r} + (\nu_2 + 2j)^{-r} \right]. \quad (27.12c)$$

There are also a number of special expressions for  $\kappa_r(z)$  depending on the parity of  $\nu_1$  and  $\nu_2$ . We now give these in summary form [see Aroian (1941); Wishart (1947)].

1.  $\nu_1$  and  $\nu_2$  both *even*:

$$E[z] = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \log\left(\frac{\nu_2}{\nu_1}\right) - \sum_j^* j^{-1} \right], \quad (27.13a)$$

where  $\sum_j^*$  denotes summation from  $j = \frac{1}{2} \min(\nu_1, \nu_2)$  to  $(\frac{1}{2} \max(\nu_1, \nu_2) - 1)$  inclusive and  $\sum_j^* j^{-1} = 0$  if  $\nu_1 = \nu_2$ .

$$\text{var}(z) = 0.822467 - \frac{1}{4} \left( \sum_{j=1}^{(\nu_1/2)-1} j^{-2} + \sum_{j=1}^{(\nu_2/2)-1} j^{-2} \right) \quad (27.13b)$$

\*Although this is a random variable, it is usually denoted in the literature by a small  $z$

and generally (for  $r \geq 2$ )

$$\kappa_r(z) = 2^{-r}(r-1)! \left[ \left( S_r - \sum_{j=1}^{(\nu_1/2)-1} j^{-r} \right) + (-1)^r \left( S_r - \sum_{j=1}^{(\nu_2/2)-1} j^{-r} \right) \right] \tag{27.13c}$$

where

$$S_r = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} j^{-r}.$$

2.  $\nu_1$  and  $\nu_2$  both odd:

$$\begin{aligned} \kappa_r(z) = (r-1)! & \left[ \left( T_r - \sum_{j=0}^{(\nu_2-3)/2} (2j+1)^{-r} \right) \right. \\ & \left. + (-1)^r \left( T_r - \sum_{j=0}^{(\nu_1-3)/2} (2j+1)^{-r} \right) \right] \end{aligned} \tag{27.14}$$

for  $r \geq 2$ , where

$$T_r = S_r(1 - 2^{-r}) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} (2j+1)^{-r}.$$

In particular,

$$\text{var}(z) = 2.467401 - \frac{1}{4} \left( \sum_{j=0}^{(\nu_2-3)/2} \left(j + \frac{1}{2}\right)^{-2} + \sum_{j=0}^{(\nu_1-3)/2} \left(j + \frac{1}{2}\right)^{-2} \right). \tag{27.15a}$$

Also

$$E[z] = \frac{1}{2} \log\left(\frac{\nu_2}{\nu_1}\right) - \sum_j^* (2j+1)^{-r}, \tag{27.15b}$$

where the limits of summation in  $\sum_j^*$  are now from  $j = \frac{1}{2} \min(\nu_1, \nu_2) - 1$  to  $j = \frac{1}{2} \max(\nu_1, \nu_2) - 3/2$ .



3.  $\nu_1$  even,  $\nu_2$  odd:

$$\kappa_r(z) = (r-1)! \left[ \left( T_r - \sum_{j=0}^{(\nu_2-3)/2} (2j+1)^{-r} \right) + \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)^r \left( S_r - \sum_{j=1}^{(\nu_1/2)-1} j^{-r} \right) \right] \quad \text{for } r \geq 2. \quad (27.16)$$

4.  $\nu_2$  even,  $\nu_1$  odd:

$$\kappa_r(z) = (r-1)! \left[ 2^{-r} \left( S_r - \sum_{j=0}^{(\nu_2/2)-1} j^{-r} \right) + (-1)^r \left( T_r - \sum_{j=0}^{(\nu_1-3)/2} (2j+1)^{-r} \right) \right] \quad \text{for } r \geq 2. \quad (27.17)$$

It is helpful, in remembering these formulas, to think of the relation

$$\kappa_r(z) = 2^{-r} \left[ \kappa_r(\log \chi_{\nu_1}^2) + (-1)^r \kappa_r(\log \chi_{\nu_2}^2) \right] \quad \text{for } r \geq 2. \quad (27.17)'$$

### 3 ORDER STATISTICS

Order statistics  $G'_1 \leq \dots \leq G'_n$  for random samples of  $n$  from the  $G_{\nu_1, \nu_2}$  distribution (27.3) were considered by Patil, Raghunandan, and Lee (1985a, b). Tables of  $E[G'_i]$ ,  $E[G_i'^2]$ , and  $E[G_i'G_j']$  were provided for  $n = 2(1)5$ ,  $\nu_1 = 2(1)4$ , and  $\nu_2 = 5(1)7$ . Expressions for the pdf and cdf are quite complicated even in the relatively simple case of even degrees of freedom. The case of odd degrees of freedom presents substantial computational difficulties.

### 4 TABLES

In view of relation (27.8), tables of the incomplete beta function ratio can be used to evaluate the cumulative distribution function of  $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2}$ . In suitable cases tables of binomial (or negative binomial) probabilities can of course be used. This has been noted by a number of authors [e.g., Bizley (1950); Johnson (1959); Mantel (1966)]. Similarly from tables of percentile points of the beta distribution, corresponding points of F-distributions can be obtained with little computational effort. It is, however, convenient to have available

tables giving percentile points of F-distributions (i.e., values of  $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2, \alpha}$ ) directly for given values of  $\nu_1$ ,  $\nu_2$ , and  $\alpha$ . Such tables are commonly available. Here we give only the more notable sources, excluding reproductions (in part or whole) in textbooks. It is to be noted that it is customary to give only upper percentiles (i.e.,  $\alpha \geq 0.5$ ). Lower percentiles are easily obtained from the formula

$$F_{\nu_1, \nu_2, 1-\alpha} = F_{\nu_2, \nu_1, \alpha}^{-1}$$

Greenwood and Hartley (1961) classified tables of  $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2, 1-\alpha}$  according to two broad categories:

1. With  $\alpha = 0.005, 0.001, 0.025, 0.05, 0.1$ , and  $0.25$ .
2. With  $\alpha = 0.001, 0.01, 0.05$ , and  $0.20$ .

Merrington and Thompson (1943) gave tables of the first type to five significant figures for  $\nu_1 = 1(1)10, 12, 15, 20, 24, 30, 40, 60, 120, \infty$  and  $\nu_2 = 1(1)30, 40, 60, 120, \infty$ . (The higher values are chosen to facilitate harmonic interpolation with  $120\nu^{-1}$  as the variable.) Fisher and Yates (1953) gave tables of the second type to two decimal places for  $\nu_1 = 1(1)6, 8, 12, 24, \infty$  and  $\nu_2 = 1(1)30, 40, 60, 120, \infty$ . More extensive tables (though only to three significant figures) have been given by Hald (1952). He gave values of  $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2, 1-\alpha}$  for  $\alpha = 0.0005, 0.0001, 0.1, 0.3$ , and  $0.5$  with

$$\nu_1 = 1(1)10(5)20, 30, 50, 100, 200, 500, \infty$$

and

$$\nu_2 = 1(1)20(2)30(5)50, 60(2)100, 200, 500, \infty,$$

and also for

$$\alpha = 0.005, 0.01, 0.025, 0.05$$

with

$$\nu_1 = 1(1)20(2)30(5)50, 60(2)100, 200, 500, \infty$$

and

$$\nu_2 = 1(1)30(2)50(5)70(10)100(25)150, 200, 300, 500, 1000, \infty.$$

Many other tables of  $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2, \alpha}$  are derived from one or more of these tables. However, the earliest tables (as has already been mentioned in Section 27.2) gave values not of  $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2, \alpha}$  but of  $z_{\nu_1, \nu_2, \alpha} = \frac{1}{2} \log F_{\nu_1, \nu_2, \alpha}$ . For large values of  $\nu_1$  or  $\nu_2$ , interpolation with respect to numbers of degrees of freedom is much easier for  $z$  than for  $F$ . This does not appear to be the original reason

for introducing  $z$  [see Fisher (1924)], but it is now the main reason for using such tables [Fisher and Yates (1953)]. Of course for occasional interpolation it is possible to use tables of the F-distribution and to calculate the needed values of

$$z_{\nu_1, \nu_2, \alpha} = \frac{1}{2} \log F_{\nu_1, \nu_2, \alpha}.$$

Zinger (1964) has proposed the following method for interpolating in tables of percentile points of  $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2}$  in order to evaluate  $\Pr\{F_{\nu_1, \nu_2} > K\}$ . One seeks to find tabled values  $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2, 1-\alpha}$  and  $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2, 1-m\alpha}$  such that  $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2, 1-m\alpha} \leq K \leq F_{\nu_1, \nu_2, 1-\alpha}$ . Then

$$\Pr\{F_{\nu_1, \nu_2} > K\} \doteq 1 - \alpha m^k,$$

where  $k$  satisfies the equation

$$kF_{\nu_1, \nu_2, 1-m\alpha} + (1-k)F_{\nu_1, \nu_2, 1-\alpha} = K.$$

Laubscher (1965) has given examples showing the accuracy of harmonic interpolation (with arguments  $\nu_1^{-1}, \nu_2^{-1}$ ) for either univariate or bivariate interpolation with respect to  $\nu_1$  and  $\nu_2$ , where  $\alpha$  is fixed. Bol'shev, Gladkov, and Shcheglova (1961) presented auxiliary tables for accurate computations of the beta and **z-distribution** functions.

Mardia and Zemroch (1978) compiled tables of F and related distributions and gave algorithms for their evaluation. Their tables include values of  $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2, \alpha}$  to five significant figures for

$$\nu_1 = 0.1(0.1)1.0(0.2)2.0(0.5)5(1)16, 18, 20, 24, 30, 40, 60, 120, \infty,$$

$$\nu_2 = 0.1(0.1)3.0(0.2)7.0(0.5)11(1)40, 60, 120, \infty,$$

$$\alpha = 0.0001, 0.0005, 0.001, 0.005, 0.01, 0.02, 0.025, 0.03(0.01)0.1, 0.2,$$

$$0.25, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5.$$

The inclusion of fractional values of  $\nu_1$  and  $\nu_2$  is useful when an **F-distribution** is used as an approximation.

## 5 APPROXIMATIONS AND NOMOGRAMS

Because of Eq. (27.8), that expresses the probability integral of the **F-distribution** as an incomplete beta function ratio, approximations to the latter can be applied to the former. Such approximations have already been described in Chapters 3 and 25. Here we will describe more particularly some approximations to the F-distribution. They also can be used as approximations to the incomplete beta function ratio. In fact this section may be regarded as

an extension of the discussions of Chapter 3, Section 6, and Chapter 25, Section 6.

The approximations cited below for are quite ingenious for the most part and historically valuable, and we have decided to include them to mirror the developments in this field of investigation realizing fully well that practical utility of a number of them becomes less prominent with the advances in computer technology.

We have already noted that  $z = \frac{1}{2} \log F$  has a more nearly normal distribution than does  $F$  itself. Several approximations are based on either a normal approximation to the distribution of  $z$  or some modification thereof — such as that provided by using a Cornish-Fisher expansion (Chapter 12, Section 5).

For large values of both  $\nu_1$  and  $\nu_2$  the distribution of  $z$  may be approximated by a normal distribution with expected value  $\frac{1}{2}(\nu_2^{-1} - \nu_1^{-1}) (= \delta)$  and variance  $\frac{1}{2}(\nu_1^{-1} + \nu_2^{-1}) (= \sigma^2)$ . This leads to the simple approximate formula

$$z_{\nu_1, \nu_2, \alpha} \doteq \frac{1}{2}(\nu_2^{-1} - \nu_1^{-1}) + U_\alpha \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}(\nu_1^{-1} + \nu_2^{-1})} \quad (= \delta + U_\alpha \sigma), \quad (27.18)$$

suggested by Fisher (1924). Fisher also suggested that replacement of  $\nu_1^{-1}, \nu_2^{-1}$  by  $(\nu_1 - 1)^{-1}, (\nu_2 - 1)^{-1}$  might improve accuracy.

More elaborate approximations can be obtained using expansions of Cornish-Fisher (1937) type. One such approximation [Aroian (1941); Fisher and Cornish (1960); Wishart (1957)], using *approximate* formulas for the cumulants, is

$$\begin{aligned} z_{\nu_1, \nu_2, \alpha} \doteq & U_\alpha \sigma + \frac{1}{3} \delta (U_\alpha^2 + 2) \\ & + \sigma \left\{ \frac{\sigma^2}{12} (U_\alpha^3 + 3U_\alpha) + \frac{1}{36} \left( \frac{\delta}{\sigma} \right)^2 (U_\alpha^3 + 11U_\alpha) \right\} \\ & + \frac{1}{30} \delta \sigma^2 (U_\alpha^4 + 9U_\alpha^2 + 8) \\ & - \frac{1}{810} \frac{\delta^3}{\sigma^2} (3U_\alpha^4 + 7U_\alpha^2 - 16) + \dots \end{aligned} \quad (27.19)$$

The first two terms of approximation (27.19) can be written

$$\delta + U_\alpha \sigma + \frac{1}{3} \delta (U_\alpha^2 - 1) = \delta \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{3} (U_\alpha^2 - 1) \right] + U_\alpha \sigma.$$

Fisher (1924) suggested the approximation

$$z_{\nu_1, \nu_2, \alpha} \doteq \delta \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{3}(U_\alpha^2 - 1) \right] + U_\alpha \sigma (1 - \sigma^2)^{-1/2}, \quad (27.20)$$

which makes some allowance for later terms in (27.19). This approximation was improved by Cochran (1940) with the formula

$$z_{\nu_1, \nu_2, \alpha} \doteq \delta \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{3}(U_\alpha^2 - 1) \right] + U_\alpha \sigma \left[ 1 - \frac{1}{6}(U_\alpha^2 + 3)\sigma^2 \right]^{-1/2}, \quad (27.21)$$

which differs from the sum of the first three terms of (27.19) by approximately  $[(U_\alpha^3 + 11U_\alpha)/36](\delta^2/\sigma)$ .

Carter (1947) obtained another formula using more accurate expressions for the cumulants of  $z$  derived by Wishart, together with certain modifications in the expansions. His formula for  $\nu_1, \nu_2$  large is

$$z_{\nu_1, \nu_2, \alpha} \doteq \frac{U_\alpha \left\{ (U_\alpha^2/6) - (1/2) + 2\nu'_1 \nu'_2 (\nu'_1 + \nu'_2)^{-1} \right\}^{1/2}}{2\nu'_1 \nu'_2 (\nu'_1 + \nu'_2)^{-1}} - \frac{1}{6} \left( \frac{1}{\nu'_1} - \frac{1}{\nu'_2} \right) \left( U_\alpha^2 + 2 - \frac{2(\nu'_1 + \nu'_2)}{\nu'_1 \nu'_2} \right), \quad (27.22)$$

where

$$\nu'_j = \nu_j - 1, \quad j = 1, 2.$$

We may also note the following approximate result of Aroian (1942): For  $\nu_1$  and  $\nu_2$  large, he showed

$$z_{\nu_1, \nu_2} \doteq \frac{\sqrt{2(\nu_1 + \nu_2 - 1)\nu_1\nu_2}}{\nu_1 + \nu_2}$$

to be approximately distributed as  $t$  with  $(\nu_1 + \nu_2 - 1)$  degrees of freedom. Aroian also proposed the approximation

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr \left[ z_{\nu_1, \nu_2} \frac{\sqrt{2(\nu_1 + \nu_2 - 1)}}{\nu_1 + \nu_2} > t_{\nu_1 + \nu_2 - 1, 1 - \alpha} \right] \\ \doteq \alpha \sqrt{\frac{(\nu_1 + \nu_2 - 1)}{\nu_1 + \nu_2}} \exp \left[ \frac{1}{6}(\nu_1^{-1} + \nu_2^{-1}) - \frac{5}{12}(\nu_1 + \nu_2 - 1)^{-1} \right], \end{aligned} \quad (27.23)$$

where  $t_{\nu_1 + \nu_2 - 1, 1 - \alpha}$  is the 100  $(1 - \alpha)\%$  point of  $t$  distribution with  $(\nu_1 + \nu_2)$

- 1) degrees of freedom. The right-hand side is always less than  $\alpha$ . The approximation is reported to be generally not as good as the Cornish-Fisher type formula (27.21).

These formulas were further modified by Aroian (1947), who gave a number of interesting numerical comparisons of the accuracy of various approximations. His conclusions were that a better approximation, than that provided by expansions of the type we have so far discussed [except (27.22)], is provided (at least for  $\nu_1, \nu_2 > 20$ ), by an approximation suggested by Paulson (1942).

Paulson's formula is based on the Wilson-Hilferty approximation to the distribution of  $\chi^2$ , the remarkable accuracy of which has been described in Chapter 18, Section 5. If the distributions of  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  (at the beginning of this chapter) are each approximated in this way, we see that the distribution of  $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2}^{1/3}$  is approximated by the distribution of the ratio of two independent normal variables. In fact  $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2}^{1/3}$  is approximately distributed as

$$\frac{1 - \frac{2}{9}\nu_1 + U_1\sqrt{\frac{2}{9}\nu_1}}{1 - \frac{2}{9}\nu_2 + U_2\sqrt{\frac{2}{9}\nu_2}}, \quad (27.24)$$

where  $U_1, U_2$  are independent unit normal variables. Using a further approximate formula for the distribution of this ratio (Chapter 13, Section 6.3), we are led to the approximation of taking

$$W = \left[ \left( 1 - \frac{2}{9\nu_2} \right) F_{\nu_1, \nu_2}^{1/3} - \left( 1 - \frac{2}{9\nu_1} \right) \right] \left( \frac{2}{9\nu_2} F_{\nu_1, \nu_2}^{2/3} + \frac{2}{9\nu_1} \right)^{-1/2} \quad (27.25)$$

to have a unit normal distribution [Paulson (1942)]. This approximation is also remarkably accurate for  $\nu_2 \geq 10$ . Smillie and Anstey (1964) utilized it in a computer routine.

For  $\nu_2 \leq 10$  values of upper percentage points  $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2, \alpha}$  calculated from (27.24) can be improved by using the formula

$$(\text{Improved value}) = m \times (\text{Calculated value}) + c$$

where  $m$  and  $c$  depend on  $\nu_2$  and the percentile but not on  $\nu_1$ . Ashby (1968) gave values of  $m$  and  $c$  for  $\alpha = 0.95, 0.99, 0.999$ ;  $\nu_2 = 1(1)10$  with which accuracy to three significant figures is attained. For small values of  $\nu_2 \leq 3$  Kelley (1948) recommended replacing  $W$  by

$$W' = W(1 + 0.08W^4\nu_2^{-3}).$$

One of the earliest computer programs for calculating  $\Pr\{F > f\}$  using this corrected formula was published by Jaspens (1965). He gave comparisons of exact and calculated values for  $\nu_1 = 2, \nu_2 = 2$ . Further comparisons, for

$\nu_1, \nu_2 = 1, 2, 4, 10, 20, 60, 1000$  but only for  $f = F_{\nu_1, \nu_2, 0.95}$ , were made by Golden, Weiss, and Davis (1968). It appears from Jaspén (1965) that accuracy is better in the lower rather than the upper tail of the F-distribution.

A similar approximation can be obtained using Fisher's approximation to the  $\chi^2$  distribution ( $\sqrt{2\chi_v^2} - \sqrt{2\nu - 1}$  approximately a unit normal variable) in place of the Wilson-Hilferty approximation.

The resulting approximation is to regard

$$\left[ \sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{2\nu_2}} F_{\nu_1, \nu_2}^{1/2} - \sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{2\nu_1}} \right] \left[ \frac{1}{2\nu_2} F_{\nu_1, \nu_2} + \frac{1}{2\nu_1} \right]^{-1/2} \quad (27.26)$$

as a unit normal variable. Since the Fisher transformation is generally less accurate than the Wilson-Hilferty transformation, one would expect (27.25) to be generally more accurate than (27.26). While this is so, the comparison is not as disadvantageous to (27.26) as might be expected.

If only one of  $\nu_1$  and  $\nu_2$  is large (e.g.,  $\nu_2$ ), then the natural approximation to use is  $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2}$  distributed as  $\chi_{\nu_1}^2/\nu_1$ . (It is clearly always possible to arrange that  $\nu_2 > \nu_1$  in this case.) Scheffé and Tukey (1944) have proposed a simple improvement on this which, in terms of the incomplete beta function ratio [Chapter 25, Eq. (27.3)], is that if

$$I_p(n - r + 1, r) = \alpha,$$

then

$$n \doteq \frac{1}{4} \chi_{2r, \alpha}^2 (1 + p)(1 - p)^{-1} + \frac{1}{2}(r - 1).$$

In terms of F-distributions this can be stated as

$$F_{\nu_1, \nu_2, \alpha} \doteq \left[ \frac{\nu_1}{\chi_{\nu_1, \alpha}^2} + \frac{\nu_1}{\nu_2} \left( \frac{(\nu_1/2) - 1}{\chi_{\nu_1, \alpha}^2} - \frac{1}{2} \right) \right]^{-1}. \quad (27.27)$$

(At one stage the derivation of this entails reversing the degrees of freedom of **F**.) McIntyre and Ward (1968) constructed a computer program using this approximation.

Mudholkar and Chaubey (1976) utilize the relation between F- and beta distributions to adjust their Patnaik-type, Pearson-type, and Sankaran-type approximations to  $I_x(p, q)$  (see Chapter 25, Section 6.1) for approximating percentage points of F-distributions:

$$\Pr\{F_{\nu_1, \nu_2} \geq f\} \doteq 1 - \Phi(u),$$

where

$$u = \frac{[(-\log x + b)/(\kappa_1 - b)]^{1/3} - [1 - \kappa_3^2/(36\kappa_2^3)]}{\kappa_3/(6\kappa_2^{3/2})} \tag{27.28}$$

and  $x = \{1 + (\nu_1/\nu_2)f\}^{-1}$ . Here  $\kappa_1$ ,  $\kappa_2$ , and  $\kappa_3$  are the cumulants of  $(-\log X)$ , where  $X$  has a standard beta  $(\frac{1}{2}\nu_2, \frac{1}{2}\nu_1)$  distribution:

$$\kappa_r = (-1)^r [\psi^{(r-1)}(\frac{1}{2}) - \psi^{(r-1)}(\frac{1}{2}(\nu_1 + \nu_2))],$$

where

$$\psi^{(r-1)}(x) = \left(\frac{d^r}{dx^r}\right) \log \Gamma(x)$$

[see Chapter 25, Eq. (25.13)"]. If  $\nu_1$  is odd, an approximate "interpolated" expression,

$$\kappa_r^* \doteq (r-1)! \left\{ \sum_{j=0}^{(\nu_1-3)/2} \left(\frac{1}{2}\nu_2 + j\right)^{-r} + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\nu_1 + \nu_2 - 1}{2}\right)^{-r} \right\}, \tag{27.29}$$

is used for  $\kappa_r$ . If both  $\nu_1$  and  $\nu_2$  are even, the formula

$$\Pr[F_{\nu_1, \nu_2} \leq f] = I_{\nu_1 f / (\nu_2 + \nu_1 f)}(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1, \frac{1}{2}\nu_2) \tag{27.8'}$$

enables one to calculate values of the cdf of  $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2}$  as a sum of probabilities for a binomial distribution with parameters  $\frac{1}{2}(\nu_1 + \nu_2) - 1, \nu_1 f / (\nu_2 + \nu_1 f)$ . However, if  $\nu_1$  or  $\nu_2$  (or both) are odd, this is not possible. For such cases George and Singh (1987) suggested an approximate formula of form

$$\Pr[F_{\nu_1, \nu_2} \leq f] \doteq I_{\alpha + \beta \log f}([\frac{1}{2}(\nu_1 + 1)], [\frac{1}{2}(\nu_2 + 1)]), \tag{27.30a}$$

where  $[a]$  denotes "integer part of  $a$ ," and  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are constants depending on  $\nu_1$  and  $\nu_2$ . [Formula (27.30a) was based on approximating the distribution of  $\log F_{\nu_1, \nu_2}$  by a generalized logistic distribution.]

Earlier Mantel (1966) had suggested that when  $\nu_1$  and/or  $\nu_2$  are odd, values of  $I_p(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1, \frac{1}{2}\nu_2)$  can be interpolated from neighboring values for even  $\nu_1$  and  $\nu_2$ —for example, if  $\nu_1 = 3$  and  $\nu_2 = 5$ —the values  $I_p(1, 2)$ ,  $I_p(1, 3)$ ,  $I_p(2, 2)$ , and  $I_p(2, 3)$  can be used to estimate  $I_p(1.5, 2.5)$ . [Note that in each case  $p = \nu_1 f / (\nu_2 + \nu_1 f)$  ( $= 3f / (5 + 3f)$  here).] George and Singh (1987) found that when both  $\nu_1$  and  $\nu_2$  are odd, (27.30a) gives superior results, especially in the tails of the distribution, but when only one of  $\nu_1$  and  $\nu_2$  is odd, Mantel's approximation is slightly better.



If  $(-\log X)$  is approximated as  $(a\chi_\nu^2 + b)$ , then  $\nu$  is determined by equating the first three moments of  $(-\log X)$  and  $(a\chi_\nu^2 + b)$ , obtaining

$$\begin{aligned} \nu &= 8\{\beta_1(-\log X)\}^{-1}, \\ a &= \left( \frac{\text{var}(-\log X)}{2\nu} \right)^{1/2}, \\ b &= E[-\log X] - a\nu. \end{aligned} \quad (27.30b)$$

Davenport and Herring (1979) have suggested a so-called adjusted **Cornish-Fisher** approximation for  $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2, \alpha}$ . Johnson (1973) devised a number of empirical formulas for  $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2, \alpha}$ , for  $\alpha = 0.95, 0.975$ , which are set out in Table 27.1. The accuracy is  $\pm 0.6\%$ .

In most cases the error is less than 0.2%. The maximum error occurs at  $\nu_1 = \nu_2 = 120$  for  $\alpha = 0.95$  and  $\nu_1 = 60, \nu_2 = 120$  for  $\alpha = 0.975$ . Ojo (1985, 1988) provides approximations to the distribution of  $\log F$  by means of  $t$ -distributions, having the same mean, variance, and coefficient of kurtosis as a linear function of  $\log F$ . Viveros (1990) considers power transformations. He suggests regarding

$$(F_{\nu_1, \nu_2}^c - d)g \quad (27.30c)$$

as a unit normal variable, with

$$\begin{aligned} c &= \frac{\nu_2 - \nu_1}{3(\nu_1 + \nu_2) - 4}, \\ d &= \left\{ \frac{\nu_2(\nu_1 - 2c)}{\nu_1(\nu_2 + 2c)} \right\}^c, \\ g &= \frac{1}{cd} \left\{ \frac{(\nu_1 - 2c)(\nu_2 + 2c)}{2(\nu_1 + \nu_2)} \right\}^{1/2}. \end{aligned}$$

These values are obtained by considering the Taylor expansion of the pdf of  $\log F$  about the mode of the distribution. Alternatively, for any given  $c$ ,  $d$  and  $g$  can be chosen as the expected value and standard deviation of  $F^c$ , producing a standardized variable in (27.30c). Note that  $-\frac{1}{3} \leq c \leq \frac{1}{3}$ .

Nomograms for evaluation of incomplete beta function values can be used for calculation of values of cumulative F-distributions. There is a nomogram specifically designed for the F-distribution in Stammberger (1967) which is reproduced in Figure 27.2. From this nomogram one can evaluate any one of  $\Pr[F_{\nu_1, \nu_2} \leq f]$ ,  $f$ ,  $\nu_1$ , and  $\nu_2$  given the values of the other three quantities, using two straight edges (indicated by broken lines in Figure 27.2).

Table 27.1 Johnson's empirical formulas for  $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2, \alpha}$  for  $\alpha = 0.95, 0.975$ , and their accuracy

Group	$\nu_1$	$\nu_2$	Approximate $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2, 0.95}$	Maximum Absolute % Deviation from $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2, 0.95}$
I	1-120	1	$\frac{\nu_1 - 0.09849}{0.0039292\nu_1 + 0.0016579}$	0.005
II	1-120	2	$\frac{\nu_1 - 0.03646}{0.051294\nu_1 + 0.000761}$	0.000
III	1-120	3	$\frac{\nu_1 + 1.094}{0.1173\nu_1 + 0.0894}$	0.005
IV	1-120	4	$\frac{\nu_1 + 1.349}{0.1776\nu_1 + 0.1271}$	0.009
V	1	5-120	$7.71 - \frac{\nu_2 - 4.032}{0.2581\nu_2 - 0.4076}$	0.000
VI	2-120	5-120	$\frac{\nu_1 + 1.288}{0.1751\nu_1 + 0.1129} - \frac{\nu_2 - 4.119}{0.2511\nu_2 - 0.4236}$ $\times \left\{ 0.552 - \frac{6.530}{\nu_1 + 11.533} - \frac{3.993}{\nu_2 + 11.533} \right.$ $\left. + \frac{88.889}{(\nu_1 + 11.533)(\nu_2 + 11.533)} \right\}$	0.6

Group	$\nu_1$	$\nu_2$	Approximate $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2, 0.975}$	Maximum Absolute % Deviation from $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2, 0.975}$
I	1-120	1	$\frac{\nu_1 - 0.09582}{0.0009813\nu_1 + 0.0004153}$	0.001
II	1-120	2	$\frac{\nu_1 - 0.00904}{0.025317\nu_1 + 0.000416}$	0.001
III	1-120	3	$\frac{\nu_1 + 0.9232}{0.07192\nu_1 + 0.03836}$	0.003
IV	1-120	4	$\frac{\nu_1 + 1.270}{0.1210\nu_1 + 0.0648}$	0.003
V	1	5-120	$12.22 - \frac{\nu_2 - 4.045}{0.1387\nu_2 - 0.2603}$	0.003
VI	2-120	5-120	$\frac{\nu_1 + 1.739}{0.1197\nu_1 + 0.1108} - \frac{\nu_2 - 3.986}{0.1414\nu_2 - 0.2864}$ $\times \left\{ -0.145 + 0.00170\nu_1 + \frac{2.706 - 0.06150\nu_1}{\nu_2 + 30} \right\}$	0.6

Source: Johnson (1973).

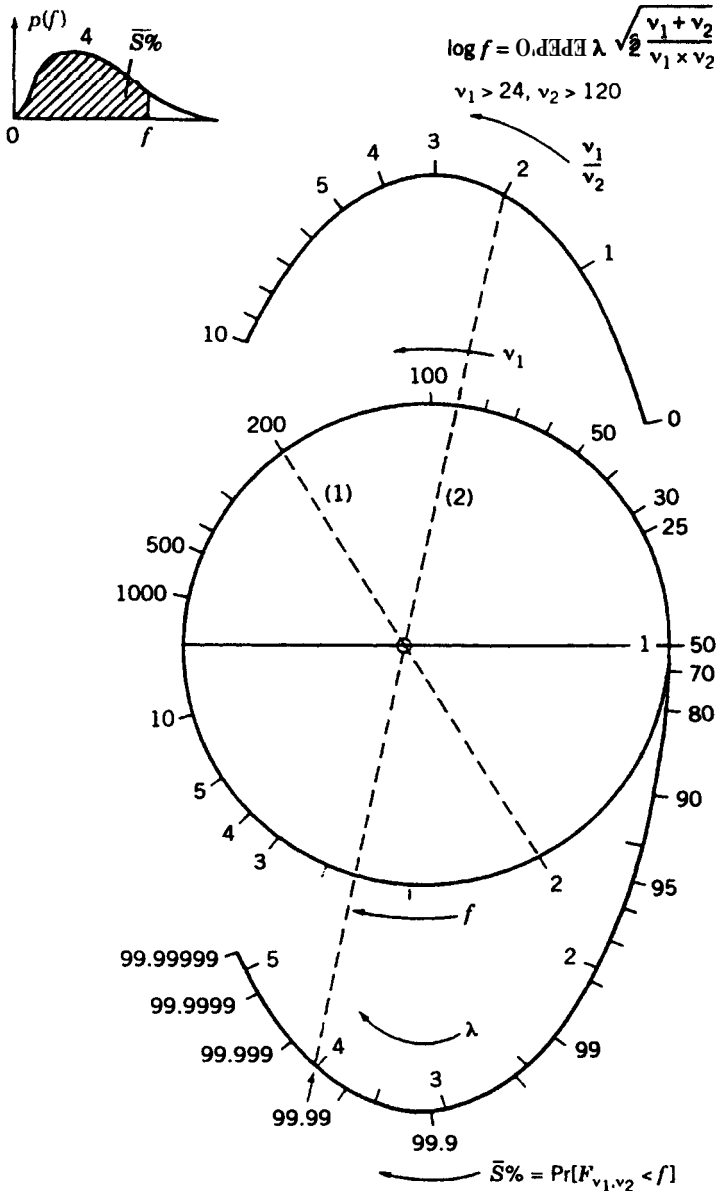


Figure 27.2 Nomogram for Cumulative F Distribution

Dion and Fridshal (1982) conjectured that

$$\frac{\chi_{\nu_1, (1-\gamma)/2}^2/\nu_1}{\chi_{\nu_2, (1-\gamma)/2}^2/\nu_2} \leq F_{\nu_1, \nu_2, 1-\gamma} \tag{27.31a}$$

and

$$\frac{\chi_{\nu_1, (1+\gamma)/2}^2/\nu_1}{\chi_{\nu_2, (1+\gamma)/2}^2/\nu_2} \geq F_{\nu_1, \nu_2, 1+\gamma} \tag{27.31b}$$

Burk et al. (1984) showed that this conjecture is true for  $\nu_1 = \nu_2$ . However, numerical studies showed that the conjecture is false if  $\nu_1 \neq \nu_2$ , for all  $\gamma$  in an interval  $0 \leq \gamma \leq \gamma_0$ , together with some "holes" in  $\gamma_0 < \gamma < 1$ . ( $\gamma_0 \approx 0.0043$  for  $\nu_1 = 4, \nu_2 = 2$ .)

### 6 APPLICATIONS

The commonest application of the F-distribution in statistical work is in standard tests associated with the analysis of variance. Many of these are based on a general result of Kolodziejczyk (1935), according to which the likelihood ratio test of a general linear hypothesis ( $H_0$ ) about the parameters of a general linear model with normal residuals can be expressed in terms of a statistic that has an F-distribution when  $H_0$  is valid. The application of the F-distribution in testing equality of variances of two normal populations has been described in Section 27.1.

In some earlier tables of (upper) percentiles of F-distributions, the tables are stated to apply to the distribution of "greater divided by lesser mean square." While it is true that it is often convenient to take the ratio so that it exceeds 1, this affects the significance level of the test. If tables of upper  $100\alpha\%$  percentiles are used ( $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2, 1-\alpha}$ ), then the actual significance level is not  $\alpha$  but  $2\alpha$ . This can be seen by noting that "significance" is attained if the observed ratio is either greater than  $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2, 1-\alpha}$  or less than  $(F_{\nu_2, \nu_1, 1-\alpha})^{-1} = F_{\nu_1, \nu_2, \alpha}$ .

The F-distribution is also used in the calculation of power functions of these tests and of confidence limits for the ratios of variances of normal populations. The relation between F-distribution and binomial distributions has already been noted in Section 27.3. A consequence of this is that the approximate confidence limits ( $\underline{p}, \bar{p}$ ) for a binomial proportion obtained by solving the equations

$$\sum_{j=r}^n \binom{n}{j} \underline{p}^j (1 - \underline{p})^{n-j} = \frac{1}{2}\alpha$$

$$\sum_{j=0}^r \binom{n}{j} \bar{p}^j (1 - \bar{p})^{n-j} = \frac{1}{2}\alpha$$

[where  $r$  represents the observed value of a binomial  $(n, p)$  variable] can be expressed in terms of percentile points of an F-distribution:

$$\underline{p} = r[(n - r + 1)F_{2(n-r+1), 2r, \alpha/2} + r]^{-1},$$

$$\bar{p} = (r + 1)F_{2(r+1), 2(n-r), \alpha/2} [n - r + (r + 1)F_{2(r+1), 2(n-r), \alpha/2}]^{-1}.$$

Box (1949) expresses certain approximations to the distributions (under multinormality conditions) of multivariate test statistics in terms of F-distributions. These are just convenient ways of representing the results of fitting **Pearson** Type VI distributions. This family of distributions will be discussed in Section 27.7. Donner, Wells, and Eliasziw (1989) describe uses of F-distributions as approximations to distributions of certain statistics in analysis of variance for unbalanced designs [see also Satterthwaite (1946)].

The F-distribution is also used for approximating other distributions. Yip (1974) approximated the distribution of a random variable  $X$  using the first four moments. He equated the first four moments of  $(X + g)/h$  to those of  $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2}$  [see Eq. (27.6)] and solved the resulting equations for  $\nu_1$ ,  $\nu_2$ ,  $g$ , and  $h$ . Yip (1974) also applied this method to obtain approximations of non-central F-distribution (Chapter 30) and that of Hotelling's generalized  $T_0^2$ .

Four-moment approximations can of course be obtained from tables of the percentage points of **Pearson** curves, but these tables do not cover all the  $(\beta_1, \beta_2)$  points in the F-region. Whenever the  $(\beta_1, \beta_2)$  values of  $X$  lie within this F-region, the four-moment F-distribution  $F \approx (X + g)/h$  will generally provide close approximations to the distribution of  $X$ .

Wood (1989) used a three-parameter F-distribution as an approximation to the distribution of a positive linear combination of central chi-square variables. Numerical results indicate that the proposed approximation is superior over Satterthwaite's (1946) and **Buckley** and **Eagleson's** (1988) approximations (unless 0.95 or 0.05 point of the linear combination is required), but is less accurate than the iterative Gamma-Weibull approximation due to Solomon and Stephens (1977).

## 7 PEARSON TYPE VI DISTRIBUTIONS

We have already remarked that any F-distribution is a special form of **Pearson** Type VI distribution (27.3). Here we give an account of this general family, to which F-distributions belong. The most general form of equation for the probability density function of a Type VI distribution can be written as [Elderton and Johnson (1969)]

$$p_X(x) = \frac{\Gamma(q_1)(a_2 - a_1)^{q_1 - q_2 - 1}}{\Gamma(q_1 - q_2 - 1)\Gamma(q_2 + 1)} \frac{(x - a_2)^{q_2}}{(x - a_1)^{q_1}}$$

$$q_1 > q_2 > -1, x \geq a_2 > a_1 \quad (27.32)$$

[assuming that the sign of  $X$  has been chosen so that  $\sqrt{\beta_1(X)} \geq 0$ ].

The graph of  $p_X(x)$  against  $x$  has a single mode at

$$x = a_2 + q_2(q_1 - q_2)^{-1}(a_2 - a_1)$$

provided that  $q_2$  is positive. If  $q_2$  is zero, the mode is at  $x = a_1$ , and if  $q_2$  is negative,  $p_X(x)$  tends to infinity as  $x$  tends to  $a_1$ . In the last two cases  $p_X(x)$  decreases as  $x$  increases from  $a_1$ .

The  $r$ th moment of  $X$  about  $a_1$  is

$$E[(X - a_1)^r] = \frac{(a_2 - a_1)^r (q_1 - 1)^{(r)}}{(q_1 - q_2 - 2)^{(r)}}. \tag{27.33}$$

Note that if  $r \geq q_1 - q_2 - 1$ , the  $r$ th moment is infinite. The expected value and variance of the distribution are

$$\begin{aligned} E[X] &= a_1 + \frac{(q_1 - 1)(a_2 - a_1)}{q_1 - q_2 - 2} \\ &= a_2 + \frac{(q_2 - 1)(a_2 - a_1)}{q_1 - q_2 - 2}, \quad q_1 - q_2 > 2, \end{aligned} \tag{27.34}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{var}(X) &= (a_2 - a_1)^2 (q_1 - 1)(q_2 + 1)(q_1 + q_2 - 2)^{-2} (q_1 - q_2 - 3)^{-1}, \\ & \quad q_1 - q_2 > 3. \end{aligned}$$

The four parameters  $a_1, a_2, q_1,$  and  $q_2$  can of course be expressed in terms of the first four moments of  $X$ . In fact  $q_2$  and  $-q_1$  are given by

$$\frac{1}{2}(r - 2) \pm \frac{1}{2}r(r + 2) \sqrt{\frac{\beta_1(r + 2)}{\beta_1(r + 2)^2 + 16(r + 1)}}, \tag{27.35}$$

where  $r = -6(\beta_2 - \beta_1 - 1)/(2\beta_2 - 3\beta_1 - 6)$ . Note that for Type VI curves,  $2\beta_2 - 3\beta_1 - 6 > 0$  so that  $r < 0$ , and also

$$\frac{\beta_1(\beta_2 + 3)^2}{4(2\beta_2 - 3\beta_1 - 6)(4\beta_2 - 3\beta_1)} > 1. \tag{27.36}$$

There is a simple relation between Type VI and Type I distributions (Chapter 25): The distribution of  $Y = (X - a_2)/(X - a_1)$  is of standard beta form, with parameters  $q_2 + 1$  and  $q_1 - q_2 - 1$ . If  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are independent random variables, each having a distribution of form (27.32), the formal equations for the maximum likelihood estimators  $\hat{a}_1, \hat{a}_2, \hat{q}_1,$  and  $\hat{q}_2$

can be written

$$n(\hat{q}_1 - \hat{q}_2 - 1)(\hat{a}_2 - \hat{a}_1)^{-1} = \hat{q}_1 \sum_{j=1}^n (x_j - \hat{a}_1)^{-1} = \hat{q}_2 \sum_{j=1}^n (x_j - \hat{a}_2)^{-1}, \quad (27.37a)$$

$$n[\psi(\hat{q}_1) - \psi(\hat{q}_1 - \hat{q}_2 - 1) + \log(\hat{a}_2 - \hat{a}_1)] = \sum_{j=1}^n \log(x_j - \hat{a}_1), \quad (27.37b)$$

$$n[\psi(\hat{q}_2 + 1) - \psi(\hat{q}_1 - \hat{q}_2 - 1) + \log(\hat{a}_2 - \hat{a}_1)] = \sum_{j=1}^n \log(x_j - \hat{a}_2). \quad (27.37c)$$

It is necessary to check that the solutions of (27.37) do satisfy the inequalities  $\hat{a}_1 < \hat{a}_2 < \min(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ . It should also be noted that the standard formulas for asymptotic variances do not apply if  $q_1 - q_2 \leq 2$ . The standard formula for the asymptotic variance-covariance matrix of  $\sqrt{n} \hat{a}_1$ ,  $\sqrt{n} \hat{a}_2$ ,  $\sqrt{n} \hat{q}_1$ , and  $\sqrt{n} \hat{q}_2$  is the inverse of the symmetric matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{(q_2 + 1)(q_1 - q_2 - 1)}{(q_1 + 1)(a_2 - a_1)^2} & \frac{-(q_1 - q_2 - 1)}{(a_2 - a_1)^2} & \dots & \dots \\ \frac{-(q_1 - q_2 - 1)}{(a_2 - a_1)^2} & \frac{(q_1 - 1)(q_1 - q_2 - 1)}{(q_2 - 1)(a_2 - a_1)^2} & \dots & \dots \\ \frac{q_2 + 1}{q_1(a_2 - a_1)} & \frac{q_1 - 1}{q_2(a_2 - a_1)} & -\psi'(q_1) + \psi'(q_1 - q_2 - 1) & \dots \\ \frac{-1}{a_2 - a_1} & \frac{-1}{a_2 - a_1} & -\psi'(q_1 - q_2 - 1) & \psi'(q_2 + 1) + \psi'(q_1 - q_2 - 1) \end{pmatrix} \quad (27.38)$$

## 8 OTHER RELATED DISTRIBUTIONS

The relation between  $F$ -distributions and Type I (beta) distributions has already been described in Section 2 (and, more generally, between Type VI and Type I in Section 7). A less evident (though more specialized and less useful) relationship can be summarized as follows: The distribution of  $\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{\nu}(F_{\nu,\nu}^{1/2} - F_{\nu,\nu}^{-1/2})$  is a  $t$ -distribution with  $\nu$  degrees of freedom. This result

has been reported by several different authors [see Aroian (1953), Cacoullos (1965)]. Kymn (1974) provides an elementary derivation.

There is also a relationship (mentioned in Chapter 3, Section 6.1) between the binomial and F-distributions. This can be summarized by the equation

$$\Pr \left[ F_{2(n-r+1), 2r} > \frac{1-p}{p} \cdot \frac{r}{n-r+1} \right] = \Pr[Y \geq r] \quad (27.39)$$

( $r$  is an integer,  $0 \leq r \leq n$ ), where  $Y$  is a binomial variable with parameters  $(n, p)$  [Bizley (1950); Jowett (1963)]. Noncentral F-distributions are discussed in Chapter 30. Multivariate generalizations are discussed in Chapter 40.

There are several pseudo-F-distributions corresponding to replacement of either or both, of  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  in (27.2) by some other sample measure of dispersion such as sample range or mean deviation [see, e.g., Newman (1939)].

The works of David (1949), Gayen (1950), Horsnell (1953), Swain (1965), Tiku (1964), and Zeigler (1965) are the most comprehensive among the numerous investigations of F-distributions under nonnormal conditions, namely when the variables  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  in the definitions of  $S$ , ( $t = 1, 2$ ) have nonnormal distribution. Additional references will be indicated in Chapter 28, Section 7, in connection with the similar problem for  $t$ -distributions.

The truncated Type VI distribution with density function

$$p_X(x) = \left[ \frac{\beta}{\log(1+\beta)} \right] (1+\beta x)^{-1}, \quad 0 < x < 1, \beta > -1 \quad (27.40)$$

( $x$  denotes a proportion) has been used to represent the distribution of references among different sources [Bradford (1948); Leimkuhler (1967)]. When used for this purpose it is called the Bradford distribution. Of course  $X$  would be more naturally represented as a discrete variable and the Bradford distribution may be regarded as an approximation to a Zipf or Yule distribution (Chapter 11).

In the analysis of variance one often has a situation wherein the ratios of each of a number of "mean squares"  $M_1, M_2, \dots, M_k$  to a residual mean square  $M_0$  have to be considered.  $M_j$  can be regarded as being distributed as  $\sigma^2(\chi_{\nu_j}^2/\nu_j)$  ( $j = 0, 1, \dots, k$ ) and the  $M$ 's as mutually independent. If one of the ratios  $M_j/M_0$  ( $j \neq 0$ ) is large, it is helpful to compare it with the distribution of  $\max_j M_j/M_0$ . In the case where  $\nu_1 = \nu_2 = \dots = \nu_k = \nu$  (not necessarily equal to  $\nu_0$ ), this distribution is related to that of "Studentized"  $\chi^2$ —namely the ratio of the minimum of  $k$  independent  $\chi_{\nu}^2$  variables to an independent  $\chi_{\nu}^2$  variable.



**Armitage** and **Krishnaiah (1964)** have given tables of the upper 1%, 2½%, 5%, and 10% points of this distribution, to two decimal places for

$$k = 1(1)12,$$

$$\nu = 1(1)19,$$

$$\nu_0 = 6(1)45 \quad (\text{also } \nu_0 = 5\% \text{ and } 10\% \text{ points}).$$

Tables of the upper 1% and 5% points of  $(\max_{1 \leq j \leq k} M_j) / (\min_{1 \leq j \leq k} M_j)$  for  $k = 2(1)12$  and  $\nu_1 = \nu_2 = \dots = \nu_k = \nu = 2(1)10, 12, 15, 20, 30, 60, \infty$ , are contained in **Pearson** and **Hartley (1958)**; for additional comments on this, see the end of Section 8.2.

### 8.1 "Generalized" F-Distributions

Several "generalized" F-distributions have been described in the last two decades. We have already noted **Prentice's (1975)** work in connection with the **z-distribution**. A variety of generalizations that have been studied, with differing notations, are included within the general form of distributions of  $aF_{\nu_1, \nu_2}^b$ , for various values of  $a$  and  $b$ .

**Ciampi, Hogg, and Kates (1986)** provide a general discussion of this class of distributions, indicating special values of the four parameters ( $a, b, \nu_1, \nu_2$ ) corresponding to certain well-known distributions. They obtain maximum likelihood estimators for the parameters using a "generalized reduced gradient method" described in **Lasdon et al. (1978)**.

If  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are mutually independent, and  $X_i$  has a gamma ( $\alpha_i, \beta_i$ ) distribution [Chapter 17, Eq. (17.23)] with the pdf

$$p_{X_i}(x_i) = \{\beta_i^{\alpha_i} \Gamma(\alpha_i)\}^{-1} x_i^{\alpha_i-1} \exp(-\beta_i^{-1} x_i), \quad x_i > 0, i = 1, 2, \quad (27.41)$$

then  $X_1/X_2$  is distributed as

$$\frac{\alpha_1 \beta_1}{\alpha_2 \beta_2} F_{2\alpha_1, 2\alpha_2}.$$

**Pham-Gia and Duong (1989)** termed this a "corrected" F-distribution and denoted it by **G3F**. (It is related to the **G3B** distributions discussed in Chapter 25, Section 7). **Dyer (1982)** established the distributions of sums of independent variables having **G3F** distributions, and applied his results to various problems in reliability, multivariate analysis and Bayesian modeling. **Shah and Rathie (1974)** obtained distributions of products of **G3F** variables. **Amaral-Turkman and Dunsmore (1985)** used **G3F** distributions (which they called **Inbe** distributions) in studies on information in predictive distributions for a gamma model.

If  $Y = aF_{\nu_1, \nu_2}^b$  ( $a, b > 0$ ), then

$$p_Y(y) = \frac{(\nu_1/\nu_2)^{\nu_1/2} (ab)^{-1} (y/a)^{(\nu_1/(2b))-1}}{B((\nu_1/2), (\nu_2/2)) \{1 + (\nu_1/\nu_2)(y/a)^{1/b}\}^{(\nu_1+\nu_2)/2}}, \quad y > 0 \quad (27.42)$$

[Malik (1967)]. Of course the  $r$ th moment of  $Y$  is

$$\begin{aligned} \mu'_r &= E\left[(aF_{\nu_1, \nu_2}^b)^r\right] = a^r \mu'_{br}(F_{\nu_1, \nu_2}) \quad (27.43) \\ &\equiv a^r \left(\frac{\nu_2}{\nu_1}\right)^{br} \frac{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1 + br)\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu_2 - br)}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1)\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu_2)}, \quad r < \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{\nu_2}{b}\right) \quad [\text{cf. (27.5)}]. \end{aligned}$$

As mentioned earlier, generalizations of the beta distribution of the second kind (see Chapter 25) also become generalizations of the  $F$ -distribution and, as a result, is often denoted by GB2. The density function of this generalized  $F$ -distribution is given by [see McDonald and Richards (1987a, b)]

$$p_X(x|a, p, q) = \frac{|a|x^{ap-1}}{B(p, q)(1+x^a)^{p+q}}, \quad x > 0, p, q > 0.$$

The  $k$ th moment (about zero) of  $X$  is given by

$$E[X^k] = B\left(p + \frac{k}{a}, q - \frac{k}{a}\right) / B(p, q), \quad -p < \frac{k}{a} < q,$$

from which we readily obtain the mean of  $X$  to be

$$E[X] = \Gamma\left(p + \frac{1}{a}\right)\Gamma\left(q - \frac{1}{a}\right) / \{\Gamma(p)\Gamma(q)\}.$$

McDonald and Richards (1987a) discuss various properties of this distribution and also discuss the maximum likelihood estimation of the parameters of the distribution (with an additional scale parameter  $b$ ).

The cumulative distribution function corresponding to the above generalized  $F$  density may be expressed in terms of the confluent hypergeometric function  ${}_2F_1$  (see Chapter 1); see, for example, McDonald and Richards (1987a). The behavior of the hazard rate of this distribution has been examined by McDonald and Richards (1987b). Bookstaber and McDonald (1987) show that the above generalized  $F$ -distribution is quite useful in the empirical estimation of security returns and in facilitating the development of option pricing models (and other models) which depend on the specification

and mathematical manipulation of distributions. Mixtures of two generalized F-distributions have been considered by McDonald and Butler (1987) who have applied it in the analysis of unemployment duration. McDonald and Butler (1990) have used the generalized F-distribution while discussing regression models for positive random variables. Applications of the generalized F-distribution in modeling insurance loss processes have been illustrated by Cummins et al. (1990). McDonald and Bookstaber (1991) have developed an option pricing formula based on the generalized F-distribution, which includes the widely used Black Scholes formula that is based on the assumption of lognormally distributed returns.

## 8.2 Other Related Distributions

Block and Rao (1973) define the *beta warning time distribution* as the marginal distribution of  $X$  when the conditional distribution of  $X$ , given  $Y = y$ , is a beta  $(m, n)$  distribution over  $(0, y)$ , with the pdf

$$p_{X|Y}(x|y) = \frac{x^{m-1}(y-x)^{n-1}}{B(m, n)y^{m+n-1}}, \quad 0 < x < y; m, n > 0, \quad (27.44)$$

and  $Y$  has the pdf (27.42) with  $a = 1$ . The pdf of  $X$  is

$$p_X(x) = \frac{(\nu_1/\nu_2)^{\nu_1/2} x^{m-1}}{bB(m, n)B(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1, \frac{1}{2}\nu_2)} \int_x \frac{y^{(\nu_1/(2b)) - m - n} (y-x)^{n-1}}{\{1 + (\nu_1/\nu_2)y^{1/b}\}^{(\nu_1+\nu_2)/2}} dy. \quad (27.45)$$

If  $n = 1$ , we have

$$p_X(x) = \frac{m(\nu_1/\nu_2)^{\nu_1/2} x^{m-1}}{bB(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1, \frac{1}{2}\nu_2)} \left[ B(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1 - bm, \frac{1}{2}\nu_2 + bm) - B_{[1+(\nu_1/\nu_2)x^{-b}]^{-1}}(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1 - bm, \frac{1}{2}\nu_2 + bm) \right], \quad (27.46)$$

where  $B_p(a, b)$  is the incomplete beta function defined in Chapter 1, Eq. (1.90). The distribution with the pdf (27.46) is called a *distended beta distribution*. There are further details in Block and Rao (1973). Mihram (1969) contains some motivations for these kinds of distributions.

Mielke and Johnson (1974) reparametrize (27.42) taking

$$\begin{aligned} a &= \beta, \\ b &= \theta^{-1}, \\ \nu_1 &= 2\kappa\theta^{-1}, \\ \nu_2 &= 2(\alpha + 1 - \kappa\theta^{-1}), \end{aligned}$$

and obtain

$$p_Y(y) = \frac{\theta}{\beta^\kappa B(\kappa\theta^{-1}, \alpha + 1 - \kappa\theta^{-1})} \cdot \frac{y^{\kappa-1}}{\{1 + (y/\beta)^\theta\}^{\alpha+1}},$$

$$y > 0; \theta, \beta, \kappa > 0. \quad (27.47)$$

Introducing the restriction  $\kappa = \alpha\theta$  (i.e.,  $\nu_1 = 2\alpha; \nu_2 = 2$ ), we obtain

$$p_Y(y) = \frac{\kappa}{\beta} \frac{(y/\beta)^{\kappa-1}}{\{1 + (y/\beta)^\theta\}^{1+(\kappa/\theta)}}, \quad 0 < y \quad (27.48a)$$

[since  $B(\alpha, 1) = \alpha^{-1}\Gamma$  which is called *Mielke's beta-kappa distribution*. This distribution is applied for stream flow and precipitation data. The cdf corresponding to (27.48a) is

$$F_Y(y) = \left\{ \frac{(y/\beta)^\theta}{1 + (y/\beta)^\theta} \right\}^{\kappa/\theta}, \quad 0 < y. \quad (27.48b)$$

From (27.48b) it follows that the quantile  $y_p$ , making  $F_Y(y_p) = p$ , is

$$y_p = \beta \left[ p^{\theta/\kappa} (1 - p^{\theta/\kappa}) \right]^{1/\theta}. \quad (27.49)$$

Inserting this formula in the expressions for distributions of order statistics produces remarkably simple results.

Mielke and Johnson (1974) provide an iterative procedure for calculation of maximum likelihood estimators of the parameters  $\beta$ ,  $\theta$  and  $\alpha (= \kappa/\theta)$  of distribution (27.47). The  $r$ th moment of (27.48) is

$$\mu'_r(Y) = \alpha\beta^r B(\alpha + r\theta^{-1}, 1 - r\theta^{-1}), \quad r < \theta \quad (27.50)$$

(see page 322). Finally, returning to the situation described in Section 27.1 but with the distributions of the  $X_{ti}$ s being of symmetrical Pareto-Levy form, with

$$F_X(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}|x|^{-\alpha}\{1 + o(1)\} & \text{as } x \rightarrow -\infty, \\ 1 - \frac{1}{2}x^{-\alpha}\{1 + o(1)\} & \text{as } x \rightarrow \infty, \end{cases} \quad 1 < \alpha < 2, \quad (27.51)$$

then the limiting distribution of

$$F = \left( \frac{n_2}{n_1} \right)^{2/\alpha} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n_1} (X_{1i} - \bar{X}_1)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{n_2} (X_{2i} - \bar{X}_2)^2}$$

**Table 27.2** Quantiles  $1 - \theta$  of the limit distribution  $F(\alpha)$  for various  $\alpha$ 

$1 - \theta$	$\alpha$									
	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.0
0.990	6.857	15.636	29.758	53.651	96.179	176.386	338.548	695.841	1573.332	4052.181
0.975	3.268	6.399	11.008	18.120	29.622	49.197	84.561	153.254	299.302	647.789
0.950	2.105	3.543	5.618	8.349	12.584	19.212	30.139	49.315	85.639	161.448
0.900	1.528	2.178	3.009	4.111	5.625	7.788	11.015	16.084	24.551	39.863

as  $n_1, n_2 \rightarrow \infty$  has the cdf

$$F_F(f|\alpha) = \begin{cases} \frac{2}{\pi\alpha} \tan^{-1} \left\{ \frac{f^{\alpha/2} + \cos(\frac{1}{2}\pi\alpha)}{\sin(\frac{1}{2}\pi\alpha)} \right\} - \frac{1}{\alpha} + 1, & f > 0, \\ 0, & f \leq 0, \end{cases} \quad (27.52a)$$

[Runde (1993)]. Table 27.2 shows some percentile points of this distribution. The corresponding density is

$$p_F(f|\alpha) = \frac{\sin(\frac{1}{2}\pi\alpha)}{\pi\alpha \{f^{-\alpha/2} + f^{\alpha/2} + 2\cos(\frac{1}{2}\pi\alpha)\}}, \quad f > 0. \quad (27.52b)$$

Figures 27.3a, b exhibit some examples of this pdf.

The distribution of the maximum of certain sets of correlated F-variables is relevant to a procedure employed in the analysis of variance, in which it is desired to test whether the maximum of a number (say,  $k$ ) of ratios of mutually independent mean squares  $M_1, \dots, M_k$  to a common "residual" mean square,  $M_0$ , is significantly large.

On the assumption of a standard (linear) model with independent homoscedastic (common variance  $\sigma^2$ ) and normally distributed residuals, the null hypothesis (no fixed effects) distribution of  $M_j$  is  $\sigma^2 \chi_{\nu_j}^2 / \nu_j$  ( $j = 0, 1, \dots, k$ ) and the test statistic used in this procedure is

$$T = \max \frac{(M_1, \dots, M_k)}{M_0} = \max \left( \frac{M_1}{M_0}, \dots, \frac{M_k}{M_0} \right). \quad (27.53)$$

Under the null hypothesis,  $M_j/M_0$  is distributed as  $F_{\nu_j, \nu_0}$ , but the  $k$  variables  $M_1/M_0, \dots, M_k/M_0$  are not mutually independent.

In the special case  $\nu_1 = \nu_2 = \dots = \nu_k = \nu$ , say,  $T$  is distributed as  $(\nu_0/\nu) X$  (ratio of maximum of  $k$  independent  $\chi_{\nu}^2$  variables to an independent  $\chi_{\nu_0}^2$  variable). The distribution of  $W = (\nu/\nu_0)T$  is thus that of the maximum of  $k$  correlated  $G_{\nu, \nu_0}$  variables.

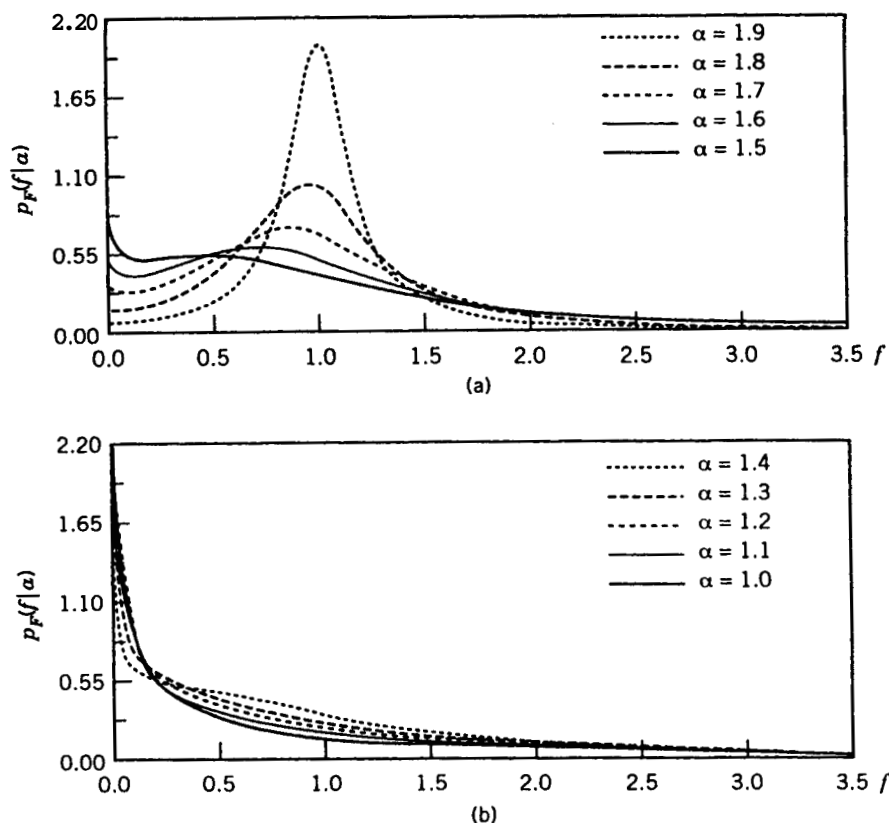


Figure 27.3 Densities  $p_f(f|\alpha)$  for various  $\alpha$

Now if  $X = \max(X_1, \dots, X_k)$  and  $X_1, \dots, X_k$  are mutually independent with common  $\chi^2_\nu$  distribution, then

$$\Pr[X \leq x] = \left\{ 2^{\nu/2} \Gamma\left(\frac{\nu}{2}\right) \right\}^{-k} \left\{ \int_0^x y^{(\nu/2)-1} e^{-y/2} dy \right\}^k, \quad x \geq 0,$$

and the density

$$p_X(x) = k \left\{ 2^{\nu/2} \Gamma\left(\frac{\nu}{2}\right) \right\}^{-k} \left\{ \int_0^x y^{(\nu/2)-1} e^{-y/2} dy \right\}^{k-1} x^{(\nu/2)-1} e^{-x/2} \quad x \geq 0,$$

whence

$$p_W(w) = k \left\{ 2^{\nu_0/2} \Gamma\left(\frac{\nu_0}{2}\right) \right\}^{-1} \left\{ 2^{\nu/2} \Gamma\left(\frac{\nu}{2}\right) \right\}^{-k} w^{(\nu/2)-1} \times \int_0^\infty \left\{ \int_0^{tw} y^{(\nu/2)-1} e^{-y/2} dy \right\}^{k-1} \nu^{(\nu_0/2)-1} e^{-w(1+t)/2} du. \quad (27.54)$$

Krishnaiah and Armitage (1964) provided tables of upper  $100\alpha\%$  points ( $T_{\nu, \nu_0, 1-\alpha}$ ) of T for  $\alpha = 0.01, 0.10, 0.25$ , for the choices of  $\nu = 2(2)40$ ;  $\nu_0 = 10(2)90$ ;  $k = 1(1)12$ . Hamdy, Son, and AlMahmeed (1987), dealing with the special case  $k = 2$ , use the formula (valid for even  $\nu$  and  $\nu_0$ )

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha &= \sum_{i=\nu/2}^{\infty} \binom{\left(\frac{\nu}{2}\right) + i - 1}{i} \left(\frac{\nu}{\nu_0}\right)^{(\nu/2)+i} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{(\nu/2)+i-1} \\ &\quad \times \sum_{j=0}^{(\nu/2)-1} \binom{\frac{1}{2}(\nu + \nu_0) + j - 1}{j} H^j (1 - H)^{(\nu + \nu_0 + i - j - 1)/2} \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^{(\nu_0/2)-1} \binom{\frac{1}{2}(\nu + \nu_0) - 1}{i} H^i (1 - H)^{((\nu + \nu_0)/2) - i - 1} \\ &\quad - 2^{\nu/2} \sum_{i=0}^{(\nu/2)-1} \binom{\left(\frac{\nu}{2}\right) + i - 1}{i} \left(\frac{1 - H}{2 - H}\right)^{((\nu + \nu_0)/2) + i - 1} \\ &\quad \times \sum_{j=0}^{(\nu_0/2)-1} \binom{\frac{1}{2}(\nu + \nu_0) + i - 1}{j} \left\{ \frac{H}{2(1 - H)} \right\}^j, \end{aligned} \tag{27.55}$$

where

$$H = \left( 1 + \frac{\nu}{\nu_0} T_{\nu, \nu_0, 1-\alpha} \right)^{-1}.$$

These authors give values of  $T_{\nu, \nu_0, 1-\alpha}$  to five decimal places for  $\alpha = 0.005, 0.01, 0.025, 0.1, 0.90, 0.95, 0.975, 0.995$ ;  $\nu = 4(2)100$ ;  $\nu_0 = 4(2)8$ . (They refer to the existence of further tables, for  $\nu_0 = 10(10)80$ , with the same values of  $\alpha$  and  $\nu$ .)

Hartley (1950a, b) studied the distribution of a different, though similar F-type statistic, used in testing equality of  $k$  variances. This is the distribution of the ratio

$$\frac{\max(V_1, \dots, V_k)}{\min(V_1, \dots, V_k)},$$

where  $V_j$ 's are mutually independent random variables with a common  $\chi^2_\nu$  distribution, as mentioned earlier on page 348.

Roy, Roy, and Ali (1993) have introduced the binomial mixture of  $F$ -distributions with density function

$$p_X(x|n, p, \nu_1, \nu_2) = \sum_{r=0}^n \binom{n}{r} \frac{p^r (1-p)^{n-r} (\nu_1/\nu_2)^{(\nu_1/2)+r} x^{(\nu_1/2)+r-1}}{B\left(\frac{\nu_1}{2} + r, \frac{\nu_2}{2}\right) \left(1 + \frac{\nu_1}{\nu_2} x\right)^{((\nu_1+\nu_2)/2)+r}},$$

$$0 < x < \infty.$$

The  $k$ th moment about zero of  $X$  is given by

$$E[X^k] = \left(\frac{\nu_2}{\nu_1}\right)^k \sum_{r=0}^n \binom{n}{r} p^r (1-p)^{n-r} \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{\nu_1}{2} + r + k\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{\nu_2}{2} - k\right)}{\Gamma\left(\frac{\nu_1}{2} + r\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{\nu_2}{2}\right)}$$

from which, in particular, we obtain the mean and variance of  $X$  to be

$$E[X] = \frac{\nu_2}{\nu_2 - 2} + \frac{2np\nu_2}{\nu_1(\nu_2 - 2)}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \text{var}(X) = & \frac{2\nu_2^2(\nu_1 + \nu_2 - 2)}{\nu_1(\nu_2 - 2)^2(\nu_2 - 4)} \\ & + \frac{4p\nu_2^2}{\nu_1^2(\nu_2 - 2)^2(\nu_2 - 4)} \\ & \times (n(2 + 5\nu_1 - \nu_1\nu_2) + (n^2 - n - \nu_2 - 4)p). \end{aligned}$$

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## CHAPTER 28

# *t*-Distributions

### 1 GENESIS AND HISTORICAL REMARKS

If  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are independent random variables each having the same normal distribution, with expected value  $\xi$  and standard deviation  $\sigma$ , then,  $\sqrt{n}(\bar{X} - \xi)/\sigma$  (with  $\bar{X} = n^{-1}\sum_{j=1}^n X_j$ ) has a unit normal distribution. This statistic can be used in the construction of tests and confidence intervals relating to the value of  $\xi$  provided that  $\sigma$  is known. If  $\sigma$  be not known, it is reasonable to replace it by the estimator  $S = [(n-1)^{-1}\sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - \bar{X})^2]^{1/2}$  giving the statistic  $T = \sqrt{n}(\bar{X} - \xi)(n-1)^{-1}\sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - \bar{X})^2]^{-1/2}$ . This procedure was adopted for some time, without making allowance for differences between the distributions of  $\sqrt{n}(\bar{X} - \xi)/\sigma$  and  $\sqrt{n}(\bar{X} - \xi)/S$ . It was realized that the two distributions are not identical but the determination of the actual distribution presented difficulties. "Student" (1908) obtained the distribution of

$$T' = \sqrt{n}(\bar{X} - \xi) \left[ \sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - \bar{X})^2 \right]^{-1/2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n-1}} \left\{ \frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{X} - \xi)}{S} \right\} = \frac{T}{\sqrt{n-1}}$$

and gave a short table of its cumulative distribution function.

Recall the results on the joint distribution of  $\bar{X}$  and  $S$  described in Chapter 13. There it can be seen that  $T'$  is distributed as a ratio  $U/\chi_{n-1}$ , the two variables  $U$  (a unit normal variable) and  $\chi_{n-1}$  being mutually independent. The divisor  $\sqrt{n-1}$  in the denominator was introduced by Fisher (1925a) who defined  $t$  with  $\nu$  degrees of freedom as the distribution of

$$t_\nu = U \left[ \frac{\chi_\nu^2}{\nu} \right]^{-1/2}. \quad (28.1)$$

This quantity is usually called Student's  $t$  and the corresponding distribution is called Student's  $t$  distribution. Occasionally, they are called Fisher's statistic

and distribution, respectively, but these latter terms more commonly refer to the variance-ratio  $F$  and its distribution, as were discussed in Chapter 27. The evolution of the  $t$ -statistic and its various usages are explained in Eisenhart (1979) and Box (1981).

**Cacoullos** (1965) showed that if  $X_0$  and  $X_1$  are independent  $\chi^2$  variables (Chapter 18) each with  $\nu$  degrees of freedom, then  $\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{\nu}(X_1 - X_0)(X_0 X_1)^{-1/2}$  has a  $t_\nu$  distribution. Equivalently, if  $Y$  has a  $F_{\nu, \nu}$ -distribution, then  $\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{\nu}(Y^{1/2} - Y^{-1/2})$  has a  $t_\nu$  distribution. See Chapter 27, Section 8 (page 347).

A notable characterization is due to **Bondesson** (1981), who has shown that for i.i.d. random variables  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  that have a common distribution with finite moments of all orders and a pdf that is continuous at zero, if

$$T = \sqrt{n} \bar{X} \left\{ (n - 1)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 \right\}^{-1/2}$$

is distributed as  $t_{n-1}$  for all  $n \geq 2$ , then this common distribution must be normal with mean zero and positive variance. It should be noted that for  $n = 2$  there is a distribution (without a finite expected value)—that of the reciprocal of a unit normal variable—for which  $\sqrt{2} \bar{X} \{(X_1 - \bar{X})^2 + (X_2 - \bar{X})^2\}^{-1/2} = \sqrt{2} \bar{X} (\frac{1}{2}|X_1 - X_2|)^{-1}$  has a  $t_1$ -distribution.

For a brief recent description of some properties of the  $t$  distribution and information concerning the available tables and approximations, interested readers may refer to **Stuart and Ord** (1994, pp. 546–549).

## 2 PROPERTIES

The probability density function of  $t_\nu = U\{\chi_\nu/\sqrt{\nu}\}^{-1}$  is

$$p_{t_\nu}(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\nu} B(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\nu)} \left(1 + \frac{t^2}{\nu}\right)^{-(\nu+1)/2} = \frac{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(\nu+1))}{\sqrt{\pi\nu} \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu)} \left[1 + \frac{t^2}{\nu}\right]^{-(\nu+1)/2} \tag{28.2}$$

This is a special form of the **Pearson Type VII** distribution. It is symmetrical about  $t = 0$  and has a single mode at  $t = 0$ . It is easy to show that

$$\lim_{\nu \rightarrow \infty} p_{t_\nu}(t) = (\sqrt{2\pi})^{-1} e^{-t^2/2}.$$

In fact, as  $\nu \rightarrow \infty$ , the distribution of  $t_\nu$  tends to the unit normal distribution. (This fact is the basis of most of the methods of approximation described in **Section 4**).



If  $t_{\nu, \alpha}$  is defined by the equation

$$\Pr[t_{\nu} \leq t_{\nu, \alpha}] = \alpha, \quad (28.3)$$

then (from the symmetry)

$$t_{\nu, 0.5} = 0 = U_{0.5},$$

where  $\Phi(U_{\alpha}) = \alpha$ .

However, for  $\alpha > 0.5$ ,

$$t_{\nu, \alpha} > U_{\alpha} > 0,$$

and for  $\alpha < 0.5$ ,

$$t_{\nu, \alpha} < -U_{1-\alpha} < 0$$

(of course  $t_{\nu, 1-\alpha} = t_{\nu, \alpha}$ ).

Making the transformation  $w = \nu(\nu + y^2)^{-1}$ , we have for  $t \geq 0$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[t_{\nu} \leq t] &= \Pr[t_{\nu} \leq 0] + \left[ \sqrt{\nu} B\left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\nu\right) \right]^{-1} \int_0^t \left(1 + \frac{y^2}{\nu}\right)^{-(\nu+1)/2} dy \\ &= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \left[ B\left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\nu\right) \right]^{-1} \int_{\nu/(\nu+t^2)}^1 w^{(\nu-2)/2} (1-w)^{-1/2} dw \\ &= 1 - \frac{1}{2} I_{\nu/(\nu+t^2)}\left(\frac{1}{2}\nu, \frac{1}{2}\right) = \frac{1}{2} \left[ 1 + I_{t^2/(\nu+t^2)}\left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\nu\right) \right], \quad (28.4a) \end{aligned}$$

where  $I_x(a, b)$  is the incomplete beta function ratio, which is defined in Chapter 1. This identity can be used for computer evaluation of t-distribution functions using one of the several algorithms for evaluating the beta distribution function (see Chapter 25, Section 6). In particular, Lee and Singh (1988), starting from (28.4a), reached the formulas

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[t_{\nu} \leq t] &= \frac{3}{4} + \pi^{-1} \sqrt{y(1-y)} \left\{ 1 + \sum_{i=1}^{(\nu-3)/2} \left[ \prod_{j=1}^i \frac{2j}{2j+1} \right] y^i \right\} \\ &\quad - \frac{1}{2} \pi^{-1} \sin^{-1}(2y-1) \quad \text{for } \nu \text{ odd,} \quad (28.4b) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[t_{\nu} \leq t] &= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{1-y} \left\{ 1 + \sum_{i=1}^{(\nu-2)/2} \left[ \prod_{j=1}^i \frac{2j-1}{2j} \right] y^i \right\} \quad \text{for } \nu \text{ even,} \\ & \quad (28.4c) \end{aligned}$$

where  $y = \nu/(\nu + t^2)$  and  $\sum_{i=1}^{-1} = -1$ ,  $\sum_{i=1}^0 = 0$ . Alternative expressions

(valid for all  $t$ ) are

$$\Pr[t_1 \leq t] = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{\pi} \tan^{-1} t \quad \text{for } \nu = 1, \quad (28.4d)$$

and, setting  $\theta = \tan^{-1}(t/\sqrt{\nu})$ ,

$$\Pr[t_\nu \leq t] = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{\pi} \left[ \theta + \left\{ \cos \theta + \frac{2}{3} \cos^3 \theta + \dots + \frac{(2)(4) \cdots (\nu - 3)}{(3)(5) \cdots (\nu - 2)} \cos^{\nu-2} \theta \right\} \sin \theta \right] \quad \text{for } \nu \text{ odd and greater than 1,} \quad (28.4e)$$

$$\Pr[t_\nu \leq t] = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \left\{ 1 + \frac{1}{2} \cos^2 \theta + \frac{(1)(3)}{(2)(4)} \cos^4 \theta + \dots + \frac{(1)(3) \cdots (\nu - 3)}{(2)(4) \cdots (\nu - 2)} \cos^{\nu-2} \theta \right\} \sin \theta \quad \text{for } \nu \text{ even} \quad (28.4f)$$

[see Zelen and Severo (1964)].

Amos (1964) obtained several expressions for  $\Pr[t_\nu \leq t]$  in terms of hypergeometric functions (see Chapter 1, Section A6). For example,

$$\Pr[t_\nu \leq t] = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{t}{\sqrt{\pi\nu}} \frac{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(\nu + 1))}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu)} \times {}_2F_1 \left[ \frac{1}{2}(\nu + 1); \frac{1}{2}; \frac{3}{2}; \frac{-t^2}{\nu} \right] \quad \text{for } t^2 < \nu, \quad (28.4g)$$

which is useful when both  $|t|/\nu^{1/2}$  and  $\nu$  are small.

All odd moments of  $t_\nu$ , about zero are zero. If  $r$  is even, then the  $r$ th central moment is

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_r(t_\nu) &= \nu^{r/2} \cdot \frac{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(r + 1))\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(\nu - r))}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2})\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu)} \\ &= \nu^{r/2} \cdot \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdots (r - 1)}{(\nu - r)(\nu - r + 2) \cdots (\nu - 2)}. \end{aligned} \quad (28.5)$$

(Note that if  $r$  a  $\nu$ , the  $r$ th moment is infinite.) Setting  $r = 1$ , we obtain a

formula for the mean deviation as

$$E[|t_\nu|] = \sqrt{\nu} \frac{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(\nu - 1))}{\sqrt{\pi} \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu)}. \quad (28.6)$$

From (28.5),

$$\text{var}(t_\nu) = \frac{\nu}{\nu - 2}, \quad \nu \geq 2, \quad (28.7a)$$

$$\alpha_4(t_\nu) = \beta_2(t_\nu) = 3 + \frac{6}{\nu - 4} = \frac{3(\nu - 2)}{(\nu - 4)}, \quad \nu \geq 4, \quad (28.7b)$$

decreases from 9 for  $\nu = 5$  to 3 as  $\nu \rightarrow \infty$ . Also  $\alpha_3(t_\nu) = \sqrt{\beta_1(t_\nu)} = 0$  [Wishart (1947)].

From (28.6) and (28.7a),

$$\frac{\text{Mean deviation}}{\text{Standard deviation}} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \left[ \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}\nu - 1} \frac{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(\nu - 1))}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu)} \right] \quad (28.8)$$

The multiplier of  $\sqrt{2/\pi}$  tends rapidly to 1 as  $\nu$  increases, as can be seen from Table 28.1.

The probability density function of  $t_\nu$  has points of inflexion at

$$t_\nu = \pm \sqrt{\nu(\nu + 2)}.$$

As  $\nu$  increases, the distribution of  $t_\nu$  approaches quite rapidly to the unit normal distribution. Figure 28.1 compares the  $t_4$  and unit normal probability density functions. Even for such a small number of degrees of freedom, the two functions are not markedly dissimilar. If the standardized  $t_4$ —that is,  $t_4/\sqrt{2}$ —distribution is used the agreement is even closer [Weir (1960a)].

By considering the transformed random variable

$$U_\nu = \left\{ \left( \nu - \frac{1}{2} \right) \log \left( 1 + \frac{1}{\nu} t_\nu^2 \right) \right\}^{1/2} \text{sgn}(t_\nu)$$

when  $\nu > \frac{1}{2}$ , Fujikoshi and Mukaihata (1993) have shown that the distribution of  $U_\nu$  converges rapidly to the standard normal distribution. In fact these

**Table 28.1** Ratio of mean deviation to standard deviation for  $t_\nu$  distribution

$\nu$	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Ratio	0.637	0.707	0.735	0.750	0.759	0.765	0.770	0.773	0.776	0.778

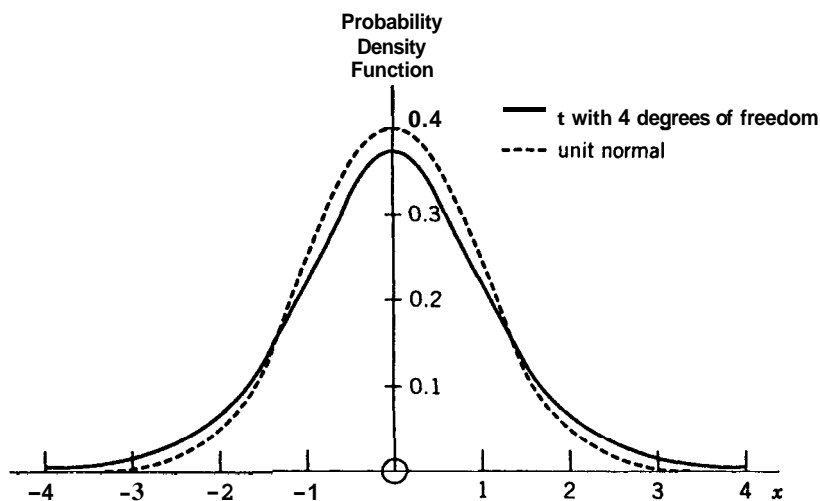


Figure 28.1 Comparison of Unit Normal and  $t_4$  Density Functions

authors have shown that

$$\Pr\{U_\nu \leq x\} = \Phi(x) + O(\nu^{-2})$$

for all real  $x$ . Fujikoshi and Mukaihata (1993) have also derived some approximations and bounds for the quantiles of the distribution of  $U_\nu$ .

If  $\nu$  is odd, the characteristic function of  $t_\nu$  is

$$\varphi_{t_\nu}(t) = \left\{ \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} c_{j,m-1} |\nu^{1/2} t|^j \right\} \exp(-|\nu^{1/2} t|), \tag{28.8}$$

where  $m = \frac{1}{2}(\nu + 1)$  and the  $c_{j,m}$ 's satisfy the recursive relations:

$$\begin{aligned} c_{0,m} &= 1, c_{1,m} = 1, c_{m-1,m} = \{(2m-3)(2m-5) \cdots 3 \cdot 1\}^{-1}, \\ c_{j,m} &= \{c_{j-1,m-1} + (2m-3-j)c_{j,m-1}\}(2m-3)^{-1} \quad \text{for } 1 \leq j \leq m-1 \end{aligned} \tag{28.9}$$

[Mitra (1978)]. In particular,

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi_{t_1}(t) &= \exp(-|t|), \\ \varphi_{t_3}(t) &= (1 + |t\sqrt{3}|)\exp(-|t\sqrt{3}|), \\ \varphi_{t_5}(t) &= (1 + |t\sqrt{5}| + \frac{5}{3}t^2)\exp(-|t\sqrt{5}|), \\ \varphi_{t_7}(t) &= (1 + |t\sqrt{7}| + \frac{14}{5}t^2 + \frac{1}{15}|t\sqrt{7}|^3)\exp(-|t\sqrt{7}|). \end{aligned} \tag{28.10}$$

Ifram (1972) provides an alternative form

$$\varphi_{t_{2m+1}}(t) = [B(\frac{1}{2}, m + \frac{1}{2})]^{-1} 2\pi i [(z + i)^{-m-1} \exp\{it(2m + 1)^{1/2} z\}] \Big|_{z=i}^{(m)} / m! \quad (28.11)$$

He also provides (without detailed derivation) an expression for the case  $\nu = 2n$ , namely

$$\varphi_{t_{2n}}(t) = (B(\frac{1}{2}, n))^{-1} 2\pi i \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{n - \frac{1}{2}}{k} (2i)^k \frac{\{\exp(it(2n)^{1/2} z)\}^{(k+2n)}}{(k + 2n)!} \Big|_{z=i} \quad (28.12)$$

The Fourier transform of the t-distribution involves simple Bessel polynomials. In particular, the quotient

$$\frac{p_{n-1}(\sqrt{x})}{p_n(\sqrt{x})}, \quad (28.13)$$

where

$$p_n(z) = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{(n + k)!}{(n - k)! 2^k k!} = z^n y_n\left(\frac{1}{z}\right)$$

and  $y_n$  is the nth Bessel polynomial [ $y_n(z) = {}_2F_0(-n, n + 1; -; -z/2)$ ] arises in connection with the problem of infinite divisibility of the  $t_\nu$ -distribution. To show that this distribution is infinitely divisible, it is sufficient to prove that (28.13) is strictly monotonic in  $[0, \infty)$ . For  $n = 4, 5$ , and  $6$ , this was established by Ismail and Kelker (1976), implying infinite divisibility for  $\nu = 9, 11$ , and  $13$ . Later in the same year Grosswald (1976a) proved the strict monotonicity of (28.13) for odd values of  $n$  and finally Grosswald (1976b) succeeded in showing the validity of this result for all  $n$ , thus proving the general infinite divisibility of Student's t-distributions. Epstein (1977) provided, independently, a somewhat more elementary proof. As in the case of Grosswald's proof, the "even" case is more complicated. The distribution of  $t_\nu^{-1}$ , for  $\nu (\geq 3)$  odd, fails to be infinitely divisible.

### 3 TABLES AND NOMOGRAMS

#### 3.1 Tables

The cumulative t-distributions and percentile points have been rather thoroughly tabulated. We give here a list, roughly in chronological order. There are in addition short tables in many textbooks, which are mostly derived from

tables in our list. (Note that  $\nu = \infty$  corresponds to the unit normal distribution.)

The earliest published tables were provided by "Student" (1908). These gave values of  $\Pr[z_\nu \leq z]$ , where  $z_\nu = t_\nu / \sqrt{\nu + 1}$ . Later the same author ["Student" (1925)] gave the values of  $\Pr[t_\nu \leq t]$  to four decimal places for  $\nu = 1(1)20, \infty$  and  $t = 0(0.1)6.0$ , and also to six decimal places for  $\nu = 3(1)11$  and  $t = 6.0(0.5)10.0(1)12(2)16(4)28$ .

In Pearson and Hartley (1958) there are tables of  $\Pr[t_\nu \leq t]$  to five decimal places for

$$\nu = 1(1)24, 30, 40, 60, 120, \infty$$

and

$$t = \begin{cases} 0.0(0.1)4.0(0.2)8.0 & (\nu \leq 20), \\ 0.00(0.05)2.0(0.1)4.0, 5 & (\nu \geq 20) \end{cases}$$

and of  $t_{\nu, \alpha}$  to three decimal places for

$$\nu = 1(1)30, 40, 60, 120, \infty$$

and

$$\alpha = 0.6, 0.75, 0.9, 0.95, 0.975, 0.99, 0.995, 0.9975, 0.999, 0.9995.$$

Also  $t_{\nu, \alpha}$  is given to at least three significant figures for

$$\nu = 1(1)10 \quad \text{and} \quad \alpha = 0.9999, 0.99999, 0.999995.$$

Parts of these tables appeared earlier in Baldwin (1946) and Hartley and Pearson (1950); parts are reproduced in Janko (1958). Rao, Mitra, and Mathai (1966) gave similar tables with the addition of  $\nu = 80$  (and exclusion of  $\nu = 120$ ) and  $\alpha = 0.7, 0.8$ . These tables are notable for the extreme tail percentiles included. For more extensive sets of values of  $\nu$ , however, some of the following tables are more useful.

Fisher and Yates (1966) gave values of  $t_{\nu, \alpha}$  to three decimal places for

$$\nu = 1(1)30, 40, 60, 120$$

and

$$\alpha = 0.55(0.05)0.95, 0.975, 0.99, 0.995, 0.9995.$$

Lampers and Lauter (1971) extended these tables by adding values for  $\alpha = 0.5625(0.0625)0.9375$ , excluding 0.75. Veselá (1964) gave values of  $t_{\nu, \alpha}$  to four decimal places for  $\nu = 30(1)120$  and  $\alpha = 0.95, 0.975, 0.995$ .

In Owen (1962) there are values of  $t_{\nu, \alpha}$  to four decimal places for

$$\nu = 1(1)100, 150, 200(100)1000, \infty$$

and

$$\alpha = 0.75, 0.90, 0.95, 0.975, 0.99, 0.995.$$

Also given are values of  $t_{\nu, \alpha}$  to five decimal places for

$$\nu = 1(1)30(5)100(10)200, \infty$$

with

$$\alpha = 0.95, 0.975, 0.99, 0.995.$$

These tables are notable for the extensive series of values of  $\nu$ .

Federighi (1959) concentrated on values of  $\alpha$  very near to 1 (i.e. the extreme upper tail of the distribution). His tables give values of  $t_{\nu, \alpha}$  to three decimal places for

$$\nu = 1(1)30(5)60(10)100, 200, 500, 1000, 2000, 10000, \infty$$

and

$$1 - \alpha = 0.25, 0.1, 0.05, 0.025, 0.01, 0.005, 0.0025, 10^{-3}, \frac{1}{2} \times 10^{-3}, \frac{1}{4} \times 10^{-3}, \\ 10^{-4}, \frac{1}{2} \times 10^{-4}, \frac{1}{4} \times 10^{-4}, 10^{-5}, \frac{1}{2} \times 10^{-5}, \frac{1}{4} \times 10^{-5}, \\ 10^{-6}, \frac{1}{2} \times 10^{-6}, \frac{1}{4} \times 10^{-6}, 10^{-7}.$$

Hill (1972) tabulated quantiles  $t_{\nu, \alpha/2}$  of the Student t-distribution, corresponding to the two-tail probability levels

$$\alpha = 0.9(-0.1)0.1; \{5, 2, 1\} \times 10^{-2(-1)-10(-5)-30}$$

for  $\nu = 1(1)30(2)50(5)100(10)150, 200, (240, 300, 400, 600, 1200) \times \{1, 10, 100\}, \infty$  to 20 decimal places for  $t_{\nu, \alpha/2} < 10^3$ , 20 significant figures otherwise. He provides many ingenious **approximations** in the introduction of his tables. Hald (1952) gave the values of  $t_{\nu, \alpha}$  to three decimal places for

$$\nu = 1(1)30(10)60(20)100, 200, 500, \infty$$

and

$$\alpha = 0.6(0.1)0.9, 0.95, 0.975, 0.99, 0.995, 0.999, 0.9995.$$

Values of the density function  $p_{\nu}(t)$  are tabulated in Bracken and Schleifer (1964), Smirnov (1961), and Sukhatme (1938). The last reference provides

seven decimal places for

$$\nu = 1(1)10, 12, 15, 20, 24, 30$$

with

$$t = 0.05(0.1)7.25.$$

In addition there are values for  $\nu = 60$  with  $t = 0.05(0.1)6.35$ . The tables of Bracken and Schleifer (1964) cover greater ranges of values of each of the arguments (note especially the fractional value  $\nu = 1.5$ ):

$$\nu = 1, 1.5, 2(1)10, 12, 15, 20, 24, 30, 40, 60, 120, \infty$$

and

$$t = 0.00(0.01)8.00.$$

The collection of Smirnov (1961) includes values of  $p_{\nu}(t)$  and  $\Pr\{t_{\nu} \leq t\}$  to six decimal places for

$$\nu = 1(1)12 \quad \text{with} \quad t = 0.00(0.01)3.00(0.02)4.50(0.05)6.50$$

and for

$$\nu = 13(1)24 \quad \text{with} \quad t = 0.00(0.01)2.50(0.02)3.50(0.05)6.50.$$

This collection further includes values of  $\Pr\{t_{\nu} \leq t\}$ , also to six decimal places, for

$$\nu = 1(1)10 \quad \text{with} \quad t = 6.5(0.1)9.0;$$

for

$$\nu = 25(1)35 \quad \text{with} \quad t = 0.00(0.01)2.50(0.02)3.50(0.05)5.00$$

and for

$$10^3\nu^{-1} = 30(-2)0 \quad \text{with} \quad t = 0.00(0.01)2.50(0.02)5.00.$$

(Note the extensive fractional values of  $\nu$ .) There are also extensive tables of  $t_{\nu, \alpha}$  to four decimal places for

$$\nu = 1(1)30(10)100, 120, 150(50)500(100)1000, 1500, 2000(1000)6000, \\ 8000. 10.000. \infty$$



with

$$a = 0.6, 0.75, 0.9, 0.95, 0.975, 0.99, 0.995, 0.9975, 0.999, 0.9995.$$

(See also Section 4.) These tables include values of the multiplying constant  $K_\nu = (\pi\nu)^{-1/2}\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(\nu + 1))/\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu)$  and  $\log K_\nu$  to ten significant figures for  $\nu = 1(1)24$ .

Cotterman and Knoop's (1968) tables (to five decimal places) provide boundary values  $T_1(p)$ ,  $T_2(p)$  such that, to three decimal places,  $\Pr\{t_\nu \geq T\}$  is equal to  $p$  [ $p = 0.000(0.001)0.500$ ] for any value of  $T$  between  $T_1(p)$  and  $T_2(p)$ , for  $\nu = 1(1)15$ . Laumann (1967) gives  $\Pr\{t_\nu \leq t\}$  to seven decimal places for  $t = 0(0.01)4.50$ ,  $\nu = 20(2)40(10)100(20)200$ , 300, 500, 1000. The tables of Mardia and Zemroch (1978) include values of  $t_{\nu,\alpha}$  to five significant figures for  $\nu = 0.1(0.1)3(0.2)7(0.5)11(1)40$ , 60, 120,  $\infty$  and  $1 - \alpha = 0.0001$ , 0.0005, 0.001, 0.005, 0.01, 0.02, 0.03(0.01)0.1, 0.2, 0.25, 0.3, 0.4. Note that many fractional values of  $\nu$  are included, which is convenient when a  $t$ -distribution is used as an approximation.

Kafadar and Tukey (1988) note that  $t_{\nu,\alpha}$  is approximately a linear function of  $\log(1 - \alpha)$ , and they propose to use tables exploiting this fact to make linear interpolation more effective. They introduce the index

$$-\log_G(1 - \alpha) \quad \text{with } G = 10^{-0.1}$$

and term the units *decigalts* ("galt" in honor of Francis Galton). The base ( $G$ ) of the logarithms is chosen to make commonly used values of  $\alpha$  correspond to nearly (or exactly) integer decigalt values (e.g., the values corresponding to  $\alpha = 0.95, 0.975$ , and  $0.99$  are 13.0103, 16.0205, and 20, respectively). Kafadar and Tukey also introduce *bidec values* of  $1 - \alpha = 2^j 10^{-k}$  for integer values  $j, k$  and present a "bidec table" showing  $t_{\nu,\alpha}$  to three decimal places, with  $\alpha$  taking values of form  $1 - \alpha = 2^j 10^{-k}$ , and also showing the approximate equivalent decigalt values. (The paper also includes further useful instructions on interpolation.)

Tiku and Kumra (1985) have published tables of expected values and variances and covariances of order statistics for Student's  $t$ -distribution. The values are given for  $p = \frac{1}{2}(\nu + 1) = 2(0.5)10$  and  $n$  (sample size)  $\leq 20$ . Expressions for  $n > 20$  are presented in Tiku and Suresh (1992).

### 3.2 Nomograms

The preceding list shows that the  $t_\nu$  distributions have been thoroughly tabulated. The available tables are more than sufficient for almost all applications. However, practical situations arise that call for quick evaluation of values of  $t_{\nu,\alpha}$  or  $\Pr\{t_\nu \leq t\}$ . In such cases it is useful to have a reliable graphical method of determining the required value with sufficient accuracy.

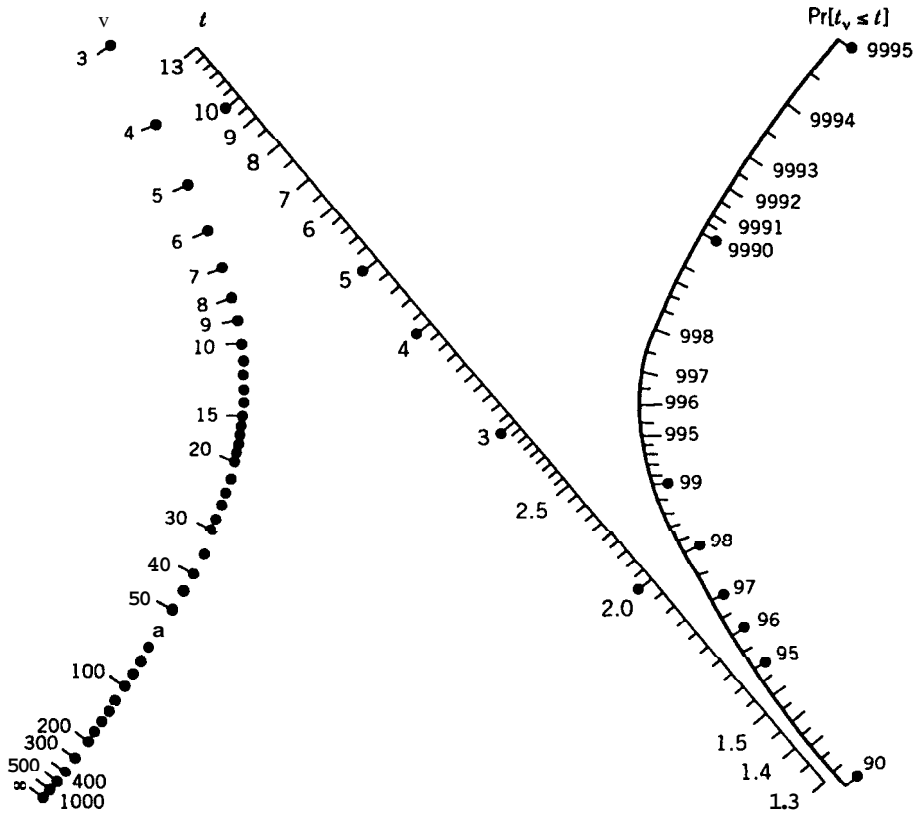


Figure 28.2 James-Levy's Nomogram.  $\nu$  is the number of degrees of freedom. Given any two of  $\nu$ ,  $t$  or  $\Pr\{t_\nu \leq t\}$  we can determine the third.

James-Levy (1956) gave a nomogram relating  $\nu$ ,  $t$ , and  $\Pr\{t_\nu \leq t\}$ . It is reproduced in Figure 28.2. The nomogram is used by placing a straightedge joining given values of any two of these quantities. The intersection with the third line then gives the required value of the third quantity. To find  $t_{\nu, \alpha}$ , for example, the appropriate points on the  $\nu$  and  $\Pr\{t_\nu \leq t\}$  lines are joined, and the intersection with the  $t$  line gives  $t_{\nu, \alpha}$ . With  $\alpha = 0.950 - 0.999$ , an accuracy of about 0.001 in  $t_{\nu, \alpha}$  can usually be attained.

Stammberger (1967) published a simple nomogram from which the value of any one of  $\nu$ ,  $\Pr\{t_\nu > t\}$ , and  $t$ , given the values of the other two quantities, can be read off using a straight edge. This nomogram is reproduced in Figure 28.3.

Babanin (1952) provided a nomogram (or **abac**) from which values can be read directly, without using a straightedge. However, this nomogram is not as simple as those of James-Levy and Stammberger.

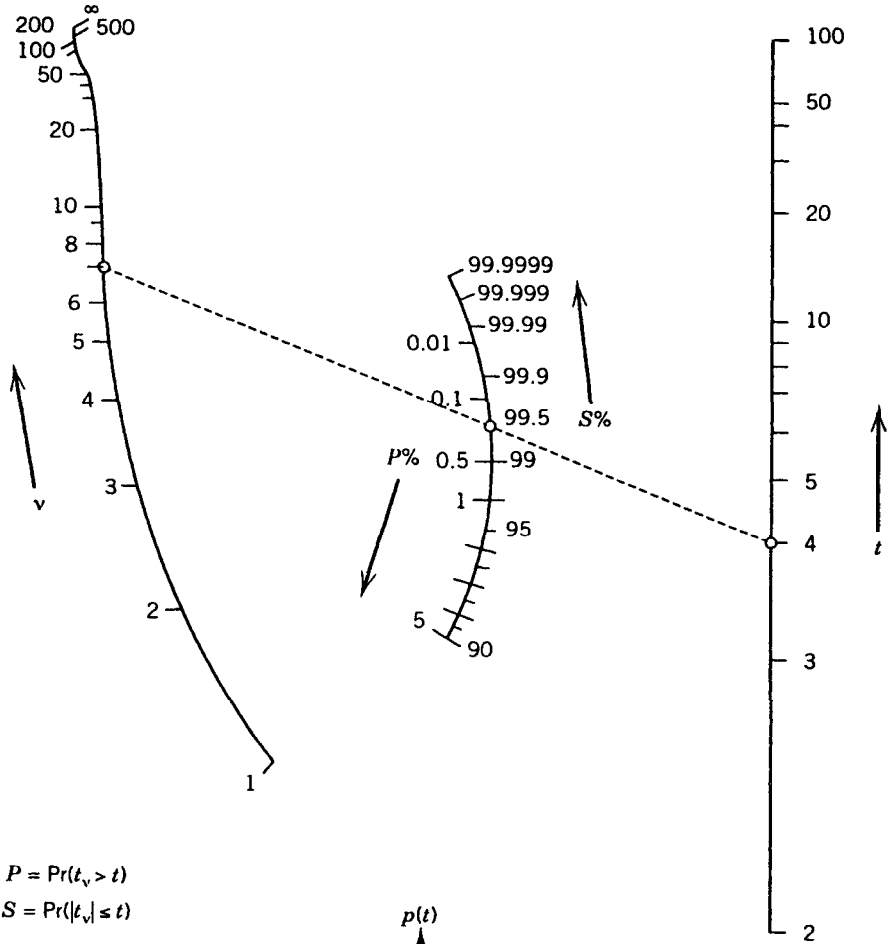


Figure 28.3 Stammlinger's Nomogram

#### 4 APPROXIMATIONS

There has been an intense study of possible approximations to  $t$ -distributions. Some of the approximations produced have very high accuracy, and some are rather complicated. For our present purpose simplicity, as well as accuracy, is an important factor in assessing the value of an approximation.

We have decided to include some complicated approximations in view of their substantial historical value.

The simplest approximation is made by regarding  $t_\nu$  as a unit normal variable. This is very crude unless  $\nu$  is at least 30, and it is unsatisfactory for considerably larger values of  $\nu$  if extreme tails (e.g.,  $|t_\nu| > 4$ ) of the distribution are being considered. The simple modification of standardizing the  $t$  variable, and regarding  $t_\nu \sqrt{1 - 2\nu^{-1}}$  as having a unit normal distribution [suggested by Weir (1960a)] effects a substantial improvement, but the approximation is still only moderately good (for analytical purposes) if  $\nu$  is less than 20 (or if extreme tails are being considered). As in Section 3, we present a list in very rough chronological order.

Fisher (1925b) gave a direct expansion of the probability density, and hence of  $\Pr[t_\nu \leq t]$ , as a series in  $\nu^{-1}$ . For the probability density function he gives the formula

$$p_t(t) = \phi(t) \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{4}(t^4 - 2t^2 - 1)\nu^{-1} + \frac{1}{96}(3t^8 - 28t^6 + 30t^4 + 12t^2 + 3)\nu^{-2} + \frac{1}{384}(t^{12} - 22t^{10} + 113t^8 - 92t^6 - 33t^4 - 6t^2 + 15)\nu^{-3} + \dots \right], \quad (28.14)$$

where  $\phi(t) = (\sqrt{2\pi})^{-1} \exp(-\frac{1}{2}t^2)$ . Integrating (28.14), we obtain

$$\Pr[t_\nu \geq t] \doteq 1 - \Phi(t) + \Phi(t) \left[ \frac{1}{4}t(t^2 + 1)\nu^{-1} + \frac{1}{96}t(3t^6 - 7t^4 - 5t^2 - 3)\nu^{-2} + \frac{1}{384}t(t^{10} - 11t^8 + 14t^6 + 6t^4 - 3t^2 - 15)\nu^{-3} \right]. \quad (28.15)$$

The maximum absolute error of this approximation is shown in Table 28.2.

Fisher and Cornish (1960) inverted this series, obtaining the approximation

$$t_{\nu, \alpha} \doteq U_\alpha + \frac{1}{4}U_\alpha(U_\alpha^2 + 1)\nu^{-1} + \frac{1}{96}U_\alpha(5U_\alpha^4 + 16U_\alpha^2 + 3)\nu^{-2} + \frac{1}{384}U_\alpha(3U_\alpha^6 + 19U_\alpha^4 + 17U_\alpha^2 - 15)\nu^{-3}. \quad (28.16)$$

Dickey (1967) obtained an asymptotic (divergent) series approximation for

Table 28.2 Maximum absolute error of (28.15),  $c(d) \equiv c \times 10^d$ 

$\nu$	Max  Error
5	2.8(-3)
6	1.4(-3)
7	8.2(-4)
8	5.0(-4)
9	3.2(-4)
10	2.2(-4)
11	1.5(-4)
12	1.1(-4)
13	8.0(-5)
14	6.1(-5)
15	4.7(-5)
20	1.5(-5)
25	6.5(-6)
30	3.2(-6)
35	1.7(-6)
40	1.0(-6)
45	6.4(-7)
50	4.3(-7)
60	2.1(-7)
80	6.6(-8)
100	2.7(-8)
120	1.3(-8)

Source: Ling (1978).

$t < \sqrt{\nu}$  in terms of Appell polynomials  $A_r(x)$  defined by the identity

$$e^{-x}(1-ux)^{-1/u} = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} A_r(x)u^r, \quad |ux| < 1. \quad (28.17)$$

Setting  $u = z(\nu+1)^{-1}$ ,  $x = \frac{1}{2}(1+\nu^{-1})t^2$ , we have

$$\left[1 + \frac{t^2}{\nu}\right]^{-(\nu+1)/2} = e^{-(1+\nu^{-1})t^2/2} \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} A_r\left(-\frac{1}{2}(1+\nu^{-1})t^2\right) \left[\frac{2}{\nu+1}\right]^r, \quad t^2 < \nu. \quad (28.17)$$

Dickey gives the table of coefficients  $B_{r,j}$  in  $A_r(x) = x^r \sum_{j=0}^r B_{r,j} x^j$  presented in Table 28.3.

Hendricks (1936) also approximated directly to the probability density function, obtaining

$$p_{t,\nu}(t) \doteq 2\nu c_\nu \sqrt{\frac{\nu+1}{\pi}} [t^2 + 2\nu]^{-3/2} \exp\left[-(\nu+1)c_\nu^2 t^2 (t^2 + 2\nu)^{-1}\right], \quad (28.18)$$

Table 28.3 Values of coefficients  $B_{r,j}$  in Appell polynomials,  $A_r(x) = x^r \sum_{j=0}^r B_{r,j} x^j$ 

$r$	$j$						
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
0	1						
1	2	$\frac{1}{2}$					
2	0	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{8}$				
3	0	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{48}$			
4	0	$\frac{1}{5}$	$\frac{13}{72}$	$\frac{1}{24}$	$\frac{1}{384}$		
5	0	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{11}{60}$	$\frac{17}{288}$	$\frac{1}{144}$	$\frac{1}{3840}$	
6	0	$\frac{1}{7}$	$\frac{29}{160}$	$\frac{59}{810}$	$\frac{7}{576}$	$\frac{1}{1152}$	$\frac{1}{46080}$

Source: Dickey (1967).

where

$$c_\nu = 1 - \frac{3}{4}(\nu + 1)^{-1} - \frac{7}{32}(\nu + 1)^{-2}.$$

This gives quite good results in the "center" of the distribution ( $|t| < 2$ ) but not in the tails.

Formula (28.18) is equivalent to the approximation  $\sqrt{2(\nu + 1)} c_\nu t_\nu \times [t_\nu^2 + 2\nu]^{-1/2}$  has a unit normal distribution. In practice  $\sqrt{2(\nu + 1)} c_\nu$  may be replaced by  $\sqrt{2\nu - 1}$  unless  $\nu$  is small. Some numerical comparisons are shown in Table 28.4.

Another approximation, of a similar nature, was obtained by Elfving (1955):

$$\Pr[t_\nu \leq t] \doteq \Phi(\sigma t) + \frac{5}{96} \left( \sigma t^5 \nu^{-2} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{2} t^2 \nu^{-1} \right)^{-(\nu+4)/2} - \Phi(\sigma t / \sqrt{2}) \right), \quad (28.19)$$

where

$$\sigma = \left[ \frac{\nu - \frac{1}{2}}{\nu + \frac{1}{2} t^2} \right]^{1/2}.$$

Table 28.4 Comparison of Hendricks's approximation in (28.18) with the exact value

	a	Values of $t_{\nu, \alpha}$	
		Exact Value	Hendricks's Approximation
$\nu = 9$	0.55	0.129	0.129
	0.65	0.398	0.398
	0.75	0.703	0.703
	0.85	1.100	1.104
	0.95	1.833	1.844
	0.975	2.262	2.290
	0.99	2.821	2.869
	0.995	3.250	3.389
$\nu = 29$	0.55	0.127	0.127
	0.65	0.389	0.389
	0.75	0.683	0.683
	0.85	1.055	1.055
	0.95	1.699	1.700
	0.975	2.045	2.047
	0.99	2.462	2.466
	0.995	2.756	2.764

The error can be shown to be less than  $\frac{1}{2}\nu^{-2}$  times the true value of  $\Pr\{t_\nu \leq t\}$ , for all values of  $t$ . Hotelling and Frankel (1938) sought to find a function of  $t_\nu$  with a distribution that is well approximated by the unit normal distribution. The leading terms of their series (which is in fact a Cornish-Fisher form of expansion) are

$$\begin{aligned}
 U = t \left\{ 1 - \frac{1}{4}(t^2 + 1)\nu^{-1} + \frac{1}{96}(13t^4 + 8t^2 + 3)\nu^{-2} \right. \\
 \left. - \frac{1}{384}(35t^6 + 19t^4 + t^2 - 15)\nu^{-3} \right. \\
 \left. + \frac{1}{92160}(6271t^8 + 3224t^6 - 102t^4 - 1680t^2 - 945)\nu^{-4} \right\}. \quad (28.20)
 \end{aligned}$$

The successive terms rapidly become more complicated. Table 28.5 [taken from Hotelling and Frankel (1938)] gives values of  $U_\alpha$  corresponding to  $t_{\nu, \alpha}$  for various values of  $\nu$  and  $\alpha$  using the first two ( $x_1$ ), three ( $x_2$ ), four ( $x_3$ ), and five ( $x_4$ ) terms of (28.20). The correct values of  $U_\alpha$  are also shown. For extreme tails poor results are obtained with  $\nu = 10$ , but even for extreme tails ( $\alpha = 0.99995$ ) quite good results are obtained with  $\nu \geq 30$ , if five terms are used.

Among other investigations of expansions of Cornish-Fisher type we note the work of Peiser (1943) and Goldberg and Levine (1946). Peiser used the

**Table 28.5** Approximations — Values of  $U_\alpha$  using expansion (28.20)

a	0.95		0.975		0.995		0.9995		0.99995		
	$\nu = 10$	$\nu = 30$	$\nu = 10$	$\nu = 30$	$\nu = 10$	$\nu = 30$	$\nu = 10$	$\nu = 30$	$\nu = 10$	$\nu = 30$	$\nu = 100$
$t_{\nu, \alpha}$	1.812	1.697	2.228	2.042	3.169	2.750	4.587	3.646	6.22	4.482	4.052
$x_1$	1.618	1.642	1.896	1.954	2.294	2.554	2.059	3.212	0.05	3.69	3.88
$x_2$	1.650	1.645	1.980	1.960	2.754	2.579	4.981	3.313	12.86	3.98	3.89
$x_3$	1.643	1.645	1.953	1.960	2.446	2.575	0.896	3.283	20.44	3.85	3.89
$x_4$							7.163	3.293	75.66	3.91	3.89
$U_\alpha$	1.645		1.960		2.576		3.291		3.891		



Table 28.6 Approximation to  $t_{\nu, \alpha}$  using (28.21)

$\nu$		$\alpha$				
		0.9875	0.975	0.95	0.875	0.75
10	(28.21)	2.579	2.197	1.797	1.212	0.700
	Exact	2.634	2.228	1.813	1.221	0.700
30	(28.21)	2.354	2.039	1.696	1.171	0.683
	Exact	2.360	2.042	1.697	1.173	0.683
60	(28.21)	2.298	2.000	1.670	1.161	0.679
	Exact	2.299	2.000	1.671	1.162	0.679
120	(28.21)	2.270	1.980	1.658	1.156	0.677
	Exact	2.270	1.980	1.658	1.156	0.677

Source: Peiser (1943).

simple formula

$$t_{\nu, \alpha} \doteq U_{\alpha} + \frac{1}{4}(U_{\alpha}^3 + U_{\alpha})\nu^{-1}. \quad (28.21)$$

Table 28.6 [taken from Peiser (1943)] shows that this gives useful results for  $\nu \geq 30$ .

Goldberg and Levine included one further term in the expansion, giving

$$t_{\nu, \alpha} \doteq U_{\alpha} + \frac{1}{4}(U_{\alpha}^3 + U_{\alpha})\nu^{-1} + \frac{1}{96}(5U_{\alpha}^5 + 16U_{\alpha}^3 + 3U_{\alpha})\nu^{-2}. \quad (28.22)$$

The next two terms in the series are

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{1}{384}(3U^7 + 19U^5 + 17U^3 - 15U)\nu^{-3} \\ & + \frac{1}{92160}(79U^9 + 776U^7 + 1482U^5 - 1920U^3 - 945U)\nu^{-4} \end{aligned}$$

[Abramowitz and Stegun (1964, p. 949).] Table 28.7, taken from Goldberg and Levine (1946), compares exact values with approximate values calculated from (28.22). (The original tables also give values obtained using only the first two terms, as in Peiser's work.) Inclusion of the third term considerably improves the approximation, which is now reasonably good for  $\nu$  as small as 20. Simaika (1942) improved the approximation  $U = t_{\nu} \sqrt{1 - 2\nu^{-1}}$  by introducing higher powers of  $U$ . The approximation  $\sinh^{-1}(t_{\nu} \sqrt{3\nu^{-1}/2})$  with a unit normal distribution [Anscombe (1950)] is a special case of a transformation of noncentral  $t$  (Chapter 31). It is not much used for central  $t$ .

**Table 28.7** Comparative table of approximate and exact values of the percentage points of the t-distribution

Probability Integral ( $\alpha$ )	Degrees of Freedom ( $\nu$ )	Approximate Percentage Point <sup>"</sup>	Exact Percentage Point
0.9975	1	21.8892	127.32
	2	9.1354	14.089
	10	3.5587	3.5814
	20	3.1507	3.1534
	40	2.9708	2.9712
	60	2.9145	2.9146
	120	2.8599	2.8599
0.9950	1	16.3271	63.657
	2	7.2428	9.9248
	10	3.1558	3.1693
	20	2.8437	2.8453
	40	2.7043	2.7045
	60	2.6602	2.6603
	120	2.6174	2.6174
0.9750	1	7.1547	12.706
	2	3.8517	4.3027
	10	2.2254	2.2281
	20	2.0856	2.0860
	40	2.0210	2.0211
	60	2.0003	2.0003
	120	1.9799	1.9799
0.9500	1	4.5888	6.3138
	2	2.7618	2.9200
	10	1.8114	1.8125
	20	1.7246	1.7247
	40	1.6838	1.6839
	60	1.6706	1.6707
	120	1.6577	1.6577
0.7500	1	0.9993	1.0000
	2	0.8170	0.8165
	10	0.6998	0.6998
	20	0.6870	0.6870
	40	0.6807	0.6807
	60	0.6786	0.6786
	120	0.6765	0.6766

<sup>"</sup>From (28.22).

Chu (1956) obtained the following inequalities, which aid in assessing the accuracy of simple normal approximations to the distribution of  $t_\nu$ , for  $A \leq 0, B \geq 0, \nu \geq 3$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\nu}{\nu+1} \left[ \Phi \left( B \sqrt{\frac{\nu+1}{\nu}} \right) - \Phi \left( A \sqrt{\frac{\nu+1}{\nu}} \right) \right] &\leq \Pr A < t_\nu < B \\ &\leq \sqrt{\frac{7\nu-3}{7\nu-14}} \left[ \Phi \left( B \sqrt{\frac{\nu-2}{\nu}} \right) - \Phi \left( A \sqrt{\frac{\nu-2}{\nu}} \right) \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (28.23)$$

He showed that for  $\nu$  large, the ratio of absolute error to correct value of  $\Pr[A < t_\nu < B]$  using the unit normal approximation to  $t_\nu$ , is less than  $\nu^{-1}$ .

Wallace (1959), developing the methods used by Chu (1956), obtained bounds for the cumulative distribution function of  $t_\nu$ . These are most easily expressed in terms of bounds on the corresponding normal deviate  $u(t)$ , defined by the equation (with  $t > 0$ )

$$\Phi(u(t)) = \Pr[t_\nu \leq t]. \quad (28.24)$$

Wallace summarized his results as follows:

$$u(t) \leq [\nu \log(1 + t^2 \nu^{-1})]^{1/2}, \quad (28.25a)$$

$$u(t) \geq (1 - \frac{1}{2} \nu^{-1})^{1/2} [\nu \log(1 + t^2 \nu^{-1})]^{1/2} \quad \text{for } \nu > f, \quad (28.25b)$$

and also

$$u(t) \geq [\nu \log(1 + t^2 \nu^{-1})]^{1/2} - 0.368 \nu^{-1/2} \quad \text{for } \nu \geq \frac{1}{2}. \quad (28.25c)$$

From (28.25a) and (28.25b) it can be seen that  $[\nu \log(1 + t^2 \nu^{-1})]^{1/2}$  differs from  $u(t)$  by an amount not exceeding  $25\nu^{-1}\%$ ; (28.25c) shows that the absolute error does not exceed  $0.368\nu^{-1/2}$ . Usually (28.25b) gives a better (i.e., greater) lower bound than (28.25c).

Wallace further obtained two good approximations without giving precise bounds for (28.27):

$$\left( \frac{8\nu+1}{8\nu+3} \right) [\nu \log(1 + t^2 \nu^{-1})]^{1/2}, \quad (28.26)$$

$$\left[ 1 - \frac{2}{8\nu+3} \{1 - e^{-s^2}\}^{1/2} \right] [\nu \log(1 + t^2 \nu^{-1})]^{1/2}, \quad (28.27)$$

with

$$s = 0.184(8\nu + 3)\nu^{-1}[\log(1 + t^2\nu^{-1})]^{-1/2}.$$

He stated that (28.27) is within 0.02 of the true value of  $u(t)$  for a wide range of values of  $t$ . Prescott (1974) advocated use of (28.26).

Wallace compared the values given by (28.25a), (28.25b), (28.25c), (28.26), and (28.27) and by the formula corresponding to the Paulson approximation to the F-distribution (Chapter 27) (setting  $\nu_1 = 1$ ):

$$\Pr[|t_\nu| \leq t] = \Pr\left[U \leq \frac{1}{3\sqrt{2}} [(9 - 2\nu^{-1})t^{2/3} - 7][\nu^{-1}t^{4/3} + 1]^{-1/2}\right]. \quad (28.28)$$

His results are shown in Table 28.8.

The accuracy of (28.27) is noteworthy, though the formula is rather complicated. Peizer and Pratt (1968) have proposed other formulas of this kind:

$$u(t) \doteq \left(\nu - \frac{2}{3}\right) \left[ \frac{\log(1 + t^2\nu^{-1})}{\nu - (5/6)} \right]^{1/2} \quad (28.29a)$$

and

$$u(t) \doteq \left(\nu - \frac{2}{3} + \frac{1}{10}\nu^{-1}\right) \left[ \frac{\log(1 + t^2\nu^{-1})}{\nu - (5/6)} \right]^{-1}. \quad (28.29b)$$

Gaver and Kafadar (1984) provide a simple approximation to percentage points of t-distribution very similar to (28.29b) of a somewhat superior accuracy.

Cornish (1969) reported Hill's (1969) Cornish-Fisher type expansions in terms of  $u = \{a, \log(1 + t^2\nu^{-1})\}^{1/2}$  and  $a = \nu - \frac{1}{2}$ , as follows:

$$u(t) = u + \frac{1}{48}(u^3 + 3u)a_\nu^{-2} - \frac{1}{23040}(4u^7 + 33u^5 + 240u^3 + 855u)a_\nu^{-4}, \quad (28.30a)$$

and inversely

$$t_{\nu, a} = [\nu(\exp[u'^2 a_\nu^{-1}] - 1)]^{1/2}, \quad (28.30b)$$

where

$$u' = U_\alpha - \frac{1}{48}(U_\alpha^3 + 3U_\alpha)a_\nu^{-2} + \frac{1}{23040}(4U_\alpha^7 + 63U_\alpha^5 + 360U_\alpha^3 + 945U_\alpha)a_\nu^{-4}.$$

Table 28.8 Bounds on the equivalent normal deviate  $u(t)$  for  $t_v$ 

$\nu$	$t$	Exact Value	$u(t)$ Bounds			Approximations		
			Eq. (28.25a)	Eq. (28.25b)	Eq. (28.25c)	Eq. (28.26)	Eq. (28.27)	Paulson Eq. (28.28)
1	0.3	0.235	0.294	0.208	< 0	0.241	0.241	0.257
	1	0.674	0.832	0.589	0.465	0.680	0.681	0.674
	2	1.047	1.269	0.897	0.901	1.038	1.048	1.031
	4	1.419	1.683	1.190	1.315	1.377	1.416	1.349
	8	1.756	2.043	1.445	1.675	1.672	1.750	1.576
	12	1.935	2.231	1.577	1.863	1.825	1.927	1.670
	$10^2$	2.729	3.035	2.146	2.667	2.177	2.704	1.896
	$10^5$	4.514	4.799	3.393	4.431	3.926	4.447	1.964
3	1	0.858	0.929	0.848	0.717	0.860	0.860	0.855
	2	1.478	1.594	1.455	1.382	1.476	1.478	1.477
	4	2.197	2.353	2.148	2.141	2.179	2.197	2.160
	8	2.872	3.053	2.787	2.840	2.826	2.879	2.705
	12	3.228	3.417	3.119	3.204	3.164	3.237	2.953
	$\sqrt{3} 10^2$	5.057	5.256	4.797	5.044	4.866	5.058	3.493
	$10^5$	10.000	10.000	10.000	10.000	10.000	10.000	10.000
10	1	0.952	0.976	0.952	0.860	0.953	0.953	0.948
	2	1.790	1.834	1.788	1.718	1.790	1.790	1.805
	4	3.021	3.091	3.013	2.975	3.017	3.020	3.014
	8	4.382	4.474	4.361	4.357	4.366	4.384	4.279
	12	5.128	5.229	5.097	5.113	5.103	5.133	4.902
100	100	21.447	21.483	21.429	21.446	21.429	21.450	18.541

Source: Wallace (1959).

Mickey (1975) suggested the approximation

$$u(t) \doteq \left\{ \left( \nu - \frac{1}{2} \right) \log \left( 1 + \frac{t^2}{\nu} \right) \right\}^{1/2} \quad (28.31)$$

which is a modified Chu (1956) transform approximation; see page 382.

These investigations suggest a general class of transformations of form

$$u(t) \doteq \left\{ \frac{\nu + b}{\nu + c} \right\} \left[ \left( \nu - a \right) \log \left\{ 1 + \frac{t^2}{\nu + h} \right\} \right]^{1/2} \quad (28.32)$$

If, in Wallace's (1959) or Mickey's (1975) transformations,  $t$  is expressed as a function of  $u(t)$  and then expanded in a power series, it agrees with Fisher's expansion up to  $O(\nu^{-1})$ . Bailey (1980) showed that by choosing  $a = -\frac{19}{12}$ ,  $b = \frac{1}{8}$ ,  $c = \frac{9}{8}$ , and  $h = \frac{1}{12}$  in (28.32), agreement up to  $O(\nu^{-2})$  can be achieved, and the approximation

$$u(t) = \left\{ \frac{8\nu + 1}{8\nu + 9} \right\} \left[ \left( \nu + \frac{19}{12} \right) \log \left\{ 1 + \frac{t^2}{\nu + \frac{1}{12}} \right\} \right]^{1/2} \quad (28.33)$$

is accurate to  $O(\nu^{-3})$  locally in the vicinity of  $u(t) = 1.9469$ . This value is likely to be of interest in many applications.

Bailey also suggested

$$u(t) \doteq \frac{4\nu^2 + 5(2z_c^2 + 3)/24}{4\nu^2 + \nu + (4z_c^2 + 9)/12} \left\{ \nu \log \left( 1 + \frac{t^2}{\nu} \right) \right\}^{1/2}, \quad (28.34)$$

where  $z_c$  is the unit normal ( $\nu \rightarrow \infty$ ) value for  $u(t)$ . For  $z_c = 1.96$ , 2.5758, and 3.2905, very high accuracy up to  $O(\nu^{-3})$  is achieved and for  $z_c = 2.3276$  the accuracy improves to  $O(\nu^{-4})$ .

Soms (1984) extended the bounds of Birnbaum (1942) and Sampford (1953) (see Chapter 13 and Chapter 33, Section 7.1 in the first edition) for the ratio of the upper tail area of the normal distribution to the upper tail of the  $t$ -distribution by showing that

$$R_{\nu, x} = \int_x^\infty f_\nu(t) dt / f_\nu(x), \quad (28.35)$$

where  $f_\nu(x)$  is the Student density with  $\nu$  degrees of freedom satisfies the

inequalities

$$\left[ \frac{(\nu - 1)x}{2\nu} + \left( 1 + \left\{ \frac{(\nu + 1)x}{2\nu} \right\}^2 \right)^{1/2} \right]^{-1} < R_{\nu, x}$$

$$< \left[ \frac{(3\nu - 1)x}{4\nu} + \left( \frac{\nu - 1}{2\nu} + \left\{ \frac{(\nu + 1)x}{4\nu} \right\}^2 \right)^{1/2} \right]^{-1}, \quad (28.36)$$

where the lower bound is valid for all  $\nu \geq 1$  and the upper for  $\nu \geq 2$  (not necessarily integer-valued).

An earlier result of Soms (1976) is

$$\frac{1}{x} - \frac{\nu}{(\nu + 2)x^3} < R_{\nu, x} < \frac{1}{x} \quad \text{for all } \nu > 0. \quad (28.37)$$

Soms (1984) gave

$$A(x, \gamma_{\min}) < R_{\nu, x} < A(x, \gamma_{\max}), \quad (28.38)$$

where

$$A(x, \gamma) = \frac{1 + \gamma}{(x^2 + 4c_\nu^2(1 + \gamma)^2)^{1/2} + \gamma x} \quad \text{for } \nu > 2,$$

$$\gamma_{\min} = \frac{\nu}{2(\nu + 2)c_\nu^2} - 1,$$

$$\gamma_{\max} = 4c_\nu^2 / (1 - 4c_\nu^2).$$

For  $\nu < 2$  the definitions of  $\gamma_{\min}$  and  $\gamma_{\max}$  are interchanged, and for  $\nu = 2$ ,  $\gamma_{\min} = \gamma_{\max}$  and  $R_{\nu, x} = A(x, \gamma_{\max})$ . Soms compared his bounds with those of Peizer and Pratt (1968) and Wallace (1959) without reaching definite conclusions. In general the lower bound in (28.38) is the best while the picture is mixed for upper bounds.

Among formulas developed empirically, we mention results of four investigations, reported by Cucconi (1962), Gardiner and Bombay (1965), Moran (1966), and Kramer (1966). Gardiner and Bombay (1965) gave formulas of the form

$$t_{\nu, \alpha} = (a\nu + b + c\nu^{-1})(\nu + d + e\nu^{-1})^{-1} \quad (28.39)$$

for various percentiles. Values of  $a$ ,  $b$ ,  $c$ ,  $d$ , and  $e$  for  $a = 0.95, 0.975$ , and  $0.995$  are shown in Table 28.9 (note that  $a = U_\alpha$ ). The corresponding values of  $t_{\nu, \alpha}$  are correct to four decimal places for  $\nu > 3$ . These results are rather

Table 28.9 Values of  $a$ ,  $b$ ,  $c$ ,  $d$ , and  $e$  for the approximation in (28.39)

$\alpha$	$a$	$b$	$c$	$d$	$e$
0.95	1.6449	3.5283	0.85602	1.2209	-1.5162
0.975	1.9600	0.60033	0.95910	-0.90259	0.11588
0.995	2.5758	-0.82847	1.8745	-2.2311	1.5631

better, for smaller values of  $\nu$ , than those obtained with Cucconi's (1962) formulas:

$$t_{\nu,0.975} \doteq 1.9600\nu(\nu^2 - 2.143\nu + 1.696)^{-1/2}, \quad \nu > 1, \quad (28.40a)$$

$$t_{\nu,0.995} \doteq 2.5758\nu(\nu^2 - 3.185\nu + 4.212)^{-1/2}, \quad \nu > 2. \quad (28.40b)$$

Moran's (1966) investigations were confined to comparisons at 2.5%, 0.5% and 0.05% percentiles, and led to the following approximations:

At the 2.5% point,

$$U_{0.975} = t_{\nu,0.975}(1 - 0.0550t_{\nu,0.975}\nu^{-1}) \quad (28.41)$$

and

$$U_{0.975} = t_{\nu,0.975}(1 - 0.6049t_{\nu,0.975}\nu^{-1} + 0.2783t_{\nu,0.975}^2\nu^{-2}). \quad (28.42)$$

At 0.5%,

$$U_{0.995} = t_{\nu,0.995}[1 + 0.613t_{\nu,0.995}\nu^{-1}]^{-1} - 0.8\nu^{-1} \quad (28.43)$$

At 0.05%,

$$U_{0.9995} = t_{\nu,0.9995}[1 + 0.87t_{\nu,0.9995}\nu^{-1}]^{-1}. \quad (28.44)$$

The formula

$$U_{\alpha} = t_{\nu,\alpha}[1 + 0.613t_{\nu,\alpha}\nu^{-1}]^{-1} \quad (28.45)$$

was found to give fairly good results both for  $\alpha = 0.975$  and  $\alpha = 0.995$ . Values given by (28.42), (28.43), and (28.45) for  $\alpha = 0.975, 0.995$ , are shown in Table 28.10.



Table 28.10 Comparison of approximations (28.42), (28.43), and (28.45) with exact values of  $U_\alpha$

$\nu$	$a = 0.975, U_\alpha = 1.9600$		$a = 0.995, U_\alpha = 2.5758$	
	Eq. (28.42)	Eq. (28.45)	Eq. (28.45)	Eq. (28.43)
3	2.1369	1.9284	2.6628	2.3961
4	1.9830	1.9477	2.6994	2.4994
5	1.9603	1.9546	2.6983	2.5383
6	1.9565	1.9575	2.6889	2.5556
8	1.9573	1.9597	2.6691	2.5691
10	1.9586	1.9604	2.6537	2.5737
15	1.9603	1.9607	2.6300	2.5767
20	1.9607	1.9606	2.6171	2.5771
30	1.9608	1.9605	2.6037	2.5770
40	1.9607	1.9604	2.5969	2.5769

Formula (28.45) gives reasonably good results for  $\nu \geq 10$ . Kramer's (1966) approximations are based on unpublished results obtained by Ray (1961). He stated that the following formulas have errors less than 0.001 for  $3 < \nu < 120$ : For  $0 < t < 1$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[0 < t_\nu < t] \doteq & 0.399622t - 0.068492t^3 \\ & + 0.010272t^5 - 0.111604t\nu^{-1} \\ & - 0.009310t^3\nu^{-1} + 0.02865t\nu^{-2}. \end{aligned} \quad (28.46a)$$

For  $1 \leq t \leq 2$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[0 < t_\nu < t] \doteq & -0.060820 + 0.585243t - 0.2089773t^3 \\ & + 0.025489t^5 + 0.082228\nu^{-1} \\ & - 0.276747t\nu^{-1} + 0.080726t^2\nu^{-1} \\ & + 0.011192t\nu^{-2}. \end{aligned} \quad (28.46b)$$

For  $t > 2$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[0 < t_\nu < t] \doteq & 0.503226 - 0.044928\nu^{-1} \\ & + 0.112057\nu^{-2} + 1.949790(\nu t^2)^{-1} \\ & - 5.917356(\nu^2 t^2)^{-1} - 7.549051(\nu t^3)^{-1} \\ & + 11.311627(\nu^2 t^3)^{-1} - 0.399205t^{-4} \\ & + 5.487170(\nu t^4)^{-1}. \end{aligned} \quad (28.46c)$$

Similar accuracy for  $\nu = 1$  is obtained with the following formulas:

For  $0 < t \leq \frac{1}{2}$ ,

$$\Pr[0 < t_1 < t] = \pi^{-1} \left( t - \frac{1}{3}t^3 + \frac{1}{5}t^5 - \frac{1}{7}t^7 \right). \quad (28.47a)$$

For  $\frac{1}{2} < t < \frac{3}{2}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[0 < t_1 < t] = \frac{1}{4} + \pi^{-1} \left[ \frac{1}{2}(t-1) - \frac{1}{4}(t-1)^2 \right. \\ \left. + \frac{1}{12}(t-1)^3 - \frac{1}{40}(t-1)^5 \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (28.47b)$$

For  $t \geq \frac{3}{2}$ ,

$$\Pr[0 < t_1 < t] \doteq \frac{1}{2} - \pi^{-1} \left[ t^{-1} - \frac{1}{3}t^{-3} + \frac{1}{5}t^{-5} - \frac{1}{7}t^{-7} \right]. \quad (28.47c)$$

For  $\nu = 2$  the formula

$$\Pr[0 < t_2 < t] = t(8 + 4t^2)^{-1/2} \quad (28.48)$$

is exact for all  $t \geq 0$ . Formulas (28.46) and (28.47) are well suited for use in calculators.

For calculating extreme tail probabilities of the  $t_\nu$  distribution, Pinkham and Wilk (1963) suggested using the expansion

$$\int_t^\infty (1 + y^2\nu^{-1})^{-(\nu+1)/2} dy = \sum_{j=1}^m w_j + R_m(t), \quad m < \frac{1}{2}(\nu + 1), \quad (28.49a)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} w_j &= \nu(\nu - 1)^{-1} (1 + t^2\nu^{-1})^{-(\nu-1)/2} t^{-1}, \\ w_{j+1} &= w_j (1 + \nu t^{-2}) \frac{2j - 1}{2j + 1 - \nu}, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, m - 1, \end{aligned}$$

and the remainder term  $R_m(t)$  does not exceed (in absolute value)  $w_m$ .

Table 28.II [taken from Pinkham and Wilk (1963)] shows how good approximations can be obtained with this formula using only three terms in

**Table 28.11 Exact and approximate tail areas for the *t*-distribution with  $\nu$  degrees of freedom**

Exact Tail Area <sup>a</sup>	Approximation (28.49a) with $m = 3$		
	$\nu = 7$	$\nu = 15$	$\nu = 40$
0.001	0.000 816	0.001 06	0.001 02
0.000 05	0.000 042 8	0.000 051 5	0.000 050 3
0.000 01	0.000 008 66	0.000 010 2	0.000 010 05
0.000 001	0.000 000 873	0.000 001 02	0.000 001 003
0.000 000 1	0.000 000 087 7	0.000 000 102	0.000 000 100 1

Source: Pinkham and Wilk (1963).

<sup>a</sup>These tail areas are exact to the extent that Federighi's (1959) tabled quantiles are exact.

the expansion (i.e.,  $m = 3$ ). An expansion of the integral (28.49a) in terms of  $w = [1 + t^2\nu^{-1}]^{-1/2}$  was used by Hill (1970a) for  $t^2 > n \geq 1$ :

$$\int_t^\infty (1 + y^2\nu^{-1})^{-(\nu+1)/2} dy = \nu^{1/2} \int_0^w x^{\nu-1} (1 - x^2)^{-1/2} dx$$

$$= \nu^{1/2} w^\nu \left\{ \frac{1}{\nu} + \frac{w^2}{2(\nu+2)} + \frac{1 \cdot 3w^4}{2 \cdot 4(\nu+4)} + \dots \right\}$$

(28.49b)

The inverse of this series was used to express  $t^2\nu^{-1}$  in terms of  $z = [\nu^{1/2}c_{\nu,\alpha}]^{2/\nu}$ , where  $c$ , is the normalizing constant of the probability integral, yielding the formula

$$t_{\nu,\alpha}^2 \nu^{-1} \doteq z^{-1} + \frac{\nu+1}{\nu+2} \left[ -1 + \frac{z}{2(\nu+4)} + \frac{z}{3(\nu+2)\{(\nu+6)(\nu z)^{-1} - 1\}} \right]$$

(28.49c)

which is exact for  $\nu = 2$ , and for larger  $\nu$  correct to over six digits for  $z < \nu^{-1}$ .

Cornish (1969) reported Hill's (1969) Cornish-Fisher type expansions in terms of  $u = [a, \log(1 + t^2\nu^{-1})]^{1/2}$ , where  $a, = \nu - (1/2)$  [see Eqs. (28.30a) and (28.30b)]. M. A. A. Cox (1991) has adapted Hill's (1970a) algorithm for evaluation of percentage points of the Student's *t*-distribution written in ALGOL code for use on a spreadsheet. The resulting code is entered via the macro facility. The package adopted is SYMPHONY@; however, the logic may be readily implemented in both LOTUS 123® and SUPER CALC®. In Zelen and Severo (1964) the following approximations are stated:

For  $\nu \leq 5$ , but  $t$  large,

$$\Pr[t_\nu \leq t] = 1 - a_\nu t^{-\nu} - b_\nu t^{-(\nu+1)} \quad (28.50)$$

with

$$\begin{aligned} a_1 &= 0.3183, a_2 = 0.4991, a_3 = 1.1094, a_4 = 3.0941, a_5 = 9.948, \\ b_1 &= 0.0000, b_2 = 0.0518, b_3 = -0.0460, b_4 = -2.756, b_5 = -14.05. \end{aligned}$$

For  $\nu$  large,

$$\Pr[t_\nu \leq t] \doteq \Phi\left[t\left(1 - \frac{1}{4}\nu^{-1}\right)\left(1 + \frac{1}{2}t^2\nu^{-1}\right)^{-1/2}\right]. \quad (28.51)$$

Gentleman and Jenkins (1968) published an approximation, suitable for computer use, of form

$$\Pr[|t_\nu| < t] \doteq \frac{1}{2} \left[ 1 + \sum_{j=1}^5 c_j t^j \right]^{-8}, \quad (28.52)$$

where each  $c_j$  is the ratio of a quintic to a quadratic polynomial in  $\nu^{-1}$ . This gives five decimal place accuracy for  $\nu > 10$ . Values of the  $c_j$ 's (as functions of  $\nu^{-1}$ ) are shown in Table 28.12.

Taylor (1970) provided an algorithm for applying this method. For  $\nu \geq 5$  the absolute error is always less than 0.001. Ling (1978) compared several approximations and demonstrated that for degrees of freedom from 5 to 45, the formula of Gentleman and Jenkins (1968) was best, according to his criterion of maximum absolute error, for tail areas between 0.0001 and 0.4999.

Continuing Ling's (1978) investigations, Lozy (1982) pointed out that the best approximation to Student's  $t$ -distribution is that of Hill (1970a, 1972, 1981). This involves a generalized Cornish-Fisher type expansion [Hill and Davis (1968)], in which

$$U = Z + (Z^3 + 3Z)b^{-1} - \frac{1}{10}(4Z^7 + 33Z^5 + 240Z^3 + 855Z)b^{-2} \quad (28.53)$$

with as above  $Z = \{a \log(1 + \nu^{-1}t^2)\}^{1/2}$ ,  $a = \nu - \frac{1}{2}$ ,  $b = 48a^2$ , is approximately a unit normal variable. Hill (1972, 1981) provided the first seven terms while Hill (1970a) pointed out that the contribution of the fourth term may be accounted for by replacing the denominator ( $10b^2$ ) of the third term by

$$10b(b + 0.8z^4 + 10)$$

Lozy (1982) also compared Gentleman-Jenkins, Peizer-Pratt, Cornish-Fisher,

Table 28.12 Coefficients for the approximation in (28.52)

Coefficient	Numerator	Denominator
$c_1$	$0.009979441 - 0.581821\nu^{-1} + 1.390993\nu^{-2} - 1.222452\nu^{-3} + 2.151185\nu^{-4}$	$1 - 5.537409\nu^{-1} + 11.42343\nu^{-2}$
$c_2$	$0.04431742 - 0.2206018\nu^{-1} - 0.03317253\nu^{-2} - 5.679969\nu^{-3} - 12.96519\nu^{-4}$	$1 - 5.166733\nu^{-1} + 13.49862\nu^{-2}$
$c_3$	$0.009694901 - 0.1408854\nu^{-1} + 1.889930\nu^{-2} - 12.75532\nu^{-3} + 25.77532\nu^{-4}$	$1 - 4.233736\nu^{-1} + 14.39630\nu^{-2}$
$c_4$	$-0.00009187228 + 0.03789901\nu^{-1} - 1.280346\nu^{-2} - 9.249528\nu^{-3} - 19.08115\nu^{-4}$	$1 - 2.777816\nu^{-1} + 16.46132\nu^{-2}$
$c_5$	$0.0005796020 - 0.02763334\nu^{-1} + 0.4517029\nu^{-2} - 2.657697\nu^{-3} + 5.127212\nu^{-4}$	$1 - 0.5657187\nu^{-1} + 21.83269\nu^{-2}$

and various approximations of Hill (2-term, 3-term, and 3-term modified) and concluded:

The Gentleman-Jenkins and Hill approximations are the only ones to give five correct decimal places for a small number of degrees of freedom, and one would probably opt for the simple Hill two-term approximation over the rather complicated Gentleman-Jenkins one. Since the two-term Hill approximation gives an accuracy of five decimals for eight degrees of freedom, as opposed to about 4–5 decimals for the Peizer-Pratt and Wallace approximations, and is no more complicated than they are, there would again seem to be no justification for using any of the latter.

**Bukač** and **Burstein** (1980) provided a table of coefficients for polynomial approximations of  $t_{\nu, \alpha}$  for five values of  $\alpha$  with proportional error less than 0.00005. The basis is **Goldberg** and **Levine's** (1946) approximation

$$t_{\nu, \alpha} = U_{\alpha} + \frac{U_{\alpha}^3 + U_{\alpha}}{4\nu} + \frac{5U_{\alpha}^5 + 16U_{\alpha}^3 + 34U_{\alpha}}{96\nu^2}. \quad (28.22)'$$

For large  $\nu \geq 120$  the authors use

$$t_{\nu, \alpha} = b_0 + b_1 x, \quad \text{where } x = \nu^{-1}, b_0 = U_{\alpha}, \quad (28.54a)$$

and

$$b_1 = \frac{1}{4}(U_{\alpha}^3 + U_{\alpha}).$$

Then, for given  $\nu$  and  $\alpha$ , they approximate  $t_{\nu, \alpha}$  by

$$R_N(x) = b_0 + b_1 x + b_2 x^2 + \cdots + b_N x^N, \quad (28.54b)$$

where for specified  $N$ ,  $b_2, \dots, b_N$ , are computed so that the maximum relative error

$$\Delta_{\nu, \alpha} = \max \frac{|R_N(\nu^{-1}) - t_{\nu, \alpha}|}{t_{\nu, \alpha}} \quad (28.54c)$$

is minimized for small  $\nu$ . Table 28.13 provides the appropriate values of  $b_i$  ( $i = 1, \dots, 6$ ).

**Sinclair** (1980) notes that for large  $t$ ,  $\log \Pr[t_{\nu} > t]$  is approximately linear in  $\log t$ , with slope  $-t$ . For large values of  $t$  he suggests the approximation

$$\{2 \Pr[t_{\nu} > t]\}^{-1/\nu} \doteq \alpha_{\nu} t + \beta_{\nu} t^{-1}, \quad (28.55)$$

Table 28.13 Coefficients for polynomial approximation (28.54b) of Student's  $t$  percentage points ( $t_{\nu, \alpha}$ )

	$\alpha$				
	0.900	0.950	0.975	0.990	0.995
$b_0$	1.28155	1.64485	1.95996	2.32635	2.57583
$b_1$	0.84658	1.52377	2.37227	3.72907	4.91655
$b_2$	0.57432	1.41902	2.80775	5.72289	8.86832
$b_3$	0.22086	1.00507	2.76386	6.61349	11.35729
$b_4$	0.15426	0.32789	0.69551	6.61683	17.92627
$b_5$	—	0.39338	2.10650	-0.22569	-9.45008
$b_6$	—	—	—	7.03691	27.46120
$\Delta_{\nu, \alpha} \times 10^4$	0.422	0.316	0.291	0.215	0.208

where

$$\alpha_{\nu} = 2\nu^{-1/2} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \nu B \left( \frac{1}{2} \nu, \frac{1}{2} \nu + 1 \right) \right\}^{1/\nu}$$

and

$$\beta_{\nu} = \frac{1}{2} (\nu + 2)^{-1} \nu (\nu + 1) \alpha_{\nu}.$$

The values of  $\alpha_{\nu}$  and  $\beta_{\nu}$  are chosen by equating the two leading terms in the Taylor series expansion of  $\frac{1}{2}(\alpha_{\nu}t + \beta_{\nu}t^{-1})^{-\nu}$  to the two leading terms in the expansion, in negative powers of  $t$ , of  $\Pr\{t_{\nu} > t\}$ . The difference between the true value of  $\Pr\{t_{\nu} > t\}$  and the approximation from (28.55) is of order  $t^{-(\nu+4)}$ . Since the value of  $\Pr\{t_{\nu} > t\}$  is of order  $t^{-\nu}$ , the absolute relative error is of order  $t^{-4}$ . Comparisons between Pinkham and Wilk (1963), Mickey (1975), and Sinclair (1980) are provided in Sinclair (1980).

Richter and Gundlach (1990) have suggested the following approximations (for  $\alpha > \frac{1}{2}$ ):

$$t_{\nu, \alpha} \doteq \nu^{1/2} \left[ \left\{ \nu^{-1/2} \gamma_1(\nu) + 1 \right\}^{1/\gamma_1(\nu)} U_{\alpha} - 1 \right] \quad (28.56)$$

and

$$t_{\nu, \alpha} \doteq U_{\alpha} + \frac{1}{2} \nu^{-1/2} \{ \gamma_2(\nu) \}^{-1/(1-\gamma_2(\nu))} \{ 1 - \gamma_2(\nu) \} (U_{\alpha}^2 - 1), \quad (28.57)$$

where  $\gamma_1(\nu)$  and  $\gamma_2(\nu)$  are appropriate constants and do not depend on  $\alpha$ . They claim that these formulas are accurate to within  $\pm 4 \times 10^{-5}$  (for  $\nu \geq 4$ ). Table 28.14 [from Richter and Gundlach (1990)] presents some values of  $\gamma_1(\nu)$  and  $\gamma_2(\nu)$ . As  $\nu \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $\gamma_j(\nu) \rightarrow 1$  ( $j = 1, 2$ ), and it appears that, for  $\nu > 33$ , one might take

$$\gamma_j(\nu) \doteq 1 - \{ 1 - \gamma_j(33) \} \sqrt{(33/\nu)}.$$

Table 28.14 Values of  $\gamma_1(\nu)$  and  $\gamma_2(\nu)$  for (28.56) and (28.57)

$\nu$	$\gamma_1(\nu)$	$\gamma_2(\nu)$	$\nu$	$\gamma_1(\nu)$	$\gamma_2(\nu)$
4	0.3385	0.6629	19	0.7145	0.8539
5	0.4124	0.7036	20	0.7223	0.8576
6	0.4672	0.7324	21	0.7295	0.8611
7	0.5088	0.7541	22	0.7361	0.8642
8	0.5440	0.7713	23	0.7424	0.8673
9	0.5722	0.7852	24	0.7482	0.8701
10	0.5860	0.7967	25	0.7536	0.8729
11	0.6163	0.8067	26	0.7588	0.8752
12	0.6340	0.8152	27	0.7636	0.8775
13	0.6495	0.8227	28	0.7681	0.8797
14	0.6633	0.8293	29	0.7725	0.8818
15	0.6756	0.8353	30	0.7765	0.8837
16	0.6868	0.8406	31	0.7804	0.8856
17	0.6969	0.8454	32	0.7841	0.8874
18	0.7061	0.8498	33	0.7876	0.8891

Source: Richter and Gundlach (1990).

## 5 APPLICATIONS

The major applications of the t-distribution, construction of tests and confidence intervals relating to the expected values of normal distributions, have been discussed in Section 1.

In particular, if  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are independent random variables, each having a normal distribution with expected value  $\xi$  and standard deviation  $\sigma$ , then the distribution of  $\sqrt{n}(\bar{X} - \xi)/S'$  [where  $\bar{X} = n^{-1}\sum_{j=1}^n X_j$  and  $S'^2 = (n-1)^{-1}\sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - \bar{X})^2$ ] is a t-distribution with  $n-1$  degrees of freedom. Since

$$\Pr\left[|\sqrt{n}(\bar{X} - \xi)/S'| < t_{n-1, 1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}\right] = 1 - \alpha,$$

it follows that

$$\Pr\left[\bar{X} - \left(t_{n-1, 1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}/\sqrt{n}\right)S' < \xi < \bar{X} + \left(t_{n-1, 1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}/\sqrt{n}\right)S'\right] = 1 - \alpha. \quad (28.58)$$

So  $\bar{X} \pm \left(t_{n-1, 1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}/\sqrt{n}\right)S'$  is a confidence interval for  $\xi$  with confidence coefficient  $100(1 - \alpha)\%$ . For practical purposes, it is convenient to have a table of multipliers  $b_{n, \alpha} = t_{n-1, 1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}/\sqrt{n}$  so that the limits of the interval are  $\bar{X} \pm b_{n, \alpha}S'$ . Table 28.15 contains a few values of  $b_{n, \alpha}$ .

In analysis of variance tests, when one of the sums of squares being compared has 1 degree of freedom, the appropriate null hypothesis distribution is F with 1,  $\nu$  degrees of freedom, which is identical with the distribution of  $t_\nu^2$ . Confidence limits for a single specified linear function of parameters in a general linear model (Chapter 27) corresponding to a single degree of freedom are constructed in a similar way to that just described.



Table 28.15 Values of  $b_{n,\alpha}$ 

$\alpha$	$n$										
	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	15	20
0.90	1.18	0.95	0.82	0.73	0.67	0.62	0.58	0.55	0.52	0.45	0.40
0.95	1.59	1.24	1.05	0.93	0.84	0.77	0.72	0.67	0.64	0.55	0.48
0.99	2.92	2.06	1.65	1.40	1.24	1.12	1.03	0.96	0.90	0.77	0.66

"Student's" distributions (along with stable distributions; see Chapter 12, Section 4) have been found to provide adequate models for description of changes in prices of speculative assets such as stocks. Some relevant references are Praetz (1972), Praetz and Wilson (1978), Blattberg and Gonedes (1974), McLeay (1986), and Taylor and Kingsman (1979). In the last of these papers a three-parameter Student (i.e., Pearson Type VII) distribution is fitted to daily changes in commodity prices. Recent applications of Student's distributions include the following:

1. [Eggers and Andersen (1989), Andersen, Lauritzen, and Thommesen (1990), Lauritzen, Thommesen, and Andersen (1990)] representing the distribution of the phase derivative (random frequency of a narrowband mobile channel) of air components in an urban environment.
2. [Mirza and Boyer (1992)] as part of noise models for depth map data and in the development of appropriate M-estimators.
3. [Angers (1992)] as (independent) prior distributions for expected values of multinormally distributed variables.
4. [Verdinelli and Wasserman (1991)] as an underlying model while discussing the Bayesian analysis of outlier models using the Gibbs sampling approach.

## 6 PEARSON TYPE MI DISTRIBUTIONS AND THEIR MODIFICATIONS

The general Type VII distribution has a probability density function that can be expressed in the form

$$p_X(x) = \frac{\Gamma(m)}{\sqrt{\pi} \Gamma(m - \frac{1}{2})} \frac{c^{2m-1}}{[c^2 + (x - \xi)^2]^m}, \quad m > 0, c > 0. \quad (28.59)$$

This depends on the three parameters  $m$ ,  $c$ , and  $\xi$ . The  $t_\nu$  distribution is obtained by putting  $m = \frac{1}{2}(\nu + 1)$ ,  $c = \sqrt{\nu}$ , and  $\xi = 0$ . Thus, if  $X$  has the distribution (28.59), then  $\sqrt{2m-1}(X - \xi)/\sigma$  is distributed as  $t_{2m-1}$ . The shape of the curve represented by (28.59) is therefore the same as the shape of the curve corresponding to the  $t_{2m-1}$  distribution. This has been described in Section 2 and will not be discussed here. The present section will be devoted to discussion of the problem of estimation of the parameters  $m$ ,  $c$ ,

and  $\xi$ , given observed values of  $n$  independent random variables  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$ , each having the distribution (28.59). This problem was discussed by Fisher (1922) as one of the earliest illustrations of the use of the method of maximum likelihood. Some further formulas were published by Sichel (1949) who also applied his method of frequency moments to the problem. Our discussion is based on these two papers.

The equations satisfied by the maximum likelihood estimators  $\hat{m}, \hat{c}, \hat{\xi}$ , can be written in the form

$$n^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^n \log \left[ 1 + \left( \frac{X_j - \hat{\xi}}{\hat{c}} \right)^2 \right] = \psi(\hat{m}) - \psi\left(\hat{m} - \frac{1}{2}\right), \quad (28.60a)$$

$$n^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^n \log \left[ 1 + \left( \frac{X_j - \hat{\xi}}{\hat{c}} \right)^2 \right]^{-1} = 1 - \frac{1}{2\hat{m}}, \quad (28.60b)$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^n \left( \frac{X_j - \hat{\xi}}{\hat{c}} \right) \left[ 1 + \left( \frac{X_j - \hat{\xi}}{\hat{c}} \right)^2 \right]^{-1} = 0. \quad (28.60c)$$

For large values of  $n$  the standard formulas give the following approximations:

$$n \operatorname{var}(\hat{m}) \doteq \left[ \psi^{(1)}\left(m - \frac{1}{2}\right) - \psi^{(1)}(m) - \frac{m+1}{m^2(2m-1)} \right]^{-1}, \quad (28.61a)$$

$$\begin{aligned} n \operatorname{var}(\hat{c}) &\doteq \frac{[\psi^{(1)}(m - \frac{1}{2}) - \psi^{(1)}(m)]c^2}{[(2m-1)/(m+1)][\psi^{(1)}(m - \frac{1}{2}) - \psi^{(1)}(m)] - (1/m^2)} \\ &\doteq \frac{(m+1)c^2}{2m-1} \\ &\quad \times \frac{1}{1 - [(m+1)/(m^2(2m-1))][\psi^{(1)}(m - \frac{1}{2}) - \psi^{(1)}(m)]^{-1}}, \end{aligned} \quad (28.61b)$$

$$n \operatorname{var}(\hat{\xi}) \doteq \frac{(m+1)c^2}{m(2m-1)}, \quad (28.61c)$$

$$\operatorname{corr}(\hat{m}, \hat{c}) \doteq \frac{\sqrt{m+1}}{m\sqrt{(2m-1)[\psi^{(1)}(m - \frac{1}{2}) - \psi^{(1)}(m)]}}, \quad (28.61d)$$

$$\operatorname{corr}(\hat{m}, \hat{\xi}) \doteq \operatorname{corr}(\hat{c}, \hat{\xi}) \doteq 0. \quad (28.61e)$$

Taylor (1980) gives this analysis in terms of parameters  $k = 2m - 1$  and  $h = c^2(2m - 1)^{-1}$ . In these formulas  $\psi(z) = (d/dz) \log \Gamma(z)$ ,  $\psi^{(1)}(z) = (d/dz)\psi(z)$ , and so on.

Formula (28.61c) also gives the approximate variance of the maximum likelihood estimator of  $\xi$  when the values of either or both of  $m$  and  $c$  are known. The asymptotic formulas for the variances of (and correlation between) the maximum likelihood estimators of  $m$  and  $c$  are the same whether the value of  $\xi$  is known or unknown.

If  $c$  is known, then

$$n \text{ var}(\text{Maximum likelihood estimator of } m) \doteq \left[ \psi^{(1)}\left(m - \frac{1}{2}\right) - \psi^{(1)}(m) \right]^{-1}. \quad (28.62)$$

The estimators of  $m$  and  $\xi$  are obtained by solving equations (28.60a) and (28.60b) with  $\hat{c}$  replaced by  $c$ . If  $m$  is known, then

$$n \text{ var}(\text{Maximum likelihood estimator of } c) = \frac{(m + 1)c^2}{2m - 1}. \quad (28.63)$$

Formulas (28.62) and (28.63) are applicable whether or not the value of  $\xi$  is known.

The parameters may also be estimated by equating sample and population values of first, second, and fourth moments. In terms of the population moments

$$\begin{aligned} m &= \frac{\frac{1}{2}(5\beta_2 - 9)}{\beta_2 - 3}, \\ c^2 &= \frac{2\mu_2\beta_2}{\beta_2 - 3}, \\ \xi &= \mu'_1. \end{aligned} \quad (28.64)$$

Denoting by  $\tilde{m}$ ,  $\tilde{c}$ ,  $\tilde{\xi}$ , the estimators obtained by replacing population values by sample values on the right-hand side of (28.64), we have the following approximate formulas (for  $n$  large):

$$\begin{aligned} n \text{ var}(\tilde{m}) &= \frac{2}{3}(m - 1)(2m - 5)(2m - 3)^2(2m^2 - 5m + 12) \\ &\quad \times (2m - 7)^{-1}(2m - 9)^{-1}, \end{aligned} \quad (28.65a)$$

$$\begin{aligned} n \text{ var}(\tilde{c}) &= \frac{1}{3}c^2(m - 1)(2m - 3)(8m^3 - 48m^2 + 108m - 83) \\ &\quad \times (2m - 5)^{-1}(2m - 7)^{-1}(2m - 9)^{-1}, \end{aligned} \quad (28.65b)$$

$$n \text{ var}(\tilde{\xi}) = c^2(2m - 3)^{-1}. \quad (28.65c)$$

Note that

Equation (28.65c) is exact and is also valid if either one or both of  $c$  and  $m$  have known values,

Equations (28.65a) and (28.65b) cannot be used unless  $m$  exceeds  $4\frac{1}{2}$ ,

Equations (28.65a) and (28.65b) apply whether the value of  $\xi$  is known or not.

If either  $m$  or  $c$  is known, the other parameter ( $c$  or  $m$ , respectively) can be estimated by equating

$$\text{var}(X) = c^2(2m - 3)^{-1} \quad (28.66)$$

to the sample variance. For  $n$  large we have the following approximate formulas for the variance of estimators of  $m$ ,  $c$  obtained from (28.64):

$$n(\text{Variance of estimator of } m) \doteq (2m - 3)^2(m - 1)(2m - 5)^{-1}, \quad (28.67a)$$

$$n(\text{Variance of estimator of } c) = c^2(m - 1)(2m - 5)^{-1}. \quad (28.67b)$$

The parameter  $\xi$  may be estimated by the median. The variance of this estimator is approximately

$$\frac{c^2 \pi}{4n} \left[ \frac{\Gamma(m - \frac{1}{2})}{\Gamma(m)} \right]^2. \quad (28.68)$$

For  $m < 2.8$  the median has a smaller asymptotic variance than the arithmetic mean. (The latter has infinite variance for  $m \leq 1.5$ .) The ratio of asymptotic variance of mean to that of median decreases as  $m$  increases, tending to 0.637 (the value for normal distributions) as  $m \rightarrow \infty$ .

Fraser (1976) and Sprott (1980) use the distributional form

$$p_X(x; \theta, \sigma) \propto \left\{ 1 + \frac{(x - \theta)^2}{\lambda \sigma^2} \right\}^{-(\lambda + 1)/2}, \quad (28.69)$$

where  $\lambda (\geq 1)$  is assumed to be known. Sprott (1980) obtains an estimator of  $\sigma$ , regarding  $\theta$  as a nuisance parameter, and using the method of maximum relative likelihood, maximizing

$$R_m(\theta_1; \mathbf{X}) = p_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{X}; \theta^*) / p_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{X}; \hat{\theta}),$$

where  $\theta_1$  is the parameter of interest and  $\theta^* = (\theta_1, \theta_2^*, \theta_3^*, \dots, \theta_k^*)$  is the

restricted maximum likelihood estimator of  $\theta = (\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_k)$  and  $\hat{\theta} = (\hat{\theta}_1, \hat{\theta}_2, \dots, \hat{\theta}_k)$  is the unrestricted maximum likelihood estimator. Borwein and Gabor (1984) investigate the behavior of the MLE of parameter  $\sigma$  in this model.

This distribution appears in the following model of Bayesian inference: Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be observations taken from  $N(\theta, \sigma^2)$ , where  $\theta$  and  $\sigma^2$  are unknown. The likelihood function of  $\theta$ , after integrating over  $\sigma^2$  with respect to the noninformative prior  $\sigma^{-2} d\sigma^2$  (proper inverse gamma prior distributions for  $\sigma^2$  could also be used here) is of form

$$f(\bar{X} - \theta) = \frac{\sqrt{n} K_{n-1}}{S} \left( 1 + \frac{n(\bar{X} - \theta)^2}{(n-1)S^2} \right)^{-n/2}, \quad (28.70)$$

where  $\bar{X}, S^2$  are the usual sample mean and variance, and

$$K_j = \Gamma[(j+1)/2] [\sqrt{j\pi} \Gamma(j/2)]^{-1}.$$

[See Fan and Berger (1992) and Gambino and Guttman (1984), among others, for additional details.]

McDonald and Newey (1988) and Butler et al. (1990) studied distributions with pdfs of form

$$p_Y(y; \sigma, p, q) = \frac{p}{2\sigma q^{1/p} B(p^{-1}, q) (1 + |y|^p / (q\sigma^p))^{q+p^{-1}}}. \quad (28.71)$$

They term them *GT distributions*. When  $p = 2$  and  $\sigma = \sqrt{2}\alpha$ , (28.71) reduces to the pdf of a t-distribution with  $2q$  degrees of freedom. In these distributions  $\sigma$  is a scale parameter while  $p$  and  $q$  control the shape of the density. Larger values of  $p$  and  $q$  are associated with "lighter" tails of the density. The  $h$ th moment of  $Y$  exists, provided  $h < pq$ , and is given by

$$E[Y^h] = \sigma^h q^{h/p} \frac{\Gamma((1+h)p^{-1}) \Gamma(q - hp^{-1})}{\Gamma(p^{-1}) \Gamma(q)}. \quad (28.72)$$

In an earlier paper McDonald and Butler (1987) point out that the log  $t$  distribution [LT( $y; \mu, \sigma, q$ )] with the pdf

$$p_Y(y; \mu, \sigma, q) = \frac{\left\{ B(q, \frac{1}{2}) y \sqrt{2q\sigma^2} \right\}^{-1}}{\left\{ 1 + (\log y - \mu)^2 / (2q\sigma^2) \right\}^{q+\frac{1}{2}}}, \quad y > 0, \quad (28.73)$$

is a lognormal distribution mixed with an inverse gamma distribution. [See also Hogg and Klugman (1983)]. A similar result holds for the GT distributions, which are mixtures of Subbotin distributions with the pdf

$$pe^{-(|y|/\sigma)^p} / \{2\sigma\Gamma(p^{-1})\} \quad (28.74)$$

[See Eq. (24.83)] with inverse generalized gamma distributions [Butler et al. (1990)]. (This result has applications in Bayesian inference.) The pdf of the inverse generalized gamma (IGG( $y; -a, \beta, q$ )) is

$$p_Y(y; a, \beta, q) = \frac{(\beta/y)^{ap+1} e^{-(\beta/y)^q}}{\beta\Gamma(p)} \quad (28.75)$$

(see Chapter 17). [Recall the relation between generalized gamma with the pdf

$$\frac{|a|(y/\beta)^{ap-1} e^{-(y/\beta)^q}}{\beta\Gamma(p)}, \quad y \geq 0,$$

denoted by GG( $y; a, \beta, p$ ), and inverse generalized gamma, denoted by IGG( $y; a, \beta, p$ ):

$$\text{IGG}(y; a, \beta, p) \equiv \text{GG}(y; -a, \beta, p).]$$

Vaughan (1992) studies the Tiku-Suresh (1992) method of estimation for the (generalized) Student family:

$$p_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma k^{1/2} B(\frac{1}{2}, p - \frac{1}{2})} \left\{ 1 + \frac{(x - \theta)^2}{k\sigma^2} \right\}^{-p} \quad [\text{cf. (28.69)}] \quad (28.76)$$

for  $p, k$ , and  $\sigma > 0$ . The values of  $p$  and  $k$  satisfy  $k = 2p - 3$  if  $p \geq 2$  and  $k = 1$  for  $1 \leq p \leq 2$ . (For  $p = 1$  we have Cauchy distributions.)

The maximum likelihood equations, for  $p$  known,

$$\frac{\partial \log L}{\partial \theta} = \frac{2p}{k\sigma} \sum_{i=1}^n g(Z_i) = 0 \quad (28.77a)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \log L}{\partial \sigma} &= (2p - 1) \frac{n}{\sigma} - 2p \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{k\sigma}{k\sigma^2 + (X_i - \theta)^2} \\ &= \frac{n}{\sigma} + \frac{2p}{k\sigma} \sum_{i=1}^n Z_i g(Z_i) = 0, \end{aligned} \quad (28.77b)$$

where  $Z_i = (X_i - \theta)/\sigma$  and  $g(z) = z(1 + z^2/k)^{-1}$ , have no explicit solutions except, of course, when  $p = \infty$ .

Tiku and Suresh (1992) and Vaughan (1992) provided a method for estimating  $\theta$  and  $a$  by solving (28.77a) and (28.77b) iteratively. If no more than half of the sample values in a random sample of size  $n$  coincide, then, as

Vaughan (1992) shows, there is a unique pair of values  $(\hat{\theta}, \hat{\sigma})$  satisfying (28.77a) and (28.77b), simultaneously and maximizing the likelihood function.

The modified maximum likelihood method of estimation suggested by Tiku and Suresh (1992) involves expression of these equations in terms of order statistics  $(X'_i)$  with  $Z'_i = (X'_i - \theta)/\sigma$ :

$$\frac{\partial \log L}{\partial \theta} = \frac{2p}{k\sigma} \sum_{i=1}^n g(Z'_i) = 0 \quad (28.78a)$$

and

$$\frac{\partial \log L}{\partial \sigma} = \frac{n}{\sigma} + \frac{2p}{k\sigma} \sum_{i=1}^n Z'_i g(Z'_i) = 0, \quad (28.78b)$$

and then linearizing  $\partial \log L / \partial \theta$  using the Taylor series approximation

$$g(Z'_i) \doteq g(\zeta_i) + [Z'_i - \zeta_i] \left\{ \frac{d}{dz} g(z) \right\}_{z=\zeta_i} = \alpha_i + \beta_i Z'_i, \quad (28.79)$$

where

$$\zeta_i = E[Z'_i],$$

$$\alpha_i = \frac{(2/k)\zeta_i^3}{[1 + (1/k)\zeta_i^2]^2},$$

$$\beta_i = \frac{1 - (1/k)\zeta_i^2}{[1 + (1/k)\zeta_i^2]^2}, \quad i = 1, \dots, n.$$

Note that since the distribution is symmetric,  $\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i = 0$ . Incorporating (28.79) into equations (28.78), they arrive at the **MML** estimators

$$\hat{\theta}^* = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i X'_i \right\} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i \right)^{-1}, \quad (28.80a)$$

$$\hat{\sigma}^* = \frac{\{B + \sqrt{B^2 + 4nC}\}}{2\sqrt{n(n-1)}}, \quad (28.80b)$$

where

$$B = \frac{2p}{k} \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i X'_i,$$

$$C = \frac{2p}{k} \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i \{X'_i - \hat{\sigma}^*\}^2.$$

Note that in  $\hat{\sigma}^*$  the divisor  $n$  is replaced by  $\sqrt{n(n-1)}$  for bias reduction; if  $g(z)$  is linear in  $z$ , the estimators obtained are the ML estimators. The estimator of  $\sigma$  in (28.80b) may, however, take on negative values in some instances. A detailed analysis of these estimators is available in Vaughan (1992), who extends the results to censored situations.

## 7 OTHER RELATED DISTRIBUTIONS

We have already noted that the distribution of  $t_\nu^2$  is identical with that of  $F$  with 1,  $\nu$  degrees of freedom. On account of the symmetry, about zero, of the  $t$ , distribution,

$$\Pr[F_{1,\nu} < K] = \Pr[t_\nu^2 < K] = \Pr[|t_\nu| < \sqrt{K}], \quad (28.81)$$

and so

$$\sqrt{F_{1,\nu,\alpha}} = t_{\nu,(1+\alpha)/2}.$$

Other relations between the  $t$  and  $F$  distributions have been described in Chapter 27. Psarakis and Panaretos (1990) introduced the distribution of the random variable  $W = |t_\nu|$ , termed the *folded  $t$  variable*. The expected value and variance are

$$E[W] = 2\sqrt{\frac{\nu}{\pi}} \frac{\Gamma((\nu+1)/2)}{\Gamma(\nu/2)(\nu-1)}, \quad \nu > 1 \quad (28.82a)$$

and

$$\text{var}(W) = \frac{\nu}{\nu-2} \frac{4\nu}{\pi(\nu-1)^2} \left\{ \frac{\Gamma((\nu+1)/2)}{\Gamma(\nu/2)} \right\}^2, \quad \nu > 2. \quad (28.82b)$$

They show that the folded standard normal distributions with the pdf

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \{ e^{-(x-\mu)^2/(2\sigma^2)} + e^{-(x+\mu)^2/(2\sigma^2)} \}, \quad x > 0$$

(see Chapter 13, Section 10.3) is the limiting form of the folded  $t$ -distribution as  $\nu \rightarrow \infty$ .

The folded  $t$ -distribution is related to the chi-distribution by the relation

$$W = \frac{\nu^{-1/2}X}{Y}, \quad (28.83)$$

where  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent chi variables with 1,  $\nu$  degrees of freedom, respectively.

$W$  with 1 degree of freedom is the standard half-Cauchy. If  $X$  has an  $F_{\nu,\nu}$  distribution, then (as noted in Section 1),  $\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{\nu}(X^{1/2} - X^{-1/2})$  has a  $t$ ,



distribution, so  $\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{\nu}|X^{1/2} - X^{-1/2}|$  has a folded t-distribution with  $\nu$  degrees of freedom. Psarakis and Panaretos (1990) tabulate values of the cdf  $F_w(w)$ , for  $w = 0.0(0.1)6.0$  and  $\nu = 1(1)5, 10, \text{ and } 20$ .

There are a number of pseudo-t-distributions obtained by replacing  $\chi_\nu/\sqrt{\nu}$  in the denominator of

$$t_\nu = \frac{U}{\chi_\nu/\sqrt{\nu}}$$

by variables with other distributions (still independent of  $U$ ). These correspond to replacing  $S'$  in  $\sqrt{n}(\bar{X} - \xi)/S'$  by other sample measures of dispersion, in particular by the range  $[\max(X_1, \dots, X_n) - \min(X_1, \dots, X_n)]$  or the mean deviation  $n^{-1}\sum_{j=1}^n |X_j - \bar{X}|$ . These latter have the common feature that they are distributed as  $\sigma T$ , where  $T$  is the variable corresponding to the case  $\sigma = 1$ . Hence the ratio is distributed as  $U/T$  and so does not depend on the value of  $\sigma$  [e.g., see Pillai (1951)].

The use of statistics of this kind has been described in Chapter 13. If the distribution of the denominator is approximated by a  $c\chi_\nu/\sqrt{\nu}$  distribution, the ratio is approximated by a  $c^{-1}t_\nu$  distribution. Usually  $\nu$  is fractional, and it is necessary to interpolate if standard tables are used (in which  $\nu$  is usually given for integer values only, the tables of Mardia and Zemroch (1978) are a notable exception). Alternatively, approximate formulas may be used.

Birnbaum and Vincze (1970) studied the distribution of

$$T^* = \frac{X'_{m+1} - \mu}{X'_{m+1+r} - X'_{m+1-r}} \quad (28.84)$$

from a general distribution with a continuous cdf. Here

$$\mu = \inf\{x : F(x) = \frac{1}{2}\}$$

is the population median,  $r$  is an integer  $1 \leq r \leq m$  and the sample size is  $2m + 1$ ;  $X'_{m+1}$  is the sample median.

The statistic  $T^*$  is similar to the t-statistic. The denominator is an estimator (sample interquartile **range**) of a scale parameter (population interquartile range). This statistic is invariant under linear transformations and needs only three order statistics for calculation. Under mild regularity conditions [continuity of  $p'_X(x)$  and  $p'_X(\mu) = 0$ ] the limiting distribution of  $T^*$  (for a fixed  $r$ ) is

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \Pr \left[ \sqrt{\frac{2}{m}} T^* \leq s \right] = \frac{1}{(2r-1)!} \int_0^\infty \phi(zs) z^{2r-1} e^{-z} dz, \quad (28.85)$$

where  $\phi(\cdot)$  is the unit normal pdf. Tables (based on simulations) of  $\Pr\{T^* > t\}$ , when  $X$  is normally distributed, for  $m = 1(1)10$ ,  $r = 1(1)m$  and  $t = 0.0(0.1)5$  were provided by Tague (1969).

The distribution of  $(X_j - \bar{X})/S'$ , where  $X_j$  is randomly chosen from  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  was found by Thompson (1935) to be related to the  $t$ -distribution. In fact, setting  $E[X_j] = 0$  and  $\text{var}(X_j) = 1$  (which does not affect the distribution), we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - \bar{X})^2 &= X_1^2 + \frac{1}{2}(X_2 - X_1)^2 + \frac{2}{3}\left(X_3 - \frac{1}{2}(X_1 + X_2)\right)^2 + \dots \\ &\quad + \frac{n-1}{n}\left[X_n - \frac{1}{n-1}(X_1 + \dots + X_{n-1})\right]^2 \\ &= Y + \frac{n}{n-1}(X_n - \bar{X})^2, \end{aligned}$$

with  $Y$  and  $(X_n - \bar{X})^2$  mutually independent, and  $Y$  distributed as  $\chi_{n-2}^2$ . Hence  $(X_n - \bar{X})/S'$  is distributed as  $[(n-1)/\sqrt{n}]U(\chi_{n-2}^2 + U^2)^{-1/2}$ , with  $U$  (standard normal) and  $\chi_{n-2}^2$  mutually independent; that is, as beta  $(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{n}{2} - 1)$  over the range  $[-(n-1)/\sqrt{n}, (n-1)/\sqrt{n}]$ . Equivalently  $(X_n - \bar{X})/S'$  is distributed as

$$\frac{n-1}{\sqrt{2}} \sqrt{n-2} t_{n-2} \{1 + (n-2)t_{n-2}^2\}^{-1/2}. \quad (28.86)$$

Smith (1992) provides an elegant derivation of the distribution of the  $t$ -statistic (28.1) when  $U$  and  $\chi_{\nu}^2$  are not necessarily independent. With  $\chi_{\nu}^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{\nu} Y_i^2$ , we take  $Z = (U, Y)$  to have a multinormal distribution with expected value  $\mathbf{0}$  and variance-covariance matrix

$$\Sigma_{(\nu+1) \times (\nu+1)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \mathbf{V}' \\ \mathbf{V} & \mathbf{I}_{\nu} \end{pmatrix}$$

$\mathbf{V}$  is a  $\nu \times 1$  vector and  $\mathbf{I}_{\nu}$  denotes the identity matrix of order  $\nu$ . If  $\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{0}$ , then  $U$  and  $\chi_{\nu}^2$  are independent and  $t \sim t_{\nu}$ . If  $\mathbf{V} \neq \mathbf{0}$ , defining  $w = \mathbf{V}'\mathbf{V} \geq 0$  (and since  $|\Sigma| = 1 - w \geq 0$ ,  $w \leq 1$ ), Smith (1992) derives the density function

$$\begin{aligned} p_T(t) &= \frac{\Gamma((\nu+1)/2)}{\Gamma(\nu/2)\{\pi\nu(1-w)\}^{1/2}} \left\{1 + \frac{t^2}{\nu(1-w)}\right\}^{-(\nu+1)/2} \\ &\quad \times \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \left\{ \frac{\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)_{i+j} (\nu+1)/2)_{2i+j}}{\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)_i (\frac{1}{2}\nu)_{i+j} i! j!} (-1)^j \left(\frac{w}{1-w}\right)^{i+j} \right\} \\ &\quad \times \left\{ \frac{t^2}{\nu(1-w)} \right\}^i \left\{1 + \frac{t^2}{\nu(1-w)}\right\}^{-(2i+j)}, \quad -\infty < t < \infty, \end{aligned} \quad (28.87)$$

where  $(a)_i = a(a+1)\dots(a+i-1)$ .

The discrepancy between exact and nominal probabilities  $P[T > t_\alpha]$  is small; the worst relative errors occur for small  $\nu$ , large  $w$ , and small  $\alpha$ . For 10% and smaller values of  $1 - \alpha$  the exact tail probabilities under dependence are smaller than the nominal ones. Using Student's values thus gives rise to conservative inference.

The distribution of  $\sqrt{n}(\bar{X} - \xi)/S'$  when  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  have identical, but not normal, distributions has been studied for the following cases:

Rectangular. By Hotelling and Frankel (1938), Perlo (1933), Rider (1929, 1931), Rietz (1939), Siddiqui (1964), Watanabe (1960–1966), and Ali (1975, 1976).

Exponential. By Geary (1936) and Hoq, Ali and Templeton (1978).

*Cauchy and squared hyperbolic secant*. By Bradley (1952) and Hotelling (1961).

Edgeworth series. By Bartlett (1935), Ghurye (1949), Gayen (1949, 1952), Tiku (1963), and Zackrisson (1959).

Compound (*mixture*) normal. By Hyrenius (1950) and Quensel (1943).

Various distributions. (Rectangular, Laplace,  $\chi^2$ , Beta). By Watanabe (1960–1966), Sansing (1976), and Sansing and Owen (1974).

Stable distributions. By Logan et al. (1973).

Laderman (1939) gave a general formula for the distribution of  $t$ , for any continuous parent population, for sample size two. In a number of cases exact distributions have been obtained only for small sample sizes [ $\nu$  usually up to 3 or 4]. For the parent rectangular distribution Siddiqui has given bounds for the probability integral of  $t_\nu$ , and obtained numerical values for  $\nu \leq 6$ . Hotelling (1961), by a geometrical method, has shown that as  $t \rightarrow \infty$ , the ratio of  $\Pr\{t_\nu > t\}$  to its normal theory value tends to

$$\frac{\{\pi(\nu + 1)\}^{(\nu+1)/2}}{2^{\nu+1}\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(\nu + 3))} \quad \text{for a parent uniform distribution,} \quad (28.88)$$

and that for a parent Cauchy distribution [pdf  $\pi^{-1}(1 + x^2)^{-1}$ ], the limiting ratio is

$$\frac{[(\nu + 1)/\pi]^{(\nu+1)/2}\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(\nu + 1))}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu)}. \quad (28.89)$$

He also obtained similar results for Pearson Type II, exponential and double exponential (Laplace) distributions.

Of most general interest are the results for Edgeworth series. The results are given for all  $n$  and indicate the variation from the Student's  $t$ -distribution that one might expect to be associated with given nonnormal values of the

moment ratios. Ghurye (1949) considered a series only up to the term in  $\sqrt{\beta_1}$ . Gayen (1949, 1952) included further terms. The results of Tiku (1963) appear to correspond to inclusion of still further terms in the expansion for the distribution in the parent population. Gayen obtained

$$\Pr[t_\nu > t] = (\text{Value for normal population}) \\ - \sqrt{\beta_1} P_{\sqrt{\beta_1}}(t) - (\beta_2 - 3) P_{\beta_2}(t) + \beta_1 P_{\beta_1}(t) \quad (28.90)$$

and gives a table of the functions  $P(\cdot)$ . We reproduce part of his table as Table 28.16 [See also Chung (1946).] We should also note a formula obtained by Bradley (1952, p. 21) for a Cauchy parent population (for which we cannot use moment ratios as an index of **nonnormality**). It expresses the value of  $\Pr[t_\nu \leq t]$ , for positive  $t$ , as a series in  $t^{-2}$  (up to and including the  $t^{-6}$  term).\*

Ratcliffe (1968) presented results of an empirical investigation of the distribution of  $t$  for five markedly non-normal parent distributions (including rectangular, exponential, Laplace, gamma, and a U-shaped distribution). He studied, in particular, the reduction in the effect of non-normality with increasing sample size. He concluded that a sample size of 80 or more should eliminate effects of non-normality (mainly skewness) for most practical purposes. For symmetrical population distributions the necessary sample size is much less.

Efron (1968) has given a theoretical discussion of the distribution of  $t$  under general symmetry conditions.

Hoq, Ali, and Templeton (1978) obtained the distribution of  $T = \sqrt{n}(\bar{X} - \theta)/S$  when the parent distribution is exponential. Closed expressions are available for  $n = 2, 3$  and 4 for values of the argument  $t \geq ((n-1)(n-2)/2)^{1/2}$ . The upper tails of the distribution are heavier when the parent distribution is exponential than when it was normal, however the half-normal parent distribution [ $p_X(x) = (2/\pi)^{1/2} \exp(-x^2/2)$ ,  $x > 0$ ] gives a **heavier/upper** tail than the exponential for all  $t \geq n-1$ .

Although further progress has been made since Hoq, Ali, and Templeton (1978), explicit expressions for the distribution of  $T$  for all  $n$  in the case of exponential parent distribution are not as yet available.

Sansing and Owen (1974) consider the case of a parent standard double exponential (Laplace) distribution (Chapter 24) with pdf

$$p_X(x) = \frac{1}{2} \exp(-|x|).$$

They show that the pdf of the  $t$ -statistic (see Section 1) based on a random

\*In all of the above cases the  $X$ 's are assumed to be mutually independent. Weibull (1958) considered cases where they are normal but serially correlated.

Table 28.16 Corrective factors for distribution of  $t_\nu$  in nonnormal (Edgeworth) populations

$t$	Normal Theory	$P_{\sqrt{\beta_1}}(t)$	$P_{\beta_2}(t)$	$P_{\beta_3}(t)$
$\nu = 1$				
0.0	0.5000	0.0470	0.0000	0.0000
0.5	0.3524	0.0589	-0.0064	-0.0066
1.0	0.2500	0.0665	0.0000	0.0044
1.5	0.1872	0.0622	0.0047	0.0147
2.0	0.1476	0.0547	0.0064	0.0188
2.5	0.1211	0.0476	0.0066	0.0195
3.0	0.1024	0.0416	0.0064	0.0188
3.5	0.0886	0.0368	0.0059	0.0176
4.0	0.0780	0.0329	0.0055	0.0163
$\nu = 2$				
0.0	0.5000	0.0384	0.0000	0.0000
0.5	0.3333	0.0495	-0.0069	-0.0066
1.0	0.2113	0.0597	-0.0027	0.0009
1.5	0.1362	0.0563	0.0025	0.0118
2.0	0.0918	0.0469	0.0047	0.0172
2.5	0.0648	0.0375	0.0051	0.0179
3.0	0.0477	0.0298	0.0047	0.0165
3.5	0.0364	0.0239	0.0041	0.0145
4.0	0.0286	0.0194	0.0035	0.0125
$\nu = 3$				
0.0	0.5000	0.0332	0.0000	0.0000
0.5	0.3257	0.0431	-0.0062	-0.0056
1.0	0.1955	0.0540	-0.0034	-0.0002
1.5	0.1153	0.0513	0.0013	0.0098
2.0	0.0697	0.0413	0.0035	0.0152
2.5	0.0439	0.0310	0.0039	0.0157
3.0	0.0288	0.0229	0.0034	0.0139
3.5	0.0197	0.0169	0.0028	0.0114
4.0	0.0137	0.0126	0.0023	0.0093
$\nu = 4$				
0.0	0.5000	0.0297	0.0000	0.0000
0.5	0.3217	0.0387	-0.0055	-0.0047
1.0	0.1870	0.0495	-0.0036	-0.0005
1.5	0.1040	0.0473	0.0006	0.0084
2.0	0.0581	0.0372	0.0028	0.0135
2.5	0.0334	0.0266	0.0031	0.0139
3.0	0.0200	0.0184	0.0027	0.0119
3.5	0.0124	0.0127	0.0021	0.0095
4.0	0.0081	0.0088	0.0016	0.0072

Table 28.16 (Continued)

$t$	Normal Theory	$P_{\sqrt{\beta_1}}(t)$	$P_{\beta_2}(t)$	$P_{\beta_1}(t)$
$\nu = 5$				
0.0	0.5000	0.0271	0.0000	0.0000
0.5	0.3192	0.0355	-0.0049	-0.0041
1.0	0.1816	0.0397	-0.0035	-0.0005
1.5	0.0970	0.0440	0.0002	0.0074
2.0	0.0510	0.0340	0.0022	0.0122
2.5	0.0272	0.0234	0.0025	0.0125
3.0	0.0150	0.0154	0.0021	0.0104
3.5	0.0086	0.0099	0.0016	0.0079
4.0	0.0052	0.0065	0.0011	0.0057
$\nu = 6$				
0.0	0.5000	0.0251	0.0000	0.0000
0.5	0.3174	0.0329	-0.0044	-0.0035
1.0	0.1780	0.0430	-0.0033	-0.0005
1.5	0.0921	0.0413	0.0000	0.0066
2.0	0.0462	0.0315	0.0019	0.0111
2.5	0.0233	0.0210	0.0021	0.0113
3.0	0.0120	0.0132	0.0017	0.0092
3.5	0.0064	0.0081	0.0012	0.0067
4.0	0.0036	0.0050	0.0008	0.0047
$\nu = 8$				
0.0	0.5000	0.0222	0.0000	0.0000
0.5	0.3153	0.0291	-0.0037	-0.0028
1.0	0.1733	0.0384	-0.0030	-0.0005
1.5	0.0860	0.0371	-0.0002	-0.0055
2.0	0.0403	0.0277	0.0014	0.0094
2.5	0.0185	0.0177	0.0016	0.0095
3.0	0.0085	0.0103	0.0013	0.0074
3.5	0.0040	0.0058	0.0008	0.0051
4.0	0.0020	0.0032	0.0005	0.0033
$\nu = 12$				
0.0	0.5000	0.0184	0.0000	0.0000
0.5	0.3131	0.0243	-0.0027	-0.0019
1.0	0.1685	0.0325	-0.0023	-0.0002
1.5	0.0797	0.0315	-0.0004	0.0042
2.0	0.0343	0.0230	0.0009	0.0073
2.5	0.0140	0.0137	0.0011	0.0072
3.0	0.0055	0.0072	0.0008	0.0053
3.5	0.0022	0.0036	0.0005	0.0033
4.0	0.0009	0.0017	0.0003	0.0019

Table 28.16 (Continued)

$t$	Normal Theory	$P_{\sqrt{\beta_1}}(t)$	$P_{\beta_2}(t)$	$P_{\beta_1}(t)$
$\nu = 24$				
0.0	0.5000	0.0133	0.0000	0.0000
0.5	0.3101	0.0176	-0.0015	-0.0010
1.0	0.1636	0.0238	-0.0014	-0.0001
1.5	0.0733	0.0232	-0.0003	0.0025
2.0	0.0285	0.0164	0.0004	0.0043
2.5	0.0098	0.0090	0.0005	0.0041
3.0	0.0031	0.0041	0.0003	0.0028
3.5	0.0009	0.0016	0.0002	0.0015
4.0	0.0003	0.0006	0.0001	0.0007
$\nu = \infty$				
0.0	0.5000			
0.5	0.3085			
1.0	0.1587			
1.5	0.0668			
2.0	0.0228			
2.5	0.0062			
3.0	0.0013			
3.5	0.0002			
4.0	0.0000			

sample of size  $n$  is of form

$$p_T(t) \propto \left( \sum_{j=1}^n |t + b_{jn}| \right)^{-n}.$$

The pdf is bounded by

$$c_n \left( \sum_{j=1}^n |t + b_{jn}| \right)^{-n} < p_T(t) < c_n (n|t|)^{-n}, \quad (28.91)$$

where

$$c_n = \frac{\pi^{(n-1)/2} \Gamma(n)}{2^{n-1} \sqrt{n} \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(n-1))}$$

and

$$b_{jn} = \sqrt{n-1} \left\{ \sqrt{j(n-j)} - \sqrt{(j-1)(n-j+1)} \right\}.$$

In the extreme tails, for  $|t| > n - 1$ , Sansing (1976) showed that

$$p_T(t) = c_n \left( \frac{n-1}{n} \right)^{(n-1)/2} t^{-(n-1)}. \quad (28.92)$$

We shall now discuss the distribution and approximations to the distribution of a difference of two 'Student' variables which is of great importance in connection with the Behrens-Fisher problem.

Ghosh (1975) has shown that if  $\nu_1 = \nu_2 = \nu$ , and  $Z = T_1 - T_2$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[0 < Z < z] &= \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{\nu+1}{2}\right)}{2^\nu \sqrt{\pi} \left\{ \Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\nu\right) \right\}^2} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{\Gamma\left(i + \frac{1}{2}\right) \Gamma(\nu + i + \frac{1}{2})}{i! \Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\nu + i + 1\right)} \\ &\times \int_0^{\frac{1}{2}z^2 \nu^{-1}} \frac{y^{i-(1/2)}}{(1+y)^{(1/2)+\nu+i}} dy. \end{aligned} \quad (28.93)$$

He provides a table of values of  $\Pr[0 < Z < z]$  for

$$z = 0.0(0.5) 10.0; \nu = 1, 2(2) 10$$

and for

$$z = 0.0(0.5) 7.5; \nu = 1(1) 20.$$

Guenther (1975) noted that (28.93) can be expressed as

$$\Pr[0 < Z < z] = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} C_i \Pr\left[ F_{2i+1, 2\nu} \leq \frac{1}{2}(2i+1)^{-1} z^2 \right], \quad (28.93)'$$

where

$$C_i = \frac{\left\{ \Gamma\left(\frac{\nu+1}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{i+1}{2}\right) \right\}^2}{i! 2^\pi \Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\nu\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\nu + i + 1\right)}.$$

The coefficients  $C_i$  can be calculated recursively, from the relation

$$C_i = \frac{(2i-1)^2}{2i(\nu+2i)} C_{i-1} \quad (i \geq 1).$$

This form is suitable for calculation with a pocket calculator.

Chaubey and Mudholkar (1982) observed that in general, if  $F_1(x)$  and  $F_2(x)$  are two distribution functions symmetric around zero with unit second moment then the mixture

$$F(x) = \lambda F_1(x) + (1-\lambda) F_2(x) \quad (28.94)$$



has the same properties. Now

$$D = (T_1 - T_2) \sqrt{\frac{\nu_1}{\nu_1 - 2} + \frac{\nu_2}{\nu_2 - 2}} = (T_1 - T_2) \sqrt{Q}$$

is distributed symmetrically around zero with unit variance. To approximate the distribution of  $Z = T_1 - T_2$  the authors chose  $F_1(x)$  as  $\Phi(x)$  and  $F_2(x)$  as the cdf of a standardized symmetric distribution with higher kurtosis—specifically, the distribution of  $\sqrt{\nu/(\nu-2)} t_\nu$ . Equating the 4-th and 6-th cumulants of the mixture to those of  $Z$ , the values of  $\nu$  and  $A$  are

$$\nu = 6 + R/S; \lambda = 1 - (\nu - 4)R, \quad (28.95)$$

where

$$R = (A_1 + A_2)/Q^2$$

and

$$S = (B_1 + B_2)/Q^3,$$

with

$$A_k = (\nu_j - 2)^{-2} (\nu_j - 4)^{-1} \nu_j^2; \\ B_j = (\nu_j - 2)^{-3} (\nu_j - 4)^{-1} (\nu_j - 6) \nu_j^3 \quad (j = 1, 2).$$

We have

$$\Pr[D \leq d] = \Pr[D^* < d/\sqrt{Q}] = \lambda F_1(d^*) + (1 - \lambda) F_2(d^*),$$

where  $d^* = d/\sqrt{Q}$ . If  $F_1(x)$  and  $F_2(x)$  are not too dissimilar it is proposed to approximate the  $100\alpha\%$  point,  $D_\alpha$  of  $D$  by

$$D_\alpha \doteq \{\lambda X_1(\alpha) + (1 - \lambda) X_2(\alpha)\} \sqrt{Q},$$

where  $X_1(\alpha) = F_1^{-1}(\alpha)$  and  $X_2(\alpha) = F_2^{-1}(\alpha)$  denote the upper  $100\alpha\%$  points of  $F_1(x)$  ( $\equiv \Phi(x)$ ) and  $F_2(x)$  respectively. Explicitly

$$D_\alpha \doteq \left\{ \lambda U_\alpha + (1 - \lambda) t_{\nu, \alpha} \sqrt{\frac{\nu - 2}{\nu}} \right\} \sqrt{\left\{ \frac{\nu_1}{\nu_1 - 2} + \frac{\nu_2}{\nu_2 - 2} \right\}}, \quad (28.96)$$

where  $U_\alpha = \Phi^{-1}(\alpha)$ , and  $\nu, A$  are given by (28.95). Using Wallace's (1959)

transform (28.26),  $t_\nu$  can be approximated by

$$t_\nu^* \doteq \left[ \nu \left\{ \exp \left( \frac{1}{\nu} \left( \frac{8\nu + 3}{8\nu + 1} U \right)^2 - 1 \right) \right\} \right]^{1/2}, \quad (28.97)$$

where  $U$  is a unit normal variable.

Calculations suggest that little accuracy is lost by using  $t_\nu^*$  in place of  $t_\nu$ . Thus

$$\Pr[D \leq d] = \lambda \Phi(d^*) + (1 - \lambda) \Phi(d^{**}), \quad (28.98)$$

where

$$d^* = d / \left[ \{ \nu_1 / (\nu_1 - 2) \} + \{ \nu_2 / (\nu_2 - 2) \} \right]^{1/2},$$

$$d^{**} = \{ (8\nu + 1) / (8\nu + 3) \} \left[ \nu \log \{ 1 + (d^{*2} / (\nu - 2)) \} \right].$$

Comparisons show that the Chaubey-Mudholkar approximation is far superior to Patil's (1965) approximation (e.g., for the case  $\nu_1 = \nu_2 = 10$  and  $\alpha = 0.99$ , the exact value of  $d_\alpha$  is 3.807, the mixture approach yields 3.815 while Patil's approximation gives 3.940; for  $\nu_1 = \nu_2 = 20$ ,  $\alpha = 0.99$  the values are 3.526, 3.527 and 3.585 respectively.)

Ghosh (1975), having derived the exact distribution of  $D$ , suggests the approximations:

$$\Pr[D \leq d] = \Phi(d/\sqrt{2}) - \frac{d\phi(d/\sqrt{2})}{32\sqrt{2}}$$

$$\times \left[ \frac{1}{\nu_2} Q_1(d) + \frac{1}{\nu_2^2} Q_2(d) + \frac{1}{\nu_2^3} Q_3(d) + O\left(\frac{1}{\nu_2^4}\right) \right], \quad (28.99)$$

where

$$Q_1(d) = (1 + \theta)(d^2 + 10),$$

$$Q_2(d) = \frac{1 + \theta^2}{384} (3d^6 + 98d^4 + 620d^2 + 168)$$

$$+ \frac{\theta}{64} (d^6 - 10d^4 + 36d^2 - 456),$$

$$Q_3(d) = \frac{1 + \theta^3}{24576} (d^{10} + 66d^8 + 1016d^6 - 1296d^4 - 65328d^2 - 141408)$$

$$+ \frac{\theta(1 + \theta)}{24576} (3d^{10} - 58d^8 - 280d^6 + 6864d^4 - 70032d^2 + 122592)$$

and

$$\theta = \nu_2/\nu_1.$$

Inverting (28.99) we get

$$d_\alpha = U_\alpha \sqrt{2} \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{\nu_2} R_1(U_\alpha) + \frac{1}{\nu_2^2} R_2(U_\alpha) + \frac{1}{\nu_2^3} R_3(U_\alpha) + O\left(\frac{1}{\nu_2^4}\right) \right], \quad (28.100)$$

where  $U_\alpha$  satisfies  $\Phi(U_\alpha) = \alpha$ ,

$$R_1(t) = \frac{1 + \theta}{16} (t^2 + 5),$$

$$R_2(t) = \frac{1 + \theta^2}{1536} (37t^4 + 200t^2 + 171) - \frac{\theta}{256} (9t^4 - 24t^2 + 7),$$

$$R_3(t) = \frac{1 + \theta^3}{8192} (81t^6 + 349t^4 - 293t^2 - 1153) \\ - \frac{\theta(1 + \theta)}{24576} (231t^6 - 773t^4 - 499t^2 - 2871).$$

Chaubey and Mudholkar's (1982) approximation is as accurate as Ghosh's (1975) approximation, though considerably simpler, especially when the Wallace transform is used; see Table 28.17.

The distributions of linear functions of the form  $a_1 T_1 - a_2 T_2$ , with  $a_1, a_2$  both positive, and  $T_1, T_2$  independent variables distributed as  $t_{\nu_1}, t_{\nu_2}$  respectively have been studied in connection with tests of the hypothesis that expected values of two normal distributions are equal, when it cannot be assumed that the standard deviations of the two distributions are equal. Tests of this kind were proposed by Behrens (1929) and studied later by Fisher (1935, 1941); they are said to relate to the "Behrens-Fisher problem."

Suppose that  $X_{j1}, X_{j2}, \dots, X_{jn_j}$  are independent random variables, each normally distributed with expected value  $\xi_j$  and standard deviation  $\sigma_j$  ( $j = 1, 2$ ). Then for  $j = 1, 2$ ,  $\sqrt{n_j}(\bar{X}_j - \xi_j)/S'_j$  is distributed as  $t_{n_j-1}$  (using a notation similar to that employed in Section 1). According to one form of the *fiducial* argument (Chapter 13, Section 8), from

$$\frac{\sqrt{n_j}(\bar{X}_j - \xi_j)}{S'_j} \text{ distributed as } t_{n_j-1},$$

Table 28.17 Comparison of approximations for  $D_\alpha (\nu_1 = \nu_2)$ 

$\nu_1 = \nu_2$	a	Approximations for $D_\alpha$				
		Exact	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]
10	0.55	0.1892	0.1892	0.1885	0.1798	0.1892
	0.75	1.022	1.022	1.020	0.9776	1.022
	0.90	1.978	1.979	1.979	1.926	1.978
	0.95	2.581	2.582	2.586	2.554	2.581
	0.99	3.807	3.815	3.820	3.940	3.814
15	0.55	0.1853	0.1853	0.1852	0.1796	0.1853
	0.75	0.9988	0.9987	0.9984	0.9719	0.9988
	0.90	1.919	1.919	1.919	1.890	1.919
	0.95	2.489	2.489	2.490	2.476	2.489
	0.99	3.616	3.616	3.617	3.697	3.616
20	0.55	0.1834	0.1834	0.1833	0.1793	0.1834
	0.75	0.9872	0.9872	0.9871	0.9683	0.9873
	0.90	1.891	1.891	1.891	1.871	1.891
	0.95	2.445	2.446	2.446	2.438	2.446
	0.99	3.526	3.527	3.527	3.585	3.526

Note: [1] Mixture (Chaubey-Mudholkar) (28.96); [2] same (with Wallace transform) (28.98); [3] Patil (1965); [4] Ghosh (1975) (28.99).

we can deduce

$$\xi_j \text{ (fiducially) distributed as } \bar{X}_j - \left( \frac{S'_j}{\sqrt{n_j}} \right) t_{n_j-1}$$

( $\bar{X}_j$  and  $S'_j$  are regarded as fixed). Formally we can say that

$\xi_2 - \xi_1$  is (fiducially) distributed as

$$\bar{X}_2 - \bar{X}_1 + \left[ \left( \frac{S'_1}{\sqrt{n_1}} \right) t_{n_1-1} - \left( \frac{S'_2}{\sqrt{n_2}} \right) t_{n_2-1} \right]. \quad (28.101)$$

The Behrens-Fisher test procedure rejects the hypothesis  $\xi_1 = \xi_2$  at the level of significance  $\alpha$  if (according to the fiducial distribution)

$$\Pr[\xi_2 - \xi_1 < 0] < \frac{1}{2}\alpha \quad \text{or} \quad \Pr[\xi_2 - \xi_1 > 0] < \frac{1}{2}\alpha.$$

Note that  $\bar{X}_1, \bar{X}_2, S'_1,$  and  $S'_2$  are regarded as constants in the fiducial

distribution. It is found convenient to use the quantity

$$\frac{X_1 - X_2}{\sqrt{(S_1^2/n_1) + (S_2^2/n_2)}} + t_{\nu_1} \cos \theta - t_{\nu_2} \sin \theta, \quad (28.102)$$

with

$$\nu_i = n_i - 1, i = 1, 2, \cos \theta = \frac{S'_1}{\sqrt{n_1}} \left[ \frac{S_1'^2}{n_1} + \frac{S_2'^2}{n_2} \right]^{-1/2}.$$

The distribution of

$$D_\theta = T_1 \cos \theta - T_2 \sin \theta$$

is needed to calculate fiducial limits for  $(\xi_1 - \xi_2)$ . Tables of percentile points of the distribution of  $D_\theta$  are available as follows:

Sukhatme (1938) gave values of  $D_{\theta, 0.975}$  to three decimal places for

$$\nu_1, \nu_2 = 6, 8, 12, 24, \infty \quad \text{and} \quad \theta = 0^\circ(15^\circ)90^\circ.$$

Fisher and Yates (1966) included these values together with values of  $D_{\theta, 0.995}$  (also to three decimal places) and also values with  $\alpha = 0.95, 0.975, 0.99, 0.995, 0.9975,$  and  $0.999$ , for  $\nu_1 = 10, 12, 15, 20, 30, 60,$  and  $\nu_2 = \infty$ .

Weir (1966) gave values of  $D_{\theta, 0.999}$  to three decimal places for

$$\nu_1, \nu_2 = 6, 8, 12, 24, \infty \\ \theta = 0^\circ(15^\circ)90^\circ.$$

Isaacs et al. (1974) provided values (to two decimal places) of  $D_{\theta, \alpha}$  for  $\alpha = 0.75, 0.90, 0.95, 0.975,$  and  $0.999$ , and for the same values of  $\nu_1, \nu_2,$  and  $\theta$  as Weir (1966). These tables are reproduced in Novick and Jackson (1974).

Ruben (1960) showed that  $D_\theta$  has the same distribution as the ratio of a  $t_{\nu_1 + \nu_2}$  variable to an independent variable

$$\phi(X) = \left[ \frac{\nu_1 + \nu_2}{\nu_1 X^{-1} \cos \theta - \nu_2 (1 - X)^{-1} \sin \theta} \right]^{1/2},$$

where  $X$  has a standard beta distribution (Chapter 25) with parameters  $\frac{1}{2}\nu_1, \frac{1}{2}\nu_2$ .

Patil (1965) suggested that the distribution of  $D$  be approximated by that of  $ct_f$  with

$$f = 4 + \left[ \frac{\nu_1 \cos^2 \theta}{\nu_1 - 2} + \frac{\nu_2 \sin^2 \theta}{\nu_2 - 2} \right]^2 \left[ \frac{\nu_1^2 \cos^4 \theta}{(\nu_1 - 2)^2 (\nu_1 - 4)} + \frac{\nu_2^2 \sin^4 \theta}{(\nu_2 - 2)^2 (\nu_2 - 4)} \right]^{-1},$$

$$c = \left[ \frac{f - 2}{f} \left( \frac{\nu_1 \cos^2 \theta}{\nu_1 - 2} + \frac{\nu_2 \sin^2 \theta}{\nu_2 - 2} \right) \right]^{1/2}, \quad \nu_1, \nu_2 > 4. \quad (28.103)$$

These values are chosen to make the first four moments of the two distributions agree.

The approximation is exact when  $\cos \theta = 1$  or  $\sin \theta = 1$ . It gives satisfactory results, even for  $\nu_1, \nu_2$  as small as 7, in the central part of the distribution ( $|D_\theta| < 5$ ). The approximation is very good when both  $\nu_i$ 's are at least 24. The relative error is large in extreme tails.

Weir (1960b) has also provided the following approximations for the upper percentage point of a related statistic. He found that

$$\frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{\sqrt{[(n_1 - 1)S_1^2 / \{(n_1 - 3)n_1\}] + [(n_2 - 1)S_2^2 / \{(n_2 - 3)n_2\}]}}$$

has upper 2.5% points ( $\alpha = 0.975$ ) between 1.96 and 2, provided that  $n_1 \geq 6$  and  $n_2 \geq 6$ .

Welch (1938) suggested approximating the distribution of  $n_1^{-1}S_1^2 + n_2^{-1}S_2^2$  by that of  $c\chi_\nu^2$  with

$$c\nu = E[n_1^{-1}S_1^2 + n_2^{-1}S_2^2] = n_1^{-1}\sigma_1^2 + n_2^{-1}\sigma_2^2, \quad (28.104a)$$

$$2c^2\nu = \text{var}[n_1^{-1}S_1^2 + n_2^{-1}S_2^2] = 2n_1^{-2}(n_1 - 1)^{-1}\sigma_1^4 + 2n_2^{-2}(n_2 - 1)^{-1}\sigma_2^4; \quad (28.104b)$$

that is,

$$c = \frac{n_1^{-2}(n_1 - 1)^{-1}\sigma_1^4 + n_2^{-2}(n_2 - 1)\sigma_2^4}{n_1^{-1}\sigma_1^2 + n_2^{-1}\sigma_2^2},$$

$$\nu = \frac{(n_1^{-1}\sigma_1^2 + n_2^{-1}\sigma_2^2)^2}{n_1^{-2}(n_1 - 1)\sigma_1^4 + n_2^{-2}(n_2 - 1)\sigma_2^4}.$$

Then  $(\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2)(n_1^{-1}S_1'^2 + n_2^{-1}S_2'^2)^{-1/2}$  is approximately distributed as

$$\frac{U\sqrt{n_1^{-1}\sigma_1^2 + n_2^{-1}\sigma_2^2}}{\sqrt{cv}(\chi_\nu/\sqrt{\nu})} = t_\nu$$

(since  $cv = n_1^{-1}\sigma_1^2 + n_2^{-1}\sigma_2^2$ ). Further work was done on this problem by **Aspin** (1948) who has provided some tables [**Aspin** (1949)] from which exact probabilities can be obtained [see also **Welch** (1949)].

**Rahman and Saleh** (1974) derive the distribution of  $D_\theta$  for all combinations of  $\nu_1$  and  $\nu_2$ . The expression is rather complicated. In the special case where  $\nu_1 = \nu_2 = \nu$ , we have

$$p_D(d) = \frac{B\left\{\frac{1}{2}(\nu+1), \frac{1}{2}(\nu+1)\right\}\Gamma(\nu+\frac{1}{2})}{\sqrt{(\nu\pi)}\left(\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\nu\right)\right)^2} \csc 8 \cot^8 \theta \\ \times {}_2F_1\left(\nu + \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}(\nu+1); \frac{1}{2}\nu+1; \frac{-d^2}{\nu \sin^2 \theta}\right), \quad (28.105)$$

where  ${}_2F_1(\cdot, \cdot; \cdot; \cdot)$  is the Gaussian hypergeometric function [Chapter 1, Eq. (1.104)].

**Rahman and Saleh** (1974) provide 97.5% and 95% points of the distribution of  $D_\theta$  for  $\nu_1 = 6(1)15$  and  $\nu_2 = 6(1)9$ . The numerical evaluation is accomplished by evaluating the Appell function using a Gaussian quadrature numerical integration technique. It should be noted that **Behrens** (1929) provided an integral form of the distributions of  $D_\theta$  for various degrees of freedom. **Fisher** (1935) confirmed the result and extended **Behrens's** theory. Later **Fisher and Healy** (1956) gave the exact distributions of  $D_\theta$  for small odd values of the degrees of freedom.

**Molenaar** (1977) provided inter alia, the two following approximations to  $\Pr\{a_1 t_{\nu_1} - a_2 t_{\nu_2} \leq d\}$ . Assume that  $5 \leq \nu_1 \leq \nu_2$  (take the complement if  $\nu_1 > \nu_2$ ). (The case  $\nu_1 < 5$  is not considered.)

#### Method U

Take  $\Phi(u)$ , where  $\Phi$  denotes the unit normal cdf function and  $u = d/(\omega_1 + \omega_2)^{1/2}$ , with  $\omega_i = a_i^2 \nu_i / (\nu_i - 2)$  ( $i = 1, 2$ ).

#### Method V

Take  $\Phi(v)$ , where  $v = \text{sgn}(t) \left\{ f - \frac{2}{3} + \frac{1}{10f} \left\{ \frac{\log(1 + (t^2/f))}{f - (5/6)} \right\}^{1/2} \right\}$ ,

$$f = 4 + \frac{(\omega_1 + \omega_2)^2}{\{\omega_1^2/(\nu_1 - 4)\} + \{\omega_2^2/(\nu_2 - 4)\}},$$

and

$$t = d \left( 1 - \frac{2}{f} \right)^{-1/2} (\omega_1 + \omega_2)^{-1/2}$$

(This is a simplified Patil method.)

Including

**Method W. Exact calculation,**

Molenaar recommends the following system:

For maximum  
absolute error  
of at most:

Use method:

0.01	<i>U</i> if $\nu_1 \geq 16$	<i>V</i> if $6 \leq \nu_1 \leq 15$	<i>W</i> if $\nu_1 = 5$
0.005	<i>U</i> if $\nu_1 \geq 30$	<i>V</i> if $7 \leq \nu_1 \leq 29$	<i>W</i> if $\nu_1 = 6$
0.002	<i>U</i> if $\nu_1 \geq 72$	<i>V</i> if $9 \leq \nu_1 \leq 71$	<i>W</i> if $6 \leq \nu_1 \leq 8$
0.001	<i>U</i> if $\nu_1 \geq 140$	<i>V</i> if $12 \leq \nu_1 \leq 139$	<i>W</i> if $7 \leq \nu_1 \leq 11$
0.0005	<i>U</i> if $\nu_1 \geq 273$	<i>V</i> if $16 \leq \nu_1 \leq 272$	<i>W</i> if $9 \leq \nu_1 \leq 15$
0.0002	<i>U</i> if $\nu_1 \geq 680$	<i>V</i> if $23 \leq \nu_1 \leq 679$	<i>W</i> if $14 \leq \nu_1 \leq 22$
0.0001	<i>U</i> if $\nu_1 \geq 1310$	<i>V</i> if $32 \leq \nu_1 \leq 1309$	<i>W</i> if $19 \leq \nu_1 \leq 31$

The error in method *U* is rather robust against changes in the parameter. The largest error occurs for probability values between 0.20 and 0.25 and between 0.75 and 0.80. The secondary minimum and maximum occur very close to 0.01 and 0.99, respectively. For method *V* the largest discrepancies are at the values of probability between 0.72 and 0.75 and 0.25 and 0.28, respectively, with the secondary maxima and minima in the vicinity of 0.01–0.02 and 0.98–0.99.

Nel, van der Merwe and Moser (1990) have tackled the Behrens-Fisher problem directly, and they have provided an exact distribution for

$$T = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{\{n_1^{-1}S_1^2 + n_2^{-1}S_2^2\}^{1/2}}$$

The distribution is a generalization of the noncentral F-distribution and will be discussed in Chapter 30. Hajek (1962) had shown that if  $\sum_{j=1}^k \lambda_j = 1$ , and

$$T = U \left[ \sum_{j=1}^k \lambda_j \chi_{\nu_j}^2 \nu_j^{-1} \right]^{-1/2},$$

*U* being a unit normal variable and if *U* and the  $\chi^2$ 's are mutually independent, then for  $t' \leq 0 \leq t''$ ,  $\Pr\{t' \leq T \leq t''\}$  lies between  $\Pr\{t' \leq t_\nu \leq t''\}$  and  $\Pr\{t' \leq t_m \leq t''\}$  (calculated on normal theory), where  $m = \sum_{j=1}^k \nu_j$  and  $\nu$  is any integer not exceeding  $\min(\nu_j/\lambda_j)$ .



Wallgren (1980) investigated the distribution of

$$W = \frac{XY}{S^2}, \quad (28.106)$$

where the joint distribution of  $X$  and  $Y$  is bivariate normal [see Chapter 32, Eq. (32.2)],  $\nu S^2/\sigma^2$  is distributed as  $X_\nu^2$  [see Chapter 18, Equation (18.5)] and  $(X, Y)$  and  $S$  are mutually independent. Also

$$\begin{aligned} E[X] &= \xi, E[Y] = \eta, \\ \text{var}(X) &= \text{var}(Y) = \sigma^2, \\ \text{corr}(X, Y) &= \rho. \end{aligned} \quad (28.107)$$

The special case  $\rho = 0$  ( $X$  and  $Y$  independent), with  $\xi$  and  $\eta$  equal to zero was solved by Harter (1951).

In general,  $W$  is distributed as the product of two *correlated* noncentral  $t$  variables (see Chapter 31),

$$W_1 = \frac{X}{S} \quad \left[ \text{distributed as } t'_\nu \left( \frac{\xi}{\sigma} \right) \right]$$

and

$$W_2 = \frac{Y}{S} \quad \left[ \text{distributed as } t'_\nu \left( \frac{\eta}{\sigma} \right) \right].$$

When  $\xi = \eta = 0$ ,  $W_1$  and  $W_2$  are correlated random variables, each distributed as  $t$ . Wallgren (1980) obtained the following expressions for the cdf of  $W$  in this case:

For  $w < 0$ ,

$$F_W(w) = \int_{\epsilon_1}^0 Q_\nu(\theta; \rho, w) d\theta, \quad (28.108a)$$

where

$$\epsilon_1 = \begin{cases} \alpha - \pi & \text{for } \rho < 0, \\ \alpha & \text{for } \rho > 0, \end{cases} \quad \text{with } \alpha = \tan^{-1} \left\{ -(1 - \rho^2)^{1/2} / \rho \right\}, \quad 0 \leq \alpha \leq \pi,$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} Q_\nu(\theta; \rho, w) &= \pi^{-1} \left[ \left\{ \nu \sin \theta \sin(\theta + \cos^{-1} \rho) \right\} \right. \\ &\quad \left. \times \left\{ w + \nu \sin \theta \sin(\theta + \cos^{-1} \rho) \right\} \right]^{1/2}; \end{aligned}$$

for  $w > 0$ ,

$$F_W(w) = 1 - \int_0^{\epsilon_2} Q_\nu(\theta; \rho, w) d\theta, \quad (28.108b)$$

where

$$\epsilon_2 = \begin{cases} \alpha & \text{for } \rho < 0, \\ \alpha + \pi & \text{for } \rho > 0 \end{cases}$$

Roy, Roy, and Ali (1993) have introduced a binomial mixture of *t*-distributions with density function

$$p_X(x|n, p, \nu) = \sum_{r=0}^n \binom{n}{r} \frac{p^r (1-p)^{n-r} x^{2r}}{B\left(r + \frac{1}{2}, \frac{\nu}{2}\right) \nu^{r+\frac{1}{2}} \left(1 + \frac{x^2}{\nu}\right)^{((\nu+1)/2)+r}},$$

$-\infty < x < \infty$

The moments of *X* are given by

$$E[X^{2k+1}] = 0$$

and

$$E[X^{2k}] = \nu^k \sum_{r=0}^n \binom{n}{r} p^r (1-p)^{n-r} \frac{\Gamma(r + k + \frac{1}{2}) \Gamma(\frac{\nu}{2} - k)}{\Gamma(r + \frac{1}{2}) \Gamma(\frac{\nu}{2})}.$$

In particular, we obtain

$$E[X] = 0, \text{ var}(X) = \frac{2\nu}{\nu - 2} \left(np + \frac{1}{2}\right),$$

$$\beta_1(X) = 0, \text{ and } \beta_2(X) = 3\left(\frac{\nu - 2}{\nu - 4}\right) - \frac{np^2(1 + 2n)(\nu - 2)}{(np + \frac{1}{2})^2(\nu - 4)}.$$

McDonald and Newey (1988) introduced a generalized *t* distribution with density function

$$p_X(x|p, q) = \frac{P}{2q^{1/p} B\left(\frac{1}{p}, q\right) (1 + |x|^p/q)^{q+(1/p)}},$$

$-\infty < x < \infty, \quad p, q > 0,$

which clearly includes the *t* density in (28.2) as a special case when  $p = 2$  and  $q = 2\nu$ . (In fact, it is the density function of  $t_{\nu}/\sqrt{2}$ ). The above generalized density also includes as a special case **Box** and Tiao's *power-*

Table 28.18 Values of the coefficient of kurtosis,  $\beta_2$ , for the generalized  $t$  distribution for various choices of  $p$  and  $q$

	$q = 1.0$	2.0	5.0	10	50	100	$\infty$
$p = 0.5$				635.0	35.8	29.8	25.2
1.0			36.0	10.3	6.53	6.25	6.00
1.5			6.68	4.68	3.90	3.83	3.76
2.0			4.00	3.38	3.06	3.03	3.00
3.0		4.11	2.72	2.54	2.44	2.43	2.42
5.0	4.28	2.38	2.15	2.11	2.08	2.07	2.07
10.0	2.07	1.94	1.90	1.89	1.89	1.88	1.88
50.0	1.81	1.81	1.81	1.80	1.80	1.80	1.80
100.0	1.80	1.80	1.80	1.80	1.80	1.80	1.80

exponential density or Subbotin distribution [see Eq. (24.83), for example]

$$pe^{-|x|^p} / \{2\Gamma(p^{-1})\}, \quad -\infty < x < \infty, \quad p > 0,$$

when  $q \rightarrow \infty$ . Both these density functions are symmetric about zero. While the odd order moments of  $X$  are consequently zero, the even order moments of  $X$  are given by

$$E[X^{2k}] = q^{k/p} B\left(\frac{k+1}{p}, q - \frac{k}{p}\right) / B\left(\frac{1}{p}, q\right).$$

Table 28.18, taken from McDonald (1991), presents values of the coefficient of kurtosis,  $\beta_2(X)$ , for various choices of  $p$  and  $q$ . McDonald (1984) has shown that the above generalized  $t$  distribution is, in fact, a mixture of the generalized gamma distribution and the power-exponential distribution of Box and Tiao.

McDonald and Newey (1988) used the generalized  $t$  distributions to develop partially adaptive estimation of regression models; also see McDonald and Nelson (1989). Butler et al. (1990) discussed the robust estimation of regression models by using the generalized  $t$  distributions. Similarly, partially adaptive estimation of ARMA time series models via the generalized  $t$  distributions has been developed by McDonald (1989).

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## CHAPTER 29

# Noncentral $\chi^2$ -Distributions

### 1 DEFINITION AND GENESIS

If  $U_1, U_2, \dots, U_\nu$  are independent unit normal variables, and  $\delta_1, \delta_2, \dots, \delta_\nu$  are constants then the distribution of

$$\sum_{j=1}^{\nu} (U_j + \delta_j)^2 \quad (29.1)$$

depends on  $\delta_1, \delta_2, \dots, \delta_\nu$  only through the sum of their squares. It is called the *noncentral  $\chi^2$  distribution with  $\nu$  degrees of freedom and noncentrality parameter  $A = \sum_{j=1}^{\nu} \delta_j^2$* .

The symbol  $\chi_{\nu}^{\prime 2}(\lambda)$  denotes a variable with this distribution. It is derived from the symbol  $\chi_{\nu}^2$ , denoting a *central  $\chi^2$*  variable with  $\nu$  degrees of freedom (Chapter 18), which has the same distribution as  $\sum_{j=1}^{\nu} U_j^2$ . In fact, when  $A = 0$ , the "noncentral" distribution becomes the central  $\chi^2$  distribution.

Whenever justified by the context, the symbols  $\nu$  and  $A$  may be omitted and the symbols  $\chi^{\prime 2}$  used. (The prime is retained to denote "noncentral.") Sometimes  $\sqrt{\lambda}$ , and sometimes  $\frac{1}{2}\lambda$ , are called the noncentrality parameter. We will not use these notations.

A simple way in which the noncentral  $\chi^2$  distribution arises is in the distribution of the sum of squares

$$S = \sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - \bar{X})^2,$$

where

$$\bar{X} = n^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^n X_j$$

and  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are independent random variables with  $X_j$  distributed

normally with expected value  $\xi_j$  and standard deviation  $\sigma$  (the same for all  $j$ ) for  $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ . Clearly we can write

$$X_j = \xi_j + \sigma U'_j,$$

with  $U'_j$ 's independent unit normal variables. Then

$$S = \sigma^2 \sum_{j=1}^n \left\{ U'_j + \xi_j \sigma^{-1} - (\bar{U}' + \bar{\xi} \sigma^{-1}) \right\}^2,$$

where

$$\bar{U}' = n^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^n U'_j,$$

$$\bar{\xi} = n^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^n \xi_j.$$

Applying a transformation from  $U'_1, \dots, U'_n$  to  $U_1, \dots, U_{n-1}, \bar{U}'$  (Chapter 13, Section 3) such that

$$\sum_{j=1}^n (U'_j - \bar{U}')^2 = \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} U_j^2,$$

$U_1, \dots, U_{n-1}$ , being independent unit normal variables, we see that

$$S = \sigma^2 \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} (U_j + \delta_j)^2,$$

where the  $\delta_j$ 's are linear functions of the  $\xi_j$ 's, and 0's of the  $U'_j$ 's. Setting  $U'_j = 0$  for all  $j$ , it follows that  $0 = 0$  for all  $j$  and that

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \delta_j^2 = \sum_{j=1}^n (\xi_j - \bar{\xi})^2 / \sigma^2.$$

Hence  $S$  is distributed as  $\sigma^2$  times a noncentral  $\chi^2$  with  $n - 1$  degrees of freedom and noncentrality parameter

$$\sum_{j=1}^n (\xi_j - \bar{\xi})^2 / \sigma^2,$$

that is, as

$$\sigma^2 \chi_{n-1}^2 \left( \sum_{j=1}^n (\xi_j - \bar{\xi})^2 / \sigma^2 \right).$$

## 2 HISTORICAL NOTES

The distribution was obtained by Fisher (1928, p. 663) as a limiting case of the distribution of the multiple correlation coefficient (Chapter 32). He gave upper 5% points of the distribution for certain values of  $\nu$  and  $A$  (Section 7). The distribution has been obtained in a number of different ways, described in outline in Section 3.

Patnaik (1949) emphasized the relevance of this distribution in approximate determination of the power of the  $\chi^2$ -test and also suggested approximations to the noncentral  $\chi^2$ -distribution itself. The noncentral  $\chi^2$ -distribution can be regarded as a generalized Rayleigh distribution [Miller, Bernstein, and Blumenson (1958); Park (1961)] (see, for example, Chapter 18) also called the Rayleigh-Rice or Rice distribution. In this form it is used in mathematical physics.

The noncentral  $\chi^2$ -distribution has also arisen in communication theory. In this context the noncentral  $\chi^2$ -distribution function is called the *Marcum Q-function*, and the noncentrality parameter is interpreted as a signal-to-noise ratio. Some references in this area are Marcum (1948), Helstrom (1960), Felsen (1963), Urkowitz (1967), and Rice (1968), among many others.

## 3 DISTRIBUTION

The cumulative distribution function of  $\chi_\nu'^2(\lambda)$  is

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[\chi_\nu'^2(\lambda) \leq x] &= F(x; \nu, \lambda) \\ &= e^{-\lambda/2} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\frac{1}{2}\lambda)^j / j!}{2^{(\nu/2)+j} \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu + j)} \int_0^x y^{(\nu/2)+j-1} e^{-y/2} dy, \\ & \qquad \qquad \qquad x > 0, \quad (29.2) \end{aligned}$$

while  $F(x; \nu, \lambda) = 0$  for  $x < 0$  [Patnaik (1949)]. It is possible to express  $F(x; \nu, \lambda)$ , for  $x > 0$ , in an easily remembered form as a weighted sum of central  $\chi^2$  probabilities with weights equal to the probabilities of a Poisson distribution with expected value  $\frac{1}{2}\lambda$ . This is

$$\begin{aligned} F(x; \nu, \lambda) &= \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \left\{ \frac{(\frac{1}{2}\lambda)^j}{j!} e^{-\lambda/2} \right\} \Pr[\chi_{\nu+2j}^2 \leq x] \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \left[ \frac{(\frac{1}{2}\lambda)^j}{j!} e^{-\lambda/2} \right] F(x; \nu + 2j, 0). \quad (29.3) \end{aligned}$$



Thus  $\chi_\nu'^2(\lambda)$  can be regarded as a mixture of central  $\chi^2$  variables. This interpretation is often useful in deriving the distribution of functions of random variables, some (or all) of which are noncentral  $\chi^2$ 's. [See, e.g., the discussion of the noncentral F-distribution, Chapter 30, Section 3.]

The probability density function can, similarly, be expressed as a mixture of central  $\chi^2$  pdfs:

$$\begin{aligned} p(x; \nu, \lambda) &= \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \left\{ \frac{(\frac{1}{2}\lambda)^j}{j!} e^{-\lambda/2} \right\} p(x; \nu + 2j, 0) \\ &= \frac{\exp\{-\frac{1}{2}(\lambda + x)\}}{2^{\nu/2}} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{\lambda}{4}\right)^j \frac{x^{(\nu/2)+j-1}}{j! \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu + j)} \\ &= e^{-(\lambda+x)/2} \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{x}{\lambda}\right)^{(\nu-2)/4} I_{(\nu-2)/2}(\sqrt{\lambda x}), \quad x > 0, \end{aligned}$$

[Fisher (1928)], (29.4)

where

$$I_a(y) = (\frac{1}{2}y)^a \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{(y^2/4)^j}{j! \Gamma(a + j + 1)}$$

is the modified Bessel function of the first kind of order  $a$  [Abramowitz and Stegun (1964)].

Although  $\nu$  was an integer in our account of the genesis of  $\chi_\nu'^2(\lambda)$ , the distribution defined by (29.3) and (29.4) is a proper distribution for any positive  $\nu$ . For convenience we omit the subscript  $\chi_\nu'^2(\lambda)$  from  $F(\cdot)$  and  $p(\cdot)$  in this chapter, but the values of the parameters  $\nu$  and  $\lambda$  are shown explicitly, as  $F(x; \nu, \lambda)$ ,  $p(x; \nu, \lambda)$ , respectively.

The distribution has been derived in several different ways. Fisher (1928) gave an indirect derivation (by a limiting process). The first direct derivation was given by Tang (1938). Geometric derivations have been given by Patnaik (1949), Ruben (1960), and Guenther (1964). It is also possible to derive the distribution by a process of induction, first obtaining the distribution of  $\chi_1'^2(\lambda)$  and then using the relation

$$\chi_\nu'^2(\lambda) = \chi_1'^2(\lambda) + \chi_{\nu-1}^2, \quad (29.5a)$$

the noncentral and central  $\chi^2$ 's in the right-hand side being mutually independent. [See, e.g., Johnson and Leone (1964, p. 245) and Kerridge (1965)].

Hjort (1989) used an alternative decomposition

$$\chi_{\nu}^{\prime 2}(\lambda) = Z_{\lambda} + \chi_{\nu}^2, \quad (29.5b)$$

where  $Z_{\lambda}$  is the "purely eccentric part" (or "purely noncentral part") of  $\chi_{\nu}^{\prime 2}(\lambda)$  and has a noncentral  $\chi^2$  distribution with **zero** degrees of freedom (and noncentrality  $\lambda$ ) [Siegel (1979)] with the cdf

$$\Pr[Z_{\lambda} \leq z] = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \left\{ \frac{(\frac{1}{2}\lambda)^j}{j!} e^{-\lambda/2} \right\} \Pr[\chi_{2j}^2 \leq z], \quad z \geq 0, \quad (29.5c)$$

with  $\Pr[\chi_0^2 \leq z] = 1$  for all  $z$ . Jones (1989) indicated Torgerson (1972) to be the first reference on noncentral  $\chi^2$ -distribution with zero degrees of freedom.

The moment-generating function may be used [Graybill (1961)] or the characteristic function may be inverted by contour integration [McNolty (1962)]. Alternatively we note that the moment-generating function [van der Vaart (1967)] is

$$\begin{aligned} E\left[\exp\left\{\sum_{j=1}^{\nu} t(U_j + \delta_j)^2\right\}\right] &= \prod_{j=1}^{\nu} E\left[\exp\{t(U_j + \delta_j)^2\}\right] \\ &= \prod_{j=1}^{\nu} \left[ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}u^2 + t(u + \delta_j)^2\right\} du \right] \\ &= \prod_{j=1}^{\nu} \left[ (1 - 2t)^{-1/2} \exp\{\delta_j^2 t(1 - 2t)^{-1}\} \right] \\ &= (1 - 2t)^{-\nu/2} e^{-\lambda/2} \exp\left\{\frac{1}{2}\lambda(1 - 2t)^{-1}\right\} \\ &= e^{-\lambda/2} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\frac{1}{2}\lambda)^j (1 - 2t)^{-(\nu+2j)/2}}{j!}. \quad (29.6) \end{aligned}$$

Noting that  $(1 - 2t)^{-(\nu+2j)/2}$  is the moment-generating function of  $\chi_{\nu+2j}^2$ , we obtain the formula (29.4).

The moment-generating function can also be written

$$\frac{\exp\{\lambda t/(1 - 2t)\}}{(1 - 2t)^{(\nu/2)-1}} \cdot \frac{1}{1 - 2t} = \frac{\exp\{\lambda t/(1 - 2t)\}}{(1 - 2t)^{(\nu/2)-1}} + \frac{2t \exp\{\lambda t/(1 - 2t)\}}{(1 - 2t)^{\nu/2}} \quad (29.6)'$$

which shows that

$$F(x; \nu, \lambda) = F(x; \nu - 2, \lambda) - 2p(x; \nu, \lambda) \quad (29.7)$$

[Alam and Rizvi (1967)] as can also be obtained by integration by parts. There are a number of different forms in which the cumulative distribution function and the probability density function may be presented. We have first presented those forms which seem to be the most generally useful. We now discuss some other forms.

If  $\nu$  is even, the cumulative distribution function of  $\chi_{\nu}^{\prime 2}(\lambda)$  can be expressed in terms of elementary functions. Using the relation (Chapter 18) between the integral of a  $\chi_{\nu}^2$ -distribution (with  $\nu$  even) and a sum of Poisson probabilities, it can be shown that

$$\Pr[\chi_{\nu}^{\prime 2}(\lambda) \leq x] = \Pr[X_1 - X_2 \geq \frac{1}{2}\nu], \quad (29.8)$$

where  $X_1, X_2$  are independent Poisson variables with expected values  $\frac{1}{2}x, \frac{1}{2}\lambda$ , respectively [Fisher (1928); Johnson (1959)].

It follows that the probability density function of  $\chi_{\nu}^{\prime 2}(\lambda)$  also can be expressed in terms of elementary functions when  $\nu$  is even. This remains true when  $\nu$  is odd because the pdf (29.4) can be written in terms of elementary functions by using the formula

$$I_{m+\frac{1}{2}}(z) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} z^{m+1/2} \left( \frac{1}{z} \frac{d}{dz} \right)^m \left( \frac{\sinh z}{z} \right) \quad (m \text{ integer}). \quad (29.9)$$

Tiku (1965) obtained an expression for the pdf in terms of the generalized Laguerre polynomials:

$$L_j^{(m)}(x) = \sum_{i=0}^j \frac{(-x)^i}{i!(j-i)!} \cdot \frac{\Gamma(j+m+1)}{\Gamma(i+m+1)}, \quad m > -1, \quad (29.10)$$

as defined by Tiku (1965) [see also Chapter 1, Eq. (1.173)]. Tiku showed that

$$p(x; \nu, \lambda) = \frac{1}{2} e^{-x/2} \left( \frac{1}{2}x \right)^{(\frac{\nu}{2}-1)} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-\frac{1}{2}\lambda)^j}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu+j)} L_j^{(\frac{\nu}{2}-1)} \left( \frac{1}{2}x \right), \quad x > 0. \quad (29.11)$$

A further alternative form is [Venables (1971)]

$$p(x; \nu, \lambda) = e^{-\lambda/2} {}_0F_1 \left( \frac{1}{2}\nu; \frac{1}{4}\lambda x \right) \cdot \frac{e^{-x/2} x^{(\nu/2)-1}}{2^{\nu/2} \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu)}, \quad x > 0 \quad (29.11)'$$

where  ${}_0F_1$  is defined in Chapter 1.

Formula (29.2) for the cumulative distribution can be rearranged by expanding  $e^{-\lambda/2}$  in powers of  $\frac{1}{2}\lambda$ , collecting together like powers of  $\frac{1}{2}\lambda$  and interchanging the order of summation. The resulting expression is compactly represented as

$$F(x; \nu, \lambda) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\frac{1}{2}\lambda)^j}{j!} \Delta^j g_0 \quad (29.12)$$

or  $e^{\lambda\Delta/2}g_0$ , symbolically, where  $g_j = \Pr[\chi_{\nu+2j}^2 \leq x]$  and  $\Delta$  is the forward difference operator ( $\Delta g_m = g_{m+1} - g_m$ ). This formula was given by Bol'shev and Kuznetsov (1963).

Extending Tiku's result, Gideon and Gurland (1977) provided Laguerre expansions of form

$$F(x; \nu, A) \sim \int_0^{x_1} \frac{\lambda^{\alpha+1} y^\alpha e^{-\lambda y}}{\Gamma(\alpha+1)} dy + e^{-\lambda x_1} (\lambda x_1)^{\alpha+1} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^k C_k \Gamma(k)}{\Gamma(\alpha+1+k)} L_{k-1}^{(\alpha+1)}(\lambda x_1). \quad (29.13)$$

The notation  $L$ , below denotes an expansion of the form (29.13) in which the first  $i$  moments of the random variable associated with the leading term of the expansion (a gamma r.v.) have been equated to corresponding moments of  $\chi_{\nu}^2(\lambda)$ ;  $L_n^{(\alpha)}(x)$  is the  $n$ th generalized Laguerre polynomial (29.10),  $x_1 = x + \theta$  and  $a$ ,  $\theta$  and  $\lambda'$  are chosen as follows:

For  $L_0$ ,  $\alpha + 1 = \nu/2$ ,  $\theta = 0$ ,  $\lambda' = \frac{1}{2}$ .

For  $L_1$ ,  $a + 1 = \nu/2$ ,  $\theta = 0$ ,  $A = (\alpha + 1)/\{n(1 + \delta^2)\}$ .

For  $L_2$ ,  $a + 1 = \nu\lambda'(1 + \delta^2)$ ,  $\theta = 0$ ,  $A = (1 + \delta^2)/\{2(1 + 2\delta^2)\}$ .

For  $L_3$ ,  $a + 1 = 2\nu\lambda'^2(1 + 2\delta^2)$ ,  $\theta = 2n\lambda'(1 + 2\delta^2) - n(1 + \delta^2)$ ,  
 $A = \frac{1}{2}(1 + 2\delta^2)/(1 + 3\delta^2)$ ; and  $\delta^2 = \lambda/\nu$ .

The coefficients  $C_k$  are all calculated recursively and are rather complicated [see Gideon and Gurland (1977) for explicit expressions]. Comparisons among  $L_0$ - $L_3$  show that for large and small noncentrality  $A$ , the series  $L_0$ ,  $L$ , are the best, though the series  $L_2$  and  $L_3$  produce good results in this range also. In choosing between the higher moment series  $L_2$  and  $L_3$  and a lower moment series such as  $L_0$ , the higher moment series usually give three- to five-place decimal accuracy with just a few terms (one to five) but may gain additional accuracy only slowly. The series  $L_0$ , however, usually produces less accuracy up to the first five to ten partial sums, but after that converges rapidly to the true probability.

Venables (1971) provided several alternative Laguerre expansions for  $F(x; \nu, A)$ . The "most promising" was

$$F(x; \nu, \lambda) = \Gamma_{\beta}(\frac{1}{2}ax + b) - \gamma_{\beta+1}(\frac{1}{2}ax + b) \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} d_j L_{j-1}^{(\beta)}(\frac{1}{2}ax + b) \quad (29.14)$$

where

$$a = (\nu + 2\lambda)(\nu + 3\lambda)^{-1},$$

$$b = \frac{1}{2}\lambda^2(\nu + 2\lambda)(\nu + 3\lambda)^{-1} = \frac{1}{2}\lambda^2 a,$$

$$\beta = \frac{1}{2}(\nu + 2\lambda)^3(\nu + 3\lambda)^{-2},$$

$$\gamma_{\alpha}(x) = \{\Gamma(\alpha)\}^{-1} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-x}, \quad x, \alpha > 0,$$

$$\Gamma_{\alpha}(x) = \int_0^x \gamma_{\alpha}(t) dt \quad [\text{as in Chapter 1, Eq. (1.85)}],$$

$$d_j = \frac{j!}{(\beta)_j} \sum_{i=0}^j (1-a)^i L_i^{(\frac{\beta}{2}-1)} \left( \frac{\frac{1}{2}\lambda a}{1-a} \right) L_{j-i}^{(\beta-3-\frac{\beta}{2})}(b),$$

with  $(\beta)_j = \beta(\beta+1)\dots(\beta+j-1)$ . Convergence is fairly rapid if either  $\nu$  or  $A$  (or both) are large, provided that  $x$  is not too small, say, less than  $\chi'_{\nu, 0.01}(\lambda)$ . [The simpler expression (29.2) also converges rapidly for large  $\lambda$ .]

Han (1975) gave the following formula, applicable when  $\nu (= 2s + 1)$  is odd:

$$F(x; 2s + 1, \lambda) = F(x; 1, \lambda) + \sum_{i=1}^s \sum_{j=1}^i \binom{i-1}{j-1} 2^j F^{(j)}(x; 1, \lambda), \quad (29.15)$$

where  $F^{(j)}(\cdot)$  denotes  $d^j F(\cdot)/d\lambda^j$ . For  $\nu = 3$  ( $m = 1$ ) we have

$$F(x; 3, \lambda) = \Phi(\sqrt{\lambda} + \sqrt{x}) - \Phi(\sqrt{\lambda} - \sqrt{x}) + \lambda^{-1/2} \{ \varphi(\sqrt{\lambda} + \sqrt{x}) - \varphi(\sqrt{\lambda} - \sqrt{x}) \}, \quad (29.16)$$

where  $\varphi(t) = \Phi'(t)$ .

Chou et al. (1984) derived the representation

$$F(x; \nu, \lambda) = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2^{\nu-1} \Gamma((\nu-1)/2)} \int_0^x y^{(\nu-3)/2} \varphi(\sqrt{y}) \times \{ \Phi(\sqrt{x-y} - \sqrt{\lambda}) - \Phi(-\sqrt{x-y} - \sqrt{\lambda}) \} dy, \quad (29.17)$$

and in particular,

$$F(x; 1, \lambda) = \Phi(\sqrt{x} - \sqrt{\lambda}) - \Phi(-\sqrt{x} - \sqrt{\lambda}).$$

The pdf is

$$p(x; \nu, \lambda) = \frac{(2\pi)^{1/2}}{2^{(\nu-1)/2}\Gamma((\nu-1)/2)} \int_0^x y^{(\nu-3)/2} \varphi(\sqrt{y}) \varphi(\sqrt{x-y} - \sqrt{\lambda}) - \varphi(-\sqrt{x-y} - \sqrt{\lambda}) \frac{1}{2} (x-y)^{-1/2} dy. \tag{29.18}$$

Integration by parts gives the simple formula (29.7).

Guenther (1964) obtained

$$\begin{aligned} p(x; \nu, \lambda) &= \frac{(2\pi)^{1/2} \varphi(\sqrt{\lambda})}{2^{(\nu-1)/2}\Gamma((\nu-1)/2)} x^{(\nu-2)/2} \varphi(\sqrt{x}) \int_0^\pi \exp(\sqrt{x\lambda} \cos \theta) \sin^{n-2} \theta d\theta \\ &= \pi \lambda^{-(\nu-2)/4} I_{(\nu-2)/2}(\sqrt{x\lambda}) x^{(\nu-2)/4} \varphi(\sqrt{\lambda}) \varphi(\sqrt{x}). \end{aligned} \tag{29.19}$$

Temme (1993) obtained the expressions

$$F(x; \nu, \lambda) = \begin{cases} 1 + \left(\frac{x}{\lambda}\right)^{\nu/4} \{T_{(\nu-2)/2}(\sqrt{x\lambda}, \omega) - T_{\nu/2}(\sqrt{x\lambda}, \omega)\} & \text{for } x > \lambda, \\ \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{x}{\lambda}\right)^{\nu/4} \{T_{(\nu-2)/2}(\sqrt{x\lambda}, \omega) - T_{\nu/2}(\sqrt{x\lambda}, \omega)\} & \text{for } x < \lambda, \end{cases} \tag{29.20}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \omega &= \frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{x} - \sqrt{\lambda})^2 / \sqrt{x\lambda}, \\ T_\mu(\sqrt{x\lambda}, \omega) &= \int_{\sqrt{x\lambda}}^\infty e^{-(\omega+1)t} I_\mu(t) dt \end{aligned}$$

which are claimed to have some computational advantages

Ennis and Johnson (1993) obtained the formula

$$F(x; \nu, \lambda) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{\infty} y^{-1} (1-y^2)^{-\nu/4} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\lambda y^2(1+y^2)^{-1}\right\} \\ \times \sin\left[\frac{1}{2}\left\{\nu \tan^{-1} y + \lambda y(1+y^2)^{-1}\right\} - yx\right] dy. \quad (29.21)$$

For computational purposes this formula avoids the need to evaluate the sum of an infinite series, but it does require numerical integration over an infinite range. (The latter is, however, assisted by the fact that the integrand is of order  $y^{-(\nu+4)/4}$  as  $y$  tends to infinity.)

Ruben (1974) noted the recurrence relation (for  $\nu > 6$ )

$$\lambda F(x; \nu, A) = (A - (\nu - 4))F(x; \nu - 2, A) \\ + \{x + (\nu - 4)\}F(x; \nu - 4, A) - xF(x; \nu - 6, A). \quad (29.22a)$$

[See also Cohen (1988) and Temme (1993)]. For  $A = 0$ , writing  $\nu + 2$  in place of  $\nu$ , (29.22a) reduces to the relation

$$(\nu - 2)F(x; \nu, 0) = (x + \nu - 2)F(x; \nu - 2, 0) - xF(x; \nu - 4, 0) \quad (29.22b)$$

among central  $\chi^2$  cdfs, as noted by Khamis (1965).

The following recurrence relations, among others, were obtained by Cohen (1988):

$$p(x; \nu, A) = p(x; \nu - 2, A) + 2 \frac{\partial p(x; \nu - 2, A)}{\partial \lambda}. \quad (29.23a)$$

$$p(x; \nu, A) = p(x; \nu + 2, A) + 2 \frac{\partial p(x; \nu + 2, A)}{\partial \lambda}. \quad (29.23b)$$

$$p(x; \nu, \lambda) = \lambda^{-(\nu-2)/2} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\lambda - 1)(x - 1)\right\} p(\lambda x; \nu; 1). \quad (29.23c)$$

The further relation

$$\frac{\partial F(x; \nu, A)}{\partial A} = \frac{1}{2} \{F(x; \nu + 2, A) - F(x; \nu, A)\} \quad (29.23d)$$

is useful when interpolating with respect to  $A$ , while [cf. (28.7)]

$$\frac{\partial F(x; \nu, A)}{\partial x} = p(x; \nu, A) = \frac{1}{2} \{F(x; \nu - 2, A) - F(x; \nu, A)\} \quad (29.7)'$$

is useful for interpolating with respect to  $x$ . Note that (29.23d) and (29.7)' together imply that

$$\frac{\partial F(x; \nu, A)}{\partial A} = -p(x; \nu + 2, A). \quad (29.23e)$$

[See Quenouille (1949), Guenther and Terragno (1964), Ruben (1974), and Schroder (1989).]

Ashour and Abdel-Samad (1990), based on Shea (1988), developed the following computational formula:

$$F(x; \nu, \lambda) = e^{-\lambda/2} p(x; \nu, 0) \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{i!} C_i\left(\frac{1}{4}\lambda, \frac{1}{2}\nu\right) \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} C_j\left(\frac{1}{2}x, \frac{1}{2}\nu + i\right), \quad (29.24a)$$

where

$$C_i(a, b) = \frac{a}{b+i} C_{i-1}(a, b) \quad \text{and} \quad C_0(a, b) = 1.$$

For odd integer values of  $\nu$ , they use the series (29.3) with

$$F(x; \nu + 2j, 0) = 2\{1 - \Phi(\sqrt{x})\} + \left(\frac{2}{\pi}\right)^{1/2} e^{-x/2} \sum_{i=1}^{\frac{1}{2}(\nu-1)+j} \frac{x^{i-\frac{1}{2}}}{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdots (2i-1)} \quad (29.24b)$$

[Abramowitz and Stegun (1964)].

Kallenberg (1990) has obtained bounds for the difference between cdf's of noncentral chi-squares with common degrees of freedom ( $\nu$ ) but different noncentrality parameters ( $A, A^*$ ). If  $A \leq A^*$

$$0 < F(x; \nu, A) - F(x; \nu, A^*) \leq (2\pi)^{-1/2} (\sqrt{\lambda^*} - \sqrt{\lambda}) F(x; \nu - 1, 0). \quad (29.25a)$$



[Note that  $F(x; v - 1, 0)$  is the cdf of central  $\chi^2_{v-1}$ .] The lower limit (0) corresponds to the fact that  $F(x; v, \lambda)$  is a decreasing function of  $\lambda$ . A better lower bound, also obtained by Kallenberg, is provided by the following result: If

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow 0} \max(A, A^*) > 0 \quad (29.25b)$$

and

$$\sqrt{\lambda^*} - \sqrt{\lambda} = O(1),$$

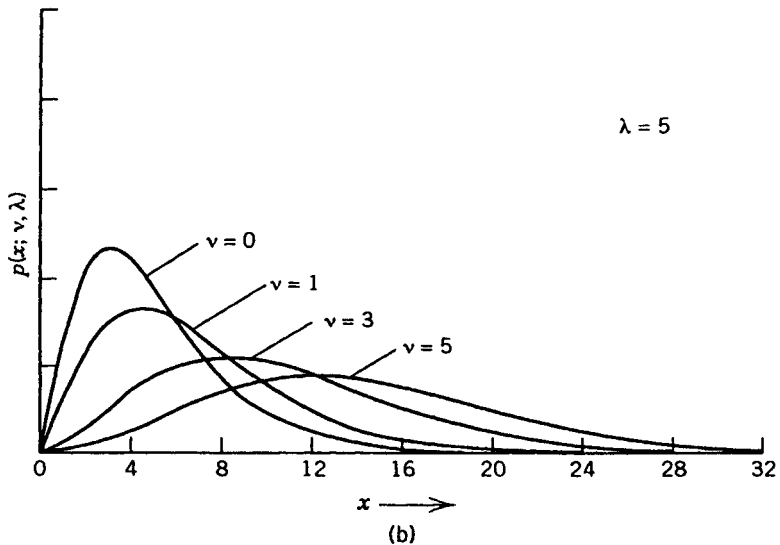
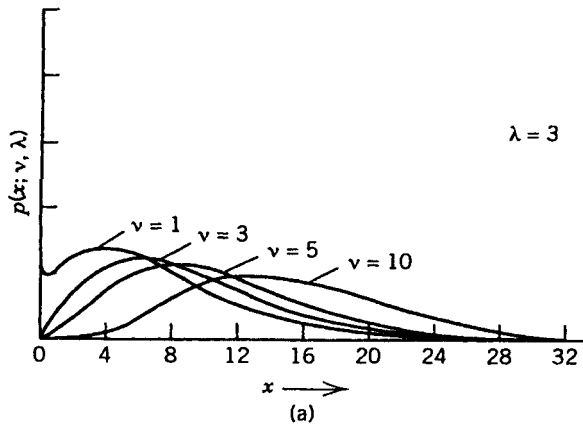


Figure 29.1a-c Probability density functions of noncentral and central chi-square.

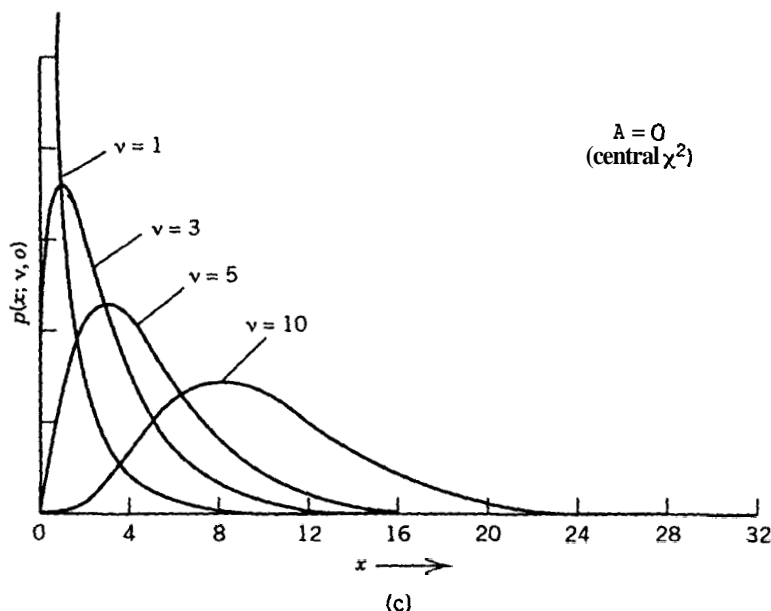


Figure 29.1 Continued

then there is a  $C(\nu)$  such that

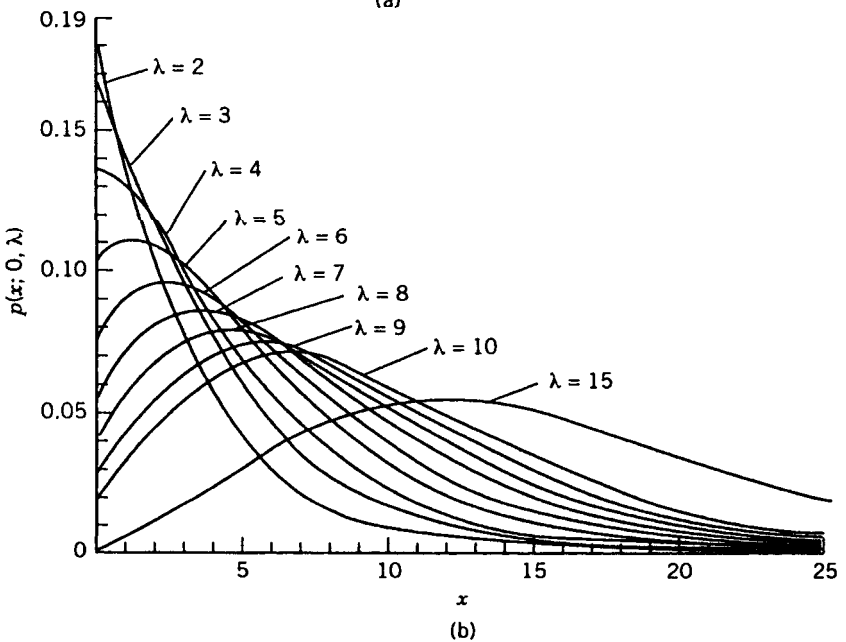
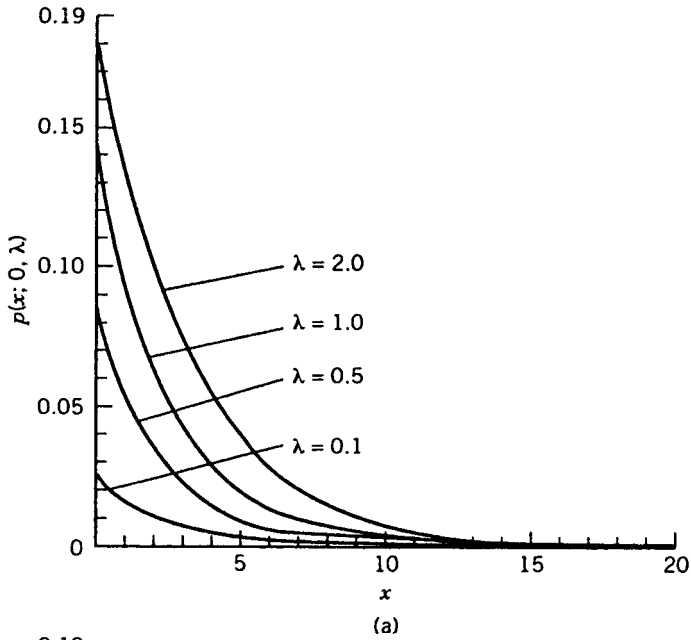
$$\sup_{x>0} |F(x; \nu, \lambda_n) - F(x; \nu, \lambda_n^*)| \geq C(\nu) |\sqrt{\lambda_n^*} - \sqrt{\lambda_n}|.$$

Typical plots of  $p(x; u, \lambda)$  were provided by Narula and Levy (1975). They are shown in Figures 29.1a, b. As a comparison Figure 29.1c exhibits  $p(x; u, 0)$ , that is, pdf's of central  $\chi^2$ -distributions. It is easy to see the increases in location parameters (mean, median, and mode) associated with increases in the noncentrality parameter,  $A$  for given  $\nu$ , (as also with increases in the degrees of freedom  $\nu$  for given  $A$ ).

Siegel (1979) defined a  $\chi_0^2(\lambda)$  (noncentral  $\chi^2$  with zero degrees of freedom) variable as follows: Choose  $K$  from a Poisson distribution with mean  $\frac{1}{2}\lambda$  so that  $\Pr\{K = k\} = e^{-\lambda/2} (\frac{1}{2}\lambda)^k / k!$  ( $k = 0, 1, \dots$ ). Then choose  $Y_\lambda \sim \chi_{2K}^2$ , a central chi-squared distribution. When  $K = 0$ , adopt the convention that the central  $\chi_0^2$  distribution is identically zero; this accounts for the discrete component of  $\chi_0^2(\lambda)$ . Thus  $\chi_0^2(\lambda)$  is a mixture of the distributions  $0, \chi_2^2, \chi_4^2, \dots$  with Poisson weights. [See (29.5c).]

The cumulative distribution function of  $Y_\lambda \sim \chi_0^2(\lambda)$  is

$$F(y; 0, A) = 1 - e^{-(\lambda+y)/2} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(\frac{1}{2}\lambda)^k}{k!} \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \frac{(\frac{1}{2}y)^j}{j!}, \quad (29.5c)'$$



**Figure 29.2a, b** Improper density of the  $\chi_0^2(\lambda)$  distribution for some values of the noncentrality parameter  $A$ , (a) for  $A \leq 2$ , (b) for  $A \geq 2$ .

where  $y \geq 0$  and zero otherwise. These series converge quickly; hence this formula is convenient for computing. Figures 29.2a, b, taken from Siegel (1979), show the (improper) probability density functions  $p(x; 0, A)$  of  $\chi_0^2(\lambda)$  for various values of  $A$ . Clearly apparent are the reduction in area associated with the mass  $e^{-\lambda/2}$  at zero, asymptotic normality when  $A$  is Large, and asymptotic exponentiality  $\chi_2^2$  of the positive component when  $A$  is small.

This distribution was used by Siegel (1979) to obtain critical values for a test of uniformity. Note that the purely noncentral part,  $Z_\lambda$  of  $\chi_\nu^2(\lambda)$ , as defined by Hjort (1989) [see (29.5b)], is a  $\chi_0^2(\lambda)$  random variable, as was mentioned above.

#### 4 MOMENTS

From (29.6) the moment-generating function of  $\chi_\nu^2(\lambda)$  is

$$M(t; \nu, \lambda) = (1 - 2t)^{-\nu/2} \exp\left(\frac{\lambda t}{1 - 2t}\right). \quad (29.6')$$

The cumulant-generating function is

$$K(t; \nu, \lambda) = \log M(t; \nu, \lambda) = -\frac{1}{2}\nu \log(1 - 2t) + \lambda t(1 - 2t)^{-1}. \quad (29.26)$$

Hence the  $r$ th cumulant is

$$\kappa_r = 2^{r-1}(r-1)!(\nu + r\lambda). \quad (29.27)$$

In particular

$$\begin{cases} \kappa_1 = \nu + \lambda = E[\chi^2], \\ \kappa_2 = 2(\nu + 2\lambda) = \text{var}(\chi^2) = [\sigma(\chi^2)]^2, \\ \kappa_3 = 8(\nu + 3\lambda) = \mu_3(\chi^2), \\ \kappa_4 = 48(\nu + 4\lambda), \end{cases} \quad (29.28)$$

and hence

$$\mu_4(\chi^2) = \kappa_4 + 3\kappa_2^2 = 48(\nu + 4\lambda) + 12(\nu + 2\lambda)^2. \quad (29.29)$$

From these formulas the values of the moment ratios can be calculated.

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From these formulas the values of the moment ratios can be calculated.

These are

$$\alpha_3 = \sqrt{\beta_1} = \frac{\sqrt{8}(\nu + 3\lambda)}{(\nu + 2\lambda)^{3/2}}, \quad (29.30)$$

$$\alpha_4 = \beta_2 = 3 + \frac{12(\nu + 4\lambda)}{(\nu + 2\lambda)^2}.$$

From these equations it follows that

$$\frac{\beta_2 - 3}{\beta_1} = \frac{3(\nu + 4\lambda)(\nu + 2\lambda)}{2(\nu + 3\lambda)^2} = \frac{3}{2} \left[ 1 - \frac{\lambda^2}{(\nu + 3\lambda)^2} \right],$$

whence

$$\frac{4}{3} \leq \frac{\beta_2 - 3}{\beta_1} \leq \frac{3}{2}. \quad (29.31)$$

The expressions for moments of  $\chi_{\nu}^{\prime 2}(\lambda)$  about zero are not so elegant as those for the central moments and cumulants [Park (1961)]. Sen (1989) has discussed the mean-median-mode inequality.

The following formula for the  $r$ th moment about zero was given (private communication) by D. W. Boyd:

$$\mu'_r = 2^r \Gamma\left(r + \frac{1}{2}\nu\right) \sum_{j=0}^r \binom{r}{j} \frac{(\lambda/2)^j}{\Gamma(j + \frac{1}{2}\nu)}.$$

The moment-generating function of  $\frac{1}{2} \log[\chi_{\nu}^{\prime 2}(\lambda)/\nu]$  was used by Bennett (1955) to evaluate the moments of this variable. It is evident that

$$E\left[\left(\frac{1}{2} \log[\chi_{\nu+2j}^{\prime 2}(\lambda)/\nu]\right)^r\right] = 2^{-r} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \left[\frac{(\frac{1}{2}\lambda)^j}{j!} e^{-\lambda/2}\right] E\left[(\log[\chi_{\nu+2j}^2/\nu])^r\right]$$

and that the values of  $E[(\log[\chi_{\nu+2j}^2/\nu])^r]$  can be obtained from

$$\kappa_r(\log \chi_{\nu}^2) = \psi^{(r-1)}\left(\frac{1}{2}\nu\right) + \varepsilon_r \log 2,$$

with  $\varepsilon_1 = \frac{1}{2}$ ,  $\varepsilon_r = 0$  for  $r > 1$ . [See Eqs. (27.10) and (27.14), Chapter 27.1

For integer  $\nu$  we have the following expressions for reciprocal moments:

1. For  $\nu > 2r$  and even,

$$\begin{aligned}
 E\left[(\chi_{\nu}^2(\lambda))^{-r}\right] &= \frac{(-1)^{r+(\nu/2)}}{(r-1)!} 2^{-r} \sum_{s=0}^{r-1} \binom{r-1}{s} \left(\frac{1}{2}\lambda\right)^{s+1-(\nu/2)} \Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\nu - s - 1\right) \\
 &\quad \times \left\{ e^{-\lambda/2} - \sum_{t=0}^{(\nu/2)-s-2} \frac{(-\frac{1}{2}\lambda)^t}{t!} \right\}. \quad (29.32a)
 \end{aligned}$$

2. For  $\nu > 2r$  and odd,

$$\begin{aligned}
 E\left[(\chi_{\nu}^2(\lambda))^{-r}\right] &= \frac{(-1)^{r+((\nu-1)/2)}}{(r-1)!} \sum_{s=0}^{r-1} \binom{r-1}{s} \left(\frac{1}{2}\lambda\right)^{s+1-(\nu/2)} \Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\nu - s - 1\right) \\
 &\quad \times \left[ \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} D\left(\sqrt{\frac{\lambda}{2}}\right) - \sqrt{\frac{\lambda}{2}} \sum_{t=0}^{((\nu-5)/2)-s} \frac{(-\frac{1}{2}\lambda)^t}{\Gamma(t + \frac{3}{2})} \right] \quad (29.32b)
 \end{aligned}$$

[Bock et al. (1984)]. (For  $\nu \leq 2r$  the  $r$ th reciprocal moment is infinite.)

Here

$$D(y) = \left\{ \int_0^y \exp(t^2) dt \right\} e^{-y^2/2}$$

is the Dawson integral. This is a nonnegative function of  $y$  (for  $y > 0$ ) with maximum value 0.541044... attained at  $y = 0.924139...$ . For large  $y$ ,  $D(y) \sim \frac{1}{2}y^{-1}$ .

An alternative expression, valid for all  $\nu > 2r$ , is

$$E\left[(\chi_{\nu}^2(\lambda))^{-r}\right] = 2^{-r} e^{-\lambda/2} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\frac{1}{2}\lambda)^j}{j!} \frac{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(\nu + 2j) - r)}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(\nu + 2j))}. \quad (29.32c)$$

Ullah (1976) noted that this can be expressed as

$$E[(\chi_{\nu}^{\prime 2}(\lambda))^{-r}] = 2^{-r} e^{-\lambda/2} \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{\nu}{2} - r\right)}{\Gamma\left(\frac{\nu}{2}\right)} {}_1F_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\nu - r; \frac{1}{2}\nu; \frac{1}{2}\lambda\right), \quad (29.32d)$$

where  ${}_1F_1(\cdot)$  is a confluent hypergeometric function (see Chapter 1). Yet another expression is

$$\begin{aligned} E[(\chi_{\nu}^{\prime 2}(\lambda))^{-r}] &= E_J[E[(\chi_{\nu+2J}^{\prime 2})^{-r}]] \\ &= E_J[\{(\nu + 2J - 2)(\nu + 2J - 4) \cdots (\nu + 2J - 2r)\}^{-1}], \end{aligned} \quad (29.32e)$$

where  $J$  has a Poisson distribution with expected value  $\frac{1}{2}\lambda$  [e.g., Egerton and Laycock (1982)].

## 5 PROPERTIES OF THE DISTRIBUTION

### *Reproductivity*

From the definition it is clear that if  $\chi_{\nu_1}^{\prime 2}(\lambda_1)$  and  $\chi_{\nu_2}^{\prime 2}(\lambda_2)$  are independent, then the sum  $[\chi_{\nu_1}^{\prime 2}(\lambda_1) + \chi_{\nu_2}^{\prime 2}(\lambda_2)]$  is distributed as  $\chi_{\nu_1 + \nu_2}^{\prime 2}(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)$ . This may be described verbally by saying that the noncentral  $\chi^2$  distribution is reproductive under convolution and that the degrees of freedom, and also the noncentralities, are additive under convolution.

### *Characterization*

If  $Y$  has a  $\chi_{\nu}^{\prime 2}(\lambda)$  distribution and  $Y = Y_1 + Y_2 + \cdots + Y_{\nu}$ , where the  $Y_j$ 's are independent and identically distributed, then each  $Y_j$  has a  $\chi_1^{\prime 2}(\lambda/\nu)$  distribution. The special case  $\nu = 2$  was studied by McNolty (1962).  $F(x; \nu, \lambda)$  is of course an increasing function of  $x$  for  $x > 0$ . It is a decreasing function of  $\nu$  and of  $\lambda$ . In fact for any fixed value of  $x$ ,

$$\lim_{\nu \rightarrow \infty} F(x; \nu, \lambda) = \lim_{\lambda \rightarrow \infty} F(x; \nu, \lambda) = 0.$$

The distribution of the standardized variable

$$\frac{\chi_{\nu}^{\prime 2}(\lambda) - (\nu + \lambda)}{[2(\nu + 2\lambda)]^{1/2}}$$

tends to normality as  $\nu \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $\lambda$  remaining fixed, or as  $\lambda \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $\nu$  remaining fixed.



**Unimodality**

The distribution of  $\chi^2_\nu(\lambda)$  is unimodal. The mode occurs at the intersection of the probability density functions of  $\chi^2_\nu(\lambda)$  and  $\chi^2_{\nu-2}(\lambda)$ , that is, at the value  $x$  satisfying the equation

$$p(x; \nu, \lambda) = p(x; \nu - 2, \lambda).$$

**Completeness**

The family of  $\chi^2_\nu(\lambda)$  distributions for a finite range  $A, < A < A$ , of values of  $A$ , is complete in the classical sense [Marden (1982); Oosterhoff and Schreiber (1987)].

**Monotonicity**

As noted in Section 3,  $F(x; \nu, A)$  is an increasing function of each of  $\nu$  and  $A$  (see Figures 29.1b, c) [Ghosh (1973); Ruben (1974)].

**6 ESTIMATION**

The noncentral  $\chi^2$  distribution depends on two parameters:  $\nu$ , the degrees of freedom, and  $A$ , the noncentrality. If  $\nu$  is known, then the maximum likelihood estimator  $\hat{\lambda}$ , of  $A$ , given values of  $n$  independent random variables  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  each having density function (29.4), must satisfy the equation

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \left[ \frac{\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} e^{-\hat{\lambda}/2} \left\{ \left( \frac{1}{2} \hat{\lambda} \right)^{j-1} / (j-1)! \right\} - \left\{ \left( \frac{1}{2} \hat{\lambda} \right)^j / j! \right\} p(X_i; \nu + 2j, 0)}{\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} e^{-\hat{\lambda}/2} \left\{ \left( \frac{1}{2} \hat{\lambda} \right)^j / j! \right\} p(X_i; \nu + 2j, 0)} \right] = 0; \tag{29.33}$$

that is,

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \left[ \frac{\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \left\{ \left( \frac{1}{2} \hat{\lambda} \right)^{j-1} / (j-1)! \right\} p(X_i; \nu + 2j, 0)}{\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \left\{ \left( \frac{1}{2} \hat{\lambda} \right)^j / j! \right\} p(X_i; \nu + 2j, 0)} \right] = n$$

if this equation has a positive root. This equation is usually not easy to solve. For the case  $\nu = 2$  Meyer (1967) showed that the equation has a positive solution if  $\bar{X} = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i > 2$ ; otherwise the maximum likelihood estimator takes the value zero. He furthermore shows that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pr[\bar{X} > 2] = 1.$$

Extending Meyer's result to values of  $\nu$  exceeding 2, Dwivedi and Pandey (1975) showed that the MLE of  $A$  (with  $\nu$  known) is zero if  $\bar{X}$  is not greater

than  $\nu$  and satisfies the equation

$$\sum_{i=1}^n h\left(\sqrt{2X_i\hat{\lambda}}\right)X_i = n \quad \text{if } \bar{X} > \nu, \quad (29.34a)$$

where  $h(z) = I_{\nu/2}(z)\{zI_{(\nu-2)/2}(z)\}^{-1}$ .  $I_\nu(z)$  is the modified Bessel function of order  $\nu$  of purely imaginary argument; see Chapter 1 for an explicit expression.

For large  $n$ ,

$$\hat{\lambda} \doteq \frac{1}{2} \left( n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^{1/2} \right)^2$$

[since  $h(z) = z^{-1}$  for large  $z$ ].

Anderson (1981a, b) considered maximum likelihood estimation of parameters  $\lambda, \sigma^2$  based on observations  $Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n$ , each distributed as  $\sigma^2 \chi_\nu^2(\lambda)$ ,  $\nu$  being known. (She actually considered values  $\sqrt{Y_1}, \sqrt{Y_2}, \dots, \sqrt{Y_n}$ , but this did not affect the MLEs.) The MLE equations are (29.34a) with  $X$ , replaced by  $Y_i/\hat{\sigma}^2$ , together with

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = (\nu n)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{\lambda}). \quad (29.34b)$$

Anderson (1981a) stated that these equations have unique solutions, provided that  $\hat{\sigma}^2$  is not too small. The asymptotic variances and covariance of  $\hat{\sigma}^2$  and  $\hat{\mu} = \hat{\lambda}^{1/2}\hat{\sigma}$  (as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ) are

$$n \text{ var}(\hat{\mu}) \doteq \Delta^{-1} \left( \frac{1}{2} \nu \lambda^{-1} - 1 - \theta \sigma^{-2} \right) \sigma^2, \quad (29.35a)$$

$$n \text{ var}(\hat{\sigma}^2) = \Delta^{-1} (\theta \lambda^{-1} \sigma^{-2} - 1) \sigma^4, \quad (29.35b)$$

$$n \text{ cov}(\hat{\mu}, \hat{\sigma}^2) \doteq \Delta^{-1} \lambda^{1/2} (\theta \lambda^{-1} \sigma^{-2} - 1 - \lambda^{-1}) \sigma^3, \quad (29.35c)$$

where

$$\Delta = (\theta \lambda^{-1} \sigma^{-2} - 1) \left( \frac{1}{2} \nu + \lambda^{-1} \right) - 1,$$

$$\theta = E \left[ \frac{X I_{\nu/2}^2(\sqrt{X\lambda/\sigma})}{I_{(\nu-2)/2}^2(\sqrt{X\lambda/\sigma})} \right].$$

Anderson (1981b) provided bounds on the value of  $\theta \lambda^{-1} \sigma^{-2}$ , namely

$$1 + \lambda^{-1} - \frac{1}{2} \nu \lambda^{-2} + \frac{1}{4} \nu^2 \lambda^{-3} \leq \theta \lambda^{-1} \sigma^{-2} \leq 1 + \frac{5}{4} \lambda^{-1} - \frac{20\nu - 13}{39} \lambda^{-2}. \quad (29.36a)$$

For large  $A$  a better lower bound, also given by Anderson, is

$$1 + \lambda^{-1} - \frac{1}{2}(\nu - 1)\lambda^{-2} + \frac{1}{4}(\nu - 1)(\nu - 2)\lambda^{-3}. \quad (29.36b)$$

Also for large  $A$ ,

$$n \operatorname{var}(\hat{\sigma}) \doteq \frac{1}{2}\{1 - 2(\nu - 1)\lambda^{-2} + \dots\}a^2, \quad (29.37a)$$

$$n \operatorname{var}(\hat{\lambda}) \doteq 1 + \frac{1}{2}\lambda^2, \quad (29.37b)$$

$$\operatorname{corr}(\hat{\lambda}, \hat{\sigma}) = (1 - \lambda^{-2})\{1 - 2(\nu - 2)\lambda^{-2}\}^{1/2}. \quad (29.37c)$$

Note the high correlation between  $\hat{\lambda}$  and  $\hat{\sigma}$ .

If  $\mathbf{a}$  is known, an unbiased moment estimator of  $A$  is

$$\bar{\lambda} = n^{-1}\sigma^{-2} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i - \nu. \quad (29.38)$$

We have

$$n \operatorname{var}(\bar{\lambda}) = 2\nu + 4\lambda, \quad (29.39a)$$

while the **Cramér-Rao** lower bound for variance of unbiased estimators of  $\bar{\lambda}$  is

$$4(\theta\lambda^{-1} - 1)^{-1}n^{-1}, \quad (29.39b)$$

where  $\theta$  is as defined in (29.35). The asymptotic relative efficiency (ARE) of  $\bar{\lambda}$  is

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{ARE}(\bar{\lambda}) &= 4(\theta\lambda^{-1} - 1)^{-1}(2\nu + 4\lambda)^{-1} \\ &= 1 - \frac{1}{2}\lambda^{-2} + \frac{1}{4}(2\nu - 3)\lambda^{-6} + \dots \quad \text{for large } A. \end{aligned} \quad (29.40)$$

When  $\nu = 1$ , results for estimating parameters of folded normal **distributions** (Chapter 13, Section 7.3) are applicable because  $\chi_1'(\lambda) [= +\sqrt{\chi_1'^2(\lambda)}]$  has the same distribution as  $|U + \sqrt{\lambda}|$ , where  $U$  has a unit normal distribution. The general folded normal distribution [Leone, Nelson, and Nottingham (1961)] is the distribution of  $|U\sigma + \xi|$  and has density function

$$p(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \sigma^{-1} [\cosh(\xi x \sigma^{-2})] \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(x^2 + \xi^2)\sigma^{-2}\right], \quad 0 < x. \quad (29.41)$$

[Evidently  $|U\sigma + \xi|$  has the same distribution as  $\sigma\chi'_1(\xi^2/\sigma^2)$ .] See Section 7.3 of Chapter 13 for related details.

The first and second moments about zero of distribution (29.41) are

$$\mu_f = \left( \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \right) \sigma \exp\left( -\frac{1}{2} \xi^2 \sigma^{-2} \right) + \xi \left[ 1 - 2\Phi\left( -\frac{\xi}{\sigma} \right) \right] \quad (29.42a)$$

and

$$\mu_f^2 + \sigma_f^2 = \xi^2 + \sigma^2, \quad (29.42b)$$

respectively. Leone, Nelson, and Nottingham (1961) gave tables of expected value ( $\mu_f$ ) and standard deviation ( $\sigma_f$ ) for

$$\mu_f/\sigma_f = 1.33(0.01)1.50(0.02)1.70(0.05)2.40(0.1)3.0.$$

[Note that the least possible value of  $\mu_f/\sigma_f$  is  $(\frac{1}{2}\pi - 1)^{-1/2} = 1.3237$ .] Leone, Nelson, and Nottingham (1961) also gave values of the cumulative distribution function to four decimal places for  $\xi/\sigma = 1.4(0.1)3.0$  and arguments at intervals of 0.01. Some values of the moment ratios ( $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$ ) were given by Elandt (1961).

The parameters  $\xi$  and  $\sigma$  can be estimated by equating sample first and second moments to (29.42a), (29.42b), respectively. The tables of Leone, Nelson, and Nottingham (1961) facilitate solution. Simple explicit solutions are obtained by using second and fourth moments. Here  $\theta = \mu_f/\sigma_f$  is estimated by  $\tilde{\theta}$ , the solution of the equation

$$\frac{\text{Sample 4th moment}}{(\text{Sample 2nd moment})^2} = \frac{3 + 6\tilde{\theta}^2 + \tilde{\theta}^4}{(1 + \tilde{\theta}^2)^2}. \quad (29.43)$$

Elandt (1961) obtained expansions to terms of order  $n^{-3}$  for the variances of the estimators of  $\theta$  by the two methods. There appears to be little difference for  $\theta$  less than 0.75; the method using first and second sample moments is about 40% more efficient when  $\theta = 3$ .

The maximum likelihood equations for estimators  $\hat{\xi}, \hat{\sigma}$  of  $\xi$  and  $\sigma$  can be expressed in the form

$$\hat{\xi}^2 + \hat{\sigma}^2 = n^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^n X_j^2, \quad (29.44a)$$

$$\hat{\xi} = n^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^n X_j \tanh\left( \frac{\hat{\xi} X_j}{\hat{\sigma}^2} \right). \quad (29.44b)$$

Johnson (1962) obtained asymptotic formulas for the variances of  $\hat{\theta}$  ( $= \hat{\xi}/\hat{\sigma}$ ) and  $\hat{\sigma}$ . They are rather complicated, but for large values of  $\theta$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}n \operatorname{var}(\hat{\theta}) &= 1 + \frac{1}{2}\theta^2, \\n \operatorname{var}(\hat{\sigma}) &\doteq \frac{1}{2}, \\ \operatorname{corr}(\hat{\theta}, \hat{\sigma}) &= -8(2 + \theta^2)^{-1/2}.\end{aligned}\tag{29.44c}$$

Relative to the maximum likelihood estimators, the efficiency of estimation of  $\theta$  from first- and second-sample moments is about 95% when  $\theta = 1$ , and increases with  $\theta$ . For small  $\theta$  the efficiency is low. If  $\mathbf{a}$  is known [e.g., if we have a  $\chi'_1(\lambda)$  distribution and wish to estimate  $A$ ], the maximum likelihood equation for  $\hat{\xi}$  is (29.44b) with  $\hat{\sigma}$  replaced by  $\mathbf{a}$ .

We now consider situations in which  $n = 1$  so that only a single observed value  $X$ , say, of a  $\chi^2_\nu(\lambda)$  variable is available. If  $\nu$  is known, a natural estimator of  $A$  is

$$\tilde{\lambda} = X - \nu,\tag{29.45a}$$

which is a moment estimator that can be obtained by equating observed to expected values. It is also a uniform minimum variance unbiased estimator. However, there are (biased) estimators which have a smaller mean square error (MSE).

The simplest is

$$(X - \nu)_+ = \begin{cases} X - \nu & \text{if } X \geq \nu, \\ 0 & \text{if } X < \nu. \end{cases}\tag{29.45b}$$

Perlman and Rasmussen (1975) considered modified forms of  $\tilde{\lambda}$ , namely

$$X - \nu + \frac{b}{X}, \quad \nu > 5, 0 < b < 4(\nu - 4).\tag{29.45c}$$

Neff and Strawderman (1976) carried the analysis further, obtaining estimators

$$X - \nu + \frac{b}{X^a}, \quad \nu > 1, 0 < b < \frac{2^{a+2}\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu - a)}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu - 2a)},\tag{29.45d}$$

$$X - \nu + \frac{r(X)}{X^a}, \quad \nu > 8, r(X) \text{ monotonic increasing},\tag{29.45e}$$

$$E\{[r(X)]^2\} \leq \frac{4(\nu - 4)(\nu - 6)(\nu + 8)}{\nu(\nu + 2)},$$

$$\begin{aligned}X - \nu + \frac{b}{X + c}, \quad \nu > 4, 0 < b \leq 4(\nu - 4)\left\{1 - \left(\frac{c}{\nu + 4}\right)^2\right\}, \\ 0 < c < \nu - 4.\end{aligned}\tag{29.45f}$$

These estimators all have uniformly smaller mean square errors than  $\tilde{\lambda}$ . Note that (29.45f) is bounded as  $X \rightarrow 0$ , which is not true of (29.45c)–(29.45e).

Kubokawa, Robert, and Saleh (1993) have shown that the estimators

$$\tilde{\lambda}_1(X) = X - \nu + e^{-\nu/2} \left\{ \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \left( -\frac{1}{2}\nu \right)^j \{j!(\nu + 2j)\}^{-1} \right\} \quad (29.45g)$$

and

$$\tilde{\lambda}_2(X) = \begin{cases} X - \nu & \text{if } X \geq \nu + 2, \\ 2(\nu + 2)^{-1}X & \text{if } X \leq \nu + 2, \end{cases} \quad (29.45h)$$

also have mean square error uniformly less than that of  $\tilde{\lambda}$  and are bounded as  $X \rightarrow 0$ .

Alam and Saxena (1982) defined a noncentral gamma distribution with parameters  $\alpha, \theta$  by the pdf

$$p_Y(y; \alpha, \theta) = y^{\alpha-1} e^{-\theta-y} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\theta y)^j}{j! \Gamma(\alpha + j)} = e^{-\theta-y} \left( \frac{y}{\theta} \right)^{(\alpha-1)/2} I_{\alpha-1}(2\sqrt{\theta x}), \quad (29.46)$$

where

$$I_p(x) = \left( \frac{1}{2}x \right)^p \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(x^2/4)^k}{k! \Gamma(p + k + 1)}.$$

This is the distribution of  $2\chi_{\nu}^{\prime 2}(\lambda)$  with

$$\nu = 2\alpha \quad \text{and} \quad A = 2\theta.$$

Alam and Saxena compared the MSEs of the maximum likelihood and moment estimators of  $\theta$ . The MSE of the moment estimator is somewhat less than that of the maximum likelihood estimators. See Table 29.1 which shows the ratios of the MSEs (in terms of our original  $A$  and  $\nu$ .) Venables (1975) suggested a novel approach to determining confidence limits for  $A$  which provides useful results if the observed value is large compared with the relevant percentage points of the (central)  $\chi^2$ -distribution.

He noted that the complement of the cdf of  $\chi_{\nu}^{\prime 2}(\lambda)$  can be written [cf (29.4)]

$$1 - F(x; \nu, \lambda) = 1 - F(x; \nu, 0) + p(x; \nu, 0) \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{(x/2)^j}{(\nu/2)^{[j]}} F(\lambda; 2j, 0). \quad (29.47)$$

Table 29.1 Mean-square-error ratios,  $MSE(\hat{\lambda}) / MSE((X - \nu)_+)$ 

$\nu \setminus \lambda$	1	2	10	20
1	1.41	1.28	1.04	1.01
2	1.35	1.26	1.04	1.02
10	1.16	1.15	1.06	1.03
20	1.10	1.10	1.06	1.03

Source: Alam and Saxena (1982).

This can be regarded as a "confidence distribution" (fiducial distribution) for  $\lambda$ , which is a mixture of distributions with  $\Pr[\lambda = 0] = 1 - F(x; \nu, 0)$  and  $\{F(\lambda; 2j, 0)\}$  with weights  $\{(\frac{1}{2}x)^j / (\frac{1}{2}\nu)^{j+1}\}$  ( $j = 1, 2, \dots$ ).

In principle, one could find  $100(1 - \alpha)\%$  confidence limits for  $\lambda$  as the lower and upper  $50\alpha\%$  points of (29.47). Venables proposed the following approximate method. The corresponding moment-generating function is

$$E^*[e^{t\lambda}] = 1 - F(x; \nu, 0) + \exp\left\{\frac{xt}{1-2t}\right\}(1-2t)^{(\nu/2)-1}F(x(1-2t)^{-1}; \nu, 0). \quad (29.48)$$

If  $x$  is sufficiently large, then

$$F(x; \nu, 0) \doteq F(x(1-2t)^{-1}; \nu, 0) = 1,$$

and the moment-generating function is approximately

$$E^*[e^{t\lambda}] \doteq (1-2t)^{(\nu/2)-1} \exp\left\{\frac{xt}{1-2t}\right\}. \quad (29.49)$$

The corresponding approximate cumulants are

$$\kappa_r^* = 2^{r-1}(r-1)!(rx - \nu + 2). \quad (29.50)$$

In particular

$$\kappa_1^* = x - \nu + 2, \quad (29.51a)$$

$$\kappa_2^* = 2(2x - \nu + 2). \quad (29.51b)$$

Venables gave a Cornish-Fisher type of expansion for the  $100\alpha\%$  point of the confidence distribution in terms of the corresponding unit normal deviate

u., when  $\Phi(u_\alpha) = \mathbf{a}$ . Part of this is

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\lambda}_\alpha &= X - \nu + 2 + (u_\alpha^2 - 1) + u_\alpha \sigma - u_\alpha \sigma^{-1} + \frac{2}{3}(\nu - 1)(u_\alpha^2 - 1)\sigma^{-2} \\ &\quad + \left\{ \frac{1}{6}(4\nu - 7)u_\alpha - \frac{2}{3}(\nu - 1)u_\alpha^3 \right\} \sigma^{-3} \\ &\quad + \frac{4}{15}(\nu - 1)(3u_\alpha^4 + 2u_\alpha^2 - 11)\sigma^{-4} + O(\sigma^{-5}).\end{aligned}\quad (29.52)$$

DeWaal (1974) considered Bayesian estimation of  $A$ , minimizing expected (quadratic) loss, based on a "noninformative" prior distribution and reported the astonishing result that  $(X + \nu)$  is the indicated estimator! (This estimator can never be less than  $\nu$ , and it always has bias  $\nu$ .)

If one assumes a prior of gamma form

$$g(\lambda) = \frac{c^p \lambda^{p-1} e^{-c\lambda}}{\Gamma(p)}, \quad c, p, \lambda > 0,$$

the Bayes estimator of  $A$  is

$$l(X) = (1 + c)^{-1} p + (1 + c)^{-2} X, \quad (29.53)$$

with mean square error

$$(1 + c)^{-2} \{ p + 2\lambda + (2 + c)^2 (p - c\lambda)^2 \}. \quad (29.54)$$

As  $c \rightarrow 0$ ,  $l(X)$  approaches  $X + p$ .

## 7 TABLES AND COMPUTER ALGORITHMS

There has been a large number of studies on the computation of the noncentral chi squared cdf,  $F(x; \nu, \lambda)$  in the last 20 years, including some duplications. For calculation of  $F(x; \nu, A)$ , the simple series expansion (29.3) is convenient for small values of  $A$ . The error committed by terminating  $c$  at  $(s + 1)$ -th term is negative and must be less than

$$e^{-\lambda/2} \sum_{j=s+1}^{\infty} \frac{(\frac{1}{2}\lambda)^j}{j!}$$



in absolute value (for any  $\nu$  or  $x$ ). This in turn cannot exceed

$$1 - \Phi\left(\frac{s + 1 - (\lambda/2)}{\sqrt{(\lambda/2)}}\right) \quad [\text{see Chapter 4, Eq. (4.49)}]$$

To ensure that the absolute error is less than  $100\alpha\%$ , we take  $(s + 1 - \frac{1}{2}\lambda)/\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}\lambda} > u_\alpha$ , where  $\Phi(u_\alpha) = 1 - \alpha$ . Here are a few typical values of  $\min s = 1 + [u_\alpha\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}\lambda} + \frac{1}{2}\lambda - 1]$ :

a	A =	2	8	32
	min s =	$1 + [u_\alpha]$	$1 + [2u_\alpha + 3]$	$1 + [4u_\alpha + 15]$
0.001		4	10	28
0.0001		4	11	30
0.00001		5	12	33

([a] denotes integer part of  $a$ .) These values provide minimum guaranteed accuracy for all  $x$  and all  $\nu$ . Much better accuracy will be obtained for small  $\nu$  and small  $x$ . Guenther (1975) found, for example, that using the series (29.3) for  $x = 4.60517$ ,  $\nu = 2$ , and  $A = 2.2$ , he obtained five decimal place accuracy.

The most extensive tables of the noncentral  $\chi^2$ -distribution are those of Haynam, Govindarajulu, and Leone (1973). These tables are especially intended to facilitate calculations involving the power of various  $\chi^2$  tests. Using  $\chi^2_{\nu, 1-\alpha}$  to denote the upper  $100\alpha\%$  point of the central  $\chi^2$ -distribution with  $\nu$  degrees of freedom and

$$\beta(\nu, \lambda, \alpha) = \Pr[\chi^2_\nu(\lambda) > \chi^2_{\nu, 1-\alpha}] \quad (29.55)$$

to denote power with respect to noncentrality  $A$ , the values tabulated are the following:

**Table 1.  $\beta$  to Four decimal places,**

$\alpha = 0.001, 0.005, 0.01, 0.025, 0.05, 0.1,$   
 $\lambda = 0(0.1)1.0(0.2)3.0(0.5)5(1)40(2)50(5)100,$   
 $\nu = 1(1)30(2)50(5)100.$

**Table 2.  $A$  to three decimal places for the same values of  $a$  and  $\nu$  as in Table 1,**

$1 - \beta = 0.1(0.02)0.7(0.01)0.99.$

**Table 3.  $\nu$  to three decimal places for the same values of  $a, A$  and  $\beta$  as in Tables 1 and 2.**

The first tables (apart from special calculations) relating to the noncentral  $\chi^2$ -distribution were compiled by Fix (1949). These tables give  $\lambda$  to three decimal places for

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha &= 0.01, 0.05, \\ 1 - \beta &= 0.1(0.1)0.9, \\ \nu &= 6(1)20(2)40(5)60(10)100.\end{aligned}$$

This table is also reproduced in the Bol'shev-Smirnov tables (1965). A similar table is included in Owen's tables (1962).

Bark et al. (1964) gave tables of  $\Pr[\chi^2(\omega^2) \geq u^2] = Q(u, \omega)$  to six decimal places for  $\omega = 0(0.02)3.00$  and  $u = 0(0.02)$  until  $Q(u, \omega)$  is less than 0.0000005. For cases when  $\omega > 3$  and  $u \leq 3$ , they suggested using the formula

$$Q(u, \omega) = 1 - Q(\omega, u) + Q(\omega - u, 0)e^{-u\omega}I_0(u\omega), \quad (29.56a)$$

and gave tables of the function  $e^{-x}I_0(x)$ . For  $u \geq \omega > 3$  the formula suggested is

$$Q(u, \omega) = q - R(q, \varepsilon), \quad (29.56b)$$

where  $q = 1 - \Phi(u - \omega - (2\omega)^{-1})$ ,  $\varepsilon = (1 + \omega^2)^{-1}$  and  $R(q, \varepsilon)$  is also given in these tables. Using (29.56a), (29.56b) can also be used for  $\omega > u > 3$ .

Johnson (1968) gave tables of percentile points: values  $x(\nu, A, \alpha)$  such that  $\Pr[\chi^2_\nu(\lambda) > x(\nu, A, \alpha)] = \alpha$  - to four significant figures for  $\sqrt{\lambda} = 0.2(0.2)6.0$ ;  $\nu = 1(1)12, 15, 20$ ;  $\alpha = 0.001, 0.0025, 0.005, 0.01, 0.025, 0.05, 0.1, 0.25, 0.5, 0.75, 0.9, 0.95, 0.975, 0.99, 0.995, 0.9975, 0.999$ . Tables of  $\sqrt{x(\nu, \lambda, \alpha)}$  to four significant figures for the same values of  $\sqrt{\lambda}$  and  $\nu$ , but only for  $\alpha = 0.01, 0.025, 0.05, 0.95, 0.975, \text{ and } 0.99$  were given by Johnson and Pearson (1969).

A computer program for calculating  $p(x; \nu, \lambda)$  and  $F(x; \nu, \lambda)$  was published by Bargmann and Ghosh (1964) [also by Robertson (1969)]. They used formulas (29.2) and (29.4) and provided parameters that are in the range  $10^{-8}$  to  $10^{+8}$ , obtaining accuracy to five significant figures. More detailed tables for the cases  $\nu = 2, 3$ , calculated in connection with "coverage" problems, are described in Section 9.

Narula and Desu (1981) have developed a rapid algorithm for computing  $F(x; \nu, A)$  from (29.13). The algorithm, written in FORTRAN 66, uses Lau's (1980) algorithm for the incomplete gamma function and Pike and Hill's (1966) algorithm for calculating the log gamma function.

Wiener (1975) provided a simple computer program (LAMBDA) written in FORTRAN, for use in calculating the power of a test of the hypothesis ( $H_0$ ) that  $X$  has a  $\chi^2_\nu$  distribution against alternatives that it has a  $\chi^2_\nu(\lambda)$  distribution ( $\lambda \neq 0$ ). If the critical region (leading to rejection of  $H_0$ ) is

$$X > \chi^2_{\nu, 1-\alpha}$$

in absolute value (for any  $\nu$  or  $x$ ). This in turn cannot exceed

$$1 - \Phi\left(\frac{s + 1 - (\lambda/2)}{\sqrt{(\lambda/2)}}\right) \quad [\text{see Chapter 4, Eq. (4.49)}].$$

To ensure that the absolute error is less than  $100\alpha\%$ , we take  $(s + 1 - \frac{1}{2}\lambda)/\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}\lambda} > u_\alpha$ , where  $\Phi(u_\alpha) = 1 - \alpha$ . Here are a few typical values of  $\min s = 1 + [u_\alpha\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}\lambda} + \frac{1}{2}\lambda - 1]$ :

$\alpha$	$A =$ $\min s =$	2 $1 + [u_\alpha]$	8 $1 + [2u_\alpha + 3]$	32 $1 + [4u_\alpha + 15]$
0.001		4	10	28
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( $[a]$  denotes integer part of  $a$ .) These values provide minimum *guaranteed* accuracy for all  $x$  and all  $\nu$ . Much better accuracy will be obtained for small  $\nu$  and small  $x$ . Guenther (1975) found, for example, that using the series (29.3) for  $x = 4.60517$ ,  $\nu = 2$ , and  $A = 2.2$ , he obtained five decimal place accuracy.

The most extensive tables of the noncentral  $\chi^2$ -distribution are those of Haynam, Govindarajulu, and Leone (1973). These tables are especially intended to facilitate calculations involving the power of various  $\chi^2$  tests. Using  $\chi^2_{\nu, 1-\alpha}$  to denote the upper  $100\alpha\%$  point of the *central*  $\chi^2$ -distribution with  $\nu$  degrees of freedom and

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 $\lambda = 0(0.1)1.0(0.2)3.0(0.5)5(1)40(2)50(5)100,$   
 $\nu = 1(1)30(2)50(5)100.$

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$1 - \beta = 0.1(0.02)0.7(0.01)0.99.$

**Table 3.  $\nu$  to three decimal places for the same values of  $\alpha, A$  and  $\beta$  as in Tables 1 and 2.**

$u_\alpha$ , when  $\Phi(u_\alpha) = \mathbf{a}$ . Part of this is

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\lambda}_\alpha &= X - \nu + 2 + (u_\alpha^2 - 1) + u_\alpha \sigma - u_\alpha \sigma^{-1} + \frac{2}{3}(\nu - 1)(u_\alpha^2 - 1)\sigma^{-2} \\ &\quad + \left\{ \frac{1}{6}(4\nu - 7)u_\alpha - \frac{2}{3}(\nu - 1)u_\alpha^3 \right\} \sigma^{-3} \\ &\quad + \frac{4}{15}(\nu - 1)(3u_\alpha^4 + 2u_\alpha^2 - 11)\sigma^{-4} + O(\sigma^{-5}).\end{aligned}\quad (29.52)$$

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with mean square error

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in absolute value (for any  $\nu$  or  $x$ ). This in turn cannot exceed

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$$\begin{aligned}\alpha &= 0.01, 0.05, \\ 1 - \beta &= 0.1(0.1)0.9, \\ \nu &= 6(1)20(2)40(5)60(10)100.\end{aligned}$$

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$$Q(u, \omega) = 1 - Q(\omega, u) + Q(\omega - u, 0)e^{-u\omega}I_0(u\omega), \quad (29.56a)$$

and gave tables of the function  $e^{-x}I_0(x)$ . For  $u \geq \omega > 3$  the formula suggested is

$$Q(u, \omega) = q - R(q, \varepsilon), \quad (29.56b)$$

where  $q = 1 - \Phi(u - \omega - (2\omega)^{-1})$ ,  $\varepsilon = (1 + \omega^2)^{-1}$  and  $R(q, \varepsilon)$  is also given in these tables. Using (29.56a), (29.56b) can also be used for  $\omega > u > 3$ .

Johnson (1968) gave tables of percentile points: values  $x(\nu, A, a)$  such that  $\Pr[\chi^2_\nu(\lambda) > x(\nu, A, a)] = a$  - to four significant figures for  $\sqrt{\lambda} = 0.2(0.2)6.0$ ;  $\nu = 1(1)12, 15, 20$ ;  $a = 0.001, 0.0025, 0.005, 0.01, 0.025, 0.05, 0.1, 0.25, 0.5, 0.75, 0.9, 0.95, 0.975, 0.99, 0.995, 0.9975, 0.999$ . Tables of  $\sqrt{x(\nu, \lambda, \alpha)}$  to four significant figures for the same values of  $\sqrt{\lambda}$  and  $\nu$ , but only for  $a = 0.01, 0.025, 0.05, 0.95, 0.975, \text{ and } 0.99$  were given by Johnson and Pearson (1969).

A computer program for calculating  $p(x; \nu, \lambda)$  and  $F(x; \nu, \lambda)$  was published by Bargmann and Ghosh (1964) [also by Robertson (1969)]. They used formulas (29.2) and (29.4) and provided parameters that are in the range  $10^{-8}$  to  $10^{+8}$ , obtaining accuracy to five significant figures. More detailed tables for the cases  $\nu = 2, 3$ , calculated in connection with "coverage" problems, are described in Section 9.

Narula and Desu (1981) have developed a rapid algorithm for computing  $F(x; \nu, A)$  from (29.13). The algorithm, written in FORTRAN 66, uses Lau's (1980) algorithm for the incomplete gamma function and Pike and Hill's (1966) algorithm for calculating the log gamma function.

Wiener (1975) provided a simple computer program (LAMBDA) written in FORTRAN, for use in calculating the power of a test of the hypothesis ( $H_0$ ) that  $X$  has a  $\chi^2_\nu$  distribution against alternatives that it has a  $\chi^2_\nu(\lambda)$  distribution ( $\lambda \neq 0$ ). If the critical region (leading to rejection of  $H_0$ ) is

$$X > \chi^2_{\nu, 1-\alpha}$$

(so that the significant level of the test is  $\alpha$ ), the power with respect to an alternative hypothesis ( $H_1$ ) specifying  $A = A$ , is

$$\beta(\lambda_1|\alpha) = \Pr[X > \chi_{\nu,1-\alpha}^2] = \Pr[\chi_{\nu}^2(\lambda) > \chi_{\nu,1-\alpha}^2] = F(\chi_{\nu,1-\alpha}^2; \nu, \lambda_1), \quad (29.57)$$

which is computed by the program. Wiener (1975) also gives values of  $A$  satisfying

$$\beta(\lambda|\alpha) = \beta \quad (29.58)$$

for  $\nu = 1(1)30(2)50(5)100$ ;

$\alpha = 0.001, 0.005, 0.01, 0.025, 0.05; 0.1$ ;

$\beta = 0.01(0.01)0.30(0.20)0.90$ ,

tabulated in the same form as in Haynam, Govindarajulu, and Leone (1970).

Posten (1989) provided another recursive algorithm for evaluating  $F(x; \nu, A)$  in terms of a single central  $F(x; \nu, 0)$ , including a modification to deal with technical difficulties when  $A$  is large, and using a recursive relation to evaluate  $F(x; \nu + 2j, 0)$ . For evaluation of the central  $F(x; \nu + 2j, 0)$  values, Posten recommends using a continued fraction method [e.g., Boardman and Kopitzke (1975)].

Farebrother (1987) and Ding (1992) have presented algorithms for computing the non-central  $\chi^2$  distribution function. It is important to add here that Boomsma and Molenaar (1994) recently reviewed four packages for MS-DOS personal computers (Electronic Tables, P Calc, Sta Table, and STATPOWER) producing cumulative probabilities and quantiles for many common continuous distributions discussed in this and the previous volumes, with a particular emphasis on the non-central  $\chi^2$  distribution.

Zolnowska (1965) described a method of generating random numbers from "Rayleigh-Rice" distributions.

## 8 APPROXIMATIONS

Many approximations to noncentral  $\chi^2$ -distributions, in particular to the value of  $\Pr[\chi_{\nu}^2(\lambda) \leq x]$ , have been suggested. In selecting an approximation, both simplicity and accuracy should be considered, although these tend to be contrary requirements.

Early approximations to noncentral  $\chi^2$  fall roughly into two groups. In the first group we have normal approximations to the distribution of some fractional power of a noncentral  $\chi^2$  variate [Patnaik (1949); Abdel-Aty (1954); Sankaran (1959, 1963)]. These approximations can sometimes be extended by the inclusion of one or two terms in terms of an Edgeworth

expansion, but the improvement in accuracy is often quite small, especially in view of the usually tedious calculation involved.

The second group consists of central gamma (i.e., central  $\chi^2$ ) approximations of form  $\alpha\chi^2 + \beta$ , where  $\alpha, \beta$  are suitably chosen constants, [Patnaik (1949); Pearson (1959)]. These can be converted into normal approximations, such as by the Wilson-Hilferty [Chapter 18, Eq. (18.24)] cube root approximation (and hence made to enter the first group), or they can be extended by several terms in a Laguerre series expansion [see Khamis (1965); Tiku (1965)].

Both the form of (29.4) and the inequalities in (29.31) lead one to expect that a gamma distribution should give a useful approximation. The simplest approximation consists of replacing  $\chi'^2$  by a multiple of central  $\chi^2$ ,  $c\chi_f^2$ , say, with  $c$  and  $f$  so chosen that the first two moments of the two variables  $\chi_\nu'^2(\lambda)$  and  $c\chi_f^2$  agree. The appropriate values of  $c$  and  $f$  are

$$c = \frac{\nu + 2\lambda}{\nu + \lambda}; f = \frac{(\nu + \lambda)^2}{\nu + 2\lambda} = \nu + \frac{\lambda^2}{\nu + 2\lambda}. \quad (29.59)$$

This approximation was suggested by Patnaik (1949). [Two additional corrective terms to Patnaik's approximation were derived by Roy and Mohamad (1964).] Pearson (1959) suggested an improvement of this approximation, introducing an additional constant  $b$ , and choosing  $b$ ,  $c$ , and  $f$  so that the first three moments of  $\chi_\nu'^2(\lambda)$  and  $(c\chi_f^2 + b)$  agree. The appropriate values of  $b$ ,  $c$ , and  $f$  are

$$b = -\frac{\lambda^2}{\nu + 3\lambda}, \quad (29.60)$$

$$c = \frac{\nu + 3\lambda}{\nu + 2\lambda},$$

$$f = \frac{(\nu + 2\lambda)^3}{(\nu + 3\lambda)^2} = \nu + \frac{\lambda^2(3\nu + 8\lambda)}{(\nu + 3\lambda)^2}.$$

This gives a better approximation to  $F(x; \nu, \lambda)$  than does Patnaik's approximation, for  $x$  large enough. But since the Pearson approximation ascribes a nonzero value to  $\Pr[-\lambda^2(\nu + 3\lambda)^{-1} < \chi'^2 \leq 0]$ , it is not as good an approximation when  $x$  is small.

It can be shown that for  $x$  and  $\nu$  fixed, the error of Patnaik's approximation to  $F(x; \nu, \lambda)$  is  $O(\lambda^2)$  as  $\lambda \rightarrow 0$ ,  $O(\lambda^{-1/2})$  as  $\lambda \rightarrow \infty$ ; the error of



Pearson's approximation is also  $O(\lambda^2)$  as  $A \rightarrow 0$ , but  $O(\lambda^{-1})$  as  $A \rightarrow \infty$ . In both cases the error bounds are uniform in  $x$ . In both Patnaik's and Pearson's approximations  $f$  is usually fractional so that interpolation is needed if standard  $\chi^2$  tables are used.

Approximations to the central  $\chi^2$  distribution (Chapter 18, Section 5) may be applied to the approximating central  $\chi^2$ 's in Patnaik's and Pearson's approximations. If the Wilson-Hilferty approximation [Chapter 18, Eq. (18.24)] be applied then the approximation

$$\left(\frac{\chi'^2}{\nu + \lambda}\right)^{1/3} \text{ normal with expected value } 1 - \frac{2(\nu + 21)}{9(\nu + A)} \text{ and} \\ \text{variance } \frac{2(\nu + 2A)}{\nu + A} \tag{29.61a}$$

is obtained [Abdel-Aty (1954)]. Sankaran (1959, 1963) discussed a number of such further approximations, including

$$\left\{\chi'^2 - \frac{1}{2}(\nu - 1)\right\}^{1/2} \text{ approximately normal with expected value} \\ \left\{1 + \frac{1}{2}(\nu - 1)\right\}^{1/2} \text{ and variance } 1, \tag{29.61b}$$

$$\left\{\frac{\chi'^2 - \frac{1}{3}(\nu - 1)}{(\nu + \lambda)}\right\}^{1/2} \text{ approximately normal with expected} \\ \text{value } \left\{1 - \frac{-1}{3(\nu + A)}\right\}^{1/2} \text{ and variance } (\nu + A)^{-1}, \tag{29.61c}$$

$$\left(\frac{\chi'^2}{\nu + \lambda}\right)^h \text{ approximately normal with expected value} \\ 1 + h(h - 1) \frac{\nu + 2\lambda}{(\nu + \lambda)^2} - h(h - 1)(2 - h)(1 - 3h) \frac{(\nu + 2\lambda)^2}{2(\nu + \lambda)^4}$$

and variance

$$h^2 \frac{2(\nu + 2\lambda)}{(\nu + \lambda)^2} \left[1 - (1 - h)(1 - 3h) \frac{\nu + 2\lambda}{(\nu + \lambda)^2}\right], \tag{29.61d}$$

where

$$h = 1 - \frac{2}{3}(\nu + \lambda)(\nu + 3\lambda)(\nu + 2\lambda)^{-2}.$$

Table 29.2 Errors of Johnson (29.68), Patnaik (29.59), Pearson (29.60), Abdel-Aty (29.61a), and Sankaran (29.61b-d) approximations for  $\nu = 2, 4$  and 7

$\nu$	A	Exact Value	Johnson (29.68)	Patnaik (29.59)	Pearson (29.60)	Abdel-Aty (29.61a)	Sankaran		
							(29.61b)	(29.61c)	(29.61d)
Upper 5% points									
2	1	8.642	0.92	-0.01	-0.04	-0.08	0.09	0.23	-0.06
	4	14.641	0.55	0.08	-0.06	0.02	0.04	0.04	-0.01
	16	33.054	0.28	0.29	-0.03	0.27	0.02	0.01	0.02
	25	45.308	0.23	0.35	-0.03	0.33	0.01	0.00	0.00
4	1	11.707	0.88	0.01	-0.02	-0.04	0.20	0.26	-0.02
	4	17.309	0.57	0.07	-0.04	0.03	0.11	0.08	-0.03
	16	35.427	0.30	0.26	-0.03	0.23	0.04	0.01	0.00
	25	47.613	0.25	0.33	-0.02	0.30	0.03	0.01	0.01
7	1	16.003	0.83	0.01	-0.01	-0.02	0.28	0.24	-0.02
	4	21.228	0.59	0.05	-0.02	0.02	0.18	0.10	0.03
	16	38.970	0.33	0.19	-0.02	0.19	0.08	0.02	-0.01
	25	51.061	0.26	0.28	-0.02	0.27	0.05	0.01	0.00
Lower 5% points									
2	1	0.17	*	0.03	-0.09	0.00	*	*	-0.05
	4	0.65	-0.43	0.29	-0.12	0.24	0.08	-0.01	0.01
	16	6.32	-0.25	0.57	-0.02	0.55	0.02	0.00	0.02
	25	12.08	-0.21	0.60	-0.01	0.59	0.01	0.00	0.03
4	1	0.91	-0.07	0.02	-0.03	0.00	*	0.14	-0.04
	4	1.77	-0.24	0.18	-0.06	0.17	0.23	0.01	-0.03
	16	7.88	-0.20	0.48	-0.02	0.47	0.06	0.00	0.02
	25	13.73	-0.17	0.53	-0.01	0.53	0.04	0.00	0.05
7	1	2.49	0.10	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.64	0.11	-0.02
	4	3.66	-0.07	0.12	-0.02	0.10	0.34	0.03	-0.01
	16	10.26	-0.15	0.38	-0.01	0.37	0.11	0.00	0.01
	25	16.23	-0.14	0.45	-0.01	0.44	0.07	0.00	0.02

Note: The tabled quantity is the approximate value less the exact value. Exact values of upper 5% points are taken from Fisher (1928), and lower 5% points from Ganwood (1934). The stability of the errors in Pearson's approximation to the upper 5% points is noteworthy. A correction of  $0.16(\nu + 2)^{-1}$  would produce remarkably accurate results; this would also apply to the lower 5% points for  $\nu = 4$  and  $\nu = 7$ .

Of these, (29.61b) is not good for small values of A; (29.61d) is remarkably accurate for all A but is rather complicated, and not much more accurate than Pearson's approximation. (See the comparisons in Table 29.2.)

Hayya and Ferrara (1972) found evidence from simulation that the normal approximation [based on Patnaik's (1949) approximation] that

$$\left\{ \frac{2\chi'^2 - (\nu + \lambda)}{\nu + 2\lambda} \right\}^{1/2}$$

is distributed normally with expected value

$$\left\{ \frac{2(\nu + \lambda)^2}{\nu + 2\lambda} - 1 \right\}^{1/2}$$

and unit variance is "justified" at the 5% significance level. For  $A < 80$  the approximation is "justified" for the right tail (but not the left tail). (The authors are rather vague as the meaning of "justified," which is based on a graphic representation.) As was already mentioned above, any of these approximations might be improved by using an Edgeworth expansion, but the need for calculating higher **cumulants** makes this unattractive.

Rice (1968) gave an expansion (as a series in powers of  $\nu^{-1}$ ) for the cumulative distribution function which should give uniform accuracy over the whole range of values of the argument. Other approximations, valid for small values of  $A$ , may be obtained from the Laguerre series expansion (29.11). Better results are obtained by expanding the distribution of an appropriate **linear function** of  $\chi'^2$  in a Laguerre series [Tang (1938); Tiku (1965)].

Bol'shev and Kuznetsov (1963) used a method in which the distribution of  $\chi'^2(\lambda)$  is related to the distribution of a central  $\chi^2$  with the same number of degrees of freedom. They wished to determine a function  $w(x; \nu, A)$  such that

$$\Pr[\chi'^2(\lambda) \leq x] \doteq \Pr[\chi^2 \leq w(x; \nu, \lambda)].$$

This is equivalent to requiring that  $w(\chi'^2(\lambda); \nu, \lambda)$  be approximately distributed as a central  $\chi^2$  with  $\nu$  degrees of freedom.

For small  $A$ ,

$$w(x; \nu, \lambda) = w^*(x; \nu, \lambda) + O(\lambda^3), \tag{29.62}$$

where

$$w^*(x; \nu, \lambda) = x - x\lambda\nu^{-1} + \frac{1}{2}x\{1 + (\nu + 2)^{-1}x\}\lambda^2\nu^{-2}$$

and  $O(\lambda^3)$  is uniform in any finite interval of  $x$ . Hence, as  $A \rightarrow 0$ ,

$$F(x; \nu, \lambda) = \Pr[\chi^2 \leq w^*(x; \nu, \lambda)] + O(\lambda^3). \tag{29.63}$$

To estimate percentage points, namely solutions  $x(\alpha, \nu, \lambda)$  of the equations

$$F(x; \nu, \alpha) = \alpha, \tag{29.64}$$

the inverse function

$$x(w^*; \nu, A) = w^* + w^*\nu^{-1} + \frac{1}{2}w^*\{1 - (\nu + 2)^{-1}w^*\}\lambda^2\nu^{-2} \tag{29.65}$$

is used. If  $\chi_{\nu, \alpha}^2$  is the (tabulated)  $100\alpha\%$  point of the central  $\chi^2$ -distribution,

$$x^* = \chi_{\nu, \alpha}^2 + \chi_{\nu, \alpha}^2 \lambda \nu^{-1} + \frac{1}{2} \chi_{\nu, \alpha}^2 \{1 - (\nu + 2)^{-1} \chi_{\nu, \alpha}^2\} \lambda^2 \nu^{-2} \quad (29.66)$$

is used as an approximation to  $x(\alpha, \nu, \lambda)$ .

Next, we mention two formulas obtained by direct normal approximation. If a normal distribution is fitted to the  $\chi_{\nu}^2(\lambda)$ -distribution, we obtain

$$F(x; \nu, \lambda) \doteq \Phi \left[ \frac{x - \nu - \lambda}{\{2(\nu + 2\lambda)\}^{1/2}} \right], \quad (29.67)$$

where

$$\Phi(y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^y e^{-u^2/2} du.$$

Applying a normal approximation to the right-hand side of (29.6), Johnson (1959) obtained

$$F(x; \nu, \lambda) \doteq \Phi \left[ \frac{x - \nu - \lambda + 1}{\{2(\nu + 2\lambda)\}^{1/2}} \right]. \quad (29.68)$$

In each case the error (as  $\lambda \rightarrow \infty$ ) is  $O(\lambda^{-1/2})$  uniformly in  $x$ .

These approximations are simple but not very accurate. The relative accuracy of a number of approximations can be judged from Table 29.2. It can be seen that only Pearson (29.60) and Sankaran (29.61d) are reliable over a wide range of values of  $\lambda$ . Patnaik's and Abdel-Aty's formulas deteriorate as  $\lambda$  increases, while the other formulas improve.

Germond and Hastings (1944) gave the approximation

$$\Pr[\chi_{\nu}^2(\lambda) \leq R^2] \doteq \frac{R^2}{2 + (R^2/2)} \exp \left[ -\frac{\lambda}{2 + (R^2/2)} \right] \quad (29.69)$$

which is correct to four decimal places for  $R \leq 0.4$ . They also gave a table of (small) corrections to this formula, giving four decimal place accuracy up to  $R = 1.2$ , and further tables for larger values of  $R$ . For  $R > 5$  the formula

$$\Pr[\chi_{\nu}^2(\lambda) \leq R^2] \doteq \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{\sqrt{\lambda} - \sqrt{R^2 - 1}}^{\infty} e^{-t^2/2} dt \quad (29.70)$$

gives useful results. We also note a simple empirical approximation to  $x(0.95, \nu, \lambda)$  due to Tukey (1957) which appears to be quite accurate.

The following useful approximations, for  $x$  and  $\lambda$  both large, are due to Temme (1993):

For  $x > \lambda$ .

$$F(x; \nu, \lambda) \doteq 1 - \left(\frac{x}{\lambda}\right)^{(\nu-1)/4} \{1 - \Phi(\sqrt{2x} - \sqrt{2\lambda})\}. \quad (29.71a)$$

For  $x \leq \lambda$ ,

$$F(x; \nu, \lambda) \doteq \left(\frac{x}{\lambda}\right)^{(\nu-1)/4} \{1 - \Phi(\sqrt{2\lambda} - \sqrt{2x})\}. \quad (29.71b)$$

## 9 APPLICATIONS

One use of the noncentral  $\chi^2$ -distribution—that of representing the distribution of a sample variance from a normal population with unstable expected value—has been described in Section 1. A rather more generally useful application is in approximating to the power of  $\chi^2$ -tests applied to contingency tables (tests of goodness of fit). In one of simplest of such tests the data consist of  $N$  observations divided among  $k$  classes  $\Pi_1, \Pi_2, \dots, \Pi_k$  with  $N_i$  observations in class  $\Pi_i$  ( $i = 1, \dots, k$ ). If  $H_0$  is the hypothesis that the probability of an observation falling into  $\Pi_i$  is  $\pi_i$ , ( $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$ ) and the alternative hypotheses specify other values for these probabilities, then an approximation to the likelihood ratio test is one with a critical region of form

$$T = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{(N_i - N\pi_{i0})^2}{N\pi_{i0}} > K_\alpha, \quad (29.72)$$

where  $K_\alpha$  is a suitably chosen constant. If the true values of the probabilities are  $\pi_i$ , ( $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$ ) with, of course,  $\sum_{i=1}^k \pi_i = 1$ , then  $T$  is approximately distributed as  $\chi_{k-1}^2(\lambda)$  with

$$\lambda = N \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{(\pi_i - \pi_{i0})^2}{\pi_{i0}}.$$

If  $\pi_i = \pi_{i0}$ , for all  $i$ , that is, if  $H_0$  is valid, then  $\lambda = 0$  and the approximate distribution is that of a central  $\chi_{k-1}^2$ . So, to obtain a significance level approximately equal to  $\alpha$ , we take

$$K_\alpha = \chi_{k-1, \alpha}^2.$$

The power, when the true values of the probabilities are  $\pi_1, \pi_2, \dots, \pi_k$  is

then approximately

$$\Pr[\chi'_{k-1}(\lambda) > \chi_{k-1,\alpha}^2].$$

There is a good discussion of more complex forms of  $\chi^2$  tests in Patnaik (1949). Noncentral  $\chi^2$  also appears in the calculation of approximate powers of certain nonparametric tests [Andrews (1954); Lehmann (1959, pp. 302-306)].

Extending an argument of Wilks (1962, p. 419), it can be shown that when the data can be represented by  $n$  independent random variables with identical distributions depending on parameters  $(\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_k)$ , then the limiting distribution (as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ) of

$$-2 \log (\text{likelihood ratio})$$

is, under certain sequences of alternative hypotheses converging to the null hypothesis, a noncentral  $\chi^2$ -distribution. The likelihood ratio here is the ratio of two maximized values of the likelihood function, the numerator being restricted by certain of the  $\theta$ 's being assigned fixed values, while the denominator is not restricted.

Sugiura (1968) obtained an asymptotic expansion (up to order  $n^{-1}$ ) of the non-null distribution of the logarithm of the likelihood ratio statistic for tests of multivariate linear hypotheses in the form of a linear combination of noncentral  $\chi^2$  probabilities with increasing numbers of degrees of freedom and the same noncentrality parameter.

Noncentral  $\chi^2$  also appears in a slightly disguised form in calculations of the probability that a random point  $(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_\nu)$  with the  $X$ 's mutually independent normal variables, each having expected value 0 and standard deviation  $\sigma$  (the same for all  $i$ ), falls within an offset hypersphere  $\sum_{i=1}^{\nu} (X_i - \xi_i)^2 \leq R^2$ . This probability is evidently

$$\Pr \left[ \chi_\nu'^2 \left( \sigma^{-2} \sum_{i=1}^{\nu} \xi_i^2 \right) \leq \left( \frac{R}{\sigma} \right)^2 \right].$$

For  $\nu = 2$ , this is the probability of hitting a circular target of radius  $R$  when the point of aim is offset  $(\xi_1, \xi_2)$  from the center of the target and variation about the point of aim is spherical normal with variance  $\sigma^2$ .

A number of tables of this quantity have been produced, especially for the physically interesting cases  $\nu = 2$  and  $\nu = 3$ . An extensive summary is given by Guenther and Terragno (1964), who also give a useful bibliography. For the case  $\nu = 2$ , very detailed tables are available [Bell Aircraft Corp. (1956); DiDonato and Jarnagin (1962a); Marcum (1950)]. The most easily available short summary tables are in Burington and May (1970), DiDonato and Jarnagin (1962a, b), and Owen (1962, pp. 178-180). The DiDonato and

Jarnagin references contain values of  $R/\sigma$  to give specified values of probabilities; the other references give values of probabilities for specified values of  $R/\sigma$  and  $(\xi_1^2 + \xi_2^2)/\sigma^2$ .

For the case  $\nu = 3$ , there is the simple relation

$$\Pr \left[ \chi_3'^2(\lambda) \leq \left( \frac{R}{\sigma} \right)^2 \right] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{\lambda^{1/2} - (R/\sigma)}^{\lambda^{1/2} + (R/\sigma)} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}u^2\right) du - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\lambda}} \left[ \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\lambda^{1/2} - \frac{R}{\sigma}\right)^2\right\} - \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\lambda^{1/2} + \frac{R}{\sigma}\right)^2\right\} \right]. \quad (29.73)$$

There is thus less need for extensive tables in this case, but there is a short table available [Guenther (1961)].

For general conditions under which a quadratic form in normal variables is distributed as noncentral  $\chi^2$ , see Chapter 29 of the first edition of this volume. Spruill (1979) has shown that the measurement of electrical power in a circuit is related to the estimation of the noncentrality parameter of a chi-square distribution.

Noncentral  $\chi^2$ -distributions have been applied in various aspects of financial theory:

1. Boyle (1978, 1979) observed that the *size* of individual claims in certain classes of insurance is distributed as  $K\chi_2^2$  (i.e., has an exponential distribution), while the *number* of such claims in a specified period (e.g., a year) has a Poisson distribution. It follows that the total amount of claims over the period has a  $K\chi_2^2(2\theta)$  distribution, where  $\theta$  is the expected value of the Poisson distribution.
2. The distribution of interest rates under specified assumptions about technological change and assumptions about preferences and existence of a steady state distribution for the interest rate was investigated by Cox, Ingersoll, and Ross (1985). It was observed that the probability density of the interest rate at time  $s$ , conditional on its value at the current time  $t$ , following a "mean-reverting process," appears to have a noncentral  $\chi^2$ -distribution with the noncentrality parameter proportional to the current spot rate.
3. A more subtle application pertains to the so-called CEV (constant elasticity of variance) model, relating volatility and stock price(s). It is assumed to be governed by a "diffusion process" of the type

$$dS = \mu S dt + \delta S^{\beta-2} dZ,$$

**Jarnagin** references contain values of  $R/\sigma$  to give specified values of probabilities; the other references give values of probabilities for specified values of  $R/\sigma$  and  $(\xi_1^2 + \xi_2^2)/\sigma^2$ .

For the case  $\nu = 3$ , there is the simple relation

$$\Pr \left[ \chi_3^2(\lambda) \leq \left( \frac{R}{\sigma} \right)^2 \right] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{\lambda^{1/2} - (R/\sigma)}^{\lambda^{1/2} + (R/\sigma)} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}u^2\right) du - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \left[ \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\lambda^{1/2} - \frac{R}{\sigma}\right)^2\right\} - \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\lambda^{1/2} + \frac{R}{\sigma}\right)^2\right\} \right]. \quad (29.73)$$

There is thus less need for extensive tables in this case, but there is a short table available [**Guenther (1961)**].

For general conditions under which a quadratic form in normal variables is distributed as noncentral  $\chi^2$ , see Chapter 29 of the first edition of this volume. **Spruill (1979)** has shown that the measurement of electrical power in a circuit is related to the estimation of the noncentrality parameter of a chi-square distribution.

Noncentral  $\chi^2$ -distributions have been applied in various aspects of financial theory:

1. **Boyle (1978, 1979)** observed that the **size** of individual claims in certain classes of insurance is distributed as  $K\chi_2^2$  (i.e., has an exponential distribution), while the number of such claims in a specified period (e.g., a year) has a Poisson distribution. It follows that the total amount of claims over the period has a  $K\chi_2^2(2\theta)$  distribution, where  $\theta$  is the expected value of the Poisson distribution.
2. The distribution of interest rates under specified assumptions about technological change and assumptions about preferences and existence of a steady state distribution for the interest rate was investigated by **Cox, Ingersoll, and Ross (1985)**. It was observed that the probability density of the interest rate at time  $s$ , conditional on its value at the current time  $t$ , following a "mean-reverting process," appears to have a noncentral  $\chi^2$ -distribution with the noncentrality parameter proportional to the current spot rate.
3. A more subtle application pertains to the so-called CEV (constant elasticity of variance) model, relating volatility and stock **price(s)**. It is assumed to be governed by a "diffusion process" of the type

$$dS = \mu S dt + \delta S^{\beta-2} dZ,$$



where  $dZ$  is a Wiener process and  $\beta - 2$  is the so-called elasticity of return variance with respect to price. If  $\beta = 2$  (i.e., the elasticity is zero), prices are lognormally distributed and the variance of returns is constant. Utilizing Cox, Ingersoll, and Ross's (1985) results, Schroder (1989) has shown that the CEV process can be expressed as a linear combination of cdfs of two noncentral chi-squared densities with different degrees of freedom but the same noncentrality parameter.

4. Hayya and Ferrara (1972) encountered a noncentral chi-squared distribution in a risk analysis model relating costs and revenues.

## 10 RELATED DISTRIBUTIONS

We have noted in Section 6, that  $\chi'_\nu(\lambda)$  is a *folded* normal variable (discussed in Chapter 13). Equations (29.3) and (29.4) represent a connection between the noncentral  $\chi^2$ - and Poisson distributions. Other relationships, already mentioned in this chapter, are as follows:

1. If  $A = 0$ , the noncentral  $\chi^2$  becomes a central  $\chi^2$ .
2. The limiting distribution of a standardized  $\chi'^2_\nu(\lambda)$  variable is the unit normal distribution if either (a)  $\nu \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $A$  remaining constant, or (b)  $A \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $\nu$  remaining constant.
3. The limiting distribution of a standardized (singly or doubly) noncentral  $F$  variable, as the denominator degrees of freedom tends to infinity (noncentralities remaining constant) is the distribution of multiple of a noncentral  $\chi^2$  variable (Chapter 30, Section 5).
4. Press (1966) has shown that the distribution of linear functions of independent noncentral  $\chi^2$  variates with positive coefficients can be expressed as mixtures of distributions of central  $\chi^2$ 's. This is part of the theory of quadratic forms in normal variables, which is the subject of a chapter in a planned volume on *Continuous Multivariate Distributions*.
5. Mixtures of central  $\chi^2$ -distributions, analogous to (29.3) but with different weights, occur as the null hypothesis distributions of certain test statistics. Bartholomew (1959a, b) encountered such a situation in constructing a test of the hypothesis that a sequence of expected values of normal distributions  $\{\xi_i\}$  ( $i = 1, \dots, k$ ) with common variance ( $\sigma^2$ ) is constant against alternatives specifying ordering of the  $\xi_i$ 's.

The statistic, based on  $m$  mutually independent random variables  $X_1, \dots, X_m$ ,

$$\bar{\chi}^2 = \sum_{j=1}^m \frac{c_j X_j}{\sum_{j=1}^m c_j}, \quad c_j > 0, \quad (29.74)$$

with  $X_j$  distributed as  $\chi_{\nu_j}^2$  ( $j = 1, \dots, m$ ) is distributed as a mixture of a finite number of central  $\chi^2$  distributions. The name "chi-bar-squared" distribution was coined, apparently by Conoway et al. (1990) to apply to the distribution obtained by replacing the central  $\chi^2$ 's by noncentral  $\chi^2$ 's [see Chapter 18, Eq. (18.71)]. The latter can in turn be represented according to (29.4) as mixtures of central  $\chi^2$ 's, so that (29.74) includes all chi-bar-squared distributions. See Bartholomew (1961), Barlow et al. (1972), and Conoway et al. (1990) for further details.

Chi-bar-squared distributions can arise as compound noncentral chi-squared distributions in which the noncentrality parameter,  $\Lambda$ , of  $\chi_{\nu}^2(\Lambda)$  is ascribed a distribution. Then the pdf of the corresponding random variable  $Y$ , say, is

$$p_Y(y) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} E \left[ e^{-\lambda/2} \frac{(\frac{1}{2}\lambda)^j}{j!} \right] p(y; \nu + 2j, 0), \quad (29.75)$$

with a corresponding formula for the cdf.

Szroeter (1992) has considered the case where

$$\Lambda = \mathbf{T}'\mathbf{T} + c^2,$$

where  $\mathbf{T}$  is a  $r \times 1$  vector, with variance-covariance matrix  $\mathbf{\Omega}$  and expected value  $\tau$ . If  $\omega$  denotes the largest eigenvalue of  $\mathbf{\Omega}$  then, as  $\omega \rightarrow 0$ ,

$$E_{\lambda}[F(x; \nu, \Lambda)] \rightarrow F(x; \nu, \Lambda),$$

where

$$\Lambda = \boldsymbol{\tau}'\boldsymbol{\tau} + c^2.$$

Szroeter obtained the bound

$$\begin{aligned} (1 - \theta\delta^{-2})F(x; \nu, \Lambda + \delta) &\leq E_{\lambda}[F(x; \nu, \lambda)] \\ &\leq (1 - \theta\delta^{-2})F(x; \nu, \max(0, \Lambda - \delta) + \theta\delta^{-2}) \end{aligned} \quad (29.76)$$

for any  $\delta \geq \sqrt{\theta}$ , with

$$\theta = \omega [2\Lambda + 2\omega \text{rank}(\mathbf{\Omega}) + \omega \{\text{rank}(\mathbf{\Omega})\}^2].$$

He also obtained the alternative upper bound

$$E_{\lambda}[F(x; \nu, \lambda)] \leq F(x; \nu, (1 + \omega)^{-1}\Lambda) \quad (29.77a)$$

and the alternative lower bound

$$F((1 + \omega)^{-1}x; \nu', A) \leq E_\lambda[F(x; \nu, A)], \quad (29.77b)$$

where

$$\nu' = \begin{cases} \nu & \text{for } \nu = r = \text{rank}(\mathbf{\Omega}), c = 0, \\ \max(\nu, \text{rank}(\mathbf{\Omega}) + 1) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

If  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are mutually independent random variables, with  $X_j$  distributed as  $\chi_{\nu_j}^2(\lambda_j)$  ( $j = 1, 2$ ), the distribution of the ratio  $Y = X_1/X_2$  is easily obtained as that of a mixture of  $G_{\nu_1+2j_1, \nu_2+2j_2}$  variables (as defined in Chapter 27) with products of Poisson probabilities

$$\prod_{h=1}^2 \left\{ e^{-\lambda_h/2} \frac{(\frac{1}{2}\lambda_h)^{i_h}}{i_h!} \right\} \quad (29.78)$$

as weights. Using equation (27.3) of Chapter 27, we have

$$p_Y(y) = e^{-(\lambda_1+\lambda_2)/2} \sum_{i_1=0}^{\infty} \sum_{i_2=0}^{\infty} \left\{ \prod_{h=1}^2 \frac{(\frac{1}{2}\lambda_h)^{i_h}}{i_h!} \right\} \times \left[ \frac{y^{(\nu_1/2)+i_1-1}}{B(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1 + i_1, \frac{1}{2}\nu_2 + i_2)(1+y)^{\frac{1}{2}(\nu_1+\nu_2)+i_1+i_2}} \right]. \quad (29.79a)$$

The distribution of the product  $Z = X_1X_2$  is similarly that of a mixture of  $\chi_{\nu_1+2i_1}^2\chi_{\nu_2+2i_2}^2$  distributions, with the same weights (29.78). The formal expression is more complicated in appearance than (29.79a) because the distribution of the product of  $\chi_{\nu_1+2i_1}^2$  and  $\chi_{\nu_2+2i_2}^2$  is more complicated in appearance than that of their ratio. Using the distribution of the product of two mutually independent gamma variables, given in Chapter 17, Section 8.4, we obtain

$$e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\lambda_1+\lambda_2)} \sum_{i_1=0}^{\infty} \sum_{i_2=0}^{\infty} \left\{ \prod_{h=1}^2 \frac{(\frac{1}{2}\lambda_h)^{i_h}}{i_h!} \right\} \frac{(\frac{1}{2}Z)^{\frac{1}{2}(\nu_1+\nu_2)+\frac{1}{2}(i_1+i_2)-1} K_{\frac{1}{2}(\nu_1-\nu_2)+i_1-i_2}(\sqrt{Z})}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1 + i_1)\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu_2 + i_2)}, \quad (29.79b)$$

where

$$K_g(y) = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\infty t^{g-1} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}y(t+t^{-1})\right\} dt$$

is the modified Bessel function of the second kind (see Chapter 1). [Note that  $K_g(y) = K_{-g}(y)$ .]

Kotz and Srinivasan (1969) have obtained (29.79a) and (29.79b), using Mellin transforms. [In their formulas, summation is with respect to  $i_1$  and  $(i_1 + i_2)$  instead of  $i$ , and  $i_2$ .] For two degrees of freedom, simpler expressions are available in Kotz and Srinivasan (1969).

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## CHAPTER 30

# Noncentral F-Distributions

### 1 DEFINITION AND GENESIS

In Chapter 27 the F-distribution with  $\nu_1, \nu_2$  degrees of freedom was defined as the distribution of the ratio  $(\chi_{\nu_1}^2/\nu_1)(\chi_{\nu_2}^2/\nu_2)^{-1}$ , where the two  $\chi^2$ 's are mutually independent. If both  $\chi^2$ 's are replaced by noncentral  $\chi^2$ 's, we obtain the *doubly noncentral F-distribution with  $\nu_1, \nu_2$  degrees of freedom and noncentrality parameters  $A_1, A_2$* , defined as the distribution of the ratio

$$\left\{ \frac{\chi_{\nu_1}^{\prime 2}(\lambda_1)}{\nu_1} \right\} \left\{ \frac{\chi_{\nu_2}^{\prime 2}(\lambda_2)}{\nu_2} \right\}^{-1}. \quad (30.1)$$

In many applications  $A_1$  is equal to zero, so there is a central  $\chi^2$  in the denominator. This might be called a "singly noncentral F," but the word "singly" is usually omitted, and it is called a *noncentral F with  $\nu_1, \nu_2$  degrees of freedom and noncentrality parameter  $A_1$* . The case  $A_1 = 0, A_2 \neq 0$  is not usually considered separately, since this corresponds simply to the *reciprocal* of a noncentral F, as just defined.

We will use the notations  $F''_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1, A_2)$  for the doubly noncentral F variable defined by (30.1) and  $F'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1)$  for the (singly) noncentral F variable

$$\left\{ \frac{\chi_{\nu_1}^{\prime 2}(\lambda_1)}{\nu_1} \right\} \left( \frac{\chi_{\nu_2}^2}{\nu_2} \right)^{-1} \quad (30.2)$$

(and also for the corresponding distributions). Note that with these symbols

$$F''_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(0, \lambda_2) = [F'_{\nu_2, \nu_1}(\lambda_2)]^{-1}.$$

In this chapter we will be mainly concerned with (singly) noncentral **F-distributions**. Doubly noncentral F-distributions will appear again in Section 7.

The noncentral F-distribution is used in the calculation of the power functions of tests of general linear hypotheses. As pointed out in Chapter 27, these include standard tests used in the analysis of variance such as by Tang (1938), Madow (1948), Lehmann (1959), and Scheffé (1959), to mention just a few of the earlier published studies. Later references include Cohen (1977), Fleishrnan (1980), and Cohen and Nel (1987), with emphasis on fixed effects models.

## 2 HISTORICAL REMARKS

The noncentral beta distribution, which is related to the noncentral *F*-distribution (see Section 7), was derived by Fisher (1928) in connection with research on the distribution of the multiple correlation coefficient (see Chapter 32). Its properties were discussed by Wishart (1932). The noncentral F-distribution itself was derived by Tang (1938) though Patnaik (1949) seems to have been the first to call the distribution by this name. Tang (1938) also used the doubly noncentral F-distribution (though without actually using this name) in studies of the properties of analysis of variance tests under nonstandard conditions. For a general account of the distribution and its applications to linear models, see Odeh and Fox (1975).

## 3 PROPERTIES

Since the numerator and denominator in (30.2) are independent, it follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \mu'_r(F'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1)) &= \left(\frac{\nu_2}{\nu_1}\right)^r \mu'_r(\chi^2_{\nu_1}(\lambda_1)) \mu'_{-r}(\chi^2_{\nu_2}), \\ &= e^{-\lambda_1/2} \left(\frac{\nu_2}{\nu_1}\right)^r \frac{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu_2 - r)}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu_2)} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\frac{1}{2}\lambda_1)^j}{j!} \frac{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1 + j + r)}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1 + j)}, \end{aligned}$$

whence

$$E[F'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1)] = \frac{\nu_2(\nu_1 + \lambda_1)}{\nu_1(\nu_2 - 2)}, \quad \nu_2 > 2, \tag{30.3a}$$

$$\text{var}(F'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1)) = 2 \left(\frac{\nu_2}{\nu_1}\right)^2 \frac{(\nu_1 + \lambda_1)^2 + (\nu_1 + 2\lambda_1)(\nu_2 - 2)}{(\nu_2 - 2)^2(\nu_2 - 4)}, \quad \nu_2 > 4, \tag{30.3b}$$

and the third central moment is

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_3(F'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1)) &= \frac{4}{(\nu_2 - 4)(\nu_2 - 6)} \\ &\times \left[ 4 \left( \frac{\nu_1 + \lambda_1}{\nu_2 - 2} \right)^3 + \frac{6(\nu_1 + \lambda_1)(\nu_1 + 2\lambda_1)}{(\nu_2 - 2)^2} \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \frac{2(\nu_1 + 3\lambda_1)}{\nu_2 - 2} \right], \quad \nu_2 > 6. \quad (30.3c) \end{aligned}$$

Pearson and Tiku (1970) provided alternative formulas, introducing the symbol  $A_1 = \lambda_1/\nu_1$ :

$$\mu'_1 = \frac{\nu_2}{(\nu_2 - 2)} (1 + \Lambda_1), \quad (30.3a)'$$

$$\mu_2 = \frac{2\nu_2^2(\nu_1 + \nu_2 - 2)}{\nu_1(\nu_2 - 2)^2(\nu_2 - 4)} \left\{ 1 + 2\Lambda_1 + \frac{\nu_1}{(\nu_1 + \nu_2 - 2)} \Lambda_1^2 \right\}, \quad (30.3b)'$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_3 &= \frac{8\nu_2^3(\nu_1 + \nu_2 - 2)(2\nu_1 + \nu_2 - 2)}{\nu_1^2(\nu_2 - 2)^3(\nu_2 - 4)(\nu_2 - 6)} \\ &\times \left\{ 1 + 3\Lambda_1 + \frac{6\nu_1}{(2\nu_1 + \nu_2 - 2)} \Lambda_1^2 + \frac{2\nu_1^2}{(\nu_1 + \nu_2 - 2)(2\nu_1 + \nu_2 - 2)} \Lambda_1^3 \right\} \quad (30.3c) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_4 &= \frac{12\nu_2^4(\nu_1 + \nu_2 - 2)}{\nu_1^3(\nu_2 - 2)^4(\nu_2 - 4)(\nu_2 - 6)(\nu_2 - 8)} \\ &\times \left[ \{ 2(3\nu_1 + \nu_2 - 2)(2\nu_1 + \nu_2 - 2) \right. \\ &\quad \left. + (\nu_1 + \nu_2 - 2)(\nu_2 - 2)(\nu_1 + 2) \} (1 + 4\Lambda_1) \right. \\ &\quad \left. + 2\nu_1(3\nu_1 + 2\nu_2 - 4)(\nu_2 + 10) \Lambda_1^2 \right. \\ &\quad \left. + 4\nu_1^2(\nu_2 + 10) \Lambda_1^3 + \frac{\nu_1^3(\nu_2 + 10)}{(\nu_1 + \nu_2 - 2)} \Lambda_1^4 \right]. \quad (30.3d) \end{aligned}$$

Reciprocal moments of  $F'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1)$  are as follows:

For  $\nu_1 > 2r$  and even,

$$\begin{aligned}
 E\left[\{F'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1)\}^{-r}\right] &= \left(\frac{\nu_1}{\nu_2}\right)^r (-1)^{r-(\nu_1/2)} \frac{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu_2 + r)}{\Gamma(r)\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu_2)} \\
 &\times \sum_{s=0}^{r-1} \binom{r-1}{s} \left(\frac{1}{2}\lambda_1\right)^{s-(\nu_1/2)+1} \Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1 - s - 1\right) \\
 &\times \left\{ e^{-\lambda_1/2} - \sum_{t=0}^{(\nu_1/2)-s-2} \frac{(-\frac{1}{2}\lambda_2)^t}{t!} \right\}. \tag{30.4a}
 \end{aligned}$$

For  $\nu_1 > 2r$  and odd,

$$\begin{aligned}
 E\left[\{F'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1)\}^{-r}\right] &= \left(\frac{\nu_1}{\nu_2}\right)^r (-1)^{r-\frac{1}{2}(\nu_1-1)} \frac{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu_2 + r)}{\Gamma(r)\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu_2)} \\
 &\times \sum_{s=0}^{r-1} \binom{r-1}{s} \left(\frac{1}{2}\lambda_1\right)^{s-(\nu_1/2)+1} \Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1 - s - 1\right) \\
 &\times \left\{ 2\pi^{-1/2} D\left(\left(\frac{1}{2}\lambda_1\right)^{1/2}\right) - \left(\frac{1}{2}\lambda_1\right)^{1/2} \sum_{t=0}^{\frac{1}{2}(\nu_1-5)-s} \frac{(-\frac{1}{2}\lambda_1)^t}{\Gamma(t + \frac{3}{2})} \right\} \tag{30.4b}
 \end{aligned}$$

where

$$D(y) = e^{-y^2} \int_0^y e^{u^2} du$$

(the *Dawson* integral) [Bock, Judge, and Yancey (1984)]. (For  $\nu_1 \leq 2r$ , the reciprocal moment is infinite.)

We also note the characteristic function

$$e^{-\lambda_1/2} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\frac{1}{2}\lambda_1)^j}{j!} {}_1F_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1 + j; -\frac{\nu_2}{2}; -\frac{\nu_2 it}{\nu_1}\right). \tag{30.5}$$

Recall from Chapter 29 that the distribution of  $\chi_{\nu_1}^2(\lambda_1)$  can be represented as a mixture of central  $\chi_{\nu_1+2j}^2$  distributions in proportions  $e^{-\lambda_1/2}(\frac{1}{2}\lambda_1)^j/j!$  ( $j = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ ). So

$$G'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1) = \frac{\chi_{\nu_1}^2(\lambda_1)}{\chi_{\nu_2}^2} \tag{30.6}$$

is distributed as a mixture of central  $G_{\nu_1+2j, \nu_2}$  distributions [as defined in Chapter 27, Eq. (27.3)] in proportions  $e^{-\lambda_1/2} (\frac{1}{2}\lambda_1)^j / j!$  ( $j = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ ). Hence the probability density function of  $G'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1)$  is (we use  $G'$  for convenience)

$$\begin{aligned} p_{G'}(g) &= \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \left( \frac{(\frac{1}{2}\lambda_1)^j}{j!} e^{-\lambda_1/2} \right) \frac{g^{(\nu_1/2)+j-1}}{B(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1 + j, \frac{1}{2}\nu_2)(1+g)^{\frac{1}{2}(\nu_1+\nu_2)+j}} \\ &= \frac{e^{-\lambda_1/2}}{B(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1, \frac{1}{2}\nu_2)} \cdot \frac{g^{(\nu_1/2)-1}}{(1+g)^{(\nu_1+\nu_2)/2}} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \left[ \frac{\frac{1}{2}\lambda_1 g}{1+g} \right]^j \\ &\quad \times \frac{(\nu_1 + \nu_2)(\nu_1 + \nu_2 + 2) \cdots (\nu_1 + \nu_2 + 2 \cdot \overline{j-1})}{j! \nu_1 (\nu_1 + 2) \cdots (\nu_1 + 2 \cdot \overline{j-1})}, \\ &\quad 0 < g. \quad (30.7) \end{aligned}$$

The probability density function of  $F'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1) = (\nu_2/\nu_1)G'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1)$  is (using now the contraction  $F'$  for convenience)

$$\begin{aligned} p_{F'}(f) &= \frac{e^{-\lambda_1/2} \nu_1^{\nu_1/2} \nu_2^{\nu_2/2}}{B(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1, \frac{1}{2}\nu_2)} \cdot \frac{f^{(\nu_1/2)-1}}{(\nu_2 + \nu_1 f)^{(\nu_1+\nu_2)/2}} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \left( \frac{\frac{1}{2}\lambda_1 \nu_1 f}{\nu_2 + \nu_1 f} \right)^j \\ &\quad \times \frac{(\nu_1 + \nu_2)(\nu_1 + \nu_2 + 2) \cdots (\nu_1 + \nu_2 + 2 \cdot \overline{j-1})}{j! \nu_1 (\nu_1 + 2) \cdots (\nu_1 + 2 \cdot \overline{j-1})} \\ &= p_{F_{\nu_1, \nu_2}}(f) e^{-\lambda_1/2} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \left\{ \left[ \frac{\frac{1}{2}\lambda_1 \nu_1 f}{\nu_2 + \nu_1 f} \right]^j \right. \\ &\quad \left. \times \frac{(\nu_1 + \nu_2)(\nu_1 + \nu_2 + 2) \cdots (\nu_1 + \nu_2 + 2 \cdot \overline{j-1})}{j! \nu_1 (\nu_1 + 2) \cdots (\nu_1 + 2 \cdot \overline{j-1})} \right\}, \quad (30.8) \end{aligned}$$

where  $p_{F_{\nu_1, \nu_2}}(f)$  is the density function of the central F-distribution with  $\nu_1, \nu_2$  degrees of freedom. Note that while

$$p_{G'}(g) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \left[ \frac{e^{-\lambda_1/2} (\frac{1}{2}\lambda_1)^j}{j!} \right] p_{G_{\nu_1+2j, \nu_2}}(g),$$

it is not true that

$$p_{F'}(f) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \left[ \frac{e^{-\lambda_1/2} (\frac{1}{2}\lambda_1)^j}{j!} \right] p_{F_{\nu_1+2j, \nu_2}}(f).$$

The noncentral F density for  $\nu_1 = \nu_2 = 1$  is

$$p_{F'}(f) = \frac{e^{-\lambda/2}}{\pi} f^{-1/2} (1+f)^{-1} {}_1F_1\left(1; \frac{1}{2}; c\right) \\ = (e^{-\lambda/2} f^{-1/2} (1+f)^{-1} \lambda^{-1}) \{1 + 2e^c c^{1/2} D(c^{1/2})\}, \quad (30.9)$$

where  $c = (\lambda/2)f(1+f)^{-1}$  and  $D(\cdot)$  is the Dawson integral.

The cumulative distribution can be expressed in terms of an infinite series of multiples of incomplete beta function ratios:

$$\Pr[F'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1) \leq f] = \Pr\left[G'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1) \leq \frac{\nu_1}{\nu_2} f\right] \\ = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \left( \frac{[\frac{1}{2}\lambda_1]^j}{j!} e^{-\lambda_1/2} \right) \cdot I_{\nu_1 f / (\nu_2 + \nu_1 f)}\left(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1 + j, \frac{1}{2}\nu_2\right), \quad (30.10)$$

where  $I_p(a, b)$  is the incomplete beta function ratio given by  $I_p(a, b) = \int_0^p t^{a-1} (1-t)^{b-1} dt / B(a, b)$ . Since it is possible to express the incomplete beta function ratio in several different ways (Chapter 1), there is a corresponding range of different expressions for the cumulative distribution function of noncentral F. For the special case where  $\nu_2$  is an even integer, there are some quite simple expressions in finite terms. Sibuya (1967) pointed out that these can all be obtained by using the formal identity

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\frac{1}{2}\lambda_1)^j}{j!} e^{-\lambda_1/2} h(j) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\frac{1}{2}\lambda_1)^j}{j!} \Delta^j h(0) \\ \text{[cf. Eq. (29.12)', Chapter 29],} \quad (30.11)$$

with  $h(\cdot)$  an incomplete beta function ratio, together with recurrence relationships satisfied by this function.

In particular, Sibuya (1967) showed that (if  $\nu_2$  is an even integer)

$$\Pr[F'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1) \leq f] \\ = e^{-(\lambda_1/2)(1-Y)} \sum_{i=0}^{(\nu_2/2)-1} \frac{[\frac{1}{2}\lambda_1(1-Y)]^i}{i!} I_Y\left(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1 + i, \frac{1}{2}\nu_2 - i\right), \quad (30.12)$$

where  $Y = \nu_1 f / (\nu_2 + \nu_1 f)$ .



Replacing  $I_Y(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1 + i, \frac{1}{2}\nu_2 - i)$  by a polynomial, we obtain a formula given by Seber (1963):

$$\begin{aligned} & Y^{\nu_1/2} \left\{ \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \lambda_1 (1 - Y) \right] \right\} \sum_{i=0}^{(\nu_2/2)-1} (1 - Y)^i \\ & \times \sum_{j=0}^i \left\{ \binom{i + (\nu_1/2) - 1}{i - j} \frac{[\frac{1}{2} \lambda_1 Y]^j}{j!} \right\} \\ & = Y^{\nu_1/2} \left\{ \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \lambda_1 (1 - Y) \right] \right\} \sum_{i=0}^{(\nu_2/2)-1} T_i, \end{aligned} \quad (30.13)$$

where

$$T_{-1} = 0,$$

$$T_0 = 1,$$

$$\begin{aligned} T_i = i^{-1} (1 - Y) \{ & (2i - 2 + \frac{1}{2}\nu_1 + \frac{1}{2}\lambda_1 Y) T_{i-1} \\ & - (i + \frac{1}{2}\nu_1 - 2)(1 - Y) T_{i-2} \}, \\ & i = 1, 2, \dots, \frac{1}{2}\nu_2 - 1. \end{aligned}$$

This formula was obtained (in slightly different form) by Nicholson (1954) and Hodges (1955), though these authors did not give the recurrence formula for  $T_i$ . An expression of similar type, given by Wishart (1932) and Tang (1938), is

$$Y^{\frac{1}{2}(\nu_1 + \nu_2) - 1} e^{-(\lambda_1/2)(1-Y)} \sum_{i=0}^{(\nu_2/2)-1} T'_i, \quad (30.14)$$

where

$$T'_{-1} = 0,$$

$$T'_0 = 1,$$

$$\begin{aligned} T'_i = i^{-1} (Y^{-1} - 1) \{ & [\frac{1}{2}(\nu_1 + \nu_2) - i + \frac{1}{2}\lambda_1 Y] T'_{i-1} + \frac{1}{2}\lambda_1 (1 - Y) T'_{i-2} \} \\ & i = 1, 2, \dots, \frac{1}{2}\nu_2 - 1. \end{aligned}$$

Equations (30.12)-(30.14) apply only where  $\nu_2$  is an even integer. Price (1964) obtained some finite expressions which are applicable when  $\nu_2$  is an odd integer. These are rather complicated, and are not reproduced here. If formula (30.11) be applied directly to (30.10), the following *infinite* series

expansion, valid for general  $\nu_2$ , is obtained:

$$\Pr[F'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1) \leq f] = I_Y(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1, \frac{1}{2}\nu_2) - \frac{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(\nu_1 + \nu_2))}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1 + 1)} Y^{\nu_1/2} (1 - Y)^{\nu_2/2} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^j}{j!} \Delta^{j-1} t_j, \tag{30.15}$$

where

$$t_1 = 1, \\ t_{j+1} = (\frac{1}{2}\nu_1 + j)^{-1} [\frac{1}{2}(\nu_1 + \nu_2) + j - 1] Y t_j.$$

This can be expressed in terms of generalized Laguerre polynomials [see Tiku (1965a)]. Tiku also obtained a more complicated but more rapidly convergent expansion than (30.15):

$$\Pr[F'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1) \leq f] = I_{Y'}(\frac{1}{2}a, \frac{1}{2}\nu_2) + \sum_{j=3}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^j}{j!} b_j \frac{Y'^{a/2} (1 - Y')^{\nu_2/2}}{B(\frac{1}{2}a, \frac{1}{2}\nu_2)} \Delta^{j-1} t_j, \tag{30.16}$$

where the  $t_j$ 's are as defined in (30.15),

$$a = (\nu_1 + \lambda_1)^2 (\nu_1 + 2\lambda_1)^{-1}, \\ Y' = 1 - \left[ 1 + \frac{\nu_1(\nu_1 + \lambda_1)}{\nu_2(\nu_1 + 2\lambda_2)} f \right]^{-1}, \\ b_3 = 2\lambda_1^2 (\nu_1 + 2\lambda_1)^{-2}, \\ b_4 = 6\lambda_1^2 (\nu_1 + 4\lambda_1) (\nu_1 + 2\lambda_1)^{-3}, \\ b_5 = 24\lambda_1^2 (\nu_1 + 6\nu_1\lambda_1 + 11\lambda_1^2) (\nu_1 + 2\lambda_1)^{-4}, \dots$$

Note that the  $b$ 's do not depend on  $\nu_2$ .

As would be intuitively be expected, it can be shown that  $\Pr[F'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1) \leq f]$  is a decreasing function of  $\lambda_1$ . The probability density function is unimodal. As  $\nu_2$  tends to infinity the distribution of  $F'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1)$  approaches that of  $\nu_1^{-1} \times$  (noncentral  $\chi^2$  with  $\nu_1$  degrees of freedom and noncentrality parameter  $\lambda_1$ ). Also, as  $\lambda_1$  tends to zero, the distribution of course tends to the (central)  $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2}$ -distribution.

Alternative expressions for the cumulative distribution function and the moment generating function were given by Venables (1975).

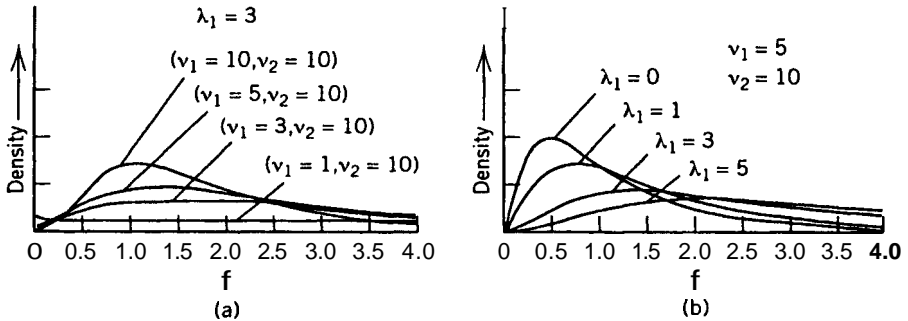


Figure 30.1a, b Noncentral F density functions

Narula and Levy (1975) provided plots (shown in Figure 30.1a) of noncentral  $F$  density for  $A = 3$  and  $(\nu_1, \nu_2) = (10, 10), (5, 10), (3, 10),$  and  $(1, 10)$ . As the number of degrees of freedom in the numerator decreases, the curves become flatter with the median, mean and mode shifting to the right. Another diagram (shown in Figure 30.1b) provided by Narula and Levy (1975) contains a series of noncentral  $F$  density curves for  $(\nu_1, \nu_2) = (5, 10)$  as the noncentrality parameter increases from  $A = 0$  to  $A = 1, A = 3,$  and  $A = 5$ . Here also the curves become flatter for larger values of  $\lambda_1$  and similar shift of location characteristics to the right takes place.

## 4 TABLES AND COMPUTER PROGRAMS

### 4.1 Tables

The earliest tables to be published were those of Tang (1938). These tables were motivated by the calculation of power functions of variance ratio tests, and they give values of  $\Pr\{F'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1) > F_{\nu_1, \nu_2, \alpha}\}$  to three decimal places for  $\alpha = 0.95, 0.99; \nu_1 = 1(1)8; \nu_2 = 2(2)6(1)30, 60, \infty,$  and  $\sqrt{\lambda_1/(\nu_1 + 1)} = 1.0(0.5)3.0(1)8$ .

The latter table is reproduced in a number of textbooks. It has been extended by Lachenbruch (1966) with values of the probability to four decimal places for the same values of  $\alpha$  and  $\nu_1 = 1(1)12(2)16(4)24, 30(10)50, 75; \nu_2 = 2(2)20(4)40(10)80;$  and  $\sqrt{\lambda_1/(\nu_1 + 1)} = 1.0(0.5)3.0(1)8$ . Lachenbruch also gave tables of percentiles  $F'_{\nu_1, \nu_2, \alpha}(\lambda_1)$  of the noncentral  $F$ -distribution for  $A = 2(2)20; \alpha = 0.01, 0.025, 0.05, 0.1, 0.5, 0.9, 0.95, 0.975, 0.99; \nu_1 = 1(1)10, 15, 20, 30, 50, 60, 120;$  and  $\nu_2 = 2(2)10(10)40, 60$ . Values are generally to four decimal places, except for  $\nu_1 = 1$  or  $\nu_2 \geq 30$ , when they are only to three significant figures. Only three significant figures are also given for  $\nu_1 = 2, 3, 4,$  with  $\nu_2 = 2; \nu_1 = 2, 3,$  with  $\nu_2 = 4; \nu_1 = 2$  with  $\nu_2 = 6$  and  $\nu_1 = 120$  with  $\nu_2 = 30$ .

**Pearson and Hartley (1951)** gave graphical representations of Tang's tables, in the form of power functions of analysis of variance tests. **Patnaik (1949)** has published a chart showing the relations among  $\alpha$ ,  $\nu_1$ , and  $\nu_2$  implied by the constraints

$$\Pr[F'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1) \geq F_{\nu_1, \nu_2, \alpha}] = \beta \quad (30.17)$$

for  $\alpha = 0.95$ ,  $\beta = 0.5$  or  $0.9$ . **Fox (1956)** gave charts showing contours of  $\phi = \sqrt{\lambda/(\nu_1 + 1)}$  in the  $(\nu_1, \nu_2)$  plane when (30.17) is satisfied, for  $\alpha = 0.95$ ,  $0.99$ , and  $\beta = 0.5(0.1)0.9$ .

**Lehmer (1944)** gave values of  $\phi$  to three decimal places for  $\alpha = 0.95, 0.99$ ;  $\beta = 0.2, 0.3$ , with  $\nu_1 = 1(1)9$  and  $120/\nu_1 = 1(1)6(2)12$ ,  $\nu_2 = 2(2)18$  and  $240/\nu_2 = 1(1)4(2)12$ . There is also a table of this kind published by **Ura (1954)**. It gives  $\sqrt{\lambda/\nu_1}$  to two decimal places for  $\alpha = 0.95$ ,  $\beta = 0.90$ , with  $\nu_1 = 1(1)9$  and  $120/\nu_1 = 0(1)6(2)12$ ,  $\nu_2 = 2(2)18$  and  $120/\nu_2 = 0(1)6$ .

**Tiku (1967)** gave values of  $\Pr[F'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1) > F_{\nu_1, \nu_2, 1-\alpha}]$  to four decimal places for  $\alpha = 0.005, 0.01, 0.025, 0.05$ ;  $\nu_1 = 1(1)10, 12$ ;  $\nu_2 = 2(2)30, 40, 60, 120, \infty$ ;  $[\lambda_1/(\nu_1 + 1)]^{1/2} = 0.5(0.5)3.0$ .

## 4.2 Computer Programs

**Bargmann and Ghosh (1964)** reported a FORTRAN program that computes the probability density and cumulative distribution functions of noncentral F-distributions. **Fleishman (1980)** reported on a program with similar capabilities, for which he used **Venables (1975)** representation. Several effective and easy-to-use recursive algorithms for evaluating incomplete beta function ratios (Chapter 25) and noncentral beta distribution functions can be applied. The first published algorithms specifically for computing noncentral F (or, equivalently, beta distribution functions) are due to **Norton (1983)**, followed by **Schader and Schmid (1986)** and **Lenth (1987)**. These algorithms all involve "accurate routines" for computing incomplete beta function ratios, notably an early example constructed by **Majumder and Bhattacharjee (1973)**.

All of the algorithms actually use the incomplete noncentral beta function ratio (see Section 7)

$$I_x(a, b; \lambda_1) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \left[ e^{-\lambda_1/2} \frac{(\frac{1}{2}\lambda_1)^j}{j!} \right] I_x(a + j, b), \quad (30.18)$$

where  $I_x(a, b)$  is the usual incomplete beta function ratio [Chapter 1, Eq. (1.91)]. Some of the algorithms have different error bounds for the difference,  $E$ , between the exact value and the value obtained by truncating the summation in (30.18) at  $j = r$ ; some have different procedures for evaluating the incomplete beta function.

Norton (1983) used the bound

$$(0 <) E_r < \left[ \frac{1}{(r+1)!} \left( \frac{1}{2} \lambda_1 \right)^{r+1} \right] I_x(a+r+1, b) \min \left\{ 1, e^{-\lambda_1/2} + \frac{\lambda_1}{2r+4} \right\} \quad (30.19a)$$

This bound was previously used by Guenther (1978). Lenth (1987) improved this bound to

$$(0 <) E_r < I_x(a+r+1, b) \left[ 1 - \sum_{j=0}^r \left\{ e^{-\lambda_1/2} \frac{\left( \frac{1}{2} \lambda_1 \right)^j}{j!} \right\} \right] \quad (30.19b)$$

and Wang (1992) increased the lower bound to  $e^{-\lambda_1/2} (\frac{1}{2} \lambda_1)^{r+1} / (r+1)!$

Schader and Schmid (1986) and Lenth (1987) avoided the expenditure of time necessary to calculate the quantities  $I_x(a+j, b)$  in (30.18) for  $j = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ , by repeated use of the relation

$$I_x(a+1, b) = I_x(a, b) - \frac{\Gamma(a+b)}{\Gamma(a+1)\Gamma(b)} x^a (1-x)^b$$

[cf. Chapter 25, Eq. (25.72a)] (30.20)

[as well as, of course,  $\Gamma(a+1) = a\Gamma(a)$ ]. Frick (1990) has commented on Lenth's work, noting that good results can be expected for  $A$ , small, but for  $A$ , large, a large number of terms must be used in the summation in (30.18) (i.e.,  $r$  must be large). Frick suggested omitting the first  $s$  terms in the summation as well as those with  $j$  greater than  $r$ . The additional error arising from omitting the first  $s$  terms is bounded by

$$I_x(a, b) \Phi \left( \sqrt{\frac{2}{\lambda_1}} \left( s - \frac{1}{2} \lambda_1 \right) \right) \leq \Phi \left( \sqrt{\frac{2}{\lambda_1}} \left( s - \frac{1}{2} \lambda_1 \right) \right), \quad (30.21)$$

since

$$\Pr[Y \leq k] \leq \Phi \left( \frac{k - \theta}{\sqrt{\theta}} \right)$$

if  $Y$  has a Poisson ( $\theta$ ) distribution (see Chapter 4). To ensure that the introduced error is less than a specified amount  $\delta$ , we have to take

$$s \leq \max \left( \frac{1}{2} \lambda_1 - U_\delta \sqrt{\frac{\lambda_1}{2}}, 0 \right), \quad (30.22)$$

**Table 30.1** Values of  $r + 1$  needed to achieve error bounds  $10^{-8}$  and  $10^{-10}$ 

Error Bound	Value of $A$ ,								
	0.5	1.0	2.0	4	6	8	10	15	20
$10^{-8}$	6	8	11	14	17	20	22	27	32
$10^{-10}$	8	10	12	16	19	22	25	31	36

where  $\Phi(U_\delta) = 6$ . For example, taking  $U_\delta = -5$ , we have  $\delta = 0.0000003$ . Then  $s \leq \frac{1}{2}\lambda_1 - 5\sqrt{\lambda_1/2}$  is clearly adequate.

Apart from this modification, Lenth's algorithm has been somewhat elaborated by **Posten** (1993) who applied a similar technique to one he used with noncentral chi-square distributions, see Chapter 29. **Posten** suggested starting from a value for  $j$  approximately equal to  $\frac{1}{2}\lambda_1$  and then working "outward" (increasing and decreasing  $j$ ) until the sum of the Poisson multipliers

$$P(r, s) = \sum_{j=s}^r \left\{ e^{-\lambda_1/2} \frac{(\frac{1}{2}\lambda_1)^j}{j!} \right\} \quad (30.23)$$

is sufficiently close to 1. If  $P(r, s) \geq 1 - \epsilon$ , then the error in using  $\sum_{j=s}^r$  in place of  $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty}$  in (30.18) is not greater than  $\epsilon$ .

Lee (1992) noted that the error in taking  $\sum_{j=s}^r$  in place of  $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty}$  in (30.18) is bounded by (30.19b) and he provided a table (Table 30.1) that gives the number of terms ( $r + 1$ ) needed to achieve various error bounds.

The method for evaluating  $I_x(a, b; A)$  used in IMSL (1987) for  $0.5 < A, < 20$  when  $\max(a, b) < 200$  is less than half as efficient (in CPU time) as Lee's. However, Lee's approach requires evaluation of  $r + 1$  incomplete beta function ratios, whereas **Posten's** and Lenth's approaches need only one such computation. Singh and Relyea (1992) followed similar lines to Lenth (1987) and **Posten** (1993), and they used Guenther's (1978) error bound (30.19a). They differed in using explicit expressions for the incomplete beta function ratios.

As the preceding discussion illustrates—even without technical details—clear examples of multiplication and overlap of results are prevalent in the statistical literature, especially in the area of statistical algorithms. Much of it is due to lack of coordination, almost identical publication in different journals, and unjustified publication of results providing "epsilon" improvement.

## 5 APPROXIMATIONS

From formula (30.2) we can see that approximations to noncentral  $\chi^2$ -distributions can be used to give approximations to noncentral F-distributions. Thus the simple approximation to the distribution of  $\chi_{\nu_1}^{\prime 2}(\lambda_1)$  by that of  $c\chi_{\nu_1}^2$ ,

with  $c = (\nu_1 + 2\lambda_1)(\nu_1 + \lambda_1)^{-1}$ ;  $\nu = (\nu_1 + \lambda_1)^2(\nu_1 + 2\lambda_1)^{-1}$  gives an approximation to the distribution of  $F'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1)$  by that of  $(c\nu/\nu_1)F_{\nu, \nu_2} = (1 + \lambda_1\nu_1^{-1})F_{\nu, \nu_2}$ . (Note the need for the factor  $\nu/\nu_1$ .) The accuracy of this approximation has been studied by Patnaik (1949). Of course the distribution of  $F_{\nu, \nu_2}$  itself may also be approximated by one of the methods described in Chapter 27, leading to a composite approximation to the distribution of  $F'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(A_1)$ . Thus, using Paulson's approximation, Severo and Zelen (1960) were led to suggest

$$\frac{\left(1 - \frac{2}{9\nu_2}\right) [\nu_1 F' / (\nu_1 + \lambda_1)]^{1/3} - \left[1 - [2(\nu_1 + 2\lambda_1)/9](\nu_1 + \lambda_1)^{-2}\right]}{\left\{ [2(\nu_1 + 2\lambda_1)/9](\nu_1 + \lambda_1)^{-2} + (2\nu_2^{-1}/9) \left[ \frac{\nu_1 F'}{(\nu_1 + \lambda_1)} \right]^{2/3} \right\}^{1/2}} \quad (30.24)$$

as approximately having a unit normal distribution. Laubscher (1960) also independently derived this result and compared it with that obtained by using Fisher's square root approximations to the distributions of the  $\chi^2$ 's and  $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2}$ , namely

$$\begin{aligned} & (2\nu_2 - 1)^{1/2} \left( \frac{\nu_1 F'}{\nu_2} \right)^{1/2} - \left\{ \frac{2(\nu_1 + \lambda_1) - (\nu_1 + 2\lambda_1)}{\nu_1 + \lambda_1} \right\}^{1/2} \\ & \times \left\{ \frac{\nu_1 F'}{\nu_2} + \frac{\nu_1 + 2\lambda_1}{\nu_1 + \lambda_1} \right\}^{-1/2} \end{aligned} \quad (30.25)$$

approximately unit normal. Laubscher (1960) compared values of  $\text{Pr}\{F'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1) < f\}$  as approximated by (30.24) and (30.25) with the exact values for the choices of parameters

$\nu_1$	$\nu_2$	$\lambda_1$
3	10, 20	4, 16
5	10, 20	6, 24
8	10, 30	9, 36

with  $f = F_{\nu_1, \nu_2, \alpha}$ ;  $\alpha = 0.95, 0.99$ .

Despite the fact that the Wilson-Hilferty transformation, on which (30.24) is based, is generally more accurate than Fisher's transformation, on which (30.25) is based, the latter approximation is slightly more accurate than the former. The position was reversed for the larger values of  $f$  and  $A_1$ .

However, a similar comparison, carried out by Fowler (1984) for  $\nu_1 = 1(1)6, 8, 12, 24$ , and  $\nu_2 = 6(2)30, 40, 60, 120$ , and 240, with  $\lambda_1^2/\nu_1 = 0.1, 0.25, 0.4$ , and he found that (30.24) was generally superior, at least in the lower tail

$[F(f; \nu_1, \nu_2, A) \leq 0.5]$  for  $\nu_1 \leq 6$ . [Cohen (1977) unfortunately relied more often on (30.25) in his power analyses because it appeared to be somewhat better than (30.24) except for small  $\nu_1$ ,  $\nu_2$ , and  $\lambda_1$ . See also Cohen and Nel (1987).]

Laubscher (1960) considered

$$\left( \frac{1}{2} \nu_2 - 2 \right)^{1/2} \cosh^{-1} \left[ \frac{\nu_1 (\nu_2 - 2)^{1/2} (F' + (\nu_2 / \nu_1))}{\nu_2 (\nu_1 + \nu_2 - 2)^{1/2}} \right] \quad (30.26)$$

as a possible transformation to unit normal—based on approximate variance-equalizing property—but the result was accurate only for very large  $A$ . Tiku (1966) obtained quite good results by fitting the distribution of  $F'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1)$  by that of  $(b + cF'_{\nu, \nu_2})$ , choosing  $b$ ,  $c$ , and  $\nu$  so as to make the first three moments agree. The values that do this are

$$\begin{aligned} \nu &= \frac{1}{2} (\nu_2 - 2) \left[ \sqrt{\frac{H^2}{H^2 - 4K^3}} - 1 \right], \\ c &= \left( \frac{\nu'_1}{\nu_1} \right) (2\nu'_1 + \nu_2 - 2)^{-1} \left( \frac{H}{K} \right), \\ b &= -\nu_2 (\nu_2 - 2)^{-1} (c - 1 - \lambda_1 \nu_1^{-1}), \end{aligned} \quad (30.27)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} H &= 2(\nu_1 + \lambda_1)^3 + 3(\nu_1 + \lambda_1)(\nu_1 + 2\lambda_1)(\nu_2 - 2) + (\nu_1 + 3\lambda_1)(\nu_2 - 2)^2, \\ K &= (\nu_1 + \lambda_1)^2 + (\nu_2 - 2)(\nu_1 + 2\lambda_1). \end{aligned}$$

On the other hand, Mudholkar, Chaubey, and Lin (1976) first approximated the equivalent degrees of freedom ( $\nu$ ) for  $\chi_{\nu_1}^2(\lambda_1)$  by

$$\nu = \frac{(\nu_1 + 2\lambda_1)^3}{(\nu_1 + 3\lambda_1)^2} \quad [\text{cf. Chapter 29, Eq. (29.60)}], \quad (30.28a)$$

and then they chose  $c$  and  $b$  to give the correct first two moments of  $F'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1)$ , leading to

$$\begin{cases} c = \left( \frac{\nu}{\nu_1} \right) \{ \nu^2 + (\nu_2 - 2) \}^{-1/2} \{ (\nu_2 - 2)(\nu_1 + 2\lambda_1) + (\nu_1 + \lambda_1)^2 \}^{1/2}, \\ b = -\nu_2 (\nu_2 - 2)^{-1} (c - 1 - \lambda_1 \nu_1^{-1}). \end{cases} \quad (30.28b)$$

This appeared to be better for the right tail (larger values of  $f$ ) than Tiku's



approximation (30.271, but the position was reversed in the left tail (lower values). Generally the two approximations were of comparable accuracy.

Tiku (1966) found that his approximation [with  $b$ ,  $c$ , and  $v$  given by (30.27)] was better than Severo and Zelen's (30.24) or Patnaik's. Of the latter two, Severo and Zelen's seems to be the easier one to compute, although slightly less accurate than Patnaik's for large  $\nu_2$ .

Pearson and Tiku (1970) analyzed the relation between noncentral and central F-distributions by plotting the  $(\beta_1, \beta_2)$  for the two classes of distributions. They discovered that "(a) for a given  $\nu_2$ , the  $(\beta_1, \beta_2)$  points for the distribution of central F appeared to lie very close to a straight line; (b) again, for the same  $\nu_2$ , the beta points for  $F'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1)$  lay very nearly on the line (a), converging on to it as either  $\nu_1$  or  $A$ , were increased."

They noted that Tiku's three-moment approximation (30.27) involves the use of the correct  $\beta_1$  but an incorrect  $\beta_2$ . The differences in the values of  $\beta_2$  become very small as either  $\phi = \sqrt{\lambda/(\nu_2 + 1)}$  or  $\nu_1$  increases. Errors of 0.15 or less in  $\beta_2$  will rarely affect the position of upper percentage points by more than 1/100 of the standard deviation, but they do affect the lower percentage points rather substantially, by as much as 3/100 or 4/100 of the standard deviation at the 0.5 and 1.0% points. (A better approximation in the lower tail could probably be obtained by using a distribution having the correct first *four* moments when value of  $\beta_1$  is greater than 4.)

By analogy with the central F-distribution, one might expect to obtain useful approximations by considering the distribution of

$$Z'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1) = \frac{1}{2} \log F'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1) \quad (\text{i.e., the noncentral } Z \text{ distribution.})$$

Since  $Z' = Z'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1) = \frac{1}{2} \log(\nu_2/\nu_1) + \frac{1}{2} \log \chi'^2_{\nu_1}(\lambda_1) - \frac{1}{2} \log \chi^2_{\nu_2}$ , the cumulants of  $Z'$  are

$$\begin{aligned} \kappa_1(Z') &= \frac{1}{2} \left[ \log \left( \frac{\nu_2}{\nu_1} \right) + \kappa_1(\chi'^2_{\nu_1}(\lambda_1)) - \kappa_1(\chi^2_{\nu_2}) \right], \\ \kappa_r(Z') &= 2^{-r} \left[ \kappa_r(\chi'^2_{\nu_1}(\lambda_1)) + (-1)^r \kappa_r(\chi^2_{\nu_2}) \right], \quad r \geq 2. \end{aligned} \quad (30.29)$$

Barton, David, and O'Neill (1960) gave formulas to aid in the computation of  $\kappa_r(\chi'^2_{\nu_1}(\lambda_1))$  and utilized them in calculating the power function of the F-test, by fitting Edgeworth series to the distribution of  $Z'$ .

Pearson (1960) obtained good results by fitting the distributions of  $Z'$  by  $S_r$  distributions (see Chapter 12, Section 4.3). [It should be noted that Tiku (1965a) stated incorrectly that Pearson fitted  $F'$ -distributions by  $S_r$  distributions.] However, the computations of the cumulants of  $Z'$  is rather laborious. In Barton, David, and O'Neill (1960) where details are given, the cumulants are expressed in terms of polygamma functions [Chapter 1, Eq. (1.39)] and special 9-functions, tabulated in the article.

Noting that

$$\Pr[F'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1) \leq f] = \Pr \left[ \left\{ \nu_1^{-1} \chi'^2_{\nu_1}(\lambda_1) \right\}^{1/3} - f^{1/3} (\nu_2^{-1} \chi^2_{\nu_2})^{1/3} \leq 0 \right], \quad (30.30)$$

and that  $\{\chi_{\nu_1}^2(\lambda_1)\}^{1/3}$  and  $\{\chi_{\nu_2}^2\}^{1/3}$  may be well approximated by normal distributions, Mudholkar, Chaubey, and Lin (1976) suggested using an Edgeworth expansion for the distribution of

$$V = \left\{ \nu_1^{-1} \chi_{\nu_1}^2(\lambda_1) \right\}^{1/3} - f^{1/3} \left( \nu_2^{-1} \chi_{\nu_2}^2 \right)^{1/3} \quad (30.31)$$

making use of Aty's (1954) expressions for cumulants of cube roots of noncentral chi-square variables. (They actually used the first three terms of the expressions in their calculations.)

## 6 ESTIMATION OF THE NONCENTRALITY PARAMETER A,

Considerable attention has been devoted to estimation of the noncentrality parameter A, from a single observed value  $F'$  of a  $F'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1)$  variable ( $\nu_1$  and  $\nu_2$  being known). The major part of this section will describe results of these efforts. At the conclusion of the section, there is a short discussion of maximum likelihood estimation based on  $n$  independent observed values  $F'_1, F'_2, \dots, F'_n$ .

The uniformly minimum variance unbiased estimator of A, is

$$\lambda_1^* = \nu_1 \nu_2^{-1} (\nu_2 - 2) F' - \nu_1 \quad (30.32)$$

[Perlman and Rasmussen (1975)]. Unfortunately, it is not always positive, and so is inadmissible. Chow (1987) showed that

$$(\lambda_1^*)_+ = \begin{cases} \nu_1 \nu_2^{-1} (\nu_2 - 2) F' - \nu_1 & \text{if } F' > \nu_2 (\nu_2 - 2)^{-1} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (30.33)$$

is also inadmissible. With expected square error as criterion, any estimator of form  $a\{\nu_2^{-1}(\nu_2 - 2)F' - 1\}_+$  is inadmissible. The estimator  $a\{\nu_2^{-1}(\nu_2 - 1)F' - 1\}$  dominates  $\lambda_1^*$  for all A, provided that

$$\max\left(0, \frac{\nu_2 - 6}{\nu_2 - 2}\right) \leq a \leq 1.$$

Rukhin (1993) has investigated linear functions of  $F'$  as estimators of A. For analytical purposes it is convenient to replace  $F'$  by  $G' = \nu_1 F' / \nu_2$  distributed as  $G'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1)$ . The expected quadratic error of  $aG' + b$  is

$$\begin{aligned} E[(aG' + b - \lambda_1)^2] &= 2(\nu_2 - 2)^{-1} (\nu_2 - 4)^{-1} \left\{ \nu_1 + 2\lambda_1 + \frac{1}{2}(\nu_1 + \lambda_1)^2 \right\} a^2 \\ &\quad + 2(\nu_2 - 2)^{-1} (\nu_1 + \lambda_1) a(b - A) + (b - \lambda_1)^2, \\ &\quad \nu_2 > 4. \end{aligned} \quad (30.34)$$

Calculations show that any estimator with  $a > \nu_2 - 4$  is improved by taking  $a = \nu_2 - 4$ . If  $\nu_2 \leq 4$ , the estimator  $aG' + b$  has infinite expected quadratic error and is therefore inadmissible. [See also Rasmussen (1973).]

Bayesian estimator of  $A$ , was discussed by Perlman and Rasmussen (1975) and DeWaal (1974). If  $A$ , has, as prior distribution, that of  $\gamma\chi_n^2(\gamma > 0)$ , then under quadratic loss the Bayesian estimator is

$$\frac{\gamma}{1 + \gamma} \cdot \frac{\gamma(\nu_1 + \nu_2)\nu_1 F' / \nu_2}{1 + \gamma + (\nu_1 F' / \nu_2)}. \quad (30.35)$$

As  $\gamma \rightarrow \infty$ , we obtain the improper Bayesian estimator

$$\nu_1(\nu_1 + \nu_2)\nu_2^{-1}F' + \nu_1. \quad (30.36)$$

Both (30.35) and (30.36) have larger mean square errors than

$$\nu_1(\nu_2 - 4)\{\nu_2^{-1}F' - (\nu_2 - 2)^{-1}\}. \quad (30.37)$$

Perlman and Rasmussen (1975) noted that any *proper* prior distribution (no matter how diffuse) yields a Bayes estimator that is closer to (30.37) than to either (30.35) or (30.36). Indeed these two estimators cannot be less than  $\nu_1$ , which seems very strange.

For  $(\nu_1, \nu_2) \geq 5$  the estimator

$$a\nu_1\{\nu_2^{-1}(\nu_2 - 2)F' - 1\} + b\nu_1^{-1}\nu_2 F'^{-1} \quad (30.38)$$

has lower mean square error than

$$a\nu_1\{\nu_2^{-1}(\nu_2 - 2)F' - 1\} \quad (30.39)$$

if  $0 < b < 4\nu_2^{-1}(\nu_2 + 2)^{-1}(\nu_1 - 4)(\nu_1 + \nu_2 - 2)a$  for all  $a > 0$ . Perlman and Rasmussen (1975) recommended using the values

$$a = (\nu_2 - 2)^{-1}(\nu_2 - 4),$$

$$b = 2\nu_2^{-1}(\nu_2 + 2)^{-1}(\nu_2 - 2)^{-1}(\nu_1 - 4)(\nu_2 - 4)(\nu_1 + \nu_2 - 2). \quad (30.40)$$

They also remarked that the introduction of improper prior distributions may be the reason that the estimators (30.35) and (30.36) appear to be so strange. [See also Efron (1970, 1973).] Gelfand (1983) has studied methods of searching for appropriate prior distributions.

We now consider construction of a confidence interval for  $\lambda_1$ , based on a single observed value  $F'$ . Venables (1975) suggested a method for constructing a confidence interval for  $A$ , that is similar to the one he proposed for

estimating the noncentrality parameter of a noncentral chi-square distribution [Chapter 29, Eqs. (29.47) et seq.]. Analogously to Eq. (29.47) of Chapter 29, he constructed a confidence distribution for  $\lambda_1$ , given an observed value  $F'$  of a  $F'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1)$  variable, with cdf

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[F_{\nu_1, \nu_2} > F'] + p(F'; \nu_1, \nu_2, 0) \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{\left\{\frac{1}{2}(\nu_1 + \nu_2)\right\}^{1j-1}}{\left(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1\right)^{1j}} \cdot \left(\frac{2}{\nu_2}\right)^{j-1} \\ \times \frac{\left(\frac{1}{2}F'\right)^j}{\left(1 + \nu_2^{-1}F'\right)^{j-1}} \Pr[\chi_{2j}^2 \leq \lambda_1]. \end{aligned} \quad (30.41)$$

The moment-generating function corresponding to (30.41) is

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[F_{\nu_1, \nu_2} > F'] + \left\{1 - \frac{2F't}{\nu_2(1-2t)}\right\}^{-\nu_2+(1/2)} (1-2t)^{(\nu_1/2)-1} \\ \times F\left(\frac{F'}{1-2(1+\nu_2^{-1}F')}; \nu_1, \nu_2, 0\right), \end{aligned} \quad (30.42)$$

which Venables approximated by

$$\left\{1 - \frac{2F't}{\nu_2(1-2t)}\right\}^{-\nu_2/2} (1-2t)^{(\nu_1/2)-1}, \quad (30.43)$$

giving approximate cumulants

$$\begin{aligned} \kappa_r^* &= 2^{r-1}(r-1)! \left\{ \nu_2(1 + \nu_2^{-1}F')^r - \nu_1 - \nu_2 + 2 \right\} \\ &= 2^{r-1}(r-1)! \left\{ rF' - \nu_1 + 2 + O(\nu_2^{-1}) \right\} \end{aligned} \quad [\text{cf. Eq. (29.50) of Chapter 29}]. \quad (30.44)$$

However, he did not proceed to develop a Cornish-Fisher-type expansion for quantiles (confidence limits) for  $A$ , (as he did for  $A$  in Chapter 29), but he suggested instead fitting a distribution using the first few approximate moments.

Guirguis (1990), wishing to solve the equation

$$\Pr[F'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1) \leq F'] = \alpha \quad (30.45)$$

for  $A$ , uses an iterative method based on the formula

$$\frac{\partial \Pr[F'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1) \leq F']}{\partial \lambda_1} = \frac{1}{2} \left\{ \Pr \left[ F'_{\nu_1+2, \nu_2}(\lambda_1) \geq \frac{\nu_1 F'}{\nu_1 + 2} \right] - \Pr [F'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1) \geq F'] \right\}. \quad (30.46)$$

For  $F' > 0$ ,  $\partial \Pr[F'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1) \leq F'] / \partial \lambda_1$  is negative, and there is no solution to (30.45) if  $F' < F'_{\nu_1, \nu_2, \alpha}$ . If this is not so, there is a unique solution of (30.45) since  $\Pr[F'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1) \leq F'] \rightarrow 0$ , as  $A \rightarrow \infty$ .

Guirguis uses a modification of linear-Newton (L-Newton) iteration, which he terms exponential-Newton (E-Newton). In seeking a solution of the equation

$$g(x) = \alpha,$$

the  $(n+1)$ -th iterate  $x_{n+1}^E$  is calculated as

$$x_{n+1}^E = x_n^E + \frac{g(x_n^E)}{g'(x_n^E)} \log \left( \frac{\alpha}{g(x_n^E)} \right). \quad (30.47)$$

The E-Newton method is better than the L-Newton method when a good initial guess is not available.

Lam (1987) proposes an iterative procedure for computing confidence intervals for the non-centrality parameter  $A$ . A computer program written in Fortran 77 is available from the author.

Guirguis (1990) compared the L- and E-Newton methods with a quadratic-Newton (Q-Newton) method employed by Narula and Weistroffer (1986) with  $\nu_1 = 8$ ,  $\nu_2 = 2$ ,  $\alpha = 0.01$ ,  $F' = 0.5(1)9.5$ , and he found that the E-Newton converges faster than L-Newton for  $F' = 0.5$  and 1; both are about the same for  $F' > 1$ . Q-Newton is much slower than either L- or E-Newton.

If  $n$  independent random variables  $G'_1, \dots, G'_n$  have a common distribution  $\chi_{\nu_1}^2(\lambda_1) / \chi_{\nu_2}^2$ , with  $\nu_1$  and  $\nu_2$  known, the maximum likelihood estimator  $\hat{A}$ , of  $A$ , is the solution of the equation

$$n = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\nu_1 G'_i}{2 + \nu_1 G'_i} \cdot \frac{{}_2F_0\left(\frac{1}{2}(\nu_1 + \nu_2), \frac{1}{2}\nu_1; \hat{\lambda}_1 \nu_1 G'_i (\nu_2 + \nu_1 G'_i)^{-1}\right)}{{}_2F_0\left(\frac{1}{2}(\nu_1 + \nu_2), \frac{1}{2}\nu_1; \hat{\lambda}_1 \nu_1 G'_i (\nu_2 + \nu_1 G'_i)^{-1}\right)}, \quad (30.48)$$

where

$${}_2F_0(a, b; x) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{a^{[j]} x^j}{b^{[j]} j!}$$

is the confluent hypergeometric function (Chapter 1, Section A7). Pandey and Rahman (1971) proved the uniqueness of a positive solution of (30.48) provided

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\nu_1 F'_i}{\nu_2 + \nu_1 F'_i} > \frac{n\nu_1}{\nu_1 + \nu_2}.$$

## 7 RELATED DISTRIBUTIONS

### 7.1 Doubly Noncentral F-Distributions

The *doubly noncentral F-distribution* defined by (30.1) has already been noted. Using the representation of each of the noncentral  $\chi^2$ 's as mixtures of central  $\chi^2$  distributions, we see that

$$G''_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2) = \frac{\chi_{\nu_1}^{\prime 2}(\lambda_1)}{\chi_{\nu_2}^{\prime 2}(\lambda_2)}$$

is distributed as a mixture of  $G_{\nu_1+2j, \nu_2+2k}$ -distributions in proportions  $\{e^{-\lambda_1/2}(\frac{1}{2}\lambda_1)^j/j!\} \cdot \{e^{-\lambda_2/2}(\frac{1}{2}\lambda_2)^k/k!\}$ . Hence (using the contracted forms  $F''$ ,  $G''$  for the variables) the probability density function of  $G''$  is

$$\begin{aligned} p(g; \nu_1, \nu_2; \lambda_1, \lambda_2) &= \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left[ \frac{e^{-\lambda_1/2}(\frac{1}{2}\lambda_1)^j}{j!} \right] \left[ \frac{e^{-\lambda_2/2}(\frac{1}{2}\lambda_2)^k}{k!} \right] \left[ B\left(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1 + j, \frac{1}{2}\nu_2 + k\right) \right]^{-1} \\ &\quad \times g^{(\nu_1/2)+j-1} (1+g)^{-\frac{1}{2}(\nu_1+\nu_2)-j-k}, \end{aligned} \quad (30.49)$$

and that of  $F'' (= \nu_2 G''/\nu_1)$  is

$$\begin{aligned} p(f; \nu_1, \nu_2; \lambda_1, \lambda_2) &= \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left[ \frac{e^{-\lambda_1/2}(\frac{1}{2}\lambda_1)^j}{j!} \right] \left[ \frac{e^{-\lambda_2/2}(\frac{1}{2}\lambda_2)^k}{k!} \right] \nu_1^{(\nu_1/2)+j} \nu_2^{(\nu_2/2)+k} f^{(\nu_1/2)+j-1} \\ &\quad \times (\nu_2 + \nu_1 f)^{-\frac{1}{2}(\nu_1+\nu_2)-j-k} \left[ B\left(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1 + j, \frac{1}{2}\nu_2 + k\right) \right]^{-1} \\ &= p_{F_{\nu_1, \nu_2}}(f) \cdot \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left[ \frac{e^{-\lambda_1/2}[\frac{1}{2}\lambda_1 \nu_1 f / (\nu_2 + \nu_1 f)]^j}{j!} \right] \\ &\quad \times \left[ \frac{e^{-\lambda_2/2}[\frac{1}{2}\lambda_2 \nu_2 / (\nu_2 + \nu_1 f)]^k}{k!} \right] \frac{B(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1, \frac{1}{2}\nu_2)}{B(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1 + j, \frac{1}{2}\nu_2 + k)}. \end{aligned} \quad (30.50)$$

This result was also obtained by **Malik** (1970) using a **Mellin** transform and independently in a slightly different though equivalent form, by **Bulgren** (1971).

**Pe** and **Drygas** (1994) have obtained the representations

$$\begin{aligned}
 p(f; \nu_1, \nu_2; \lambda_1, \lambda_2) &= e^{-(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)/2} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\frac{1}{2}\lambda_1)^j}{j!} {}_2F_1\left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\nu_1 - j, -j; \frac{1}{2}\nu_2; \frac{\lambda_1\nu_1 f}{\lambda_2\nu_2}\right) \\
 &\quad \times \left(\frac{\nu_1}{\nu_2}\right)^{(\nu_1/2)+j} \frac{f^{(\nu_1/2)+j-1}}{B(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1 + j, \frac{1}{2}\nu_2)(1 + \nu_1\nu_2^{-1}f)^{\frac{1}{2}(\nu_1 + \nu_2)+j}} \\
 &= e^{-(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)/2} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\frac{1}{2}\lambda_1)^j}{j!} \sum_{k=0}^j \left(\frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_2}\right)^k \binom{j}{k} \left(\frac{\nu_1}{\nu_2}\right)^{(\nu_1/2)+j+k} \\
 &\quad \times \frac{f^{(\nu_1/2)+j+k-1}}{B(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1 + j - k, \frac{1}{2}\nu_2 + k)(1 + \nu_1\nu_2^{-1}f)^{\frac{1}{2}(\nu_1 + \nu_2)+j}}, \\
 &\qquad\qquad\qquad 0 < f. \quad (30.50)'
 \end{aligned}$$

The cdf of  $G''$  is of course

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Pr[G''_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2) \leq g] \\
 &= e^{-(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)/2} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\frac{1}{2}\lambda_1)^j (\frac{1}{2}\lambda_2)^k}{j!k!} I_{g/(1+g)}\left(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1 + j, \frac{1}{2}\nu_2 + k\right). \\
 &\qquad\qquad\qquad (30.51)
 \end{aligned}$$

The cdf of  $F''$ ,  $\Pr[F''_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(A_r, \lambda_2) \leq f]$  is obtained by replacing  $g$  by  $f\nu_1\nu_2^{-1}$  on the right-hand side of (30.51).

The  $r$ th moment about zero of  $F''$  is

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mu'_r(F'') &= E[F''^r] \\
 &= \left(\frac{\nu_2}{\nu_1}\right)^r e^{-(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)/2} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\frac{1}{2}\lambda_1)^j (\frac{1}{2}\lambda_2)^k}{j!k!} E[(\chi_{\nu_1+2j}^2)^r] E[(\chi_{\nu_2+2k}^2)^{-r}] \\
 &= \left(\frac{\nu_2}{\nu_1}\right)^r e^{-(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)/2} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\frac{1}{2}\lambda_1)^j (\frac{1}{2}\lambda_2)^k}{j!k!} \\
 &\quad \times \frac{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1 + j + r)\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu_2 + k - r)}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1)\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu_2)}, \quad \nu_2 > 2r. \quad (30.52)
 \end{aligned}$$

[For  $\nu_2 \leq 2r$ ,  $\mu'_r(F'')$  is infinite.] Tiku (1972) expressed (30.52) in the form

$$\mu'_r(F'') = \mu'_r(F'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1))M(r, \frac{1}{2}\nu_2; -\frac{1}{2}\lambda_2) \tag{30.52}'$$

where  $M(a, b; x) = {}_2F_0(a, b; x) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} a^{[j]}b^{[j]}x^j/j!$  is a confluent hypergeometric function (see Chapter 1, Section A7).

Bulgren (1971) gave tables of percentile points of  $F''$ , namely values  $f = F''_{\nu_1, \nu_2, \alpha}(A, A)$  such that

$$\Pr[F''_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2) \leq f] = \alpha \tag{30.53}$$

for  $\nu_1 = 2, 4, 8; \nu_2 = 4, 15, 30, 60; a = 0.95, 0.99; \lambda_1, A = 0.5, 1.5, 2(1)6, 9, 10, 24$ . Winer's (1971) textbook contains tables of doubly noncentral  $F$ -distributions.

More extensive tables were provided by Tiku (1974). These include values of  $f$  for  $\nu_1 = 1(1)8, 10, 12; \nu_2 = 2(2)12, 16, 20, 24, 30, 40, 60; a = 0.95, 0.99; \phi_1 = \{\lambda_1/(2\nu_1 + 1)\}^{1/2} = 0(0.5)3.0; \phi_2 = \{\lambda_2/(2\nu_2 + 1)\}^{1/2} = 0(1)8$ . Another table gives values of  $\Pr[F''_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2) > f]$  for the above values of  $\phi_1$  and  $\phi_2; \nu_1 = \nu_2 = 4(2)12$  and  $(1 + \nu_1 f/\nu_2)^{-1} = 0.02(0.08)0.50, 0.60, 0.75, 0.95$ .

Tiku (1972) had investigated an approximation to the distribution of  $F''_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2)$  by that of a linear function of a central  $F$  variable. His analysis consisted of the following steps:

1. If  $(\lambda_2/\nu_2) < \frac{1}{2}$ ,  $M(r, \frac{1}{2}\nu_2; -\frac{1}{2}\lambda_2)$  converges rapidly and is approximately equal to  $(1 + \nu_2^{-1}\lambda_2)^{-r}$  and hence the  $r$ th moment of  $F''$  [see (30.52)'] is approximately equal to  $\mu'_r(F'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1))(1 + \nu_2^{-1}\lambda_2)^{-r}$ .
2. In turn the distribution of  $(F'' + a)/h$  is approximately distributed as  $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2}$  with

$$\nu = \frac{1}{2}(\nu_2 - 2) + \left[ \left\{ 1 - \frac{32(\nu_2 - 4)}{(\nu_2 - 6)^2 \beta_1} \right\}^{-1/2} - 1 \right]^{-1},$$

$$h = \frac{1}{2}\nu(\nu_2 - 2)(\nu_2 - 6)\mu_3\{\nu_2\mu_2(2\nu + \nu_2 - 2)\}^{-1},$$

and

$$a = h\nu_2(\nu_2 - 2)^{-1} - \mu'_1,$$

where  $\mu'_1, \mu_2, \mu_3$ , and  $\beta_1$  refer to the distributions of  $F''$ .

Table 30.2 is an extract from a more extensive table in Tiku (1972), showing the errors in approximate values of  $\Pr[F''_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2) > F_{\nu_1, \nu_2, 0.95}]$  for various values of  $\nu_1, \nu_2$ , and  $\phi_1$ . The errors become large for larger values of  $\phi_2$ . Tiku (1972) recommends using the exact formula if  $\lambda_2/\nu_2 > \frac{1}{2}$ .



Table 30.2 True values (1) and errors  $\times 10^4$  (2) in approximate values of  $\Pr[F_{\nu_1, \nu_2}''(\lambda_1, \lambda_2) > F_{\nu_1, \nu_2, 0.95} I]$ , with  $\nu_1 = 4$

$\nu_2$	$\phi_1$	0.0		0.5		1.0		2.0		3.0	
		(1)	(2)	(1)	(2)	(1)	(2)	(1)	(2)	(1)	(2)
8	0	0.0500	0	0.0328	-7	0.0215	-17	0.0092	-30	0.0039	-31
	1	0.2398	-1	0.2788	-18	0.1326	-52	0.0717	-119	0.0381	-15
	2	0.7714	-1	0.6886	-4	0.6070	-22	0.4562	-125	0.3301	-283
	3	0.9868	1	0.9729	-7	0.9536	28	0.8980	91	0.8222	128
24	0	0.0500	0	0.0358	-2	0.0256	-4	0.0130	-9	0.0065	-11
	1	0.3302	-1	0.2764	-1	0.2300	-6	0.1566	-28	0.1045	-52
	2	0.9192	0	0.8915	-1	0.8601	1	0.7879	7	0.7068	7
	3	0.9995	0	0.9991	0	0.9985	1	0.9963	10	0.9920	12

Approximations to the distributions of the noncentral  $\chi^2$ -distributions can be used to derive approximations to the doubly noncentral F-distributions. It is of course possible to approximate the distribution of just one of the two noncentral  $\chi^2$ 's. Thus, if the distribution of  $\chi_{\nu_2}^2(\lambda_2)$  is approximated by that of  $c'\chi_{\nu'}^2$ , with  $c' = (\nu_2 + 2\lambda_2)(\nu_2 + \lambda_2)^{-1}$  and  $\nu' = (\nu_2 + \lambda_2)^2(\nu_2 + 2\lambda_2)^{-1}$ , then the corresponding approximation to the distribution of  $F_{\nu_1, \nu_2}''(\lambda_1, \lambda_2)$  is that of  $(\nu_2/(c'\nu'))F_{\nu_1, \nu'}''(\lambda_1) = (1 + \lambda_2\nu_2^{-1})^{-1}F_{\nu_1, \nu'}''(\lambda_1)$ . If both numerator and denominator are approximated, the approximating distribution is that of

$$\frac{1 + \lambda_1\nu_1^{-1}}{1 + \lambda_2\nu_2^{-1}}F_{\nu_1, \nu'}'' \quad (30.54)$$

with  $\nu = (\nu_1 + \lambda_1)^2(\nu_1 + 2\lambda_1)^{-1}$ ;  $\nu' = (\nu_2 + \lambda_2)^2(\nu_2 + 2\lambda_2)^{-1}$ .

The doubly noncentral F-distribution is used when estimating the effect, on the power function of analysis of variance tests, of nonrandom effects in the residual variation. For example, in a standard one-way classification, if each individual in a group has a departure from the group mean, depending on the order of observation, then the residual (within group) sum of squares is distributed as a multiple of a noncentral rather than a central  $\chi^2$  variable [Scheffé (1959, pp. 134-135)].

Application of doubly noncentral F-distributions to two-way cross-classification analysis of variance is illustrated in Tiku (1972), among numerous other sources. Engineering applications are described in Wishner (1962) and Price (1964).

## 7.2 Noncentral Beta Distributions

If  $\chi_{\nu_1}^2$  and  $\chi_{\nu_2}^2$  are mutually independent, then it is known (Chapter 27) that  $\chi_{\nu_1}^2(\chi_{\nu_1}^2 + \chi_{\nu_2}^2)^{-1}$  has a standard beta distribution with parameters  $\frac{1}{2}\nu_1, \frac{1}{2}\nu_2$ . If  $\chi_{\nu_1}^2$  is replaced by the noncentral  $\chi_{\nu_1}^2(\lambda_1)$ , the resultant distribution is called a

noncentral beta distribution with (shape) parameters  $\frac{1}{2}\nu_1, \frac{1}{2}\nu_2$  and noncentrality parameter  $A$ . If both  $\chi^2$ 's are replaced by noncentral  $\chi^2$ 's, giving

$$\begin{aligned}\beta''_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2) &= \chi'^2_{\nu_1}(\lambda_1) \{ \chi'_{\nu_1}(\lambda_1) + \chi'_{\nu_2}(\lambda_2) \}^{-1} \\ &= G''_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2) \{ 1 + G''_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2) \}^{-1}, \quad (30.55)\end{aligned}$$

the corresponding distribution is a doubly noncentral beta distribution with (shape) parameters  $\frac{1}{2}\nu_1, \frac{1}{2}\nu_2$  and noncentrality parameters  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2$ . Noncentral beta distributions can be represented as mixtures of central beta distributions in the same way as noncentral F's can be represented as mixtures of central F's.

Each noncentral  $\chi^2$  may be approximated by Patnaik's approximation (Chapter 29). This leads to approximating the distribution by that of

$$\frac{(\nu_1 + 2\lambda_1)(\nu_2 + \lambda_2)}{(\nu_1 + \lambda_1)(\nu_2 + 2\lambda_2)} \times (\text{Beta variable with parameters } f, .f_2) \quad (30.56)$$

where  $f, = (\nu_j + \lambda_j)^2(\nu_j + 2\lambda_j)^{-1}$  ( $j = 1, 2$ ).

DasGupta (1968) compared this approximation with (1) an expansion using Jacobi's polynomials (see Chapter 1, Sections A6, A11) with initial beta distribution having correct first and second moments, and (2) Laguerre series expansions for each of the noncentral  $\chi^2$  distributions. He found that the Patnaik approximation was in general sufficiently accurate for practical purposes. Although approximations (1) and (2) are rather more accurate, they are more troublesome to compute.

It will be recalled that the distribution of  $\chi'^2_{\nu}(\lambda)$  is related to that of the difference between two independent Poisson variables (see Chapter 29). By a similar argument [Johnson (1959)] it can be shown that if  $\nu_1$  is even,

$$\Pr[F'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1) < f] = \Pr[Y - Z \geq \frac{1}{2}\nu_1], \quad (30.57)$$

where  $Y$  and  $Z$  are mutually independent,  $Y$  has a negative binomial distribution (Chapter 5, Section 1) with parameters  $\frac{1}{2}\nu_2, \nu_1 f / \nu_2$ , and  $Z$  has a Poisson distribution with parameter  $\frac{1}{2}\lambda_1$ . By a direct extension of this argument, we obtain the relation for the doubly noncentral F-distribution,

$$\Pr[F''_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda_1, A) < f] = \sum_{j=0}^m e^{-\lambda_2/2} \frac{(\frac{1}{2}\lambda_2)^j}{j!} \Pr\left[Y_j - Z \geq \frac{1}{2}\nu_1\right], \quad (30.58)$$

where  $Y_j$  and  $Z$  are independent,  $Y_j$  has a negative binomial distribution with parameters  $\frac{1}{2}\nu_2 + j, \nu_1 f / \nu_2$ , and  $Z$  is distributed as in (30.57).

Gupta and Onukogu (1983) derived an expression for the density of a product of two independent non-central beta variables with shape parameters  $(\frac{1}{2}\nu_1, \frac{1}{2}\nu_2)$  and  $(\frac{1}{2}\delta_1, \frac{1}{2}\delta_2)$ , and noncentrality parameters  $A$ , and  $A_*$ ,

respectively. Their representation is in terms of a Poisson weighted sum of mixtures of the corresponding central beta distributions.

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## CHAPTER 31

# Noncentral t-Distributions

### 1 DEFINITION

The distribution of the ratio

$$t'_\nu(\delta) = \frac{U + \delta}{\chi_\nu \nu^{-1/2}}, \quad (31.1)$$

where  $U$  and  $\chi_\nu$  are independent random variables distributed as standard normal [ $N(0, 1)$ ] and chi with  $\nu$  degrees of freedom, respectively, and  $\delta$  is a constant, is called the noncentral t-distribution with  $\nu$  degrees of freedom and noncentrality parameter  $\delta$ . Sometimes  $\delta^2$  (or even  $\frac{1}{2}\delta^2$ ), rather than  $\delta$ , is termed the noncentrality parameter. If  $\delta$  is equal to zero, the distribution is that of (central) t with  $\nu$  degrees of freedom, as was discussed in Chapter 28.

When there is no fear of confusion,  $\delta$  may be omitted and  $t'_\nu$  used instead of  $t'_\nu(\delta)$ . Occasionally even the  $\nu$  may be omitted, and  $t'$  used. However, whenever there is possibility of confusion—such as when two or more values of the **noncentrality** parameter are under discussion—the full symbol  $t'_\nu(\delta)$  should be used.

### 2 HISTORICAL REMARKS

The noncentral t-distribution was derived (though not under that name) by Fisher (1931), who showed how tables of repeated partial integrals of the standard normal distribution could be used in connection with this distribution. Tables given by Neyman, Iwazskiewicz, and **Kolodziejczyk** (1935) and Neyman and Tokarska (1936) were based on evaluation of probability integrals of certain noncentral t-distributions.

Tables from which percentage points of noncentral t-distributions could be obtained were given by Johnson and Welch (1940). Later tables [Resnikoff and Lieberman (1957); Locks, Alexander, and Byars (1963); Bagui (1993)] are

fuller and require less calculation. Charts based on the probability integral are given by **Pearson** and **Hartley (1954)** (see also Section 7).

Formal expressions for the distribution function are rather more complicated than those for noncentral  $\chi^2$  and F. A number of different formulas can be found in **Amos (1964)**. A number of approximations for probability integrals, and for percentage points, of noncentral t-distributions have been proposed. Comparisons of various approximations for percentage points have been made by **van Eeden (1961)** and by **Owen (1963)**. See Section 6 for more details. Computer programs for calculating percentage points have been described by **Owen and Amos (1963)** and by **Bargmann and Ghosh (1964)**. **Amos (1964)** reported on comparisons of two such computer programs. See Section 7 for more details.

### 3 APPLICATIONS AND ESTIMATION

The statistic  $\sqrt{n}(\bar{X} - \xi_0)/S$  is used in testing the hypothesis that the mean of a normal population is equal to  $\xi_0$ . If  $\bar{X} (= n^{-1}\sum_{i=1}^n X_i)$  and

$$S \left( = \sqrt{(n-1)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} \right)$$

are calculated from a random sample of size  $n$ , and the population mean is equal to  $\xi_0$ , then  $\sqrt{n}(\bar{X} - \xi_0)/S$  should be distributed as (central)  $t$  with  $n - 1$  degrees of freedom. If, however, the population mean  $\xi$  is not equal to  $\xi_0$ , then  $\sqrt{n}(\bar{X} - \xi_0)/S$  is distributed as  $t'_{n-1}(\sqrt{n}(\xi - \xi_0)/\sigma)$ , where  $\sigma$  is the population standard deviation. The power of the test is calculated as a partial integral of the probability density function of this noncentral  $t$ -distribution.

Similarly a statistic used in testing equality of means of two normal populations,  $(\Pi_1)$  and  $(\Pi_2)$  (with common, though unknown, variance  $\sigma^2$ ), using random samples of sizes  $n_1, n_2$ , respectively, is

$$\frac{\sqrt{n_1 n_2 (n_1 + n_2)^{-1}} (\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2)}{\sqrt{(n_1 + n_2 - 2)^{-1} [(n_1 - 1)S_1^2 + (n_2 - 1)S_2^2]}} \quad (31.2)$$

If the two population means are indeed equal, this statistic should be distributed as (central)  $t$  with  $(n_1 + n_2 - 2)$  degrees of freedom. But, if (mean of population  $\Pi_1$ ) - (mean of population  $\Pi_2$ ) =  $\theta$ , then the statistic is distributed as  $t'_{n_1+n_2-2}(\theta\sigma^{-1}\sqrt{n_1 n_2 (n_1 + n_2)^{-1}})$ . Here, again, the power of the test can be calculated as a partial integral of the appropriate noncentral  $t$ -distribution.



Charts giving powers of *t*-tests have been published in **Pearson and Hartley** (1954) and **Croarkin** (1962). Tables of the power function are also available in **Neyman, Iwaskiewicz, and Kolodziejczyk** (1935) and **Davies** (1954). Noncentral *t*-distributions also occur as distributions of certain test statistics in multivariate analysis [see, e.g., **Gupta and Kabe** (1992)].

It is sometimes desired to calculate confidence intervals for the ratio of population mean to standard deviation (reciprocal of the coefficient of variation). Such intervals may be computed in suitable cases by noting that if  $\bar{X}$  and  $S^2$  be calculated from a random sample of values  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  from a normal population with expected value  $\xi$  and standard deviation  $\sigma$ , then  $\sqrt{n}\bar{X}/S$  is distributed as  $t'_{n-1, \xi}(\sqrt{n}\xi/\sigma)$ . Symmetrical  $100(1 - \alpha)\%$  confidence limits for  $\xi/\sigma$  are obtained as solutions for  $\theta$  of the equations

$$t'_{n-1, \xi}(\sqrt{n}\theta) = \frac{\sqrt{n}\bar{X}}{S} \quad (31.3a)$$

and

$$t'_{n-1, 1-\xi}(\sqrt{n}\theta) = \frac{\sqrt{n}\bar{X}}{S}. \quad (31.3b)$$

[Approximations to the distribution of the sample coefficient of variation in relation to the noncentral *t*-distribution were studied by **McKay** (1932) and an accurate (to four decimal places) approximation to the percentage points in terms of the  $\chi^2$  percentage points was derived by **Iglewicz, Myers, and Howe** (1968).]

**Belobragina and Eliseyev** (1967) have constructed a nomogram that indirectly gives the lower  $100(1 - \alpha)\%$  bounds for  $\xi/\sigma$ . Actually their charts show upper bounds for  $\Phi(-\xi/\sigma)$ , given  $\bar{X}/S$ . Sample sizes included are 5, 10, 20, 50, and 100; and confidence coefficients 90%, 95%, 97%, 99%, and 99.9%.

**Rukhin** (1992) considered point estimation of  $(\xi/\sigma)^2$ . The maximum likelihood estimator is

$$\frac{n}{n-1} \left( \frac{\bar{X}}{S} \right)^2,$$

and the minimum variance unbiased estimator (for  $n > 3$ ) is

$$\frac{n-3}{n-1} \left( \frac{\bar{X}}{S} \right)^2 - \frac{1}{n}. \quad (31.4)$$

Rukhin pointed out that this estimator can be negative and so is inadmissible, and he proceeded to search for good estimators of form

$$\frac{a}{n-1} \left( \frac{\bar{X}}{S} \right)^2 + \frac{b}{n}, \quad a, b \geq 0. \tag{31.5}$$

Using mean square error as a measure of inaccuracy, Rukhin has recommended estimators of form

$$\frac{n-5}{n-1} \left( \frac{\bar{X}}{S} \right)^2 + \frac{b}{n}, \quad n > 5, b > 0, \tag{31.6}$$

for cases where  $|\xi/\sigma|$  is expected to be large. These estimators are admissible within the class of estimators (31.5), but not generally.

We now consider the problem of constructing a  $100(1-a)\%$  confidence interval for the  $100 P\%$  quantile of the distribution of  $X$ , which is  $\xi + u_p\sigma$  [with  $\xi$  and  $a$  defined as above, and  $\Phi(u_p) = P$ ]. This problem was considered by Stedinger (1983a, b) and Chowdhury and Stedinger (1991) in connection with estimating  $P^{-1}$  year flood flows in hydraulic engineering (see also below). Since  $\sqrt{n}(\bar{X} - \xi - u_p\sigma)/S$  is distributed as  $t'_{n-1}(-u_p\sqrt{n})$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr \left[ \bar{X} - t'_{n-1, 1-\frac{a}{2}}(-u_p\sqrt{n}) \frac{S}{\sqrt{n}} < \xi + u_p\sigma \right. \\ \left. < \bar{X} - t'_{n-1, \frac{a}{2}}(-u_p\sqrt{n}) \right] \xi, \sigma \\ = 1 - a. \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\left[ \bar{X} - \left\{ \frac{t'_{n-1, 1-\frac{a}{2}}(-u_p\sqrt{n})}{\sqrt{n}} \right\} S, \bar{X} - \left\{ \frac{t'_{n-1, \frac{a}{2}}(-u_p\sqrt{n})}{\sqrt{n}} \right\} S \right] \tag{31.7}$$

is a  $100(1-a)\%$  confidence interval for  $\xi + u_p\sigma$ . An equivalent formula [since  $t'_{\nu, \epsilon}(-\delta) = -t'_{\nu, 1-\epsilon}(\delta)$ ] is [Wolfowitz (1946)]

$$\left[ \bar{X} + \left\{ \frac{t'_{n-1, \frac{a}{2}}(u_p\sqrt{n})}{\sqrt{n}} \right\} S, \bar{X} + \left\{ \frac{t'_{n-1, 1-\frac{a}{2}}(u_p\sqrt{n})}{\sqrt{n}} \right\} S \right]. \tag{31.7}'$$

Tables (to three decimal places) of the multipliers of  $S$  are presented in Stedinger (1983a) for

$$1 - \alpha = 0.50, 0.90, 0.99; \quad P = 0.90, 0.98, 0.99;$$

$$n = 4(1)20, 22, 25, 27, 30(5)60(10)100.$$

[See also Chowdhury and Stedinger (1991).] Comparisons with some approximate formulas are also included in this paper, which is particularly concerned with applications in distributions of flood flows. This is one among many of the fields of application developed in recent years, broadening the already extensive bibliography (of over 100 references) in Owen (1968).

Kühlmeier's (1970) monograph also contains many examples. Here we note a few later examples. Hall and Sampson (1973) utilized (31.7) in constructing approximate tolerance limits for the distribution of the product of two independent normal variables in connection with pharmaceutical tablet manufacture. Malcolm (1984) used noncentral t-distributions in setting microbiological specifications for foods. Lahiri and Teigland (1987) found that noncentral t-distributions gave good fits to distributions of forecasters' estimates of Gross National Product and Inflation Price Deflator. Miller (1989) used noncentral t-distribution in calculating parametric empirical Bayes factors for calculating normal tolerance bounds. Dasgupta and Lahiri (1992) utilized noncentral  $t$ -distribution in one of several models they consider for interpretation of survey data.

Phillips (1993) applies noncentral t-distributions in constructing tests for hypotheses that the probability that the ratio between 'bioavailability' for a new and standard drug formulations falls between specified limits.

#### 4 MOMENTS

The  $r$ th moment of  $t'_\nu(\delta)$  about zero is

$$\begin{aligned} E[t'_\nu{}^r(\delta)] &= \nu^{r/2} E[\chi_\nu^{-r}] E[(U + \delta)^r] \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{2}\nu\right)^{r/2} \frac{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(\nu - r))}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu)} \sum_{0 \leq j \leq r/2} \binom{r}{2j} \frac{(2j)!}{2^j j!} \delta^{r-2j}. \quad (31.8) \end{aligned}$$

Hogben, Pinkham, and Wilk (1961) gave an alternative form, in which the sum is replaced by the expression  $e^{-\delta^2/2}(d/d\delta)^r(e^{\delta^2/2})$ . Merrington and

Pearson (1958) gave the following expressions:

$$\mu'_1 = \left(\frac{1}{2}\nu\right)^{1/2} \frac{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(\nu-1))}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu)} \delta, \quad (31.9a)$$

$$\text{var}(t'_\nu) = \mu_2 = \frac{\nu}{\nu-2} (1 + \delta^2) - \mu_1'^2, \quad (31.9b)$$

$$\mu_3 = \mu_1' \left\{ \frac{\nu(2\nu-3+\delta^2)}{(\nu-2)(\nu-3)} - 2\mu_2 \right\}, \quad (31.9c)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_4 = & \frac{\nu^2}{(\nu-2)(\nu-4)} (3 + 6\delta^2 + \delta^4) \\ & - \mu_1'^2 \left\{ \frac{\nu[(\nu+1)\delta^2 + 3(3\nu-5)]}{(\nu-2)(\nu-3)} - 3\mu_2 \right\}. \end{aligned} \quad (31.9d)$$

The  $r$ th central moment can be expressed as a polynomial in  $\delta^2$ :

$$\mu_r = \sum_{j=0}^{[r/2]} c_{r,r-2j}(\nu) \delta^{r-2j}.$$

Hogben, Pinkham, and Wilk (1961) provided tables of the coefficients  $c_{r,i}(\nu)$  to six significant figures for  $r = 2, 3, 4$ , and

$$\nu = 1(1)25(5)80(10)100(50)200(100)1000.$$

They also give values of  $\mu'_1/\delta$  [see (31.9a)] to six significant figures.

For  $\nu$  large (with  $\delta$  fixed)

$$\mu'_1 \doteq \delta, \quad \text{var}(t'_\nu) \doteq 1 + \frac{1}{2}\delta^2\nu^{-1}, \quad \mu_3 \doteq \nu^{-1}\delta\left[3 + \frac{5}{4}\delta^2\nu^{-1}\right],$$

and the skewness moment ratio  $\sqrt{\beta_1}$  is approximately  $\nu^{-1}\delta(3 - \delta^2\nu^{-1})$ . Note that the skewness has the same sign as  $\delta$ ; this is also true of the expected value. Further the distribution of  $t'_\nu(-\delta)$  is a mirror image (reflected at  $t'_\nu = 0$ ) of that of  $t'_\nu(\delta)$ .

The  $(\beta_1, \beta_2)$  values of the  $t'_\nu$  distribution fall in the Type IV region of the Pearson system of frequency distributions (see Chapter 12). Merrington and Pearson (1958) found the interesting approximate relation:

$$\beta_2 \doteq \frac{1.406(\nu-3.2)}{\nu-4} \beta_1 + \frac{3(\nu-2)}{\nu-4}.$$

## 5 DISTRIBUTION FUNCTION

Since the events  $t'_\nu(\delta) < 0$  and  $U + \delta < 0$  are identical,

$$\Pr[t'_\nu(\delta) < 0] = \Pr[U < -\delta] = \Phi(-\delta). \quad (31.10)$$

Also,

$$\Pr[t'_\nu(\delta) \leq t] = 1 - \Pr[t'_\nu(-\delta) \mathbf{I} -t]. \quad (31.10)'$$

The relationship

$$\Pr[t'_\nu \leq t] = \Pr\left[U + \delta \leq \frac{tX_\nu}{\sqrt{\nu}}\right]$$

leads to

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[t'_\nu \leq t] &= \frac{1}{2^{(\nu/2)-1}\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu)} \int_0^\infty x^{\nu-1} e^{-x^2/2} \\ &\quad \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_0^{tx/\sqrt{\nu}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(u-\delta)^2\right] du dx. \end{aligned} \quad (31.11)$$

The right-hand side of (31.11) can be written

$$\frac{1}{2^{(\nu/2)-1}\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu)} \int_0^\infty \left\{ x^{\nu-1} e^{-x^2/2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{(tx/\sqrt{\nu})-\delta} e^{-u^2/2} \right\} du dx. \quad (31.11)'$$

For computational purposes the following formulas, due to Kiihlmeier (1970), may be useful:

For  $\nu$  odd,

$$\Pr[t'_\nu(\delta) \mathbf{I} t] = \Phi(-\delta\sqrt{B}) + 27\left(-\delta\sqrt{B}, \frac{t}{\sqrt{\nu}}\right) + 2(M_1 + M_3 + \dots + M_{\nu-2})$$

For  $\nu$  even,

$$\Pr[t'_\nu(\delta) \leq t] = \Phi(-\delta) + 2\pi(M_0 + M_2 + \dots + M_{\nu-2}),$$

where

$$B = \nu(\nu + t^2)^{-1},$$

$$\tau(h, a) = (\sqrt{2\pi})^{-1} \int_0^a \exp\{-\frac{1}{2}h^2(1+x^2)\} dx,$$

$$M_k = (1 - k^{-1})B \left\{ a_k \delta \left( \frac{t}{\sqrt{\nu}} \right) M_{k-1} + M_{k-2} \right\},$$

with

$$\begin{aligned}
 a_k &= \{(k - 2)a_{k-1}\}^{-1} \text{ for } k \geq 3, a_1 = 1, \\
 M_{-1} &= 0, \\
 M_0 &= \left(\frac{t}{\sqrt{\nu}}\right) \sqrt{B} (\delta\sqrt{B}) \varphi(\delta\sqrt{B}) \Phi\left(\delta t \sqrt{\frac{B}{\nu}}\right), \\
 M_1 &= B \left\{ \delta M_0 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \frac{t}{\sqrt{\nu}} \varphi(\delta) \right\}, \\
 M_2 &= \frac{1}{2} B \left\{ \delta \frac{t}{\sqrt{\nu}} M_1 + M_0 \right\}, \\
 \varphi(x) &= (\sqrt{2\pi})^{-1} e^{-x^2/2} = \Phi'(x).
 \end{aligned}$$

Differentiating (31.11) with respect to  $t$  gives the probability density function

$$\begin{aligned}
 p_{t\nu}(t) &= \frac{e^{\delta^2/2}}{2^{(\nu-1)/2} \sqrt{\pi\nu} \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu)} \int_0^\infty x^\nu \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\{(1 + t^2\nu^{-1})x^2 - 2(t\nu^{1/2})x\}\right] dx \\
 &= \frac{\nu!}{2^{(\nu-1)/2} \sqrt{\pi\nu} \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu)} \left\{ \exp\left[-\frac{\nu\delta^2}{\nu + t^2}\right] \right\} \\
 &\quad \times \left(\frac{\nu}{\nu + t^2}\right)^{(\nu-1)/2} Hh_\nu\left[-\frac{\delta t}{\sqrt{\nu + t^2}}\right], \tag{31.12}
 \end{aligned}$$

where  $Hh_\nu(x) = (\nu!)^{-1} \int_0^\infty u^\nu \exp[-\frac{1}{2}(u + x)^2] du$ . See also Eq. (31.19) below. This form was given by Fisher (1931), in the introduction to Airey's (1931) tables of the  $Hh$  functions. Note that  $(\sqrt{2\pi})^{-1} Hh_\nu(x)$  is the  $\nu$ th repeated partial integral of the standard normal probability density function

$$(\sqrt{2\pi})^{-1} Hh_\nu(x) = (\sqrt{2\pi})^{-1} \int_x^\infty \int_{y_\nu}^\infty \cdots \int_{y_3}^\infty \int_{y_2}^\infty e^{-y_1^2/2} dy_1 dy_2 \cdots dy_\nu. \tag{31.13}$$

Voit and Rust (1990) point out that the  $Hh_\nu$  function can be expressed in terms of the Whittaker  $U$  function as

$$Hh_\nu(-\theta) = U\left(\nu + \frac{1}{2}, -\theta\right) e^{-\theta^2/4}, \tag{31.14}$$

where

$$U\left(\nu + \frac{1}{2}, -\theta\right) = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2^{\nu/2} \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu + 1)} (2y_1 + y_2)$$

and  $y_1$  and  $y_2$  are the odd and even solutions of the differential equation

$$\frac{d^2y}{d\theta^2} - \left(\frac{1}{4}\theta^2 + \nu + \frac{1}{2}\right)y = 0.$$

They exploit this observation to construct another, S-system, representation of noncentral t-distributions. (See the remarks on page 519.)

There are still other formulas for the distribution of  $t'_\nu(\delta)$ . First, we have

$$p_{t'_\nu}(t) = \frac{e^{-\delta^2/2} \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(\nu + 1))}{\sqrt{\pi\nu} \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu)} \left( \frac{\nu}{\nu + t^2} \right)^{(\nu+1)/2} \times \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(\nu + j + 1))}{j! \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(\nu + 1))} \left[ \frac{t\delta\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{\nu + t^2}} \right]^j. \quad (31.15)$$

This is of form  $p_{t'_\nu}(t) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} c_j [\theta(t)]^j$ , where the  $c_j$ 's are constants and  $\theta(t) = t\delta\sqrt{2}(\nu + t^2)^{-1/2}$ . The expression  $[\theta(t)]^0$  is to be interpreted as 1 for all values (including 0) of  $\theta(t)$ . If  $\delta = 0$ , the expression for  $p_{t'_\nu}(t)$  reduces to that of a (central)  $t_\nu$  density. Note that if  $\delta$  and  $t$  are of opposite signs, the series alternates in sign. The series in (31.15) can be evaluated term by term to give values for probabilities in terms of incomplete beta function ratios. If the range of integration be taken from 0 to  $t$  ( $> 0$ ), each term is positive, and

$$\Pr[0 < t'_\nu \leq t] = \frac{1}{2} e^{-\delta^2/2} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\frac{1}{2}\delta^2)^{j/2}}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}j + 1)} I_{t^2/(\nu+t^2)} \left( \frac{1}{2}(j+1), \frac{1}{2}\nu \right). \quad (31.16)$$

[See also Hawkins (1975).] Guenther (1975) provided an expansion in terms of incomplete beta function ratios (see Chapter 1, Section A6)

$$\Pr[0 < t'_\nu < t] = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \left[ p_j I_x \left( j + \frac{1}{2}, \frac{\nu}{2} \right) + q_j I_x \left( j + 1, \frac{\nu}{2} \right) \right], \quad (31.17)$$

where

$$x = \frac{t^2}{t^2 + \nu},$$

$$p_j = \frac{\frac{1}{2} e^{-\delta^2/2} (\delta^2/2)^j}{j!},$$

$$q_j = \frac{\frac{1}{2} \delta e^{-\delta^2/2} (\delta^2/2)^j}{\sqrt{2} \Gamma(j + \frac{3}{2})}.$$

This formula is suitable for pocket calculators, and the formula was used by Lenth (1989) for his computer algorithm (see Section 7).

It is possible to obtain an expansion similar to (31.16) for  $\Pr[-t < t'_\nu \leq 0]$  with  $-t < 0$ , but the terms now alternate in sign. However, probabilities of the latter kind can be evaluated from (31.16) as well as the value of  $\Pr[-t < t'_\nu \leq t]$ , which is equal to  $\Pr[t'^2_\nu \leq t^2]$ . In this case we note that  $t'^2_\nu$

has the noncentral F-distribution  $F'_{1,\nu}(\delta)$  (Chapter 30, Section 4). Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[-t \leq t'_\nu \leq t] &= e^{-\delta^2/2} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{\left(\frac{1}{2}\delta^2\right)^j}{j!} \Pr\left[F_{1+2j,\nu} < (1+2j)^{-1}t^2\right] \\ &= e^{-\delta^2/2} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{\left(\frac{1}{2}\delta^2\right)^j}{j!} I_{t^2/(\nu+t^2)}\left(j + \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\nu\right). \end{aligned} \quad (31.18)$$

If  $\nu$  is even, and  $t > 0$ ,  $\Pr[0 < t'_\nu < t]$  can be expressed as a finite sum in terms of *Hh* functions:

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[0 < t'_\nu < t] &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left[-\frac{\delta^2\nu}{2(\nu+t^2)}\right] \\ &\times \sum_{j=0}^{(\nu-2)/2} \frac{(2j)!}{2^j j!} \left[\frac{\nu}{2(\nu+t^2)}\right]^j \text{Hh}_{2j}\left[-\frac{\delta t}{\sqrt{\nu+t^2}}\right]. \end{aligned} \quad (31.19)$$

Among the formulas given by Amos (1964), one to which he gave special attention, in regard to its computing use, expresses the cumulative distribution function of  $t'_\nu$  in terms of confluent hypergeometric functions (see Chapter 1, Section A7):

$$M(a, b; x) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{\Gamma(a+j)\Gamma(b)}{\Gamma(a)\Gamma(b+j)} \frac{x^j}{j!}$$

( $b$  cannot be zero, or a negative integer). The formula (for  $\nu > 2$ ) is

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[t'_\nu \leq t] &= 1 - (\sqrt{2\pi})^{-1} \int_{-m}^{\delta\nu^{1/2}/(\nu+t^2)^{1/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}u^2\right) du \\ &+ (\sqrt{\pi})^{-1} \left[ \frac{t}{\sqrt{\nu+t^2}} \frac{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(\nu+1))}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu)} \right. \\ &\times \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{\Gamma(1-\frac{1}{2}\nu+j)}{j!(2j+1)\Gamma(1-\frac{1}{2}\nu)} \left(\frac{t^2}{\nu+t^2}\right)^j \\ &\times M\left[j + \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}; \frac{-\delta^2\nu}{2(\nu+t^2)}\right] \\ &- \frac{\delta\sqrt{\nu}}{\sqrt{2(\nu+t^2)}} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(1-\nu)+j)}{j!\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(1-\nu))} \left(\frac{t^2}{\nu+t^2}\right)^j \\ &\left. \times M\left(j + \frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2}; \frac{-\delta^2\nu}{2(\nu+t^2)}\right)\right]. \end{aligned} \quad (31.20)$$



If  $\nu$  is even, the first of the two summations contains only a finite number  $(\frac{1}{2}\nu + 1)$  of terms; if  $\nu$  is odd, the second summation contains only a finite number  $[\frac{1}{2}(\nu + 3)]$  of terms.

Hodges and Lehmann (1965) derived an asymptotic (with  $\nu \rightarrow \infty$ ) series for the power of the *t*-test (see Section 3) with  $\nu$  degrees of freedom in terms of the central moments of  $\chi_\nu/\sqrt{\nu}$ . They found that using this series for  $\nu$  "not too small" (the case  $\nu = 40$  was investigated in detail), determination of the power with sufficient precision is possible in many cases. Moreover the series is useful as an indicator of the proper interpolation procedures with respect to *S* in the noncentral *t* tables (see Section 6).

If  $t > 0$ , Guenther (1975) recommended separating the infinite sum in equation (31.20) into two sums, one for *j* odd and one for *j* even. In summing the even terms, using the identity

$$j! = \frac{2^j \Gamma[(j+1)/2] \Gamma[(j+2)/2]}{\sqrt{\pi}}$$

and putting  $t^2 = u$ , followed by  $u = (j+1)/f$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[t'_\nu > t] &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-\delta^2/2} (\delta^2/2)^j}{j!} \int_{t^2/(2j+1)}^{\infty} p(f; 2j+1, \nu) df \\ &+ \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{\delta e^{-\delta^2/2}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \frac{j! (2\delta^2)^j}{(2j+1)!} \int_{t^2/(2j+2)}^{\infty} p(f; 2j+2, \nu) df, \quad (31.21) \end{aligned}$$

where  $p(f; \nu_1, \nu_2)$  is the (central) F density with  $\nu_1, \nu_2$  degrees of freedom [Chapter 27, Eq. (27.4)]. This expression is especially suitable for pocket calculator use.

Ifram (1970) noted that the pdf of a normal random variable *X* with expected value  $\delta$  and variance 1 can be expressed as

$$\begin{aligned} p_X(x) &= \phi(x - \delta) \\ &= \phi(x) \exp(-\frac{1}{2}\delta^2 + \delta x) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} E_K [p_{\chi^2_{2K+1}}(|x|)] + \frac{1}{2} \delta x^{-1} E_K [p_{\chi^2_{2K+2}}(|x|)], \quad (31.22) \end{aligned}$$

where

$$p_{\chi^2_\nu}(x) = \{2^{\nu/2} \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu)\}^{-1} x^{(\nu/2)-1} e^{-x/2} \quad [\text{cf. Eq. (18.1), Chapter 18}]$$

and *K* has a Poisson distribution with expected value  $\frac{1}{2}\delta^2$ . From this he deduced that

$$p_{t'_\nu(\delta)}(t) = \frac{1}{2} E_K [p_{\sqrt{G_{2K+1, \nu}}}(t)] + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\delta}{t} \frac{\Gamma((\nu-1)/2)}{\sqrt{2} \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu)} E_K [p_{\sqrt{G_{2K+3, \nu-1}}}(t)], \quad (31.23)$$

where  $G_{\nu_1, \nu_2}$  is distributed as the ratio  $\chi_{\nu_1}^2/\chi_{\nu_2}^2$  of independent  $\chi^2$ 's. If  $U^2$  has a  $G_{\nu_1, \nu_2}$  distribution, then  $U$  is said to be a  $\sqrt{G_{\nu_1, \nu_2}}$  random variable. Voit and Rust (1990) suggest evaluating noncentral t-distributions using a canonical **S-system** form [see Chapter 12, Eq. (12.90)]. They note that the noncentral  $t$  density, given by (31.15) can be written

$$\frac{\exp(-\delta^2/2)}{\sqrt{\pi\nu}} \frac{\Gamma((\nu+1)/2)}{\Gamma(\nu/2)} \left[ \frac{\nu}{\nu+t^2} \right]^{(\nu+1)/2} S(t), \quad (31.15)'$$

where

$$S(t) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{\Gamma((\nu+j+1)/2)}{\Gamma((\nu+1)/2)} \left[ \frac{t\delta\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{\nu+t^2}} \right]^j,$$

and that

$$S(t) \quad \text{and} \quad Z(t) = \frac{(\nu+t^2)^{3/2}}{\nu\delta} S'(t)$$

satisfy the differential equation

$$\frac{dZ(t)}{dt} = \frac{t\nu\delta^2}{(\nu+t^2)^2} Z(t) + \frac{\nu(\nu+1)\delta}{(\nu+t^2)^{3/2}} S(t). \quad (31.24)$$

This permits construction of an **S-system** representation [Chapter 12, Eq. (12.90)] for central and noncentral t-distributions. They also describe an **S-system** approach for computing quantiles and moments of noncentral t-distributions.

## 6 APPROXIMATIONS

This rather lengthy Section mirrors the extensive literature on approximations to non-central distributions which attracted a substantial number of researchers in the last fifty years or so. In spite of the advances in computer technology, this topic of research is far from extinct or exhaustion, as indicated by the ingenious work of Deutler (1984) to be described below.

If  $\delta$  is kept at a fixed value, and  $\nu$  is increased without limit, the  $t'_\nu$  distribution tends to the normal distribution  $N(\delta, 1)$ . If  $\nu (> 2)$  is kept fixed, and  $\delta$  increased without limit, the standardized  $t'_\nu$ -distribution tends to the standardized  $\chi_{\nu-1}^{-1}$  distribution.

Earlier approximations were based on an indirect approach. Jennett and Welch (1939) used the approximate normality of  $(U - t'_0\chi_{\nu}^{-1/2})$  in the

equation

$$\Pr[t'_\nu \leq t] = \Pr[U - t\chi_\nu \nu^{-1/2} \leq -\delta] \quad (31.25)$$

to obtain

$$\Pr[t'_\nu \leq t] = (\sqrt{2\pi})^{-1} \int_{-\infty}^x e^{-u^2/2} du,$$

with

$$x = [1 + t^2 \nu^{-1} \text{var}(\chi_\nu)]^{-1/2} \{-\delta + t\nu^{-1/2} E[\chi_\nu]\}.$$

An approximation to the percentage point  $t'_{\nu, \alpha}(\delta)$ , defined by

$$\Pr[t'_\nu(\delta) \leq t'_{\nu, \alpha}(\delta)] = \alpha,$$

is found by putting  $x = u_\alpha$  and solving for  $t$ . The resulting approximation is

$$t'_{\nu, \alpha} = \frac{\delta b_\nu + u_\alpha \sqrt{b_\nu^2 + (1 - b_\nu^2)(\delta^2 - u_\alpha^2)}}{b_\nu^2 - u_\alpha^2(1 - b_\nu^2)}, \quad (31.26a)$$

where

$$b_\nu = \nu^{-1/2} E[\chi_\nu] = \frac{(2/\nu)^{1/2} \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(\nu + 1))}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu)},$$

$$\text{var}(\chi_\nu) = \nu(1 - b_\nu^2).$$

Values of  $b_\nu$  are given in Table 35 of **Pearson and Hartley (1954)** for  $\nu = 1(1)20(5)50(10)100$ , and also in **van Eeden (1958)**.

**Johnson and Welch (1940)** introduced the further approximations  $\text{var}(\chi_\nu) = \frac{1}{2}$ , and  $E[\chi_\nu] \doteq \sqrt{\nu}$ , giving the value  $(1 + \frac{1}{2}t^2\nu^{-1})^{-1/2}(t - \delta)$  for  $x$ , and leading to the approximation

$$t'_{\nu, \alpha} \doteq \left[ \delta + u_\alpha \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{2}(\delta^2 - u_\alpha^2)\nu^{-1}} \right] \left[ 1 - \frac{1}{2}u_\alpha^2\nu^{-1} \right]^{-1}. \quad (31.26b)$$

[**Masuyama (1951)** showed how rough values of this approximation may be obtained using a special type of "improved binomial probability paper." An approximation intermediate between (31.26a) and (31.26b) is obtained by using the correct value of  $E[\chi_\nu]$  but replacing  $\text{var}(\chi_\nu)$  by  $\frac{1}{2}$ . This was given by

van Eeden (1958) as

$$t'_{\nu, \alpha} = \frac{\delta b_{\nu} + u_{\alpha} \sqrt{b_{\nu}^2 + \frac{1}{2}(\delta^2 - u_{\alpha}^2)\nu^{-1}}}{b_{\nu}^2 - \frac{1}{2}u_{\alpha}^2\nu^{-1}} \quad (31.26c)$$

The preceding approximations give real values for  $t'_{\nu, \alpha}$  only for limited ranges of  $\delta$  and  $u_{\alpha}$ ; For (31.26a) we must have

$$b_{\nu}^2 + (1 - b_{\nu}^2)(\delta^2 - u_{\alpha}^2) > 0;$$

that is,

$$u_{\alpha}^2 < b_{\nu}^2(1 - b_{\nu}^2)^{-1} + \delta^2.$$

For (31.26b) we must have

$$1 + \frac{1}{2}(\delta^2 - u_{\alpha}^2)\nu^{-1} > 0;$$

that is,

$$u_{\alpha}^2 < 2\nu + \delta^2.$$

For (31.26c) we must have

$$b_{\nu}^2 + \frac{1}{2}(\delta^2 - u_{\alpha}^2)\nu^{-1} > 0;$$

that is,

$$u_{\alpha}^2 < 2\nu b_{\nu}^2 + \delta^2.$$

Since  $2\nu b_{\nu}^2 < b_{\nu}^2(1 - b_{\nu}^2)^{-1} < 2\nu$ , it follows that (31.26b) can be used over a wider range of values of  $a$  (for given  $\delta$ ) than (31.26a), and (31.26a) over a wider range than (31.26c). However, it should be borne in mind that when approaching limiting allowable values of  $a$ , the formulas may become less reliable. Also the wider range of (31.26b) is offset by its lower accuracy [van Eeden (1958)].

The problem of solving the inverse equation,

$$\Pr[t'_{\nu}(\delta) \leq t] = \Pr\left[\frac{(U + \delta)\sqrt{\nu}}{\chi_{\nu}} \leq t\right] = \alpha, \quad (31.27)$$

for  $\delta$ , given  $t$ ,  $\nu$ , and  $a$ , needed to establish confidence intervals for  $\delta$  was tackled by Deutler (1984), and he improved on Johnson and Welch's (1940) earlier result. Denoting the solution of (31.27) by  $\delta(t; \nu, a)$ , the crude approximation [Johnson and Welch (1940)]

$$\delta(t; \nu, \alpha) \doteq b_{\nu}t - u_{\alpha} \sqrt{1 + (2\nu)^{-1}(t^2 - a_{\nu}^2)}, \quad (31.28)$$

where  $\Phi(u_{\alpha}) = \alpha$ ,  $b_{\nu} = \sqrt{(2/\nu)} \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(\nu + 1))/\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu)$  as in (31.26a), and  $a_{\nu}^2 = 2\nu(1 - b_{\nu}^2)$ , was refined by Deutler (1984) by utilizing a numerically stable

Cornish-Fisher expansion for  $\chi_\nu/\sqrt{\nu}$ , so that  $u_\alpha$  is replaced by

$$z_{\nu,\alpha} = u_\alpha + A_1 + A_2 + A_3 + \cdots, \quad (31.29)$$

with

$$\begin{aligned} A_1 &= \frac{1}{6}(u_\alpha^2 - 1)\zeta_3, \\ A_2 &= \frac{1}{24}(u_\alpha^3 - 3u_\alpha)\zeta_4 - \frac{1}{36}(2u_\alpha^3 - 5u_\alpha)\zeta_3^2, \\ A_3 &= \frac{1}{120}(u_\alpha^4 - 6u_\alpha^2 + 3)\zeta_5 + \frac{1}{24}(u_\alpha^4 - 5u_\alpha^2 + 2)\zeta_3\zeta_4 \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{324}(12u_\alpha^4 - 53u_\alpha^2 + 17)\zeta_3^3, \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\zeta_r = \left\{ \frac{t^2}{1 + t^2 b_\nu^2 / (2\nu)} \right\}^{r/2} (-1)^r \kappa_r \left( \frac{\chi_\nu}{\sqrt{\nu}} \right), \quad r \geq 3, \quad (31.30)$$

is the  $r$ th cumulant of

$$\left\{ U - \left( \frac{\chi_\nu}{\sqrt{\nu}} \right) t + a_\nu t \right\} \left\{ 1 + \frac{1}{2} b_\nu^2 \nu^{-1} t^2 \right\}^{-1/2}$$

[ $a_\nu$  and  $b_\nu$  are as defined in (31.28).] The relevant expansions in powers of  $\nu^{-1}$  are

$$\begin{aligned} \kappa_3(\chi_\nu/\sqrt{\nu}) &= \frac{1}{2^2\nu^2} + \frac{1}{2^4\nu^3} - \frac{13}{2^7\nu^4} - \frac{75}{2^9\nu^5} + \frac{1215}{2^{13}\nu^6} \\ &\quad + \frac{17403}{2^{15}\nu^7} - \frac{122101}{2^{18}\nu^8} - \frac{3371095}{2^{20}\nu^9} + \frac{88464187}{2^{25}\nu^{10}}, \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \kappa_4(\chi_\nu/\sqrt{\nu}) &= \frac{3}{2^4\nu^4} + \frac{3}{2^4\nu^5} - \frac{45}{2^7\nu^6} - \frac{57}{2^6\nu^7} + \frac{4875}{2^{12}\nu^8} \\ &\quad + \frac{24129}{2^{12}\nu^9} - \frac{226155}{2^{15}\nu^{10}}, \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \kappa_5(\chi_\nu/\sqrt{\nu}) &= -\frac{3}{2^4\nu^4} - \frac{9}{2^6\nu^5} + \frac{33}{2^9\nu^6} + \frac{2625}{2^{11}\nu^7} - \frac{98161}{2^{15}\nu^8} \\ &\quad - \frac{1321815}{2^{17}\nu^9} + \frac{17285517}{2^{20}\nu^{10}}. \end{aligned}$$

This approximation is very good for  $\nu$  greater than 5, and becomes more and more precise as  $\nu$  increases.

Cornish-Fisher expansion for  $\chi_\nu/\sqrt{\nu}$ , so that  $u_\alpha$  is replaced by

$$z_{\nu,\alpha} = u_\alpha + A_1 + A_2 + A_3 + \dots, \quad (31.29)$$

with

$$\begin{aligned} A_1 &= \frac{1}{6}(u_\alpha^2 - 1)\zeta_3, \\ A_2 &= \frac{1}{24}(u_\alpha^3 - 3u_\alpha)\zeta_4 - \frac{1}{36}(2u_\alpha^3 - 5u_\alpha)\zeta_3^2, \\ A_3 &= \frac{1}{120}(u_\alpha^4 - 6u_\alpha^2 + 3)\zeta_5 + \frac{1}{24}(u_\alpha^4 - 5u_\alpha^2 + 2)\zeta_3\zeta_4 \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{324}(12u_\alpha^4 - 53u_\alpha^2 + 17)\zeta_3^3, \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\zeta_r = \left\{ \frac{t^2}{1 + t^2 b_\nu^2 / (2\nu)} \right\}^{r/2} (-1)^r \kappa_r \left( \frac{\chi_\nu}{\sqrt{\nu}} \right), \quad r \geq 3, \quad (31.30)$$

is the  $r$ th cumulant of

$$\left\{ U - \left( \frac{\chi_\nu}{\sqrt{\nu}} \right) t + a_\nu t \right\} \left\{ 1 + \frac{1}{2} b_\nu^2 \nu^{-1} t^2 \right\}^{-1/2}$$

[ $\lambda_\nu$  and  $b_\nu$  are as defined in (31.28).] The relevant expansions in powers of  $\nu^{-1}$  are

$$\begin{aligned} \kappa_3(\chi_\nu/\sqrt{\nu}) &= \frac{1}{2^2 \nu^2} + \frac{1}{2^4 \nu^3} - \frac{18}{2^7 \nu^4} - \frac{78}{2^9 \nu^5} + \frac{1215}{2^{13} \nu^6} \\ &\quad + \frac{17403}{2^{15} \nu^7} - \frac{122101}{2^{18} \nu^8} - \frac{3371095}{2^{20} \nu^9} + \frac{88464187}{2^{25} \nu^{10}}, \\ \kappa_4(\chi_\nu/\sqrt{\nu}) &= \frac{3}{2^4 \nu^4} + \frac{3}{2^4 \nu^5} - \frac{45}{2^7 \nu^6} - \frac{57}{2^6 \nu^7} + \frac{4875}{2^{12} \nu^8} \\ &\quad + \frac{24129}{2^{12} \nu^9} - \frac{226155}{2^{15} \nu^{10}}, \\ \kappa_5(\chi_\nu/\sqrt{\nu}) &= -\frac{3}{2^4 \nu^4} - \frac{9}{2^6 \nu^5} + \frac{308}{2^9 \nu^6} + \frac{2625}{2^{11} \nu^7} - \frac{88161}{2^{15} \nu^8} \\ &\quad - \frac{1321815}{2^{17} \nu^9} + \frac{17285517}{2^{20} \nu^{10}}. \end{aligned}$$

This approximation is very good for  $\nu$  greater than 5, and becomes more and more precise as  $\nu$  increases.

Johnson and Welch (1940) also provided tables from which  $\delta(t; \nu, \alpha)$  can be calculated directly. The tables provide values of  $\lambda(t; \nu, \alpha)$ , and  $\delta(t; \nu, \alpha)$  is calculated from

$$\delta(t; \nu, \alpha) = t - \lambda(t; \nu, \alpha) \sqrt{1 + \frac{t^2}{2\nu}}. \quad (31.31)$$

Values of  $\lambda(t; \nu, \alpha)$  are tabulated for

$$\alpha = 0.5(0.1)0.9, 0.95, 0.975, 0.99, 0.995,$$

$$\nu = 4(1)9, 16, 36, 144, \infty.$$

The higher values of  $\nu$  are selected to facilitate interpolation with respect to  $12/\sqrt{\nu}$ .

In Kühlmeyer's (1970) monograph,  $\lambda(t; \nu, \alpha)$  is tabulated against  $y = \{1 + t^2(2\nu)^{-1}\}^{-1/2}$  for  $|t|/\sqrt{2\nu} \leq 0.75$  and against

$$y' = t(2\nu + t^2)^{-1/2} \left[ = \sqrt{(1 - y^2)} \right]$$

for  $|t|/\sqrt{2\nu} < 0.75$  for  $\alpha = 0.99, 0.95, 0.90$ , and the same values of  $\nu$ . [For  $\alpha = 0.01, 0.05, 0.10$  the identity  $\delta(t; \nu, \alpha) = -\delta(-t; \nu, 1 - \alpha)$  can be used.]

Direct approximations to the distribution of noncentral  $t$  are of later date. For small values of  $S$  and large ( $> 20$ ) values of  $\nu$ , the simple approximation of the standardized  $t'_\nu$  variable by a standard normal variable gives fair results. This is equivalent to using the formula

$$t'_{\nu, \alpha}(\delta) \doteq \frac{\nu}{\nu - 1} \delta b_\nu + u_\alpha \sqrt{\frac{\nu}{\nu - 2} (1 + \delta^2) - \left(\frac{\nu}{\nu - 1}\right)^2 \delta^2 b_\nu^2}. \quad (31.32)$$

Since  $\text{var}(t'_\nu)$  is not finite if  $\nu \leq 2$ , this formula cannot be used for  $\nu \leq 2$ . As we have implied above, it is in fact unlikely to be useful unless  $\nu$  is fairly large and  $S$  is fairly small. When  $\delta = 0$ , the approximation becomes

$$t_{\nu, \alpha} \doteq u_\alpha \sqrt{\frac{\nu}{\nu - 2}},$$

which has already been noted, as a fair approximation, in Section 4 of Chapter 28.

A better approximation is obtained, as is to be expected, if a Pearson Type IV distribution is fitted, making the first four moments agree with those of the noncentral  $t$ -distribution. Merrington and Pearson (1958) found that this gives upper and lower 5%, 1%, and 0.5% points with an error no greater than 0.01, for a considerable range of values of  $\delta$  and  $\nu$  (including  $\nu$  as small

as 8). Further investigations, by **Pearson (1963)**, confirmed the closeness of the two systems of distributions.

If a Cornish-Fisher expansion be applied to the distribution of  $t'_{\nu}(\delta)$ , the following approximate expansion (up to and including terms in  $\nu^{-2}$ ) is obtained:

$$t'_{\nu,\alpha}(\delta) \doteq u_{\alpha} + \delta + \frac{1}{4}[u_{\alpha}^3 + u_{\alpha} + (2u_{\alpha}^2 + 1)\delta + u_{\alpha}\delta^2]\nu^{-1} \\ + \frac{1}{96}[5u_{\alpha}^5 + 16u_{\alpha}^3 + 3u_{\alpha} + 3(4u_{\alpha}^4 + 12u_{\alpha}^2 + 1)\delta \\ + 6(u_{\alpha}^3 + 4u_{\alpha})\delta^2 - 4(u_{\alpha}^2 - 1)\delta^3 - 3u_{\alpha}\delta^4]\nu^{-2}. \quad (31.33a)$$

Setting  $\delta = 0$  in (31.33a), we obtain the approximation [see Chapter 28, Eq. (28.16)] for central  $t_{\nu}$  percentage points:

$$t_{\nu,\alpha} \doteq u_{\alpha} + \frac{1}{4}(u_{\alpha}^3 + u_{\alpha})\nu^{-1} + \frac{1}{96}(5u_{\alpha}^5 + 16u_{\alpha}^3 + 3u_{\alpha})\nu^{-2}.$$

If these terms in (31.33a) be replaced by the exact value of  $t_{\nu,\alpha}$ , then the approximation becomes

$$t'_{\nu,\alpha}(\delta) \doteq t_{\nu,\alpha} + S + \frac{1}{4}\delta(1 + 2u_{\alpha}^2 + u_{\alpha}\delta)\nu^{-1} \\ + \frac{1}{96}\delta[3(4u_{\alpha}^4 + 12u_{\alpha}^2 + 1) + 6(u_{\alpha}^3 + 4u_{\alpha})\delta \\ - 4(u_{\alpha}^2 - 1)\delta^2 - 3u_{\alpha}\delta^3]\nu^{-2}. \quad (31.33b)$$

Extensive numerical comparisons for  $\nu = 2(1)9$ , given by van Eeden (1958) indicate that, for  $6 > 0$ , formula (31.33a) gives the better results for lower percentage points ( $\alpha < \frac{1}{2}$ ), while (31.33b) is better for  $\alpha > \frac{1}{2}$ .

**Azorin (1953)** obtained another type of approximation by constructing an approximate variance equalizing transformation. Starting from the relationship

$$\text{var}(t'_{\nu}) = a^2 + b^2\{E[t'_{\nu}]\}^2,$$

with

$$a = \sqrt{\frac{\nu}{\nu - 2}},$$

$$b = \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu)\sqrt{2\left\{(\nu - 2)[\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(\nu - 1))]^2 - 1\right\}^{-1}},$$

we obtain the transformation

$$\frac{1}{b} \sinh^{-1} \frac{bt'_{\nu}}{a} - \sinh^{-1} \frac{bE[t'_{\nu}]}{a} \quad (31.34a)$$



which is to be approximated as a standard normal variable. This transformation was studied by Laubscher (1960). Azorín suggested two similar transformations of simpler form (each to be approximated as a standard normal variable):

$$\sqrt{\nu} \sinh^{-1} \left( \frac{t'_\nu}{\sqrt{\nu}} \right) - \delta, \quad (31.34b)$$

$$\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}\nu} \sinh^{-1} \left( \frac{t'_\nu}{\sqrt{(2/3)\nu}} \right) - \delta. \quad (31.34c)$$

These transformations approximate noncentral  $t$  by  $S_\nu$  distributions (see Chapter 12, Section 4.3). Transformations of type (31.34) would be expected to give accuracy comparable to the Type IV approximation, in view of the close similarity between Type IV and  $S_\nu$ -distributions.

A remarkably accurate transformation was suggested by Harley (1957). She suggested that the distribution of  $t'_\nu(\delta)$  be approximated by that of a function of the sample correlation coefficient  $R$  (Chapter 32) in random samples of size  $\nu + 2$  from bivariate normal population with the population correlation coefficient

$$\rho = \delta \sqrt{\frac{2}{2\nu + 1 + \delta^2}}.$$

The proposed function is

$$\frac{R}{\sqrt{1 - R^2}} \sqrt{\frac{\nu(2\nu + 1)}{2\nu + 1 + \delta^2}}. \quad (31.35)$$

(see Chapter 32, Section 2).

While percentage points of  $t'_\nu$  can be approximated from those of  $R$ , using (31.35), it is also possible to approximate percentage points of  $R$ , using those of  $t'_\nu$ . It is this latter use that appears to be the more valuable, in the opinion of van Eeden (1958) and Owen (1963).

Hogben, Pinkham, and Wilk (1964) approximate the distribution of  $Q = t'_\nu(\nu + t'^2_\nu)^{-1/2}$  and hence the distribution of  $t'_\nu$ . Fitting a Type I (beta) distribution (with range  $-1, 1$ ) to  $Q$  is of course equivalent to approximating the distribution of  $t'_\nu$ . This approximation is claimed to be especially useful for small values of  $\nu$ .

Mention may be made of approximations proposed by Halperin (1963). These are not of great accuracy but appear to provide a bound for percentage points. They are also simple to compute, using tables of percentage

points of central  $t_\nu$  ( $t_{\nu,\alpha}$ ) and  $\chi_\nu^2$  ( $\chi_{\nu,\alpha}^2$ ). The suggested inequalities are (assuming that  $\delta > 0$ )

$$t'_{\nu,\alpha}(\delta) \leq \frac{\delta\sqrt{\nu}}{\chi_{\nu,1-\alpha}} + t_{\nu,\alpha}, \quad \alpha \geq \frac{1}{2}, \quad (31.36a)$$

$$t'_{\nu,\alpha}(\delta) \geq \frac{\delta\sqrt{\nu}}{\chi_{\nu,1-\alpha}} + t_{\nu,\alpha} \quad \alpha \leq 0.43. \quad (31.36b)$$

Kraemer (1978) approximates  $t'_\nu$  cdfs by means of (central)  $t$ -distribution cdfs. The approximation is based on the following result, proved by Kraemer (1978): A function  $\theta \equiv \theta(\delta, \nu)$  exists such that

$$\lim_{\nu \rightarrow \infty} \left\{ \Pr[t'_\nu(\delta) \leq t] - \Pr\left[t_\nu \leq (g - \theta)\{(1 - g^2)(1 - \theta^2\nu^{-1})\}^{-1/2}\right] \right\} = 0, \quad (31.37)$$

where  $g = t(t^2 + \nu)^{-1/2}$ . Kraemer (1978) found empirically that good results are obtained with  $\theta(\delta, \nu) = \delta(\delta^2 + \nu)^{-1/2}$ . Using this value, together with Johnson and Welch's (1940) second normal approximation, she obtained

$$\Pr[t'_\nu(\delta) \leq t] \doteq \Phi\left[(t - \delta)\left(1 + \frac{t^2}{2\nu}\right)^{-1/2}\right], \quad (31.38)$$

which yields

$$\Phi\left[(t - \delta)\left(1 + \frac{t^2}{2\nu}\right)^{-1/2}\right] \doteq \Pr\left[t_\nu < t\left(1 + \frac{\delta^2}{\nu}\right)^{1/2} - \delta\left(1 + \frac{t^2}{\nu}\right)^{1/2}\right]. \quad (31.39)$$

For moderate sized  $\nu$  and  $\delta > 0$ , neither approximation (31.38) nor (31.39) is uniformly better. Kraemer (1978) suggested that in estimating 95th percentiles, the  $t$ -approximation would be better for  $\delta < 2$ , but the normal approximation would be better for  $\delta > 2$ . "One-tailed tests, and confidence intervals based on the  $t$  approximation will tend to be on the conservative side; the normal approximation will tend to err on the liberal side." Kraemer's approximation complements the existing approximations being most accurate for parameter values for which tables of the exact distributions are rather sparse.

### 7 TABLES, CHARTS, AND COMPUTER ALGORITHMS

The earliest tables of the noncentral t-distribution were produced by Jerzy Neyman and his co-workers in the mid-thirties of this century. Substantial contributions to the tabulation of this distribution were carried out in the early sixties by several authors to be indicated below. The most comprehensive volume of tables appeared in 1993. For historical interest and perspective, we present a rather detailed description of the earlier contributions.

The tables of Neyman, Iwazskiewicz, and **Kołodziejczyk** (1935) and Neyman and Tokarska (1936) were calculated to give the power of the t-test. The first paper (Table III) gives the operating characteristic (= 1 - Power) of a 5% significance limit t-test at values  $\delta = 1(1)9$  for  $\nu = 1(1)30$  (i.e., values of  $\Pr[t'_\nu(\delta) \leq t_{\nu,0.95}]$ ) and also values of  $\delta$  satisfying the equation  $\Pr[t'_\nu(\delta) \leq t_{\nu,0.95}] = 0.05$ . The second paper gives more extensive tables of the same kind. Owen (1965) gave tables, to five decimal places, of values of  $\delta$  such that  $\Pr[t'_\nu(\delta) \leq t_{\nu,1-\alpha}] = \beta$  for

$$\begin{aligned} \nu &= 1(1)30(5)100(10)200, \infty, \\ \alpha &= 0.005, 0.01, 0.025, 0.05, \\ \beta &= 0.01, 0.05, 0.1(0.1)0.9. \end{aligned}$$

The tables of Johnson and Welch (1940) give values of a quantity  $A$  such that

$$t'_{\nu,\alpha}(\delta) = \frac{\delta + \lambda \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{2}(\delta^2 - \lambda^2)\nu^{-1} \right]^{1/2}}{1 - \frac{1}{2}\lambda^2\nu^{-1}}. \tag{31.40}$$

Comparing with approximation (31.26b), it is seen that one might expect  $A = u_\alpha$ , so values of  $A$  should not vary too much as  $\delta$  and  $\nu$  vary and interpolation becomes simpler. Values of  $A$  are given for  $\nu = 4(1)9, 16, 36, 144, \infty$  (i.e.  $u_\alpha$ ); above  $\nu = 9$ , interpolation with respect to  $12\nu^{-1/2}$  is suggested. The argument used is  $y = (1 + \frac{1}{2}t'^2_\nu\nu^{-1})^{-1/2}$  for  $0.6 \leq |y| \leq 1$ , and  $y' = yt'_\nu/\sqrt{2\nu}$  for  $|y| \leq 0.6$ . Values of  $\alpha$  [(1 -  $\epsilon$ ) in the original] are 0.005, 0.01, 0.025, 0.05, 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5, 0.6, 0.7, 0.8, 0.9, 0.95, 0.975, 0.99, and 0.995. Since the argument is a function of  $t'_\nu$ , direct entry into the tables leads to a value

$$\delta' = \delta(\nu, t', \alpha) = t' - \frac{\lambda}{y} \tag{31.41}$$

such that  $t'_{\nu,\alpha}(\delta') = t'$ . To obtain  $t'_{\nu,\alpha}(\delta)$  for a given  $\delta$ , an iterative (or inverse interpolation) procedure is necessary. A table giving the results of such

procedures, for the case  $\alpha = 0.95$  only, is also provided. This table gives  $A$  to three or four decimal places as a function of  $\eta = [S/\sqrt{2\nu}](1 + \frac{1}{2}\delta^2\nu^{-1})^{-1/2}$ . The later tables of Owen (1963) include a substantial extension of this last table. The argument  $\eta$  is tabulated at intervals of 0.01, instead of 0.1;  $A$  is given to five decimal places, and values  $\nu = 1, 2, 3$  are included, in addition to those in the Johnson and Welch tables. Values of  $a$ , however, are now 0.005, 0.01, 0.025, 0.05, 0.1, 0.25, 0.75, 0.9, 0.95, 0.975, 0.99, 0.995. Owen also gives tables of  $A$  (to five decimal places) as a function of  $y$  and  $y'$  (in the same form as Johnson and Welch) for these new sets of values of  $\nu$  and  $a$ . There are also extensive tables of quantity  $k$  (to three decimal places) such that

$$t'_{\nu, \alpha}(u_p\sqrt{\nu+1}) = k\sqrt{\nu+1} \quad (31.42)$$

for  $p = 0.75, 0.9, 0.95, 0.975, 0.99, 0.999, 0.9999, 0.99999, \text{ and } \nu+1 = 2(1)200(5)400(25)1000(500)2000, 3000, 5000, 10000, \infty$ ;  $a$  has the same values as in Owen's other tables. The choice of  $u_p\sqrt{\nu+1}$  as noncentrality parameter makes it convenient to use the tables in calculating confidence intervals for percentage points of normal distributions. Thus, since the inequality  $\bar{X} - kS < \xi - u_p\sigma$  is equivalent to

$$\frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{X} - \xi)\sigma^{-1} + \sqrt{nu_p}}{S\sigma^{-1}} < k\sqrt{n},$$

it follows that

$$\Pr[\bar{X} - kS < \xi - u_p\sigma] = \Pr[t'_{n-1, \alpha}(u_p\sqrt{n}) < k\sqrt{n}] \quad [\text{cf. (31.7)}]. \quad (31.43)$$

This probability is equal to  $\alpha$  if

$$t'_{n-1, \alpha}(u_p\sqrt{n}) = k\sqrt{n}.$$

Setting  $n = \nu + 1$ , we obtain Eq. (31.42).

Owen also gives values of  $k$  satisfying

$$t'_{\nu, \alpha}(u_p\sqrt{n}) = k\sqrt{n} \quad (31.44)$$

for  $n = 1, \nu = 1, 2$  (and  $\infty$ ),  $a = 0.90, 0.95, 0.99$ , and for  $p = 0.50(0.01)0.90(0.005)0.990(0.001)0.999(0.0001)0.9999$  and some even higher

values of  $p$ . Further tables give values of  $k$  satisfying (31.44) for

$$\begin{aligned} n &= 1(1)10, 17, 37, 145, 500, \infty, \\ \alpha &= 0.90, 0.95, 0.99, \\ p &= 0.75, 0.9, 0.95, 0.975, 0.99, 0.999, 0.9999, 0.99999, \\ \nu &= 1(1)75(5)100(10)150, 200, 300, 500, 1000. \end{aligned}$$

Some extracts from Owen's tables are included in the survey by Owen (1968).

The tables of Resnikoff and Lieberman (1957) are also based on Eq. (31.42). They give  $t'_{\nu, \alpha}(u_p \sqrt{\nu + 1}) / \sqrt{\nu}$  for

$$\begin{aligned} p &= 0.001, 0.0025, 0.004, 0.01, 0.025, 0.04, 0.065, 0.1, 0.15, 0.25, \\ \alpha &= 0.005, 0.01, 0.05, 0.1, 0.25, 0.5, 0.75, 0.9, 0.95, 0.99, 0.995, \\ \nu &= 2(1)24(5)49. \end{aligned}$$

(For  $\nu = 2, 3$ , and  $4$ , values are not given corresponding to  $\alpha = 0.99, 0.995$ .)

These tables also give probability integrals of the noncentral t-distribution (to four decimal places)

$$\Pr\left[t'_{\nu}(u_p \sqrt{\nu + 1}) \leq x\sqrt{\nu}\right] \tag{31.45}$$

for the same values of  $p$  and  $\nu$ , and for  $x$  at intervals of  $0.05$ . There is also a table of values of the probability density function, for the same values of  $p$ ,  $\nu$ , and  $x$ .

Locks, Alexander, and Byars (1963) have produced a similar, but more extensive set of tables of the probability density function. To facilitate use in connection with multiple regression, values of the noncentrality parameter equal to  $u_p \sqrt{\nu + 2}$  and  $u_p \sqrt{\nu + 1}$  are used. However, the tables do not include specified values of  $p$ ; they rather take  $u_p = 0.0(0.025)3.0$ .

Hodges and Lehmann (1968) noted that if normal equivalent deviates are used, problems of interpolation are much less troublesome. Thus, if

$$\Pr[t'_{\nu}(\delta) \geq t_{\nu, 1-\alpha}] = \beta,$$

then they table a quantity  $A$  satisfying the equation

$$u_{1-\alpha} + u_{\beta} = \delta\left(1 - \frac{1}{4}u_{1-\alpha}^2\nu^{-1}\right) - Au_{1-\alpha}^2(u_{1-\alpha} + u_{\beta})\nu^{-2}. \tag{31.46}$$

Values of  $A$  are given to four decimal places for

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha &= 0.005, 0.01, 0.025, 0.05, 0.1, \\ \beta &= 0.5(0.1)0.9, 0.95, 0.99, \quad \text{and} \quad \nu = 3(1)6, 8, 12, 24, \infty. \end{aligned}$$

For given  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ ,  $\mathbf{A}$  is a rather smooth function of  $\nu$ . For  $\nu > 6$ ,  $\alpha \geq 0.01$ , and  $\beta \leq 0.09$ , linear harmonic interpolation give good results, and practically useful values can be obtained well beyond these limits.

Among shorter useful tables, mention must be made of those of van Eeden (1961) and Scheuer and Spurgeon (1963). Van Eeden gives  $t'_{\nu, \alpha}(u_p \sqrt{\nu + 1})$  directly [to three decimal places (two for  $\alpha = 0.99, 0.01$ )] for  $\nu = 4(1)9$ ,  $\alpha = 0.01, 0.025, 0.05, 0.95, 0.99$ , and  $p = 0.125, 0.15(0.05)0.45$ . Scheuer and Spurgeon give values of the same function (to three decimal places) for the values of  $p$  and  $\nu$  used by Resnikoff and Lieberman (1957), but only for  $\alpha = 0.025, 0.975$ .

Bruscantini (1968) made a detailed study of the distribution of  $Y = U + \theta \chi_2$ . He referred to, and gave a short extract from, unpublished tables giving values, to five decimal places of the cumulative distribution function of the standardized variable

$$Y' = \left( Y - \theta \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2}} \right) \left[ 1 + \theta^2 \left( 2 - \frac{1}{2}\pi \right) \right]^{-1/2} \quad (31.47)$$

for argument  $y'$  at intervals of 0.5 and  $\theta = 2.00(0.05)7.20$ . These are in fact values of  $\Pr\{t'_2(y'') > \theta\}$  with

$$y'' = \theta \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2}} + y' \sqrt{1 + \theta^2 \left( 2 - \frac{1}{2}\pi \right)}. \quad (31.48)$$

Recently [Bagui (1993)] extensive tables of values of  $t'_{\nu, \alpha}(\delta)$  have appeared. Included are values to five decimal places for

$$\alpha = 0.01, 0.025, 0.05, 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.7, 0.8, 0.9, 0.95, 0.975, 0.99,$$

$$\delta = 0.1(0.1)8.0,$$

$$\nu = 1(1)60.$$

Computer algorithms for evaluation of cumulative distribution function of the noncentral t-distribution were provided by Cooper (1968) (algorithm S5) [reprinted and updated in Griffiths and Hill (1985)]—one of the first algorithms in the newly established algorithm section of Applied Statistics, Lenth (1989), Narula and Weistroffer (1986), Guirguis (1990), and Posten (1993), among others.

Cooper's algorithm, written in standard FORTRAN, uses the numerical method given by Owen (1965b). The integration is theoretically exact provided that the auxiliary functions can be evaluated exactly. The essential part

involves the auxiliary function

$$\begin{aligned} T(h, a) &= \frac{\tan^{-1} a}{2\pi} - \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^h \int_0^{ax} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2 + y^2}{2}\right) dx dy \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^a \frac{\exp\{(-h^2/2)(1 + x^2)\}}{1 + x^2} dx. \end{aligned} \quad (31.49)$$

For  $h \geq a$  Cooper (1968) used the approximation

$$\begin{aligned} T(h, a) &= \frac{\tan^{-1} a}{2\pi} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)}} \int_0^h \exp\left(\frac{-u^2}{2}\right) du \\ &\quad + \frac{\tan^{-1}(1/a)}{2\pi} \quad (\text{Cooper's algorithm AS 4}). \end{aligned}$$

Another subroutine used is the normal integral (Cooper's algorithm S2). For large degrees of freedom Cooper used normal approximation, and fractional degrees of freedom were not allowed. The accuracy claimed by the author is to more than six decimal places. However, for  $\nu$  near 100 the error of the normal approximation is in the vicinity of  $5 \times 10^{-4}$ .

Lenth's (1989) algorithm is based on the infinite series expansion (31.21) due to Guenther. The error  $E_n$  incurred by using a finite sum terminating at  $j = n$  is bounded by

$$|E_n| < 2 \left( 1 - \sum_{j=0}^n p_j \right) I_x \left( n + \frac{3}{2}, \frac{\nu}{2} \right),$$

where, as above,

$$p_j = \frac{\frac{1}{2} e^{-\delta^2/2} (\delta^2/2)^j}{j!} \quad [\text{See also Singh, Relyea, and Bartolucci (1992)}].$$

Accuracy of Lenth's algorithm to within  $\pm 10^{-6}$  is guaranteed within 100 terms for  $-11.0 \leq \delta \leq 11.0$ . For evaluation of the incomplete beta function, an updated version of Majumder and Bhattacharjee's algorithm (1973) is used. In the majority of cases Cooper's algorithm is faster than Lenth's—the price paid for increased generality. Experience shows that on an IBM PC (Microsoft Fortran 77, standard library) no errors larger than  $10^{-6}$  were observed using Lenth's (1989) algorithm.

Singh, Relyea, and Bartolucci (1992) and Posten (1993) give algorithms also based on Guenther's formula (31.21). Here we describe Posten's algorithm in some detail. It uses the expansion [cf. (31.21)]

$$\Pr[t'_\nu \leq t] = 1 - \frac{1}{2} e^{-\delta^2/2} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\delta/\sqrt{2})^j}{\Gamma\left(\frac{j}{2} + 1\right)} I_x\left(\frac{\nu}{2}, \frac{j+1}{2}\right), \quad (31.50)$$

with  $x = \nu/(\nu + t^2)$ . The basic problem is to evaluate the truncated sum

$$\sum_{j=0}^{2n} T_j B_j,$$

where

$$T_j = \frac{(\delta/\sqrt{2})^j}{\Gamma\left(\frac{j}{2} + 1\right)},$$

and

$$B_j = I_x\left(\frac{\nu}{2}, \frac{j+1}{2}\right).$$

The recursive formulas for evaluation of this sum are as follows: Set

$$D_i = T_{2i} \quad \text{and} \quad E_i = T_{2i+1},$$

then

$$\sum_{j=0}^{2n} T_j B_j = \sum_{i=0}^n (D_i B(i) + E_i BB(i)),$$

with  $D_0 = 1$ ,  $E_0 = \delta\sqrt{2/\pi}$ ,  $D_i = (\lambda/i)D_{i-1}$ ,  $E_i = \{\lambda/(i + \frac{1}{2})\}E_{i-1}$ , and

$$B(0) = I_x\left(\frac{1}{2}\nu, \frac{1}{2}\right),$$

$$BB(0) = I_x\left(\frac{1}{2}\nu, 1\right),$$

$$B(i) = B(i-1) + S(i-1),$$

$$BB(i) = BB(i-1) + SS(i-1),$$

$$S(0) = \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}(\nu + 1)\right)}{\Gamma\left(\frac{3}{2}\right)\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\nu\right)} x^{\nu/2} (1-x)^{1/2},$$

$$SS(0) = \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\nu + 1\right)}{\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\nu\right)} x^{\nu/2} (1-x),$$

$$S(i) = (1-x) \frac{\nu + 2i - 1}{1 + 2i} S(i-1),$$

$$SS(i) = (1-x) \frac{\nu + 2i}{2 + 2i} SS(i-1).$$



For evaluation of  $S(0)$  and  $SS(0)$ , Posten's (1986) algorithm might be used. Singh, Relyea, and Bartolucci (1992) have used a similar method.

Posten (1993) conducted a preliminary study of the algorithm over a range of values of  $t$  and  $\delta$ , with degrees of freedom 4, 19, and 39. The calculated results (in double precision on an IBM 3000 series mainframe computer) were compared with results using the Cooper-Owen (1965) algorithm used in IMSL (1987). In most cases it was easy to obtain 12 or more place accuracy with fewer than  $N = 200$  terms and often with  $N$  less than 100.

Chattamvelli and Shanmugam (1994) recently presented an algorithm for the noncentral  $t$ -distribution which does not require the evaluation of the incomplete beta function. Consequently, this algorithm is suitable for the evaluation of the noncentral  $t$  distribution function even on calculators. These authors also have presented a step-by-step algorithm which may easily be programmed.

## 8 RELATED DISTRIBUTIONS

### 8.1 Noncentral Beta Distribution

The noncentral beta distribution is defined as the distribution of the ratio

$$b'_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(\lambda) = \frac{\chi_{\nu_1}^{\prime 2}(\lambda)}{\chi_{\nu_2}^2 + \chi_{\nu_1}^{\prime 2}(\lambda)}. \quad (31.51)$$

See Chapter 30 (Section 7). It can be seen that  $[t'_\nu(\delta)]^2/[\nu + \{t'_\nu(\delta)\}^2]$  is distributed as  $b'_{1, \nu}(\delta^2)$ . This is also the distribution of  $Q^2$ , where  $Q$  is the variable (mentioned in Section 6) studied by Hogben, Pinkham, and Wilk (1964). [See also David and Paulson (1965, p. 434).]

### 8.2 Doubly Noncentral $t$ -Distribution

If the  $\chi_\nu$  in the denominator of  $t'_\nu(\delta)$  is replaced by a noncentral  $\chi_\nu$  (noncentrality parameter  $\lambda$ ), the distribution of the modified variable is called a doubly *noncentral*  $t$ -distribution with noncentrality parameters  $(\delta, \lambda)$  and  $\nu$  degrees of freedom. Symbolically

$$t''_\nu(\delta, \lambda) = \frac{U + \delta}{\chi'_\nu(\lambda)/\sqrt{\nu}}. \quad (31.52)$$

Since  $\chi'_\nu(\lambda)$  is distributed as a mixture of  $\chi_{\nu+2j}$ -distributions in proportions  $e^{-\lambda/2}(\frac{1}{2}\lambda)^j/j!$  ( $j = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ ), the distribution of  $t''_\nu(\delta, \lambda)$  is a mixture of

$$\sqrt{\nu(\nu + 2j)}^{-1} t'_{\nu+2j}(\delta)$$

distributions in these same proportions. Hence all formulas, approximations, tables, and so forth, for the noncentral *t*-distribution can be applied to the doubly noncentral *t*-distribution. For example, the *r*th moment of  $t''_\nu$  about zero is

$$\begin{aligned} E[t''_\nu{}^r] &= \left(\frac{1}{2}\nu\right)^{r/2} e^{-\lambda/2} \left[ \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\frac{1}{2}\lambda)^j}{j!} \frac{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu)\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(\nu-r)+j)}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(\nu-r))\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu+j)} \right] \\ &\quad \times E[(U+\delta)^r] \frac{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(\nu-r))}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu)} \\ &= \left(\frac{\nu}{2}\right)^{r/2} E[(U+\delta)^r] \sum_{\alpha=0}^{\infty} \tau_\alpha \left(\frac{\lambda}{2}\right) \frac{\Gamma((\nu+2\alpha-r)/2)}{\Gamma((\nu+2\alpha)/2)} \end{aligned} \quad (31.53)$$

for  $r < \nu$ , where  $\tau_j(\theta) = e^{-\theta} \theta^j / j!$ . Krishnan (1967) pointed out that the summation in this formula can be expressed as the confluent hypergeometric function  $M(\frac{1}{2}(\nu-r); \frac{1}{2}\nu; \frac{1}{2}\lambda)$  and that an even simpler form can be obtained using Kummer's formula  $e^{-\lambda/2} M(\frac{1}{2}(\nu-r); \frac{1}{2}\nu; \frac{1}{2}\lambda) = M(\frac{1}{2}r; \frac{1}{2}\nu; -\frac{1}{2}\lambda)$ .

Kocherlakota and Kocherlakota (1991) have provided the explicit formulas

$$E[t''_\nu{}^r] = \left(\frac{\nu}{2}\right)^{r/2} E[(U+\delta)^r] \frac{\Gamma((\nu-r)/2)}{\Gamma(\nu/2)} M\left[\frac{r}{2}; \frac{\nu}{2}; -\frac{\lambda}{2}\right], \quad (31.54)$$

and, in particular,

$$E[t''_\nu] = \delta \left(\frac{\nu}{2}\right)^{1/2} \frac{\Gamma((\nu-1)/2)}{\Gamma(\nu/2)} M\left[\frac{1}{2}; \frac{\nu}{2}; -\frac{\lambda}{2}\right], \quad (31.55a)$$

$$E[t''_\nu{}^2] = \frac{\delta^2}{\nu-2} M\left[1; \frac{\nu}{2}; -\frac{\lambda}{2}\right], \quad (31.55b)$$

$$E[t''_\nu{}^3] = \delta(\delta^2+3) \left(\frac{\nu}{2}\right)^{3/2} \frac{\Gamma((\nu-3)/2)}{\Gamma(\nu/2)} M\left[\frac{3}{2}; \frac{\nu}{2}; -\frac{\lambda}{2}\right], \quad (31.55c)$$

$$E[t''_\nu{}^4] = (\delta^4+6\delta^2+3) \frac{\nu^2}{(\nu-2)(\nu-4)} M\left[2; \frac{\nu}{2}; -\frac{\lambda}{2}\right]. \quad (31.55d)$$

Krishnan (1967) obtained some recurrence relations between moments about zero of  $t''_\nu(\delta, A)$ ,  $t''_{\nu-2}(\delta, A)$ , and  $t''_{\nu-4}(\delta, A)$ . These formulas are most conveniently given in terms of the quantities

$$\mu'_{r,\nu} = \frac{\mu'_r(t''_\nu)}{\nu^{r/2}}.$$

They are

$$\mu'_{1,\nu} = \left(1 - \frac{\nu-4}{\lambda}\right)\mu'_{1,\nu-2} + \frac{\nu-5}{\lambda}\mu'_{1,\nu-4}, \quad (\nu > 5), \quad (31.56a)$$

$$\mu'_{2,\nu} = \lambda^{-1}(\delta^2 + 1 - \mu'_{2,\nu-2}), \quad (\nu > 4), \quad (31.56b)$$

$$\mu'_{3,\nu} = (\delta^2 + 3)(\mu'_{1,\nu-2} - \mu'_{1,\nu}), \quad (\nu > 3), \quad (31.56c)$$

$$\mu'_{4,\nu} = \frac{1}{2}(\delta^4 + 6\delta^2 + 3)(\delta^2 + 1)^{-1}(\mu'_{2,\nu-2} - \mu'_{2,\nu}). \quad (\nu > 4). \quad (31.56d)$$

For  $\nu$  large,  $\delta$  and  $A$  remaining fixed,

$$\mu'_1(t''_\nu) = \delta \left[1 + \left(\frac{3}{4} - \frac{1}{2}\lambda\right)\nu^{-1} + O(\nu^{-2})\right], \quad (31.57a)$$

$$\mu'_2(t''_\nu) = (\delta^2 + 1) \left[1 + (2 - \lambda)\nu^{-1} + O(\nu^{-2})\right], \quad (31.57b)$$

$$\mu'_3(t''_\nu) = \delta(\delta^2 + 3) \left[1 + 3\left(\frac{5}{4} - \frac{1}{2}\lambda\right)\nu^{-1} + O(\nu^{-2})\right], \quad (31.57c)$$

$$\mu'_4(t''_\nu) = (\delta^4 + 6\delta^2 + 3) \left[1 + (6 - 2\lambda)\nu^{-1} + O(\nu^{-2})\right]. \quad (31.57d)$$

Since the available tables (at the time of writing) of hypergeometric and gamma functions were inadequate to be used for computing moments of  $t''_\nu(\delta, A)$ , Krishnan (1967) also presented tables, to six decimal places, for  $A = 2(2)8(4)20$  of

$$c_1 = \frac{\mu'_1(t''_\nu)}{\delta} \quad \text{for } \nu = 2(1)20,$$

$$c_2 = \frac{\mu'_2(t''_\nu)}{\delta^2 + 1} \quad \text{for } \nu = 3(1)20,$$

$$c_3 = \frac{\mu'_3(t''_\nu)}{\delta(\delta^2 + 3)} \quad \text{for } \nu = 4(1)20,$$

$$c_4 = \frac{\mu'_4(t''_\nu)}{\delta^4 + 6\delta^2 + 3} \quad \text{for } \nu = 5(1)20.$$

(Note that the  $c$ 's are independent of  $\delta$ .)

In the same paper Krishnan considered two approximations to the distribution of  $t''_\nu(\delta, A)$ . In three special cases good results were obtained using a method suggested by Patnaik (1955) in which the distribution is approximated by that of  $ct'_f(\delta)$ ,  $c$  and  $f$  being chosen to give correct values for the first two moments. The other method, an extension of Harley's (1957) method (see Section 6), also gave useful, though not quite as accurate, results. For this

approximation one calculates  $L = [(\nu - 3)\mu'_{3,\nu}][\nu\mu'_{1,\nu}]^{-1}$ ,  $K = (1 - 2\nu^{-1})\mu'_{2,\nu}$ , and

$$\rho = [(3K - L)\{\nu L - (\nu - 1)K\}^{-1}]^{1/2}.$$

Then the distribution of  $t''_{\nu}(\delta, \lambda)$  is approximately that of

$$\left[ \nu K \left\{ 1 + (\nu + 1) \frac{\rho^2}{1 - \rho^2} \right\}^{-1} \right]^{1/2} \frac{R}{\sqrt{1 - R^2}}, \quad (31.58)$$

where  $R$  is distributed as the product moment sample correlation in a sample of size  $\nu + 2$  from a bivariate normal population with correlation  $\rho$  (see Chapter 32, Section 2).

Krishnan (1968) gave tables of  $\Pr[t''_{\nu}(\delta, A) \leq 1]$  to four decimal places for  $\nu = 2(1)20$ ,  $\delta = -5(1)5$ ,  $A = 0(2)8$ . (Note that for  $t_0 < 0$ ,  $\Pr[t''_{\nu}(\delta, \lambda) \leq t_0]$  can be evaluated as  $\Pr[t''_{\nu}(-\delta, A) \geq -t_0]$ .)

Krishnan, and also Bulgren and Amos (1968), gave the following formula involving double summation:

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[t''_{\nu} \leq t_0] &= 1 - \Phi(\sqrt{\beta}) + \varphi(\sqrt{\beta}) \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \left\{ \frac{(\frac{1}{2}\lambda)^j e^{-\lambda/2}}{j!} \right\} \\ &\times \left[ \frac{\sqrt{a} \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(\nu + 1) + j)}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}\nu + j)} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{(1 - \frac{1}{2}\nu - j)^{[i]}}{i! (2i + 1)} a^i F_1\left(-i; \frac{1}{2}; \frac{1}{2}\beta\right) \right. \\ &\left. - \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}\beta} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{(1 - \frac{1}{2}\nu - j)^{[i]}}{i!} a^i F_1\left(1 - i; \frac{3}{2}; \frac{1}{2}\beta\right) \right], \quad (31.59) \end{aligned}$$

where  $\varphi, F, \equiv M$ , and

$$a = \frac{t_0^2}{\nu + t_0^2}, \quad \beta = \delta^2(1 - a), \quad \sqrt{\beta} > 0.$$

Bulgren and Amos (1968) gave some other series representations and also a table of values of  $\Pr[t''_{\nu}(\delta, A) \leq t_0]$  to six decimal places for  $t_0 = 1, 2$ , and  $\nu = 2, 5(5)20$ ,  $\delta = -4(2)4$ ,  $A = 0(4)8$ .

The cumulative distribution function of  $t''_{\nu}(\delta, \lambda)$  is given by

$$F(t; \nu; \delta, \lambda) = \Pr[t''_{\nu}(\delta, \lambda) \leq t] = \Pr\left[U + \delta \leq t \left(\frac{W}{\nu}\right)^{1/2}\right], \quad (31.60)$$

where  $U$  and  $W$  are independent unit normal and  $\chi_\nu^2(\lambda)$  variables, respectively. Hence

$$F(t; \nu; \delta, \lambda) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \left[ e^{-\lambda/2} \frac{(\frac{1}{2}\lambda)^j}{j!} \right] F(t(1 + 2\nu^{-1}j)^{1/2}; \nu + 2j, \delta), \quad (31.61)$$

where  $F(t; \nu, \delta)$  is the cdf of a  $t'_\nu(\delta)$  variable. [Kocherlakota and Kocherlakota (1991).]

Availability of computational algorithms for  $t'_\nu(\delta)$  makes it simpler to determine  $F(t; \nu; 6, A)$ . [The routine DTNDF was used in IMSL (1987).] Krishnan (1968) and Kocherlakota and Kocherlakota (1991) observed that since

$$1 - F(t; \nu; \delta, \lambda) = F(-t; \nu; -\delta, \lambda), \quad (31.62)$$

it follows that  $t''_{\nu, \alpha}(\delta, A) = -t''_{\nu, 1-\alpha}(-\delta, A)$ . As a result tables for negative  $\delta$  are not needed. Note also that the median of  $t''_\nu(-6, A)$  is the same as *minus* of  $t''_\nu(\delta, A)$ .

Kocherlakota and Kocherlakota (1991) also provided tables of values of  $t''_{\nu, \alpha}(\delta, A)$  for  $\alpha = 0.05, 0.1, 0.25, 0.5, 0.75, 0.9$ , and  $0.95$  with  $\nu = 5(5)20, 6 = 0, 2, 4, A = 0, 4, 8$ . These authors used (31.61) combined with (31.60) for their calculations, obtaining results agreeing with Krishnan (1968) and Bulgren and Amos (1968). [Carey (1983) described another algorithm for the evaluation of  $F(t; \nu; 6, A)$ .]

### 8.3 Modified Noncentral t-Distribution

The most common modified t-statistic is obtained if we replace the  $S$  in the denominator (see Section 3) by the sample range  $W$  or by the mean of a number of independent sample ranges [see Lord (1947, 1950) and Chapter 13]. Thus in place of the  $\chi_\nu$  in the denominator of  $t'_\nu(\delta)$  (see Section 1) there is a variable having some other distribution but still independent of the  $U$  variable in the numerator.

The noncentrality of the distribution is associated with the  $\delta$  in the numerator. The denominator (in both original and modified forms) has the same distribution for both the central and noncentral cases. So approximations to this latter distribution that have been used for the central case can also be applied to the noncentral case, with reasonable hope of obtaining useful results. For example, if the distribution of  $W$  is approximated by that of  $\chi_\nu(c'\nu^{1/2})^{-1}$ , then  $(U + \delta)/W$  may be approximated by  $c't'_\nu(\delta)$ . Discussion of approximations to the distribution of noncentral modified  $t$  are found in Lord (1950) and Zaludová (1960).

#### 8.4 Distribution of Noncentral t-Statistic When the Population is Nonnormal

Noncentral t-statistic distributions have been studied as early as in the thirties and forties in order to assess the effect of nonnormality on the power of the t-test. We note, in particular, the work of Ghurye (1949) and Srivastava (1958). The first of these authors extended some results of Geary (1936, 1947) who supposed that the population density function could be adequately represented as

$$p_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \left\{ \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{x - \xi}{\sigma} \right)^2 \right] \right\} \left[ 1 + \frac{\sqrt{\beta_1}}{6} \left\{ \left( \frac{x - \xi}{\sigma} \right)^3 - 3 \left( \frac{x - \xi}{\sigma} \right) \right\} \right] \quad (31.63)$$

Srivastava, utilizing later results of Gayen (1949), obtained formulas for the case when the population density function is as in (31.63), with additional terms

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \left\{ \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{x - \xi}{\sigma} \right)^2 \right] \right\} \\ & \times \left[ \frac{\beta - 3}{24} \left\{ \left( \frac{x - \xi}{\sigma} \right)^4 - 6 \left( \frac{x - \xi}{\sigma} \right)^2 + 3 \right\} \right. \\ & \left. + \frac{\beta_1}{72} \left\{ \left( \frac{x - \xi}{\sigma} \right)^6 - 15 \left( \frac{x - \xi}{\sigma} \right)^4 + 45 \left( \frac{x - \xi}{\sigma} \right)^2 - 15 \right\} \right] \end{aligned}$$

(i.e., the next terms in the Edgeworth expansion). The correction to the normal theory power is of the form

$$-\sqrt{\beta_1} P_{\sqrt{\beta_1}} - (\beta_2 - 3) P_{\beta_2} - \beta_1 P_{\beta_1}, \quad (31.64)$$

where the P's do not depend on the  $\beta$ 's but on the noncentrality, the degrees of freedom, and the significance level of the test.

Bowman, Lam, and Shenton (1986) have studied the even moments and approximations of

$$T = \sqrt{n} \bar{X} \left\{ (n-1)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 \right\}^{-1/2}, \quad (31.65)$$

where the  $X_i$ 's are independent random variables, each having the standard

exponential distribution, with the pdf

$$p_X(x) = \exp(-x).$$

[Since  $E[X_i] = 1 \neq 0$ , (31.65) would have a noncentral  $r$ -distribution,  $t'_{n-1}(\sqrt{n})$ , if the common distribution of the  $X$ 's were normal with expected value 1.]

Mulholland (1977) suggested studying the distribution of

$$W_n = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 / \left( \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \right)^2 = n^{-1} + (n-1)n^{-1}T^{-2}, \quad (31.66)$$

utilizing the recurrence relation

$$p_{W_n}(w) = (n-1) \int_1^\infty y^{-(n-2)} p_{W_{n-1}}(wy^2 - (y-1)^2) dy. \quad (31.67)$$

Bowman, Lam, and Shenton obtained the following formulas for the pdfs of  $W_2$ ,  $W_3$ , and  $W_4$ :

$$p_{W_2}(w) = (2w-1)^{-1/2}, \quad \frac{1}{2} \leq w \leq 1, \quad (31.68a)$$

$$p_{W_3}(w) = \begin{cases} \frac{2\pi}{\sqrt{3}}, & \frac{1}{3} \leq w \leq \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{2\pi}{\sqrt{3}} - 2\sqrt{3} \cos^{-1}(6w-2)^{-1/2}, & \frac{1}{2} \leq w \leq 1, \end{cases} \quad (31.68b)$$

$p_{W_4}(w)$

$$= \begin{cases} 3\pi(4w-1)^{-1/2}, & \frac{1}{4} \leq w \leq \frac{1}{3} \\ 2\sqrt{3}\pi - 3\pi(4w-1)^{-1/2}, & \frac{1}{3} \leq w \leq \frac{1}{2} \\ 2\sqrt{3}\pi - 3\pi(4w-1)^{-1/2} - 6\sqrt{3} \tan^{-1}(6w-3)^{1/2} \\ \quad + 18(4w-1)[(2w-1)/(4w-1)]^{1/2}, & \frac{1}{2} \leq w \leq 1. \end{cases} \quad (31.68c)$$

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## CHAPTER 32

# Distributions of Correlation Coefficients

### 1 INTRODUCTION AND GENESIS

The statistic known as the sample (product-moment) correlation coefficient, based on  $n$  pairs of observed values of two characters, represented by random variables  $(X_t, Y_t)$  ( $t = 1, \dots, n$ ) is

$$R = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^n (X_t - \bar{X})(Y_t - \bar{Y})}{\left[ \sum_{t=1}^n (X_t - \bar{X})^2 \sum_{t=1}^n (Y_t - \bar{Y})^2 \right]^{1/2}}, \quad (32.1)$$

where  $\bar{X} = n^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^n X_t$ ;  $\bar{Y} = n^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^n Y_t$ . There are many alternative expressions. One of the most useful is

$$R = \frac{\mathbf{X}^* \cdot \mathbf{Y}^*}{|\mathbf{X}^*| |\mathbf{Y}^*|} = \cos(\mathbf{X}^*, \mathbf{Y}^*) = \cos \theta, \quad (32.1)'$$

where  $\mathbf{X}^* = (X_1^*, \dots, X_n^*)$  and  $\mathbf{Y}^* = (Y_1^*, \dots, Y_n^*)$  with  $X_t^* = X_t - \bar{X}$  and  $Y_t^* = Y_t - \bar{Y}$ , and  $|\mathbf{X}^*|$ ,  $|\mathbf{Y}^*|$  are the norms of  $\mathbf{X}^*$  and  $\mathbf{Y}^*$ , respectively. Kass (1989) observes that

$$|R| = \frac{L_1 - L_2}{L_1 + L_2}, \quad (32.1)''$$

where  $L_1, L_2$  are the eigenvalues of the Gram matrix

$$\mathbf{G} = \begin{pmatrix} |\mathbf{X}^*|^2 & \mathbf{X}^* \cdot \mathbf{Y}^* \\ \mathbf{X}^* \cdot \mathbf{Y}^* & |\mathbf{Y}^*|^2 \end{pmatrix},$$

and *provided* that  $|\mathbf{X}^*| = |\mathbf{Y}^*|$ ,

$$G = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \cos \theta \\ \cos \theta & 1 \end{pmatrix} |\mathbf{X}^*|.$$

(This shows that  $R$  is less suitable as a measure of association unless  $|\mathbf{X}^*| = |\mathbf{Y}^*|$ .) See Rodgers and Nicewander (1988), and also Section 3, for several other representations of  $R$ . The distribution that is the main topic of this chapter is the distribution of  $R$  when

1.  $(X_i, Y_i)$  and  $(X_j, Y_j)$  are mutually independent if  $i \neq j$ ,
2. the joint distribution of  $X$ , and  $Y$ , has probability density function

$$p_{X_i, Y_i}(x, y) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_X\sigma_Y\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2(1-\rho^2)} \left\{ \left( \frac{x-\xi}{\sigma_X} \right)^2 - 2\rho \left( \frac{x-\xi}{\sigma_X} \right) \left( \frac{y-\eta}{\sigma_Y} \right) + \left( \frac{y-\eta}{\sigma_Y} \right)^2 \right\} \right] \quad (32.2)$$

for each  $t = 1, 2, \dots, n$  ( $\sigma_X > 0$ ;  $\sigma_Y > 0$ ;  $-1 < \rho < 1$ ).

Formula (32.2) is that of the *general bivariate normal distribution*, which will be studied in a planned volume on *Continuous Multivariate Distributions*. We discuss the distribution of  $R$  before the parent distribution (32.2) because  $R$  is univariate, while (32.2) is a multivariate distribution and so is appropriate to the volume on multivariate distributions. However, we will use a few of the properties of (32.2) in order to pursue our analysis of the distribution of  $R$ . The first is that  $\rho$  is the *population correlation coefficient*:

$$\rho = \frac{E[\{X_t - E[X_t]\}\{Y_t - E[Y_t]\}]}{\sqrt{\text{var}(X_t)\text{var}(Y_t)}}. \quad (32.3)$$

The second is that  $X_t, Y_t$  each have normal distributions, with  $E[X_t] = \xi$ ;  $E[Y_t] = \eta$ ;  $\text{var}(X_t) = \sigma_X^2$ ;  $\text{var}(Y_t) = \sigma_Y^2$ . The conditional distribution of  $Y_t$ , given  $X_t$ , is normal, with expected value  $\eta + (\rho\sigma_Y/\sigma_X)(X_t - \xi)$  and variance  $(1 - \rho^2)\sigma_Y^2$ .

Rao (1983), while reminiscing on the origin and development of the correlation coefficient, has pointed out that the source of symbol  $R$  for the correlation coefficient was really the first letter of *Reversion* (according to Karl Pearson). Galton himself referred to his measure  $R$  as the *index of co-relation*, and Weldon called it the *Galton function*. While Karl Pearson and Sheppard derived the large-sample standard error of  $R$ , Fisher (1915) derived the exact distribution of  $R$ , under normality. Fisher also soon found

a simple transformation  $R = \tanh Z'$ , known as Fisher's *z'-transformation*, to considerably simplify the sampling distribution of R as well as the inference procedures based on the observed value of R.

In his classic treatise on Natural Inheritance, Galton wrote in 1908 of his discovery with that inspiring phraseology so typical of him: "This part of the inquiry may be said to run along a road on a high level, that affords wide views in unexpected directions, and from which easy descents may be made to totally different goals...". It is important to mention here that the correlation coefficient may be computed for any bivariate distribution with measured variables, but it certainly will not be an appropriate measure of intensity of association if the regression is curved; indeed we do not know at all thoroughly how its value is to be interpreted for many purposes unless the distribution itself is normal. Neglect of this latter point is sometimes quite flagrant.

This chapter is primarily concerned with the distribution of R corresponding to (32.2), but the distributions arising under some other conditions will also be discussed in Section 3. Furthermore Sections 8 and 9 are devoted to distributions of serial correlations, and Section 11 to distribution of multiple correlation.

For a brief recent discussion of some aspects of the distribution of the sample correlation coefficient (such as the derivation of the exact distribution, transformations, approximations, moments, robustness, etc.), interested readers may refer to Stuart and Ord (1994, pp. 556–570).

## 2 DERIVATION OF DISTRIBUTION OF R

Since the correlation between the standardized variables  $(X_i - \xi)/\sigma_X$  and  $(Y_i - \eta)/\sigma_Y$  is the same as that between  $X_i$  and  $Y_i$ , no generality is lost by taking  $\xi = \eta = 0$ ;  $\sigma_X = \sigma_Y = 1$ . We now consider the conditional distribution of R for fixed values of  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$ . Since the conditional distribution of  $Y_i$ , given  $X_i$ , is normal with expected value  $\rho X_i$  and variance  $(1 - \rho^2)$  (remembering that we are taking  $\xi = \eta = 0$ ;  $\sigma_X = \sigma_Y = 1$ ), it follows that  $R(1 - R^2)^{-1/2}$  is distributed as  $(n - 2)^{-1/2}$  times noncentral t with  $(n - 2)$  degrees of freedom and noncentrality parameter

$$\sqrt{\frac{n}{n-2}} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}{\sqrt{1 - \rho^2}} \cdot \frac{\rho}{\sqrt{1 - \rho^2}}.$$

(See Chapter 31, Section 6.)

To obtain the overall (unconditional) distribution of  $R(1 - R^2)^{-1/2}$ , we must calculate the expected value of the density function so obtained, over the distribution of  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$ . Since the density function depends on the X's only through the statistic  $\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$ , we need only use the fact that

this statistic is distributed as  $\chi^2$  with  $n - 1$  degrees of freedom, that is, as  $\chi_{n-1}^2$  (Chapter 18, Section 1). Writing  $V = R(1 - R^2)^{-1/2}$ , the conditional probability density of  $V$  is

$$p_V(v|S) = \frac{\exp\left[\frac{-\rho^2 S}{2(1-\rho^2)}\right]}{\sqrt{\pi} \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}n - 1)} (1 + v^2)^{-(n-1)/2} \\ \times \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{\Gamma((n-1+j)/2)}{j!} \left\{ \frac{2\rho^2 v^2 S}{(1-\rho^2)(1+v^2)} \right\}^{j/2} \quad (32.4)$$

where  $S = \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$ .

Since

$$p_S(s) = \left[ 2^{(n-1)/2} \Gamma\left(\frac{n-1}{2}\right) \right]^{-1} s^{(n-3)/2} e^{-s/2}, \quad s > 0,$$

and

$$\int_0^{\infty} s^{j/2} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\rho^2 s(1-\rho^2)^{-1}\right] p_S(s) ds \\ = \frac{2^{j/2} \Gamma((n-1+j)/2)}{\Gamma((n-1)/2)} (1-\rho^2)^{(n+j-1)/2},$$

it follows that

$$p_V(v) = \frac{(1-\rho^2)^{(n-1)/2}}{\sqrt{\pi} \Gamma((n-1)/2) \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}n - 1)} (1 + v^2)^{-(n-1)/2} \\ \times \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{(2\rho)^j [\Gamma((n-1+j)/2)]^2}{j!} \left( \frac{v^2}{1+v^2} \right)^{j/2}. \quad (32.5)$$

Finally, making the transformation  $V = R(1 - R^2)^{-1/2}$ , we obtain

$$p_R(r) = \frac{(1-\rho^2)^{(n-1)/2} (1-r^2)^{(n-4)/2}}{\sqrt{\pi} \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(n-1)) \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}n - 1)} \\ \times \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{[\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(n-1+j))]^2}{j!} (2\rho r)^j, \quad -1 \leq r \leq 1. \quad (32.6a)$$



[The constant multiplier may be expressed in an alternative form by using the identity  $\sqrt{\pi} \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(n - 1))\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}n - 1) = 2^{-(n-3)}\pi(n - 3)!]$

There are a number of other forms in which the right-hand side of (32.6a) may be expressed. These include

$$p_R(r) = \frac{(n - 2)(1 - \rho^2)^{(n-1)/2}(1 - r^2)^{(n-4)/2}}{\pi} \int_0^\infty \frac{dw}{(\cosh w - \rho r)^{n-1}}, \tag{32.6b}$$

$$p_R(r) = \frac{(n - 2)(1 - \rho^2)^{(n-1)/2}(1 - r^2)^{(n-4)/2}}{\pi} \int_1^\infty \frac{dw}{(w - \rho r)^{n-1}(w^2 - 1)^{1/2}}, \tag{32.6c}$$

$$p_R(r) = \frac{(1 - \rho^2)^{(n-1)/2}(1 - r^2)^{(n-4)/2}}{\pi(n - 3)!} \frac{d^{n-2}}{d(\rho r)^{n-2}} \left\{ \frac{\cos^{-1}(-\rho r)}{(1 - \rho^2 r^2)^{1/2}} \right\}, \tag{32.6d}$$

$$p_R(r) = \frac{(n - 2)(1 - \rho^2)^{(n-1)/2}(1 - r^2)^{(n-4)/2}}{\sqrt{2}(n - 1)B(\frac{1}{2}, n - \frac{1}{2})(1 - \rho r)_{n-(3/2)}} \times {}_2F_1\left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}; n - \frac{1}{2}; \frac{1}{2}(1 + \rho r)\right) \quad [\text{Hotelling (1953)}], \tag{32.6e}$$

$$p_R(r) = \frac{(1 - \rho^2)^{(n-1)/2}(1 - r^2)^{(n-4)/2}}{\pi(n - 3)!} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta}\right)^{n-2} \frac{\theta}{\sin \theta} \tag{32.6f}$$

with  $\theta = \cos^{-1}(\rho r)$  [Fisher (1915)].

In all cases  $-1 \leq r \leq 1$ . [ ${}_2F_1(\dots)$  is the Gauss hypergeometric function defined in Chapter 1, Eq. (1.104).]

Formulas (32.6b) and (32.6c) are obtainable, each from the other, by simple transformation of the variable in the integral. Equation (32.6e) is a direct consequence of (32.6a) and, even for moderately large n, the hypergeometric series converges rapidly. Formulas (32.6d) and (32.6f) are notable in that they express the probability density by a finite number of terms which involve elementary functions only.

Fisher (1915) obtained the distribution of R in the form (32.6f) motivated by a geometrical argument. [Earlier investigations were made by Student (1908) and Soper (1913).] This distribution also served Fisher as the initial model for introducing the "fiducial method of inference" (see Chapters 1 and 13, and Chapter 28, Section 7) and has been, in this connection, the

subject of numerous discussions in the literature [e.g., Fraser (1963); Williams (1993)].

There are several elementary derivations of  $p_R(r)$  for the case  $p = 0$ . Here we note a purely geometric derivation by Chance (1984), which is valid for any spherically symmetric distribution and was inspired by Fisher's (1915) derivations. [Fisher treated each of  $X$  and  $Y$  as a point on an  $n$ -dimensional sphere and noted that the correlation coefficient corresponds to the cosine of the angle ( $\theta$ ) between the radii to the two points. For the remainder of his paper, however, he relied upon an analytical treatment of the bivariate normal distribution to derive a general expression.] An elementary derivation, after a change of variables, was also given by Srivastava and Khatri (1979).

For  $p = 0$  we have the so-called null pdf of  $R$ :

$$p_R(r) = \frac{\Gamma[(n-1)/2]}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2})\Gamma[(n-2)/2]} (1-r^2)^{(n-4)/2} \quad \text{for } -1 < r < 1. \quad (32.7)$$

(The distribution is symmetric around 0.) The corresponding **moment-generating** function is

$$M_R(t) = \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(n-1))2^{(n-3)/2}t^{-(n-3)/2}I_{(n-3)/2}(t) \quad \text{for } n > 2, \quad (32.8a)$$

where

$$I_{(n-3)/2}(t) = \frac{(\frac{1}{2}t)^{(n-3)/2}}{\Gamma[\frac{1}{2}(n-1)]} \left[ 1 + \frac{t^2}{2(n-1)} + \frac{t^4}{2^3(n-1)(n+1)} + \dots \right]$$

is a modified Bessel function of the second kind of order  $(n-3)/2$ . The corresponding (real-valued) characteristic function, expressed in terms of the Bessel function  $J_{(n-3)/2}(t)$ , where  $I_\nu(z) = i^{-\nu}J_\nu(iz)$ , is

$$\varphi_R(t) = \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(n-1))2^{(n-3)/2}t^{-(n-3)/2}J_{(n-3)/2}(t) \quad [\text{Bhatti (1990)}]. \quad (32.8b)$$

For small values of  $n$ , simple explicit formulas for the cumulative distribution (cdf) of  $R$  were obtained by Garwood (1933). A few of these are shown in Table 32.1, with  $y_n$  denoting the pdf of  $R$  [ $p_R(r; \rho, n)$ ], and

$$Q(r\rho) = (1 - r^2\rho^2)^{-1/2} \cos^{-1}(-r\rho). \quad (32.9)$$

The values of  $y_3$  and  $y_4$  are

$$y_3 = \pi^{-1}(1-r^2)^{-1/2}(1-\rho^2)(1-r^2\rho^2)^{-1}\{1+r\rho Q(r\rho)\},$$

$$y_4 = \pi^{-1}(1-\rho^2)^{3/2}(1-r^2\rho^2)^{-2}\{3r\rho + (1+2r^2\rho^2)Q(r\rho)\}.$$

Table 32.1 Formulas for the cdf of R

<i>n</i>	$F_R(r; \rho, n)$
3	$\pi^{-1}[\cos^{-1}(-r) - \pi^{-1}\rho(1 - r^2)Q(r\rho)]$
4	$\rho^{-1}(1 - \rho^2)^{1/2}(1 - r^2)^{1/2}y_3 - (\pi\rho)^{-1}(1 - \rho^2)^{1/2} + \pi^{-1} \cos^{-1} \rho,$
5	$(2\rho)^{-1}(1 - \rho^2)^{1/2}(1 - r^2)^{1/2}y_4 - \frac{1}{2}r(1 - r^2)y_3$ $- (2\pi\rho)^{-1}(1 + \rho^2)(1 - r^2)^{1/2}Q(r\rho) + \pi^{-1} \cos^{-1}(-r)$
6	$(3\pi\rho^3)^{-1}(1 - \rho^2)^{1/2}(1 - 4\rho^2) + \pi^{-1} \cos^{-1} \rho$ $- (3\rho^3)^{-1}(1 - \rho^2)^{3/2}(1 - r^2)^{1/2}y_3$ $+ r(3\rho^2)^{-1}(1 - \rho^2)y_4 + (3\rho)^{-1}(1 - \rho^2)^{1/2}(1 - r^2)^{1/2}y_5$
7	$(4\rho)^{-1}(1 - r^2)^{1/2}(1 - \rho^2)^{1/2}y_6 + r(4\rho^2)^{-1}(1 - \rho^2)y_5$ $- r^2(8\rho)^{-1}(1 - r^2)^{1/2}(1 - \rho^2)^{1/2}(2 - \rho^2)y_4$ $- r(8\rho^2)^{-1}(1 - r^2)(4 - 3\rho^2 + 3\rho^4)y_3$ $- (8\pi\rho)^{-1}(1 - r^2)^{1/2}(3 + 6\rho^2 - \rho^4)Q(r\rho) + \pi^{-1} \cos^{-1}(-r)$

Note. The authors are grateful to Drs. O. Öksoy and L. A. Aroian for pointing out a misprint in these formulas in the first edition of this book. See Oksoy and Aroian (1982).

Values of  $y_n$ , for  $n > 4$  can be calculated from the recurrence formula

$$\begin{aligned}
 y_n &= (1 - r^2\rho^2)^{-1} \{ (1 + r^2)(1 - \rho^2) \}^{1/2} \\
 &\times [ (n - 3)^{-1} (2n - 5) r \rho y_{n-1} \\
 &\quad - 2)^{-1} (n - 1) \{ (1 - r^2)(1 - \rho^2) \}^{1/2} y_{n-2} ] \\
 &\quad \text{[Soper et al. (1917)].} \quad (3.10)
 \end{aligned}$$

Garwood (1933) also obtained the general formula, for odd  $n (= 2s + 3)$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}
 F_R(r; \rho, 2s + 3) &= \pi^{-1} \cos^{-1} r - (1 - r^2)^{1/2} [(2s!)]^{-1} \pi^{-1} (1 - \rho^2)^{s+1} \\
 &\times \left\{ \Delta^s \rho^{2s} - \binom{s}{1} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \rho^2} \Delta^{s-1} \rho^{2s-2} \right. \\
 &\quad + \binom{s}{2} \frac{\partial^4}{\partial \rho^4} \Delta^{s-2} \rho^{2s-4} \\
 &\quad \left. + \dots + (-1)^s \frac{\partial^{2s}}{\partial \rho^{2s}} \right\} \frac{\rho}{1 - \rho^2} Q(r\rho). \quad (32.11a)
 \end{aligned}$$

Greco (1992) suggest that evaluation can be facilitated by using the formulas

$$F_R(r; \rho, n)$$

$$= \begin{cases} \pi^{-1} \left\{ \cos^{-1}(-r) + (1 + \rho^2)^{1/2} \sum_{i=1}^{(n-3)/2} L_{2i-1} - \rho(1 - r^2)^{1/2} \sum_{i=0}^{(n-3)/2} L_{2i} \right\} & \text{for } n \text{ odd,} \\ \pi^{-1} \left\{ \cos^{-1} \rho + (1 - \rho^2)^{1/2} r \sum_{i=0}^{(n-4)/2} L_{2i} - \rho(1 - r^2)^{1/2} \sum_{i=0}^{(n-2)/2} L_{2i-1} \right\} & \text{for } n \text{ even,} \end{cases} \quad (32.11b)$$

where  $L_k = \{(1 - \rho^2)(1 - r^2)\}^{1/2} d^k Q(r\rho) / d(r\rho)^k$ , which may be evaluated from the recurrence relation

$$L_k = (1 - r^2 \rho^2)^{-1} (1 - \rho^2)(1 - r^2) \\ \times \left[ (2 - k^{-1}) \left\{ (1 - \rho^2)(1 - r^2)^{-1/2} r \rho L_{k-1} \right\} + (1 - k^{-1}) L_{k-2} \right].$$

As  $n$  increases, the expressions rapidly become more complicated. However, despite the complexity of the formulas, the density function is represented by a simple curve over the range  $-1 \leq r \leq 1$  with a single mode (antimode if  $n < 4$ ).

We also note that the value of  $F_R(0) = \Pr[R \leq 0]$  can be evaluated rather simply. Since  $R \leq 0$  is equivalent to

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{x}_i - \bar{X}) Y_i \leq 0,$$

we need to evaluate the probability of this latter event. For given  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  the probability is (using results already quoted in this section):

$$\Phi \left( \frac{-\rho}{\sqrt{1 - \rho^2}} \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - \bar{X})^2} \right) = \Pr \left[ \frac{U}{\sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - \bar{X})^2}} \leq -\frac{\rho}{\sqrt{1 - \rho^2}} \right]$$

Averaging over the distribution of  $\sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - \bar{X})^2$  (which is chi-square with  $n - 1$  degrees of freedom), we see that

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[R \leq 0] &= \Pr\left[\frac{t_{n-1}}{\sqrt{n-1}} \leq -\frac{\rho}{\sqrt{1-\rho^2}}\right] \\ &= \Pr\left[t_{n-1} \leq \frac{-\rho\sqrt{n-1}}{\sqrt{1-\rho^2}}\right]. \end{aligned} \quad (32.12)$$

[This result was noted by Armsen (1956) and Ruben (1963).]

The moments of the distribution of R can be expressed in terms of hypergeometric functions [Ghosh (1966)]:

$$\mu'_1 = c_n \rho {}_2F_1\left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}; \frac{1}{2}(n+1); \rho^2\right), \quad (32.13a)$$

$$\mu'_2 = 1 - \frac{(n-2)(1-\rho^2)}{n-1} {}_2F_1\left(1, 1; \frac{1}{2}(n+1); \rho^2\right), \quad (32.13b)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mu'_3 &= c_n \left[ \rho {}_2F_1\left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}; \frac{1}{2}(n+1); \rho^2\right) - \rho^{-1}(n-1)(n-2) \right] \\ &\quad \times \left\{ {}_2F_1\left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}; \frac{1}{2}(n-1); \rho^2\right) - {}_2F_1\left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}; \frac{1}{2}(n+1); \rho^2\right) \right\}, \end{aligned} \quad (32.13c)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mu'_4 &= 1 + \frac{(n-2)(n-4)(1-\rho^2)}{2(n-1)} {}_2F_1\left(1, 1; \frac{1}{2}(n+1); \rho^2\right) \\ &\quad - \frac{n(n-2)(1-\rho^2)}{4\rho^2} \left[ {}_2F_1\left(1, 1; \frac{1}{2}(n+1); \rho^2\right) - 1 \right], \end{aligned} \quad (32.13d)$$

where

$$c_n = \frac{2}{n-1} \left[ \frac{\Gamma(n/2)}{\Gamma((n-1)/2)} \right]^2.$$

Ghosh (1966) also obtained the following expansions in inverse powers of  $m$  ( $= n + 6$ ):

$$\begin{aligned} \mu'_1 &= \rho - \frac{1}{2}\rho(1 - \rho^2)m^{-1} \\ &\times \left[ 1 + \frac{9}{4}(3 + \rho^2)m^{-1} + \frac{3}{8}(121 + 70\rho^2 + 25\rho^4)m^{-2} \right] + O(m^{-4}), \end{aligned} \quad (32.14a)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_2 &= \frac{(1 - \rho^2)^2}{m} \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{2}(14 + 11\rho^2)m^{-1} + \frac{1}{2}(98 + 130\rho^2 + 75\rho^4)m^{-2} \right] \\ &+ O(m^{-4}), \end{aligned} \quad (32.14b)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_3 &= -\frac{\rho(1 - \rho^2)^3}{m^2} \\ &\times \left[ 6 + (69 + 88\rho^2)m^{-1} + \frac{3}{4}(797 + 1691\rho^2 + 1560\rho^4)m^{-2} \right] \\ &+ O(m^{-5}), \end{aligned} \quad (32.14c)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_4 &= \frac{3(1 - \rho^2)^4}{m^2} \left[ 1 + (12 + 35\rho^2)m^{-1} + \frac{1}{4}(436 + 2028\rho^2 + 3025\rho^4)m^{-2} \right] \\ &+ O(m^{-5}). \end{aligned} \quad (32.14d)$$

Also

$$\begin{aligned} \beta_1 &= \frac{\rho^2}{m} [36 + 6(12 + 77\rho^2)m^{-1} - (162 - 1137\rho^2 - 6844\rho^4)m^{-2}] \\ &+ O(m^{-4}) \end{aligned} \quad (32.15a)$$

(note that the sign of  $\sqrt{\beta_1}$  is opposite to that of  $\rho$ ), and

$$\begin{aligned} \beta_2 &= 3 - \frac{3}{m} \left[ 2(1 - 12\rho^2) + (10 + 14\rho^2 - 387\rho^4)m^{-1} \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \frac{1}{2}(100 + 832\rho^2 + 1503\rho^4 - 14202\rho^6)m^{-2} \right] \\ &+ O(m^{-4}). \end{aligned} \quad (32.15b)$$

Extending Ghosh's (1966) results, Iwase (1985) obtained the following explicit expressions (not involving integrals) for  $F_R(r; \rho, n)$ , valid for  $n \geq 3$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
 F_R(r; \rho, n) &= \frac{1}{2} - \frac{\rho(1 - \rho^2)^{(n-1)/2}}{B(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}(n-1))} {}_2F_1(1, \frac{1}{2}n; \frac{3}{2}; \rho^2) \\
 &+ \frac{(1 - \rho^2)^{(n-1)/2}}{B(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}(n-2))} r {}_3F_2\left(\frac{1}{2}; \frac{1}{2}(n-1), \frac{1}{2}(n-1); \frac{4-n}{2}; \rho^2 r^2, r^2\right) \\
 &+ \frac{(n-2)\rho(1 - \rho^2)^{(n-1)/2}}{2B(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}(n-1))} r^2 {}_3F_2\left(1; \frac{1}{2}n, \frac{1}{2}n; \frac{4-n}{2}; \rho^2 r^2, r^2\right),
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{32.16}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}
 &F_{C:D:D'}^{A:B:B'}(a_1, \dots, a_A; b_1, \dots, b_B; b'_1, \dots, b'_{B'}; \\
 &c_1, \dots, c_C; d_1, \dots, d_D; d'_1, \dots, d'_{D'}; x, y) \\
 &= \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left\{ \frac{\prod_{j=1}^A (a_j)_{m+n} \prod_{j=1}^B (b_j)_m \prod_{j=1}^{B'} (b'_j)_n}{\prod_{j=1}^C (c_j)_{m+n} \prod_{j=1}^D (d_j)_m \prod_{j=1}^{D'} (d'_j)_n} \right\} x^m y^n,
 \end{aligned}$$

with  $(g)_h = g(g+1) \dots (g+h-1)$ , and  ${}_2F_1(a, b; c; z)$  is the Gauss hypergeometric function defined in Chapter 1 [see Eq. (1.104)].

In particular,

$$\Pr[R \leq 0] = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{\rho(1 - \rho^2)^{(n-1)/2}}{B(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}(n-1))} {}_2F_1\left(1, \frac{n}{2}; \frac{3}{2}; \rho^2\right), \quad n \geq 3. \tag{32.17}$$

This is of course equivalent to (32.12).

Also the  $k$ th moment of R about zero is

$$\mu'_k = \begin{cases} \frac{B((k+1)/2, (n-2)/2)}{B(\frac{1}{2}, (n-2)/2)} (1 - \rho^2)^{(n-1)/2} \\ \quad \times {}_3F_2\left(\frac{k+1}{2}, \frac{n-1}{2}, \frac{n-1}{2}; \frac{n+k-1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}; \rho^2\right), & k = 0, 2, 4, \dots, \\ \frac{(n-2)B((k+2)/2, (n-2)/2)}{B(\frac{1}{2}, (n-1)/2)} \rho(1 - \rho^2)^{(n-1)/2} \\ \quad \times {}_3F_2\left(\frac{k+2}{2}, \frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2}; \frac{n+k}{2}, \frac{3}{2}; \rho^2\right), & k = 1, 3, 5, \dots, |\rho| < 1, n \geq 3, \end{cases}
 \tag{32.18}$$

[compare with Eqs. (32.13)], and

$$E \left[ \left( \frac{R^2}{1-R^2} \right)^k \right] = \frac{B \left( k + \frac{1}{2}, \frac{n}{2} - k - 1 \right)}{B \left( \frac{1}{2}, (n-2)/2 \right)} (1-\rho^2)^{(n-1)/2} \\ \times {}_2F_1 \left( k + \frac{1}{2}, \frac{n-1}{2}; \frac{1}{2}; \rho^2 \right), \quad (32.19)$$

for any nonnegative real number  $k$ , provided that  $n \geq 3$  and  $|\rho| \neq 1$ . [ ${}_3F_2(\cdot, \cdot, \cdot; \cdot, \cdot; \cdot)$  is a generalized hypergeometric function, as defined in Chapter 1, Eq. (1.140).]

For everyday use, remember that the bias in  $R$  as an estimator of  $\rho$  is approximately  $-\frac{1}{2}\rho(1-\rho^2)n^{-1}$  and that

$$\text{var}(R) \doteq (1-\rho^2)^2 n^{-1} \quad (\text{see Section 5}). \quad (32.20)$$

It is interesting that

$$E[\sin^{-1} R] = \sin^{-1} \rho. \quad (32.21)$$

[See Harley (1954, 1956); Daniels and Kendall (1958).] Subrahmaniam and Gajjar (1980) claim that this is the only nonconstant function  $g(R)$  for which  $E[g(R)] = g(\rho)$ .

We conclude this section by giving two relationships [(32.22) and (32.23)] satisfied by  $p_R(r)$ . They are not generally of practical use but may be helpful in specific problems and have some intrinsic interest:

$$r \frac{\partial p_R(r)}{\partial r} + \frac{(n-3)r^2}{1-r^2} p_R(r) = \rho \frac{\partial p_R(r)}{\partial \rho} + \frac{n\rho^2}{1-\rho^2} p_R(r) \quad (32.22)$$

[Hotelling (1953)]. [The near symmetry of the coefficients in  $r$  (left hand) and  $\rho$  (right hand) should be noted.] Also

$$(n-1)(n-2)\{1-(\rho R)^2\}p_R(r; \rho, n+1) \\ = (2n-1)(n-2)\rho\sqrt{1-\rho^2}R\sqrt{1-R^2}p_R(r; \rho, n) \\ + (n-1)^2(1-\rho^2)(1-r^2)p_R(r; \rho, n-1) \quad (32.23)$$

[Soper et al. (1917)].

### 3 HISTORICAL REMARKS

Although our primary interest is in the distributions of  $R$  (and other measures of association) rather than in the history of the statistic  $R$  in (32.1), we provide for background a condensed account of its history. One of the



most popular, and widely used (and abused), descriptive measures of degree of linear relationship between two variables, the product-moment (**Pearson**) correlation coefficient (32.1) was first described explicitly by Karl **Pearson** (1896, p. 265). He introduced the formula with the following words: "Thus it appears that the observed result is the most probable when  $r$  is given the value  $S(xy)/(n\sigma_1\sigma_2)$ . This value presents no practical difficulty in calculation, and therefore we shall adopt it. It is the value given by Bravais, but he does not show it is the best."

The formula **Pearson** described is the one given in modern usage as

$$R = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i^* Y_i^*}{n\sigma_X\sigma_Y} \quad [\text{cf. (32.1)'}], \quad (32.24)$$

where  $X_i^* = X_i - \bar{X}$  and  $Y_i^* = Y_i - \bar{Y}$  as in (32.1).

There is evidence [see, e.g., Symonds (1926); Tankard (1984)] that K. **Pearson's** (1896) formula had been in manuscript some time before its publication. K. **Pearson** (1895) contains a brief reference to the formula, and so does Yule (1895) who was a student of **Pearson**.

The phrase "coefficient of correlation" in place of **Galton's** (1886) "index of co-relation" and **Weldon's** "Galton's function" was introduced by F. Y. Edgeworth in his **Newmarch** lectures at University College, London, in 1892 [see K. **Pearson** (1920); Stigler (1978)]. Karl **Pearson** was greatly influenced by Edgeworth (1892a, b) in his initial groundbreaking work [K. **Pearson** (1896)].

It was realized that properties of  $R$  (or  $r_{XY}$ ) which are of most practical value can be summed up as follows:

1.  $-1 \leq R \leq 1$ .
2.  $R = -1$  implies a line sloping downward to the right with all observations lying directly on the line (i.e., a perfect negative linear relation between the observed  $X$ 's and  $Y$ 's).
3.  $R = 1$  implies a perfect positive *linear* relation in *the* sample data.
4.  $R$  near to zero implies little or no *linear* relationship (but there may be a nonlinear relation between the two).
5. If  $X, Y$  are independent,  $\rho_{XY} = 0$ , where  $\rho_{XY}$  is the *population* correlation coefficient between  $X$  and  $Y$

$$[ = \{ E[XY] - E[X]E[Y] \} / \{ \text{var}(X)\text{var}(Y) \}^{1/2} ].$$

6. If  $X, Y$  are *normal* random variables, then  $\rho_{XY} = 0$  implies that  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent. The same property is also valid if each one of  $X$  and  $Y$  is a binary random variable.
7.  $R$  and  $\rho_{XY}$  are invariant to location and scale transformations.

In early days there was considerable emphasis on construction of convenient formulas for computing  $R$ . For example, Symonds (1926) collected no

fewer than 52(!) such formulas as examples. Among them were three versions involving the "gross scores"  $X$  and  $Y$ :

$$R = \frac{n^{-1}\Sigma XY - n^{-2}\Sigma X \Sigma Y}{\left\{n^{-1}\Sigma X^2 - (n^{-1}\Sigma X)^2\right\}^{1/2} \left\{n^{-1}\Sigma Y^2 - (n^{-1}\Sigma Y)^2\right\}^{1/2}}, \quad (32.25a)$$

$$R = \frac{\Sigma XY - n^{-1}\Sigma X \Sigma Y}{\left\{\Sigma X^2 - n^{-1}(\Sigma X)^2\right\}^{1/2} \left\{\Sigma Y^2 - n^{-1}(\Sigma Y)^2\right\}^{1/2}}, \quad (32.25b)$$

$$R = \frac{n\Sigma XY - \Sigma X \Sigma Y}{\left\{n\Sigma X^2 - (\Sigma X)^2\right\}^{1/2} \left\{n\Sigma Y^2 - (\Sigma Y)^2\right\}^{1/2}}. \quad (32.25c)$$

These were evidently intended to appeal to calculators of various, slightly different tastes.

These formulas were first published in Harris (1910). They were rediscovered independently by Thurstone (1917) and Ayres (1920). Indeed, these formulas are sometimes referred to as "Ayres's formulas" in educational and psychological literature. As Symonds (1926) pointed out: "This is a good example of scientific men doing research without endeavoring to find out what has been done in the same field in the past." Hull (1925) and Dodd (1926) invented special "automatic correlation machines" to compute  $\Sigma X$ ,  $\Sigma Y$ ,  $\Sigma X^2$ ,  $\Sigma Y^2$ , and  $\Sigma XY$ .

More general formulas, involving deviations  $x' = X - \xi$ ,  $y' = Y - \eta$  from "assumed means" or "arbitrary origin" ( $\xi, \eta$ ) simply replace  $X, Y$  in (32.25a)–(32.25c) by  $x', y'$ , respectively. These were essentially given even earlier by Yule (1897), albeit in the slightly disguised form

$$R = \frac{\Sigma x'y' - nc_x c_y}{\left\{(\Sigma x'^2 - nc_x^2)(\Sigma y'^2 - nc_y^2)\right\}^{1/2}}, \quad (32.26)$$

where  $c_x$  is the "distance between the assumed and the true mean." [ $c_x = \xi - \bar{X}$ ;  $c_y = \eta - \bar{Y}$ ].

The "difference formula"

$$R = \frac{\Sigma x'^2 + \Sigma y'^2 - \Sigma (x' - y')^2}{2\sqrt{(\Sigma x'^2)\Sigma (y'^2)}} \quad (32.27a)$$

was given by K. Pearson (1896). It was independently rediscovered by Boas (1909). (Pearson immediately wrote an indignant rejoinder, criticizing Boas for his negligence in studying the literature.) A variant ("sum formula") of

the difference formula,

$$R = \frac{\Sigma(x' + y')^2 - \Sigma x'^2 - \Sigma y'^2}{2\sqrt{(\Sigma x'^2)(\Sigma y'^2)}}, \quad (32.27b)$$

apparently appeared first in Kelley (1923). Yet another variant

$$R = \frac{\Sigma x'^2 + \Sigma y'^2 - \Sigma(X - Y)^2 + n(\bar{X} - \bar{Y})^2}{2\sqrt{(\Sigma x'^2)(\Sigma y'^2)}} \quad (32.28)$$

was devised by Huffaker (1925).

Considerable attention was devoted to the special equivariance case

$$\text{var}(X) = \text{var}(Y) = \sigma^2.$$

Harris (1910) proposed a number of formulas, including

$$R = 1 - \frac{\Sigma(x' - y')^2}{2\Sigma x'^2} \quad (32.29a)$$

for this case. Less familiar formulas, in Symonds (1926), include

$$R = \frac{\Sigma(x' + y')^2 - \Sigma(x' - y')^2}{\Sigma(x' + y')^2 + \Sigma(x' - y')^2}. \quad (32.29b)$$

Printed forms (also called "charts" and "data sheets") facilitating calculation of the correlation coefficient were offered for sale in the United States in the early 1920s.

Early work on the distribution of R was almost exclusively devoted to cases in which X and Y had joint bivariate normal distributions. In later years there has been an increased emphasis on situations where this is not the case, and consideration of robustness arises. This is the topic of the next section.

#### 4 DISTRIBUTION OF R IN NONNORMAL POPULATIONS AND ROBUSTNESS

The distribution of R for samples from nonnormal populations has been worked out in detail only for certain special cases. For certain bivariate Edgeworth populations, investigations indicate the kinds of variation one might expect with various departures from normality, as measured by the lower moment ratios. (The assumption that there are *n independent* pairs of observations, each with the *same* joint distribution, has been retained.)

**Quensel** (1938) supposed that cumulants (and mixed cumulants) of order higher than four were negligible and that the population value of the correlation coefficient  $\rho$  was zero. **Gayen** (1951) extended this work by allowing  $\rho$  to be nonzero. He obtained an expansion for the density function in terms of the right-hand side of Eqs. (32.6a)–(32.6f) [here denoted by  $f(r, \rho)$ ] and its derivatives with respect to  $\rho$ . The formula is

$$p_R(r) = f(r, \rho) + \frac{n-1}{8n(n+1)} \left\{ L_{4,1} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \rho} + L_{4,2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \rho^2} \right\} + \frac{n-2}{12n(n+1)(n+3)} \left\{ L_{6,1} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \rho} + L_{6,2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \rho^2} + L_{6,3} \frac{\partial^3 f}{\partial \rho^3} \right\}, \quad (32.30)$$

where the  $L$ 's are functions of  $n, \rho$  and the cumulant ratios  $\gamma_{ij} = \kappa_{ij} \kappa_{20}^{-i/2} \kappa_{02}^{-j/2}$ , namely

$$L_{4,1} = 3\rho(\gamma_{40} + \gamma_{04}) - 4(\gamma_{31} + \gamma_{13}) + 2\rho\gamma_{22},$$

$$L_{4,2} = \rho^2(\gamma_{40} + \gamma_{04}) - 4\rho(\gamma_{31} + \gamma_{13}) + 2(2 + \rho^2)\gamma_{22},$$

$$L_{6,1} = -15\rho(\gamma_{30}^2 + \gamma_{03}^2) - 9\rho \left( 1 + \frac{2}{n-2} \right) (\gamma_{21}^2 + \gamma_{12}^2) - \frac{6}{n-2} \gamma_{30}\gamma_{03} + 6 \left( 2 + \frac{1}{n-2} \right) \gamma_{21}\gamma_{12} + 18(\gamma_{30}\gamma_{21} + \gamma_{03}\gamma_{12}) + \frac{18\rho}{n-2} (\gamma_{30}\gamma_{12} + \gamma_{03}\gamma_{21}),$$

$$L_{6,2} = -9\rho^2(\gamma_{30}^2 + \gamma_{03}^2) - 3 \left( 4 + 5\rho^2 - \frac{2(2-5\rho^2)}{n-2} \right) (\gamma_{21}^2 + \gamma_{12}^2) - \frac{18\rho}{n-2} \gamma_{30}\gamma_{03} + 18\rho \left( 2 + \frac{1}{n-2} \right) \gamma_{21}\gamma_{12} + 30\rho(\gamma_{30}\gamma_{21} + \gamma_{03}\gamma_{12}) - 6 \left( 2 + \frac{2-5\rho^2}{n-2} \right) (\gamma_{30}\gamma_{12} + \gamma_{03}\gamma_{21}),$$

$$L_{6,3} = -\rho^3(\gamma_{30}^2 + \gamma_{03}^2) - 3\rho \left( 2 + \rho^2 - \frac{2(1-\rho^2)}{n-2} \right) (\gamma_{21}^2 + \gamma_{12}^2) + 2 \left( 1 + \frac{3(1-\rho^2)}{n-2} \right) \gamma_{30}\gamma_{03} + 6 \left( 1 + 2\rho^2 - \frac{1-\rho^2}{n-2} \right) \gamma_{21}\gamma_{12} + 6\rho^2(\gamma_{30}\gamma_{21} + \gamma_{03}\gamma_{12}) - 6\rho \left( 1 + \frac{1-\rho^2}{n-2} \right) (\gamma_{30}\gamma_{12} + \gamma_{03}\gamma_{21}).$$

Cook (1951a, b) obtained expressions (up to and including terms in  $n^{-2}$ ) for the first four moments of R in terms of the cumulants and **cross-cumulants** of the parent population (without specifying the exact form of this population distribution). The second and third terms, respectively, of (32.30) can be regarded as corrections to the normal density  $p_R(r|\rho)$ , for kurtosis and skewness. Gayen (1951) gave values of these corrective terms for certain special cases. When  $\rho$  is zero, the terms are small, even for  $n$  as small as four. However, an example with  $\rho = 0.8$  shows that quite substantial corrections can be needed when  $n$  is not large.

Gayen further discussed the distribution of  $Z' = \tanh^{-1} R$  (see the next section) obtaining expansions for its expected value, variance,  $\beta_1$ , and  $\beta_2$ . He found that  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$  of  $Z'$  still tend to the normal values of 0 and 3 as  $n$  increased, though not so rapidly as when the parent population is normal. Table 32.2 gives the leading terms in expressions for moments and moment ratios of R and  $Z'$ . Cheriyan (1945) reported results of sampling experiments on distribution of correlation coefficient in random samples from certain bivariate gamma distributions.

In the last 20 years there has been a proliferation of papers on the distribution of R in samples from nonnormal bivariate distributions. A frequent feature of the methodology has been the use of Cornish-Fisher expansions (Chapter 12, Section 5), following the lines explored by Quensel (1938), Gayen (1951), and Cook (1951a, b). Nakagawa and Niki (1992) have extended these results, obtaining expressions for cumulants of R up to and including terms of order  $n^{-3}$ . (The general expression for the approximate fourth cumulant is extremely lengthy, containing some 345 terms!). They present results of simulation, exhibiting the improvement in accuracy achieved by inclusion of the terms of order  $n^{-3}$ . Apart from a bivariate normal parent population, they consider two other special cases—of samples from *bivariate* uniform distributions over (1) a parallelogram and (2) a trapezoid—as shown in Figures 32.1a, b. When  $d = 0$ , both (1) and (2) of course are the same standard bivariate uniform distribution. The values of the correlation coefficient are, for the parallelogram,

$$d(1 + d^2)^{-1/2}, \quad (32.31a)$$

for the trapezoid,

$$d(12 - d^2)^{1/2}(48 + 24d^2 - d^4)^{-1/2}. \quad (32.31b)$$

Since 1970 there has been a number of papers on the distribution of R in random samples from mixtures of two bivariate normal distributions [Bebbington (1978); Kocherlakota and Kocherlakota (1981); Srivastava (1983); Srivastava and Awan (1982, 1984); and Srivastava and Lee (1984)]. Some of these will now be summarized, using the following common notation, for convenience: The bivariate normal distribution of two random variables X, Y

Table 32.2 Leading terms in expansions

	$R$	$Z'$
Expected value	$\rho + \frac{1}{n} \left[ -\frac{1}{2}\rho(1-\rho^2) + \frac{1}{8}L_{4,1} \right]$	$\frac{1}{2} \log \frac{1+\rho}{1-\rho} + \frac{1}{n-1}$ $\times \left[ \frac{1}{2}\rho + \frac{1}{8(1-\rho^2)^2} \{ \rho(3-\rho^2)(\gamma_{40} + \gamma_{04}) - 4(1+\rho^2) \right.$ $\left. \times (\gamma_{31} + \gamma_{13}) + 2\rho(5+\rho^2)\gamma_{22} \right]$
Variance	$\frac{1}{n} \left[ (1-\rho^2)^2 + \frac{1}{4}L_{4,2} \right]$	$\frac{1}{n-1} \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{4(1-\rho^2)^2} \{ \rho^2(\gamma_{40} + \gamma_{04}) \right.$ $\left. - 4\rho(\gamma_{31} + \gamma_{13}) + 2(2+\rho^2)\gamma_{22} \right]$

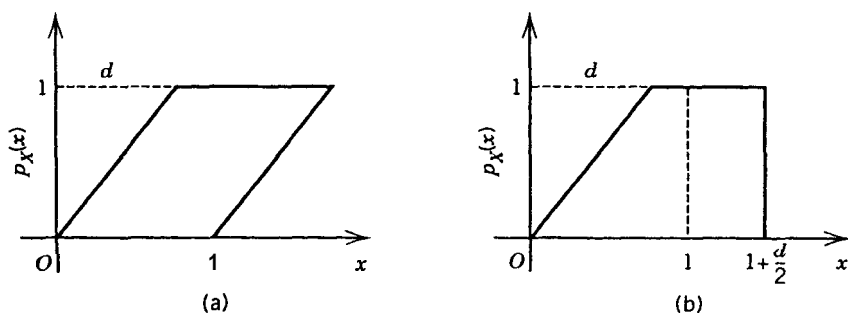


Figure 32.1 Bivariate uniform distributions on parallelogram (a) and on trapezoid (b).

has the pdf

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(x, y; \xi, \eta; \sigma_X, \sigma_Y; \rho) &= \left\{ 2\pi\sqrt{1-\rho^2} \right\}^{-1} \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2}(1-\rho^2)^{-1} \left\{ \left( \frac{x-\xi}{\sigma_X} \right)^2 \right. \right. \\ &\quad \left. \left. - 2\rho \left( \frac{x-\xi}{\sigma_X} \right) \left( \frac{y-\eta}{\sigma_Y} \right) + \left( \frac{y-\eta}{\sigma_Y} \right)^2 \right\} \right] \quad [\text{cf. (32.2)}] \quad (32.32a) \end{aligned}$$

and the cdf

$$\Phi(x, y; \xi, \eta; \sigma_X, \sigma_Y; \rho) = \int_{-\infty}^y \int_{-\infty}^x \phi(u, v; \xi, \eta; \sigma_X, \sigma_Y; \rho) du dv. \quad (32.32b)$$

All the papers just mentioned use two-component mixture models with the cdfs of form

$$\omega\Phi(x, y; \xi_1, \eta_1; \sigma_{X1}, \sigma_{Y1}; \rho_1) + (1-\omega)\Phi(x, y; \xi_2, \eta_2; \sigma_{X2}, \sigma_{Y2}; \rho_2) \quad (32.33)$$

in various specializations.

Bebbington (1978) studied the distribution of R in random samples of size  $n$  from the mixture distribution with the cdf (32.33) and

$$\begin{aligned} \omega &= 0.98, \\ \xi_1 &= \xi_2 = \eta_1 = \eta_2 = 0, \\ \sigma_{X1} &= \sigma_{Y1} = 1, \\ \sigma_{X2} &= \sigma_{Y2} = 3, \\ \rho_1 &= \rho, \\ \rho_2 &= 0, \end{aligned}$$

regarding this as a "contaminated" bivariate normal distribution, the second term representing the "contamination." Bebbington's mixture is the bivariate analog of the univariate mixture used when the effect of outliers is of interest. Simulations indicated that  $R$  is (as would be expected) biased toward zero as an estimator of  $\rho$ . The effect was greater for large  $\rho$ . (For  $n = 50$  and  $\rho = 0.8$ , the average of the simulated values of  $R$  was 0.688.)

Bebbington suggested "hull trimming" — deletion of observed  $(x, y)$  values on the bivariate convex hull of the set of  $n$  observed values (the vertices of the smallest area convex polyhedron including all observed values) — to improve  $R$  as an estimator of  $\rho$ . Titterton (1978) suggested a more refined method of trimming, based on minimal covering ellipsoids; see also Tiku and Balakrishnan (1986) for a different robust estimator of  $\rho$  based on trimming.

Srivastava and Lee (1984) and Srivastava and Awan (1984) used the mixture distribution (32.33) with

$$\xi_1 = \xi_2 = \eta_1 = \eta_2 = 0,$$

$$\sigma_{X_1} = \sigma_{Y_1} = 3, \quad \sigma_{X_2} = \sigma_{Y_2} = 1, \quad \rho_1 = \rho_2 = 0.$$

Figures 32.2a, b, taken from Srivastava and Lee (1984), show the corresponding pdfs of  $R$ , for sample sizes  $n = 6, 10$ , respectively and  $\omega = 0.5, 0.7, 0.9, 0.95$ , and 1 (corresponding to a single bivariate normal distribution).

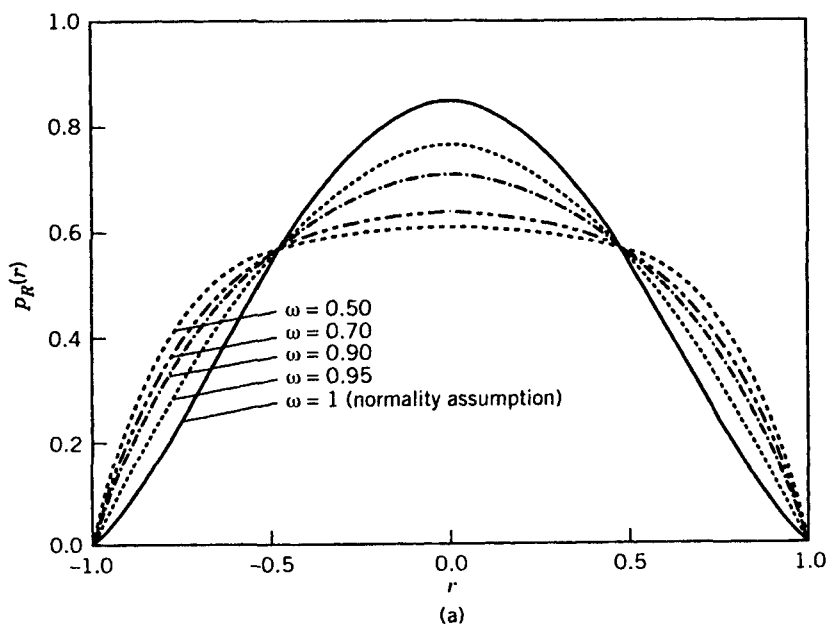


Figure 32.2a The probability density functions of the sample correlation coefficient  $R$  ( $n = 6$ ). Note that when  $\omega = 1$ , the corresponding graph is the probability density function of  $R$  under the normality assumption.



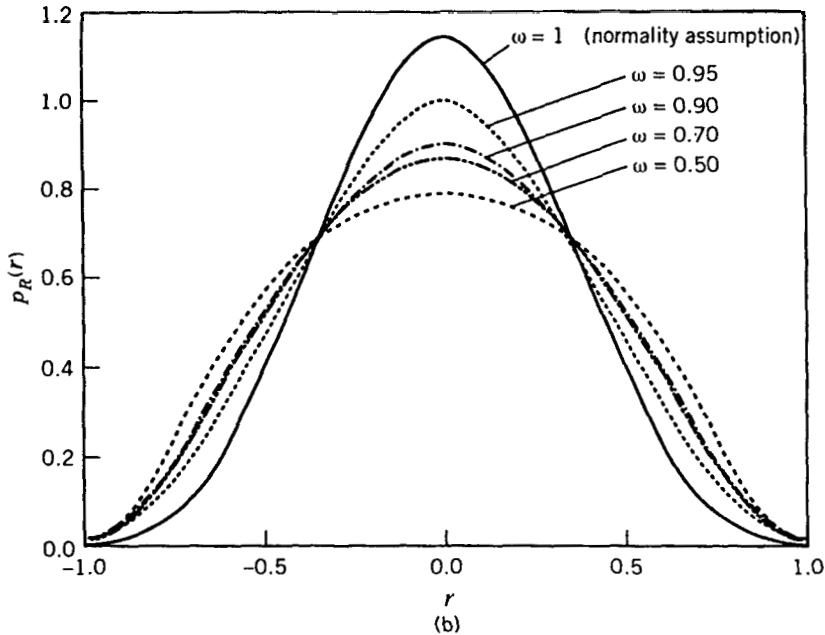


Figure 32.2b The probability density functions of the sample correlation coefficient  $R$  ( $n = 10$ ). Note that when  $\omega = 1$ , the corresponding graph is the probability density function of  $R$  under the normality assumption.

These graphs confirm Kowalski's (1972) and Duncan and Layard's (1973) refutation of E. S. Pearson's (1929) blanket claim of robustness of  $R$  to the underlying mixture distributions. On the other hand, in the case of common covariance matrix, Srivastava and Awan's (1984) investigations seem to refute Duncan and Layard's (1973) assertion (for the case of different covariance matrices) that when  $\rho = 0$  does not imply independence, the  $R$  statistic is likely to be sensitive to departures from normality. The results are thus still inconclusive and depend upon the correlation structure of the bivariate normal model assumed.

Srivastava and Awan (1984) also present an explicit formula for the pdf of  $R$  when

$$\sigma_{X1} = \sigma_{X2} = \sigma_X,$$

$$\sigma_{Y1} = \sigma_{Y2} = \sigma_Y,$$

$$\rho_1 = \rho_2 = \rho$$

(i.e., there is a common variance-covariance matrix), but it is possible that  $\xi_1 \neq \xi_2$  and/or  $\eta_1 \neq \eta_2$ . The general formula is very complicated. Even in

the case  $p = 0$ , Srivastava and Awan obtain

$$\begin{aligned}
 p_R(r|\rho = 0) &= \sum_{g=0}^n \binom{n}{g} \omega^g (1-\omega)^{n-g} \left[ \sqrt{\pi} \Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}n - 1\right) \right]^{-1} \\
 &\times \exp\left\{ \frac{1}{2} (\delta_{1g}^2 + \delta_{2g}^2) \right\} \sum_{h=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\delta_{2g}^2/2)^h}{h! \Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}(n-3) + h + 1\right)} \\
 &\times \sum_{i=0}^h \binom{h}{i} r^i (1-r^2)^{(n-4)/2} \left( \frac{2\delta_{1g}}{\delta_{2g}} \right)^{i(h-i)} \binom{h-i}{j} \left( \frac{\delta_{1g}}{\delta_{2g}} \right)^{2j} \\
 &\times \Gamma\left( \frac{n-1+i}{2} + j \right) \Gamma\left( \frac{n-1-i}{2} + h-j \right), \quad (32.34)
 \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}
 \delta_{1g} &= \frac{\xi_2 - \xi_1}{\sigma_X} \left\{ \frac{g(n-g)}{n} \right\}^{1/2}, \\
 \delta_{2g} &= \frac{\eta_2 - \eta_1}{\sigma_Y} \left\{ \frac{g(n-g)}{n} \right\}^{1/2},
 \end{aligned}$$

which is quite complicated. (Note that without loss of generality one can take  $\sigma_X = \sigma_Y = 1$ ,  $\xi_1 = \eta_1 = 0$ .)

The authors claim that convergence in (32.34) for "moderate"  $n$  (about 20) is achieved if  $h$  is truncated around 20, when the accuracy of computation is fixed at  $10^{-20}$ . However, in the general case when  $p \neq 0$ , and especially when  $p > \frac{1}{2}$ , convergence is slower. They also conclude that for two-sided testing purposes, when the contamination is less than 10%, the discrepancy between bivariate normal and mixture of two bivariate normals "is not so serious." Compare with Bebbington's (1978) conclusions, cited above.

A major interest has been the relative stability ("robustness") of certain transforms of  $R$ , especially the following transforms:

1. [Fisher (1921)]  $Z' = \tanh^{-1} R$ .
2. [Nair-Pillai; Pillai (1946)]  $(R - \rho)(1 - R\rho)^{-1}$ .
3. [Samiuddin (1970)]  $(n-2)^{1/2}(R - \rho)[(1 - R^2)(1 - \rho^2)]^{-1/2}$ .
4. [Harley (1956)]  $\sin^{-1} R$ .
5. [Ruben (1966)]  $(a\bar{R} + b\bar{\rho})\{1 + \frac{1}{2}(\bar{R}^2 + \bar{\rho}^2)\}^{-1/2}$ , where  $R = R(1 - R)^{-1/2}$ ,  $\bar{\rho} = \rho(1 - \rho^2)^{-1/2}$ ;  $a = (n - \frac{5}{2})^{1/2}$ ; and  $b = (n - \frac{3}{2})^{1/2}$ .

Kocherlakota and Kocherlakota (1981) study the distribution of R from samples of size  $n$  from the mixture (32.33) with  $\xi_1 = \xi_2 = \tau$ ,  $\eta_1 = \eta_2 (= 0)$ ,  $\sigma_{X1} = \sigma_{X2} = \sigma_{Y1} = \sigma_{Y2} (= 1)$ , but  $\rho_1 \neq \rho_2$ . The skewness of the mixture is zero. The kurtosis is

$$\{\omega(1 - \omega)\}^2(3A_1^2 + 3A_2^2 + 2A_1A_2), \quad (32.35)$$

where

$$A_1 = \frac{(1 + \rho_2)^2 - (1 + \rho_1)^2}{\omega(1 + \rho_1)^2 + (1 - \omega)(1 + \rho_2)^2},$$

$$A_2 = \frac{(1 - \rho_2)^2 - (1 - \rho_1)^2}{\omega(1 - \rho_1)^2 + (1 - \omega)(1 - \rho_2)^2}.$$

The kurtosis, and also  $\rho$  [ $= \text{corr}(X, Y)$ ] were studied as functions of  $\rho_1, \rho_2$ , and  $\omega$ . As  $\omega$  increases the departure from bivariate normality (zero kurtosis) generally increases at first and then falls off. The maximal departure from normality tends to be high when  $\rho_1$  and  $\rho_2$  are apart, and was observed to be the highest for  $\rho_1 = 0.1$  and  $\rho_2 = 0.8$  with  $\omega = 0.3$ . Formulas are provided for the moments of R, using Cook's (1951a) expansions in the general bivariate case and the robustness of transforms 1 through 4 to this type of nonnormality is studied. Nair and Pillai's and Samiuddin's transforms [2 and 3, respectively] are the most robust, with Fisher's  $Z'$ , transform 1, nearly as robust. The arcsine transform 4 does not seem to be robust to this type of nonnormality. As in the case of other types of nonnormality, investigated by Subrahmaniam and Gajjar (1979), an increase in the sample size does not greatly reduce the kurtosis. Unlike the situation in the normal case, transforms 1 and 4 remain stubbornly biased with little or no reduction as the sample size increases. Even for the "worst" nonnormal situation ( $\rho_1 = 0.1$  and  $\rho_2 = 0.8$ ), Nair-Pillai's transform 2 appears to be quite robust.

Other papers on the effects of nonnormality include Yang (1970), Kowalski (1972), Zeller and Levine (1974), Havlicek and Peterson (1977), Subrahmaniam and Gajjar (1978), Kocherlakota and Singh (1982a, b), Kocherlakota, Kocherlakota, and Balakrishnan (1985), Kocherlakota, Balakrishnan, and Kocherlakota (1986), Fowler (1987), and Shanmugam and Gajjar (1992).

Subrahmaniam and Gajjar (1980) examined all five of transforms, obtaining expansions for the first four moments up to and including terms of order  $n^{-1}$ , using the methods of Cook (1951a, b). In particular, they compared the

behavior of the five transforms under the assumption of a doubly right-truncated bivariate normal distribution with the pdf

$$\frac{\phi(x, y; 0, 0; 1, 1; \rho)}{\Phi(a, b; 0, 0; 1, 1; \rho)}, \quad x \leq a, y \leq b. \quad (32.36)$$

As indexes of robustness they used the differences between the expected values and ratios of standard deviations from the values they would have for normal theory (i.e., with  $a$  and  $b$  each infinite). For expected value Nair-Pillai's transform 2 is the sturdiest, followed closely by Samiuddin's transform 3 and Ruben's transform 5. It is of interest that for Fisher's transform 1 and Harley's transform 4, increase in sample size  $n$  does not reduce the effect of nonnormality in this respect.

If comparison is based on the ratios (actual/normal theory) of standard deviations, a notable feature is that higher values of  $|\rho|$  lead to higher standard deviations in the nonnormal case if  $\rho$  is positive, while the reverse is the case if  $\rho$  is negative. Increase in sample size does not affect the comparisons greatly. For large  $|\rho|$  the least robust seems to be Harley's transform 4.

These conclusions were based on parent distributions with  $\rho = \pm 0.05, \pm 0.25, \pm 0.5, \pm 0.75$ , and truncation points  $a = b = -2.5, -1.5, 0, 0.5$ . [See also Bebbington (1978); Gajjar and Subrahmaniam (1978).]

Shanmugam and Gajjar (1992) compare the transforms 1 through 4 for the Farlie-Gumbel-Morgenstern joint bivariate exponential distributions with pdfs of form

$$p_{X,Y}(x, y; \alpha) = e^{-(x+y)} \{1 + \alpha(2e^{-x} - 1)(2e^{-y} - 1)\}, \\ x, y > 0, |\alpha| < 1. \quad (32.37)$$

[The population correlation coefficient ( $\rho$ ) has the value  $\frac{1}{4}\alpha$  in this case, so it cannot exceed  $\frac{1}{4}$  in absolute value.] They find that Fisher's  $Z'$  (transform 1) is the most robust for small values of  $|\rho| \leq 0.05$  as judged in the same way as above. Transforms 2 through 4, on the other hand, are rather severely affected by nonnormality, at least of this kind.

Kocherlakota and Singh (1982b) study the distributions of transforms 1 through 5, using the cumulants/Cornish-Fisher technique, for  $R$  based on random samples from two population distributions:

1. **Bivariate  $t$ .**  $X = W_1/\sqrt{V}$ ,  $Y = W_2/\sqrt{V}$  with  $(W_1, W_2)$  having a joint bivariate normal distribution with the pdf  $\phi(w_1, w_2; 0, 0; 1, 1; \rho)$  and  $V$ , independent of  $(W_1, W_2)$ , distributed as  $\chi_v^2/v$ .
2. **Bivariate  $\chi^2$ .**  $X = \sum_{j=1}^v W_{1j}^2$ ,  $Y = \sum_{j=1}^v W_{2j}^2$  with  $(W_{1j}, W_{2j})$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, v$ , mutually independent, each distributed as  $(W_1, W_2)$  as given in 1, (namely as a bivariate  $t$ ).

## 5 TABLES AND APPROXIMATIONS (ASYMPTOTIC EXPANSIONS)

## 5.1 Tables

From Section 2 it is clear that the distribution of  $R$  is so complicated that it is very difficult to use it without a practicable approximation or an extensive set of tables. We may note that this distribution is important because it is the distribution of the correlation coefficient in random samples from a bivariate normal population, not because it is suitable for fitting purposes.

David (1938) prepared a useful set of tables. She gave values of the probability density  $p_R(r; p, n)$  and of the cumulative distribution function  $F_R(r; p, n)$  to five decimal places for  $n = 3(1)25, 50, 100, 200, 400$ . For  $n \leq 25$ ,  $r = -1.00(0.05)1.00$  for  $p = 0.0(0.1)0.4$  and  $r = -1.00(0.05)0.600(0.025)1.000$  for  $p = 0.5(0.1)0.9$ , with additional values for  $r = 0.80(0.01)0.900(0.005)1.000$  when  $p = 0.9$ . For  $n > 25$  narrower intervals are used. [Note that the quantity tabulated as "ordinate" is actually  $1000 p_R(r)$ .] The Introduction to these tables contain some interesting notes on the distribution of  $R$ .

Subrahmaniam and Subrahmaniam (1983) extended David's tables, giving  $F_R(r; p, n)$  to five decimal places for  $n = 26(1)49$ ,  $p = 0.1(0.1)0.9$ ,  $r = -0.70(0.05)0.65(0.025)0.975$ , and also quantiles  $r_\alpha(p; n)$  satisfying  $F_R(r_\alpha(p; n)) = a$  for  $a = 0.01, 0.02, 0.025, 0.05, 0.1, 0.2, 0.8, 0.9, 0.95, 0.975, 0.98, 0.99$  and  $n = 4(1)50, 100, 200, 400$  to four decimal places.

Boomsma (1975) noted that in David's (1938) tables the numbers in the "Area" (cdf) column on page 50, for  $n = 100$ ,  $p = 0.4$ , have all been displaced one position upward. These errors were also noted by Subrahmaniam and Subrahmaniam (1983) in their extension of David's tables. They gave corrected values of  $F_R(r; p, n)$  for  $n = 100$ ,  $p = 0.4$ ,  $r = -0.10(0.05)0.70$ . [Their computational technique used a 32-point quadrature (DQG-32).]

Öksoy and Aroian (1981) provided values of  $F_R(r; p, n)$  and  $p_R(r; p, n)$  to six decimal places for  $n = 3(1)6, 35, 40(10)60$  and  $p = 0, 0.5, 0.98$ . Öksoy and Aroian (1982) also provided values of  $r_\alpha(p; n)$  to four decimal places for the same values of  $n$  and  $p$ , and for  $a = 0.0005, 0.001, 0.0025(0.0025)0.0100, 0.0175, 0.0250, 0.0375, 0.05, 0.075, 0.10(0.05)0.90, 0.925, 0.95, 0.9625, 0.975, 0.9825, 0.99(0.0025)0.9975, 0.9990, 0.9995$ . They also refer to more detailed, unpublished tables of  $F_R(r; p, n)$  for  $n = 3(1)10(2)24, 25(5)40(10)100(100)500$ , and  $p = 0(0.05)0.90, 0.92, 0.94, 0.95, 0.96, 0.98$ . They recommend use of Garwood's (1933) formulas [see Table 32.1] for rapid calculation of the density function, the cdf, and quantiles, and they noted that Hotelling's (1953) formula (32.6e) for the pdf is also useful in this respect.

Odeh and Owen (1980, pp. 228–264) provided tables of confidence limits — values of  $p_\alpha(r; n)$  satisfying  $F_R(r; p_\alpha(r; n); n) = a$  for  $n = 3(1)30, 40, 60, 100, 120, 150, 200, 400$ ,  $r = -0.95(0.05)0.95$ , and  $\alpha = 0.005, 0.01,$

0.025, 0.05, 0.1, 0.25, 0.75, 0.90, 0.95, 0.975, **0.99, 0.995**. The interval  $(\rho_{1-(\varepsilon/2)}(R; n), \rho_{\varepsilon/2}(R; n))$  is a  $100(1 - \varepsilon)\%$  confidence interval for  $\rho$ , given  $R$ . Their methods of calculation (given on pp. 287–294) depend on Garwood's (1933) formula, on an *adaption* of Hotelling's formula for cdf, using a series involving incomplete beta functions, and on a new formulation for the confidence limits of  $\rho$ , using Fisher's transformation as a starting point.

Extensive tables of quantiles  $[r_\alpha(\rho; n)]$  were provided by Odeh (1982), giving values to five decimal places for  $\rho = 0.0(0.1)0.9, 0.95, n = 4(1)30(2)40(5)50(10)100(20)200(100)1000$ , and  $\alpha = 0.005, 0.01, 0.025, 0.05, 0.1, 0.25, 0.75, 0.9, 0.95, 0.975, 0.99, 0.995$ . Odeh (1983), using the algebraic programming system REDUCE 2 (on an IBM 4341 computer) provided exact expressions for  $F_R(r; \rho, n)$  for values  $n = 3(1)10$ . For  $n = 5, 6$  he used essentially the expressions of Garwood (1933) as rewritten by Öksoy and Aroian (1981, 1982, Table 1 et seq.). For  $n = 7(1)10$  Odeh's expressions are obtained using the basic recurrence formulas of Hotelling (1953). For  $n = 9, 10$  the first nine derivatives of

$$Q(r\rho) = (1 - r^2\rho^2)^{-1/2} \cos^{-1}(-r\rho) \quad [\text{see (32.9)}] \quad (32.38)$$

are presented in Öksoy and Aroian (1982). These derivatives, which occur in the formulas for  $F_R(r; \rho, n)$ , involve polynomials in  $\rho r$  and  $Q$  itself in the numerator, together with powers of  $1 - (\rho r)^2$  in the denominator. For odd  $n$ , however,  $\rho$  does not appear in the denominator of these expressions. Guenther (1977), on the other hand, advocated the use of formula (32.6a) for numerical calculation of the cdf of the sample correlation coefficient on "modern desk calculators" [such as Monroe 1930]. He found that the terms in the formula for  $\Pr[0 < R < r]$ , based on (32.6a), converge quite rapidly with good error bounds.

Guenther (1977) derived the formula

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[0 < R < r] &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} K_1(j) \Pr \left[ F_{2j+1, n-2} \leq \frac{(n-2)r^2}{1-r^2} \frac{1}{2j+1} \right] \\ &+ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} K_2(j) \Pr \left[ F_{2j+1, n-2} \leq \frac{(n-2)r^2}{1-r^2} \frac{1}{2j+2} \right], \\ &0 < r \leq 1, \quad (32.39) \end{aligned}$$

where  $F_{v_1, v_2}(\cdot)$  is the cumulative distribution function of a F-variable with  $(v_1, v_2)$  degrees of freedom (see Chapter 27),

$$\begin{aligned} K_1(j) &= \frac{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(n-1) + j)}{j! \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(n-1))} (1 - \rho^2)^{(n-1)/2} \rho^{2j}, \\ K_2(j) &= \frac{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}n + j)}{\Gamma(j + \frac{3}{2}) \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(n-1))} (1 - \rho^2)^{(n-1)/2} \rho^{2j+1}. \end{aligned}$$

[Note that the  $K_j(j)$ 's are terms in the negative binomial expansion of  $(1 - \rho^2)^{-(n-1)/2}$ .] He combined this with a formula for  $\Pr\{R > 0\}$  [(see, e.g., (32.11) or (32.15)] to evaluate

$$\Pr\{R > r\} = \Pr\{R > 0\} - \Pr\{0 < R \leq r\}. \tag{32.40}$$

Guenther (1977) showed that if the first and second series on the right-hand side of (32.39) are terminated at  $j = r$ , and  $j = r_2$ , respectively, the error in  $F_R(r; n, \rho)$  is negative and less than

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{1}{2} H_{2r_1+1, n-2} \left( \frac{n-1}{2r_1+1} \frac{\rho^2}{1-\rho^2} \right) H_{2r_1, n-1} \left( \frac{n-1}{2r_1} \frac{\rho^2}{1-\rho^2} \right) \\ & + \frac{1}{2} H_{2r_2+2, n-2} \left( \frac{n-1}{2r_2+2} \frac{\rho^2}{1-\rho^2} \right) H_{2r_2+1, n-1} \left( \frac{n-1}{2r_2+1} \frac{\rho^2}{1-\rho^2} \right), \end{aligned} \tag{32.41}$$

where  $H_{\nu_1, \nu_2}(y) = \Pr\{F_{\nu_1, \nu_2} \leq y\}$ , in absolute value. He presented numerical results demonstrating the accuracy of his formulas.

Stammerger (1968) has constructed a nomogram from which it is possible to determine any one of  $\Pr\{R \leq r\}$ ,  $r$  or  $n$ , given the other two values.

### 5.2 Approximations Using Transforms

For most practical purposes, approximations to the distribution of  $R$  use Fisher's (1915, 1921) transformation

$$Z' = \tanh^{-1} R = \frac{1}{2} \log \left( \frac{1+R}{1-R} \right). \tag{32.42}$$

This transformation might be suggested as a variance-equalizing transformation, noting that [from (32.14b)]

$$\text{var}(R) \doteq (1 - \rho^2)^2 n^{-1}, \tag{32.43}$$

$$\int (1 - \rho^2)^{-1} d\rho = \frac{1}{2} \log \frac{1 + \rho}{1 - \rho}.$$

This approach, however, was not explicitly used by Fisher (1915) in his original suggestion of this transformation.

Approximate values of moments and moment ratios of  $Z'$  are

$$\mu'_1(Z') \doteq \frac{1}{2} \log \frac{1+p}{1-p} + \frac{1}{2} \rho(n-1)^{-1} \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{4} (5 + \rho^2)(n-1)^{-1} \right], \quad (32.44a)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_2(Z') \doteq (n-1)^{-1} \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{2} (4 - \rho^2)(n-1)^{-1} \right. \\ \left. + \frac{1}{6} (22 - 6\rho^2 - 3\rho^4)(n-1)^{-2} \right], \quad (32.44b) \end{aligned}$$

$$\mu_3(Z') \doteq (n-1)^{-3} \rho^3, \quad (32.44c)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_4(Z') \doteq 3(n-1)^{-2} \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{3} (14 - 3\rho^2)(n-1)^{-1} \right. \\ \left. + \frac{1}{12} (184 - 48\rho^2 - 21\rho^4)(n-1)^{-2} \right], \quad (32.44d) \end{aligned}$$

$$\beta_1(Z') \doteq (n-1)^{-3} \rho^6, \quad (32.45a)$$

$$\beta_2(Z') \doteq 3 + 2(n-1)^{-1} + (4 + 2\rho^2 - 3\rho^4)(n-1)^{-2}. \quad (32.45b)$$

These values were given by Fisher (1921) and corrected later by Gayen (1951). [See also Nabeya (1951).] Comparing (32.45a) and (32.45b) with (32.15a) and (32.15b), it can be seen that the  $(\beta_1, \beta_2)$  values for  $Z'$  are much closer to the normal values (0, 3) than are the values for  $R$ . Also  $\text{var}(Z')$  does not depend on  $p$  up to and including terms of order  $(n-1)^{-1}$ .

The most commonly used approximation is to regard  $Z'$  as normally distributed with expected value  $\frac{1}{2} \log((1+\rho)/(1-\rho))$  and variance  $(n-3)^{-1}$ . The latter value is obtained by noting that

$$\begin{aligned} (n-1)^{-1} + \frac{1}{2} (4 - \rho^2)(n-1)^{-2} &= n^{-1} + n^{-2} + \dots + \frac{1}{2} (4 - \rho^2)n^{-2} \dots \\ &= n^{-1} \left[ 1 + (3 - \frac{1}{2}\rho^2)n^{-1} \dots \right] \\ &\doteq n^{-1} [1 - 3n^{-1}]^{-1} = (n-3)^{-1}. \end{aligned}$$

To improve the approximation, the expected value may be increased by  $(2n-5)^{-1}\rho$ . Fowler (1987) took the value of  $E[Z']$  from (32.44a), and  $\text{var}(Z')$  from (32.44b), and treated  $Z'$  as a normally distributed variable, resulting in "good approximation in the tails."

Another kind of approximation can be based on consideration of the structure of the random variable  $R$ . Recalling the argument used, at the



beginning of Section 2, in deriving the distribution of  $R$ , we see that for a fixed set of values of  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$ ,  $R(1 - R^2)^{-1/2}$  is distributed as

$$(n - 2)^{-1/2} t'_{n-2} \left( \frac{\sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - \bar{X})^2} \rho}{\sqrt{1 - \rho^2}} \right), \tag{32.46}$$

that is, as

$$\frac{U + \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - \bar{X})^2} \rho / \sqrt{1 - \rho^2}}{\chi_{n-2}},$$

where  $U$  is a unit normal variable and  $U$  and  $\chi_{n-2}$  are mutually independent. Averaging over the joint distribution of the  $X$ 's, we see that  $R(1 - R^2)^{-1/2}$  is distributed as

$$\frac{U + \chi_{n-1} \rho (1 - \rho^2)^{-1/2}}{\chi_{n-2}}, \tag{32.47}$$

where  $u$ ,  $\chi_{n-1}$ , and  $\chi_{n-2}$  are mutually independent. This representation was constructed by Ruben (1963, 1966) who used it as the basis for the following approximations. From the representation (32.47), we have

$$\Pr[R \leq r] = \Pr\left[ U + \rho(1 - \rho^2)^{-1/2} \chi_{n-2} - r(1 - r^2)^{-1/2} \chi_{n-1} \leq 0 \right]. \tag{32.48}$$

Provided that  $n$  is not too small,  $\chi_{n-2}$  and  $\chi_{n-1}$  may be approximated by normal variates according to Fisher's approximation that  $\{\sqrt{2}\chi_n^2 - \sqrt{2n - 1}\}$  is approximately distributed as a unit normal variable. Then

$$U + \rho(1 - \rho^2)^{-1/2} \chi_{n-2} - r(1 - r^2)^{-1/2} \chi_{n-1}, \text{ for fixed } r,$$

is approximately distributed normally with expected value

$$\rho(1 - \rho^2)^{-1/2} (n - \frac{5}{2})^{1/2} - r(1 - r^2)^{-1/2} (n - \frac{3}{2})^{1/2}$$

and standard deviation

$$\left[ 1 + \frac{1}{2} \rho^2 (1 - \rho^2)^{-1} + \frac{1}{2} r^2 (1 - r^2)^{-1} \right]^{1/2}.$$

Hence from (32.48)

$$\Pr[R \leq r] \doteq \Phi \left( \frac{r(1-r^2)^{-1/2}(n-\frac{1}{2})^{1/2} - \rho(1-\rho^2)^{-1/2}(n-\frac{5}{2})^{1/2}}{\left[1 + \frac{1}{2}r^2(1-r^2)^{-1} + \frac{1}{2}\rho^2(1-\rho^2)^{-1}\right]^{1/2}} \right). \quad (32.49)$$

Muddapur (1988) showed that in the special case when  $\sigma_X = \sigma_Y$ , the statistic

$$T^* = \frac{R - \rho S}{\{(1 - \rho^2)(1 - R^2)\}^{1/2}} \sqrt{n - 2}, \quad (32.50a)$$

where  $S = \frac{1}{2}(S_X S_Y^{-1} + S_X^{-1} S_Y)$  and  $S_X = \{(n-1)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2\}^{1/2}$ ,  $S_Y = \{(n-1)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2\}^{1/2}$ , has an exact  $t_{n-2}$  distribution. If it so happens further that  $S_X = S_Y$ , then (32.50a) would reduce to

$$T^{**} = \frac{R - \rho}{\{(1 - \rho^2)(1 - R^2)\}^{1/2}} \sqrt{n - 2}. \quad (32.50b)$$

This statistic was proposed by Samiuddin (1970) as having *approximately* a  $t_{n-2}$  distribution (for *all*  $\rho$  and *all*  $\sigma_X/\sigma_Y$ ) for moderately large  $n$  (even if  $S_X \neq S_Y$ ).

Roughly equivalently,

$$V = \frac{R - \rho}{1 - R\rho} = T^{**} \left\{ \frac{(1 - \rho^2)(1 - R^2)}{n - 2} \right\}^{1/2} \frac{1}{1 - R\rho}$$

has an approximate beta ( $\frac{1}{2}n - 1, \frac{1}{2}n - 1$ ) distribution over  $(-1, 1)$ , with

$$\Pr[V \leq v] = I_{v, \cdot, 1/2}(\frac{1}{2}n - 1, \frac{1}{2}n - 1).$$

This approximation was reported to be good for  $n \geq 8$  and even for large  $\rho$ .

Muddapur (1988) pointed out that

$$G = \frac{(1 + R)(1 - \rho)}{(1 - R)(1 + \rho)} \quad (32.51)$$

has an approximate  $F_{n-2, n-2}$  distribution. For  $\rho = 0$ , the distribution is exact. The relations

$$F_{v, v, \frac{v}{2}} = 1 + 2v^{-1}t_{v, \alpha}^2 + 2\{v^{-1}(1 + t_{v, \alpha}^2 v^{-1})\}^{1/2} t_{v, \alpha}, \quad (32.52a)$$

$$F_{v, v, 1 - \frac{v}{2}} = 1 + 2v^{-1}t_{v, \alpha}^2 - 2\{v^{-1}(1 + t_{v, \alpha}^2 v^{-1})\}^{1/2} t_{v, \alpha}, \quad (32.52b)$$

can be used in conjunction with (32.51) to construct approximate  $100(1 - \alpha)\%$  confidence intervals for  $p$  if values of the appropriate quantiles of  $F_{n-2, \alpha-2}$  are not available using the tables of the F-distribution.

Muddapur (1988) tabulated corresponding confidence limits for  $p$  for  $\alpha = 0.025, 0.005$ , and  $R = 0(0.05)0.95$ . These intervals seem to be quite wide even for  $n$  as large as 25, and especially so for small values of  $|R|$ .

A better approximation than Fisher's for a one-sided limit is obtained by using

$$T' = \frac{R'\sqrt{n-2}}{\sqrt{(1-R'^2)}} \tag{32.53}$$

as a  $t_{n-2}$  variable, where  $R'$  (given  $R$  and  $\rho$ ) satisfies

$$\frac{W - E[W|\rho]}{\sqrt{\text{var}(W|\rho)}} = \frac{\log\{(1+R')/(1-R')\}}{\sqrt{\text{var}(W|\rho=0)}} \tag{32.54}$$

with  $W = \log\{(1+R)/(1-R)\}$ ,

$$E[W|\rho] = \log \frac{1+\rho}{1-\rho} + \frac{\rho}{n-1} \left\{ 1 + \frac{5+\rho^2}{4(n-1)} + \frac{11+2\rho^2+3\rho^4}{8(n-1)^2} + \dots \right\}, \tag{32.55a}$$

$$\text{var}[W|\rho] = \frac{4}{n-1} \left\{ 1 + \frac{4-\rho^2}{2(n-1)} + \frac{22-6\rho^2-3\rho^4}{4(n-1)^2} + \dots \right\}. \tag{32.55b}$$

Kraemer (1973) claimed that if the quantity  $p' = \rho'(\rho, n)$  satisfies the conditions

1.  $|\rho'(\rho, n)| \geq |\rho|$ ,
2.  $\rho'(\rho, n) = p$  when  $p = 0, -1$ , or  $1$ ,
3.  $\rho'(\rho, n) = -\rho'(-\rho, n)$ ,
4.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \rho'(\rho, n) = p$ ,

then

$$\frac{\sqrt{(n-2)(R-\rho')}}{\sqrt{(1-R^2)(1-\rho'^2)}} = \frac{\sqrt{n-2}W}{\sqrt{1-W^2}}, \tag{32.56}$$

with  $W = (R-\rho')/(1-R\rho')$ , is approximately distributed as  $t_{n-2}$ . However, Mi (1990) has pointed out, by means of a counterexample, that these four conditions are not sufficient and that additional conditions of type

5.  $p' = p + o(n^{-1})$ ,
6.  $p'$  of same sign as  $p$ , and, possibly,
7.  $|p'| \leq 1$ ,

may be needed. The choice of  $\rho'(\rho, n) = p$  is a possibility [Samiuddin (1970)], but Kraemer (1973) recommended setting  $\rho'(\rho, n)$  equal to the median of the distribution of  $R$  (given  $p$  and  $n$ ) -  $\rho^*(\rho, n)$ , say. She provided a table of values of  $p^*$  for  $p = 0.1(0.1)0.9$ , and  $n = 11(1)25, 50, 100, 200, 400$ , appropriate for  $|\rho|$  "not too near" to 1. [Mi (1990) noted that the median satisfies conditions 6 and 7 but was unable to ascertain whether it satisfies condition 5]. Kraemer's approximation is less cumbersome and quite accurate (see also the remark at the end of Section 5.3).

Niki and Konishi (1984) provided an asymptotic expansion for the median  $\rho^*$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \rho^* = \rho + (1 - \rho^2)\rho & \left\{ \frac{1}{2}n^{-1} + \frac{1}{24}(-7\rho^2 + 15)n^{-2} \right. \\ & + \frac{1}{240}(47\rho^4 - 180\rho^2 + 165)n^{-3} \\ & \left. + \frac{1}{40320}(-4945\rho^6 + 31227\rho^4 - 55755\rho^2 + 26145)n^{-4} \right\} \quad (32.57) \end{aligned}$$

that is accurate to five decimal places for  $n > 20$ . Kraemer (1973) also used linear interpolation accurate only for three decimal places. She also suggested additional normal approximations, including

$$\begin{aligned} E[Z'] & \doteq \frac{1}{2} \log \left( \frac{1 + \rho^*}{1 - \rho^*} \right), \\ \text{var}(Z') & \doteq \frac{1}{n-1} + \frac{2}{(n-1)(n+1)} + \frac{23}{3(n-1)(n+1)(n+3)} + \dots, \quad (32.58) \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} E[Z'] & \doteq \frac{1}{2} \log \left( \frac{1 + \rho^*}{1 - \rho^*} \right), \\ \text{var}(Z') & \doteq \frac{1}{n-3}. \quad (32.59) \end{aligned}$$

She found the approximation (32.58) to be superior to David's (1938) approximation for small  $n$  and  $|\rho| \leq 0.6$ , but for  $|\rho| \geq 0.8$  David's approximation is the more accurate one. Thomas (1989) recommended David's approximation and provided a diagram that indicates that even for  $n = 15$  and  $\rho = 0.8$  the graphs of the approximate and exact *cdf's* are very close. (The largest discrepancy is in the vicinity of  $R = 0.65$ .) For  $0.4 \leq p \leq 0.6$  the curves are

virtually indistinguishable. However, other authors [e.g., Kraemer (1973), as noted above; Konishi (1978)] reach different conclusions.

Konishi (1978) derives the following approximation:

$$\Pr \left[ m^{1/2} \left( \frac{1}{2} \log \frac{1+R}{1-R} - \frac{1}{2} \log \frac{1+\rho}{1-\rho} \right) \leq x \right] \\ \doteq \Phi(x) - \frac{1}{2} \left( \rho m^{-1/2} + \frac{x^3}{6m} \right) \phi(x) + O(m^{-3/2}), \quad (32.60)$$

where  $m = n - \frac{3}{2} + \frac{1}{4}\rho^2$ . The approximation gives high accuracy over the whole range of variation of  $R$  for relatively small  $n$ . The optimal choice of  $m$  (more precisely the correction to  $n$ ) is still an open problem. The approximation is more accurate than Ruben's (1966) and Kraemer's (1973) approximations [(32.48) and (32.56), respectively] for  $\rho \geq 0.3$ , and is far better for  $\rho \geq 0.7$ .

As Chaubey and Mudholkar (1978) have pointed out in this age of advanced computer technology many approximations to the distribution of  $R$  are of interest on the grounds of novelty, accuracy, and/or aesthetics rather than practicality. They noted that the reason that Fisher's approximation fails to maintain its accuracy for large values of  $|\rho|$ , even if  $n$  is not too small, is the high kurtosis of the distribution of  $Z'$ . From Gayen (1951) we have

$$\beta_1(Z') = \frac{\rho^6}{(n-1)^3} + \dots, \quad (32.61a)$$

$$\beta_2(Z') = 3 + \frac{2}{n-1} + \frac{1}{(n-1)^2} (4 + 2\rho^2 - 3\rho^4) + \dots \quad (32.61b)$$

( $\beta_1$  decreases more rapidly with  $n$  than does  $\beta_2 - 3$ ).

Since  $\beta_2 - 3$  of the Student's  $t$ -distribution with  $\nu$  degrees of freedom is  $6/(\nu - 4)$ , the number of degrees of freedom  $\nu$  of the  $t$  distribution with approximately matching kurtosis is

$$\nu = 4 + \frac{6}{\beta_2 - 3} \doteq \frac{3n^2 - 2n + 7}{n + 1}. \quad (32.62)$$

Chaubey and Mudholkar proposed to approximate standardized  $Z'$  by a multiple of Student's  $t$  variable with  $\nu_0 = [\nu]$  degrees of freedom, where  $\nu$  is given by (32.62). The  $100\alpha\%$  percentile of  $R$  is approximately given by

$$r_\alpha(\rho; n) \doteq \tanh \left[ \mu + \sigma t_{\nu_0, \alpha} \left\{ \frac{\nu_0 - 2}{\nu_0} \right\}^{1/2} \right], \quad (32.63)$$

where

$$\mu = \tanh^{-1} p + \frac{1}{2}(n-1)^{-1} \rho \{1 + f(5 + \rho)^2(n-1)^{-1}\},$$

$$\sigma^2 = (n-1)^{-1} \left\{ 1 + \frac{1}{2}(n-1)^{-1} (4 + \rho^2) + \frac{1}{6}(n-1)^{-2} (22 - 6\rho^2 - 3\rho^4) \right\}.$$

Utilizing Wallace's (1959) transformation [Chapter 28, Eq. (28.26)] to normalize the t-distribution, the authors arrived at

$$r_a(\rho; n) \approx \tanh \left[ \mu + \sigma \left\{ (\nu - 2) \left( \left( \exp \frac{1}{\nu} \left( \frac{3 + 8\nu}{1 + 8\nu} \xi_a \right)^2 \right) - 1 \right) \right\}^{1/2} \right], \quad (33.64)$$

where  $\Phi(\xi_a) = a$ . Numerical computations indicate that Chaubey and Mudholkar's (1978) approximation to cumulative probabilities and quantiles compares favorably with Kraemer's and Ruben's approximations in both simplicity and accuracy. (Ruben's and Kraemer's approximations for quantiles each involve solutions of quadratic equations).

### 5.3 Asymptotic Expansions of the Distribution of R

Asymptotic expansions of the distribution (under bivariate normality) of

$$Z'(R) = \frac{1}{2} \log \frac{1+R}{1-R} \quad (32.65)$$

were derived by Winterbottom (1980) and Niki and Konishi (1984), among others. Niki and Konishi consider the transformed variable

$$Z^* = n^{1/2} \{ Z'(R) - Z'(\rho) \}. \quad (32.66)$$

They list the first ten cumulants of  $Z^*$ , noting that  $\kappa_{2j+1}$  is of order  $n^{-(2j+1)/2}$ , instead of  $n^{-(2j-1)/2}$ . They obtain

$$\Pr\{Z' < z\} = \Phi(z) + \phi(z) [a_1 n^{-1/2} + a_2 n^{-1} + \dots + a_8 n^{-4}] + O(n^{-9/2}), \quad (32.67)$$

where  $\Phi(x)$  and  $\phi(x)$  are the standard normal cdf and pdf, respectively, and the coefficients  $a_i$  depend on  $z$  and  $p$ . They can be expressed in terms of **Hermite** polynomials. The expansion (up to  $a_8$ ) involves the first 15 **Hermite** polynomials, while the corresponding Edgeworth expansion for the distribution function of  $R$  is more complicated, involving the first 23 **Hermite** polynomials.

The expansion including the first eight  $a_i$ 's guarantees accuracy to five decimal points for a sample of size 11 or larger and to six decimal places for  $n \geq 16$ . Winterbottom's (1980) Cornish-Fisher form of Edgeworth expansion involves seven Hermite polynomials and is somewhat less accurate.

Mudholkar and Chaubey (1976) represented the distribution of  $Z'$  by a mixture of a normal and a logistic distribution, obtaining the approximation

$$\Pr[Z' < z] = \omega \Phi(x) + (1 - \omega)L(x), \quad (32.68)$$

where

$$L(x) = \left\{ 1 + \exp\left(-\frac{\pi x}{\sqrt{3}}\right) \right\}^{-1},$$

with

$$x = \frac{z - \mu}{\sigma},$$

$$\mu = \frac{1}{2} \log\left(\frac{1 + \rho}{1 - \rho}\right) + \frac{1}{2}\rho n^{-1} + \frac{1}{8}\rho(5 + \rho^2)n^{-2} + \dots,$$

$$\sigma^2 = n^{-1} + \frac{1}{2}(4 - \rho^2)n^{-2} + \dots,$$

$$\omega = 1 - \frac{5}{6}(\beta_2 - 3),$$

$$\beta_2 = 3 + 2n^{-1} + (4 + 2\rho^2 - 3\rho^4)n^{-2} + \dots.$$

The idea is to account for the excess kurtosis of the distribution of Fisher's  $Z'$  (which is of order  $n^{-1}$ ) as compared with skewness  $\beta_1$  (which is of order  $n^{-3}$ ). The approximation seems to be of comparable accuracy to that of Chaubey and Mudholkar's (1978) approximation (32.64), involving a t-distribution, although the authors do not compare these approximations explicitly. For detailed comparison of Ruben's, Kraemer's, Mudholkar and Chaubey's (1976), and Winterbottom's (1980) approximations, the reader is referred to Winterbottom (1980); for those of Ruben (1966), Kraemer (1973), Winterbottom (1980), and Niki and Konishi, see Niki and Konishi (1984).

Niki and Konishi's (1984) approximation is extremely accurate and very complex. Despite the tremendous advances in computational procedures and analytic methodology in statistics during the last 50 years, the yardstick, so far as the distribution of correlation coefficient is concerned, is still the remarkable work of F. N. David in the 1930s, carried out with the rather primitive computational facilities available at that time but highly ingenious insofar as the approach to the numerical approximations of complicated functions is

concerned. For small values of  $p$ , Kraemer's (1973)  $t$ -distribution approximation seems to be better than the more complicated omnibus approximations.

## 6 ESTIMATION OF $p$ : ADDITIONAL ROBUSTNESS CONSIDERATIONS

### 6.1 General Remarks

The literature on estimation of correlation coefficients in the last 20 years is very extensive, and comes from mathematically oriented statistical journals, on the one hand, and sociological, psychological, and educational ones, on the other (the latter including numerous empirical investigations) with little coordination among them, causing substantial duplications and triplications. [Only the works of H. C. Kraemer (1973, 1980) seem to have appeared in both statistical and educational journals, providing a narrow, but a most welcome, bridge.] Contradictory, confusing, and uncoordinated floods of information on the "robustness" properties of the sample correlation coefficient  $R$  are scattered in dozens of journals. (Some evidence of this has been apparent in Sections 4 and 5). Various partial simulations and empirical conclusions seem to be directed, on the whole, toward justifying the application of  $R$  even in nonnormal situations and when  $p \neq 0$ . However, results of studies of this issue can be found in the literature, supporting both extreme points of view—of practical robustness, and unsettling volatility.

Sometimes there is failure to distinguish between nonnormality robustness (of the distribution of  $R$  and of properties of formal inference concerning  $\rho$ ) and robustness with respect to outlying observations. Devlin, Gnanadesikan, and Kettenring (1975) warn us that  $R$  is very sensitive to outliers. They point out that the influence function\* for  $R$  is unbounded which may yield "potentially catastrophic effects of a small fraction of deviant observations." Their Monte Carlo results provide empirical verification of the nonrobust properties of  $R$ . Bias and mean square error increase markedly as the tails of the parent distribution (e.g., Cauchy) become heavier. In many cases the bias is substantial and accounts for 99% of the mean square error; see also Tiku and Balakrishnan (1986). On the other hand, Zellner and Levine (1974), based on extensive simulations, claim that " $R$  is (an) efficient estimator of the population  $p$  when the underlying distribution is not normal, as it is when the underlying distribution is normal," and also, when  $p$  is high the standard errors are lower for platykurtic distributions than for normal ones. Kowalski (1972) and Duncan and Layard (1973) arrive at contradictory results, so far as the behavior of  $R$  from a bivariate exponential distribution is concerned. Earlier investigations by Rider (1932) for uniform distributions, Hey (1938) using data collected in agricultural tests, Nair (1941) for exponential distribu-

\*The "influence function" of a statistic may informally be described as an index of the effect on the distribution of the statistic of a single additional observation with value  $x$ . It is of course a mathematical function of  $x$ . For details, see Hampel (1974) and Huber (1977, p. 9).



tions, and **Norris and Hjelm** (1961) (normal, uniform, peaked, slightly skewed, and markedly skewed distributions) all seem to conclude that 0.05 and 0.01 quantiles are very close to those under the bivariate normal assumption. Havlicek and Peterson (1977) went even further, claiming that the **Pearson R** is robust to rather extreme violations of basic assumptions of bivariate normality and type of scale used. Failure to meet the basic assumptions separately or in various combinations had little effect on the resultant distributions of  $R$ . For the 216 distributions of  $R$  computed in their study, there were no significant deviations from the theoretical expected proportions of  $R$  at the 0.005, 0.01, 0.025, or 0.05 quantiles. Thus it was concluded that the effect of violations of these two assumptions has little effect upon the distribution of  $R$  and that probability statements in regard to testing the hypothesis that  $\rho = 0$  would be accurate. Both **Guilford and Frischter** (1973) and **McNemar** (1962) have indicated that some of the basic assumptions, such as normality, do not have to be met. On the other hand, **Nunnally** (1967) has maintained that interpretations of an obtained  $R$  may not be correct if there are violations of the basic assumptions. **Fowler** (1987) concludes that  $R$  is "remarkably robust" and retains power (as a test of  $\rho = 0$ ) even under extreme violations of distributional assumptions (however, Spearman's  $R_s$  may sometimes provide a more powerful test of the null hypothesis  $\rho = 0$ ). In the applied literature, the transformation  $t = R\{(n-2)/(1-R^2)\}^{1/2}$  is quite popular and is claimed to be insensitive to violations of the normality assumption when  $\rho = 0$  (see also page 582).

When  $\rho \neq 0$ , the robustness of  $R$  has been examined both analytically [**Kraemer** (1980); see below] and empirically [**Kowalski** (1972)] with less agreement as to the effects of nonnormality. It should, however, be noted that although asymptotically

$$\frac{\sqrt{n}(R - \rho)}{1 - \rho^2} \sim N(0, 1),$$

this is a very poor approximation unless  $n$  is very large. Indeed **David** (1938) states: "... up to a sample as large as 400 the distribution curves of  $R$  from  $\rho = 0.0$  to  $\rho = 0.6$  (about) are tending only very slowly to normality, while for  $n = 400$  and  $\rho > 0.6$  there is a very wide divergence from the normal distribution." **Kraemer** (1980) points out that if the conditional distribution of  $Y$ , given  $X$ , is normal, with

$$E[Y|X] = \xi_Y + \rho(X - \xi_X)\sigma_Y\sigma_X^{-1},$$

and  $\text{var}(Y|X)$  does not depend on  $X$ , while the kurtosis ( $\beta_2 - 3$ ) of the marginal distribution of  $X$  is  $A$ , then the transform

$$\sqrt{n-2}(R - \rho)\{(1 - \rho^2)(1 - R^2)\}^{-1/2} \quad (32.50b)'$$

has approximately a normal distribution with zero expected value and variance  $1 + \frac{1}{4}\rho^2\lambda$ .

Thus the asymptotics of  $R$  will coincide with those of bivariate normal  $R$  if and only if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \text{var}[\sqrt{n} \{(S_X/\sigma_X) - A\}] = (A + 2)/4 = \frac{1}{2}$  (i.e.,  $A = 0$ ). On the other hand, when  $\rho = 0$ , the distribution of

$$\frac{(n-2)^{1/2} R}{(1-R^2)^{1/2}},$$

under the same assumptions, as mentioned above, is unconditionally that of  $t_\nu$  and thus approaches unit normal as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . [See also Edgell and Noon (1984); Havlicek and Peterson (1977).]

In summary, the null ( $\rho = 0$ ) distribution of  $R$  is approximately that of bivariate normal  $R$  (at least for large sample size) provided that the linearity and homoscedasticity conditions hold. The nonnull distribution of  $R$  is robust provided that an additional kurtosis condition holds.

The convergence of (32.50b) to its asymptotic distribution has been shown to be quite rapid. Surprisingly, bootstrap estimation of the correlation coefficient, which was one of the central points of Diaconis and Efron's (1983) investigations, seems to receive rather negative assessment in the applied literature [see, e.g., Rasmussen (1987)]. The bootstrap yields overly liberal Type I error rates, and overly restricted confidence intervals. Furthermore it performs as poorly on bivariate normal as on bivariate nonnormal populations. Finally, Silver and Dunlap (1987) emphasize that there is substantial benefit to be gained by transforming correlation coefficients to Fisher's  $Z'$  prior to averaging, then backtransforming the average, especially if sample sizes are small.

As Kowalski (1972) pointed out in an extensive historical survey, "A review of the literature revealed an approximately equal dichotomy of opinion. For every study indicating the robustness of the distribution of  $R$ , one could cite another claiming to show just the opposite." A survey of subsequent literature reveals a similar state of affairs. One of the main conclusions of Kowalski's investigations is that E. S. Pearson's (1929) claim that "the normal bivariate surface can be mutilated and distorted to a remarkable degree without affecting the frequency distribution of  $R$ " should be modified. "The distribution of  $R$  in samples from mixtures of bivariate normal distributions may depart considerably from the corresponding normal density even when  $\rho_{XY} = 0$  and even for large sample size."

Duncan and Layard (1973) point out that for a bivariate distribution (not necessarily bivariate normal) having finite fourth moments, the distribution of

$$\sqrt{n} (\tanh^{-1} R - \tanh^{-1} \rho) = \sqrt{n} \{Z'(R) - Z'(\rho)\}$$

converges in distribution to  $N(0, \sigma^2(\rho))$ , where

$$\sigma^2(\rho) = 1 + \frac{1}{4(1 - \rho^2)^2} \{ \rho^2(\gamma_{40} + \gamma_{04}) - 4\rho(\gamma_{31} + \gamma_{13}) + 2(2 + \rho^2)\gamma_{22} \}, \quad (32.69)$$

and  $\gamma_{ij}$  is the cumulant ratio of order  $(i, j)$  of the bivariate distribution (e.g.,  $\gamma_{22} = \kappa_{22}/(\sigma_X^2\sigma_Y^2)$ , where  $\sigma_X^2$  and  $\sigma_Y^2$  are the variances of the marginal distributions). If the distribution is bivariate normal, all of the  $A$ 's vanish and  $\sigma^2(\rho) = 1$ . Likewise, if the components are independent,  $\rho = 0$ ,  $\gamma_{22} = 0$ , and  $\sigma^2(0) = 1$ . If independence does not hold, the asymptotic variance of  $\tanh^{-1}R$  is not generally  $n^{-1}$ , whether or not  $\rho = 0$ , and normal theory procedures based on  $Z' = \tanh^{-1}R$  may not be valid, even asymptotically, for nonnormal bivariate populations. Duncan and Layard (1973), like Kraemer (1973, 1980), pointed out that the asymptotic variance of  $T = R\sqrt{(n-2)/\sqrt{1-R^2}}$ , when  $\rho = 0$ , is  $1 + \gamma_{22}$ , which indicates asymptotic *nonrobustness*.

## 6.2 Point Estimation

Olkin and Pratt (1958) derived the unique minimum variance unbiased estimator of  $\rho$  in the form

$$R^* = R_2 F_1\left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}; \frac{1}{2}(n-1); 1 - R^2\right), \quad (32.70a)$$

where  ${}_2F_1(\alpha, \beta; \gamma; x)$  is the Gaussian hypergeometric function [see Chapter 1, Section A6].

Alternative representations are

$$R^* = R \frac{\Gamma((n-1)/2)}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2})\Gamma((n-2)/2)} \int_0^1 \frac{t^{-1/2}(1-t)^{(n-2)/2-1}}{[1-t(1-R^2)]^{1/2}} dr; \quad (32.70b)$$

$$R^* = R \frac{\Gamma((n-1)/2)}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2})\Gamma((n-2)/2)} \int_0^1 \frac{t^{-1/2}(1+t)^{-(n-2)/2}}{(1+tR^2)^{1/2}} dr. \quad (32.70c)$$

$R^*$  is an odd function of  $R$  and is strictly increasing. For  $\rho = \pm 1$ ,  $R^* = R = \pm 1$  with probability 1. Hence  $-1 \leq R^* \leq 1$ , which is also the range of  $\rho$ . Values of  $R^*$  (and also  $R^*/R$ ) for  $R = 0(0.1)1$  and  $n = 2(2)30$  were provided by Olkin and Pratt (1958).

These authors suggested use of the approximation

$$R^* \approx R \left\{ 1 + \frac{1 - R^2}{2(n-3)} \right\}, \quad (32.71)$$

which is accurate to within  $\pm 0.01$  for  $n \geq 8$ , and within  $\pm 0.001$  for  $n \geq 18$ . Note that  $n$  is equal to  $N$  (to the number of observations) if the mean of the variables  $X$  and  $Y$  are known and to  $N - 1$  when they are unknown and are

estimated by  $\bar{X}$  and  $\bar{Y}$ . The variance of  $R^*$  was derived by Iwase (1981) for the equal variance case for even  $N$  and for  $N = 3$ . He pointed out that in the equal variance case, this estimator is not good for small  $n$  and  $|\rho|$  but is asymptotically efficient as  $n$  increases.

Pradhan and Sathe (1975) observed that, given independent random variables  $(X_i, Y_i)$ ,  $i = 1, 2$  from a bivariate normal distribution with cdf  $\Phi(x, y; 0, 0; \sigma_X, \sigma_Y; \rho)$ ,

$$\Pr[X_1 Y_1 + X_2 Y_2 > 0] = \frac{1}{2}(1 + \rho). \quad (32.72)$$

Defining for  $1 \leq i < j \leq n$

$$S_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } X_i Y_i + X_j Y_j > 0, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

and  $\binom{n}{2} \bar{S} = \sum \sum_{i < j} S_{ij}$ , the estimator

$$\tilde{\rho} = 2\bar{S} - 1 \quad (32.73)$$

is an unbiased estimator of  $\rho$ . The authors did not obtain an exact expression for  $\text{var}(\tilde{\rho})$  but point out that from U-statistic properties it follows that

$$\text{var}(\tilde{\rho}) \leq \frac{2}{n}(1 - \rho^2). \quad (32.74)$$

When  $n = 2$ , the estimator becomes  $\tilde{\rho} = \text{sgn}(X_1 Y_1 + X_2 Y_2)$ .

Sibuya (1964) started by observing that if  $\sigma_X = \sigma_Y = 1$ ,

$$\tilde{\rho}' = \frac{1}{4}\sqrt{2\pi} \{X_1 \text{sgn}(Y_1) + Y_1 \text{sgn}(X_1)\} \quad (32.74)'$$

is an unbiased estimator of  $\rho$  (based on a sample of size 1!) and

$$\text{var}(\tilde{\rho}') = \frac{1}{4}\pi + \frac{1}{2}\rho \sin^{-1} \rho + \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{1 - \rho^2} - \rho^2. \quad (32.75)$$

Using this in an application of Blackwell-Rao theorem, he derived (for  $n \geq 1$ ) the minimum variance unbiased estimator

$$\tilde{\rho}_n = \begin{cases} \sqrt{S} J_n(T/S) & \text{if } S > T, \\ -\sqrt{T} J_n(S/T) & \text{if } S < T, \end{cases} \quad (32.76)$$

where

$$S = \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \frac{X_i + Y_i}{2} \right)^2,$$

$$T = \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \frac{X_i - Y_i}{2} \right)^2,$$

$$J_n(z) = \frac{\Gamma^2(n/2)}{\sqrt{2\pi} \Gamma((n-1)/2) \Gamma((n+1)/2)} (1-z)$$

$$\times \int_0^1 (1-zt)^{(n-1)/2-1} t^{(1/2)-1} (1-t)^{(n-1)/2-1} dt.$$

[Note that  $W = 2(1+\rho)^{-1}S$  and  $V = 2(1-\rho)^{-1}T$  are independent  $\chi_n^2$  random variables.] Use of this estimator depends on knowledge of the standard deviations of  $X$  and  $Y$ , so it is not often of much practical value.

It turns out that the problem of efficient estimation of the correlation coefficient  $\rho$  in the case when population variances are known is a rather delicate one. When all five parameters are unknown, a complete sufficient statistic is

$$(\sum X_i, \sum Y_i, \sum X_i^2, \sum Y_i^2, \sum X_i Y_i).$$

If only the population variances are known,

$$(\sum X_i, \sum Y_i, \sum (X_i^2 + Y_i^2), \sum X_i Y_i)$$

is a complete sufficient statistic, and if the *only* unknown parameter is  $\rho$ ,

$$(\sum (X_i^2 + Y_i^2), \sum X_i Y_i)$$

or equivalently  $(\sum (X_i + Y_i)^2, \sum (X_i - Y_i)^2)$  is sufficient. However, in this case the statistic is not *complete*, yielding infinitely many unbiased estimators of  $\rho$  based on the sufficient statistic.

The case where  $\xi$ ,  $\tau$ ,  $\sigma_X$ , and  $a$ , are all known was thoroughly investigated by Iwase (1981) and by Iwase and Setô (1984). Iwase (1981) proposed a family of estimators  $\tilde{\rho}_{n,k,l}$  indexed by  $k$  and  $l$ , for the  $\Phi(x, y; 0; 0; 1, 1; \rho)$  model, given by

$$\tilde{\rho}_{n,k,l} = \frac{\sqrt{\pi} 2^{k-l-2} \Gamma(n/2)}{\Gamma(l + \frac{3}{2}) \Gamma[(n/2) + 1 - k]} \cdot \operatorname{sgn}(S - T) \frac{|S - T|^{2l+1}}{(S + T)^{k+l}}$$

$$\times {}_2F_1 \left( \frac{k+l}{2}, \frac{k+l+1}{2}; \frac{n}{2}; \frac{4ST}{(S+T)^2} \right), \quad (32.77)$$

[Fréchet (1950); Godwin (1964); Mallows (1956, 1963)] are included to assist readers wanting more details.

Note that for  $s = 2r$  the Wald inequality becomes one of the Cantelli inequalities. Also for  $\mu'_r \leq x^r \leq \mu'_{2r}/\mu'_r$ , there is no suitable Cantelli inequality. A detailed account of these inequalities is given in Godwin (1964), together with further inequalities applicable to sums of independent variables. This latter topic has been further developed by Hoeffding (1963) and Bennett (1968).

Bennett (1968) showed that if  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are independent with finite expected values  $E[X_j]$  and variances  $[\sigma(X_j)]^2$ , and  $\Pr[X_j - E[X_j] > M, j = 0$  for all  $j$ , then (with  $t < 1$ )

$$\Pr \left[ \sum_{j=1}^n \{X_j - E[X_j]\} \geq t \sum_{j=1}^n M_j \right] \leq [f(t, r)]^B, \tag{33.50}$$

where

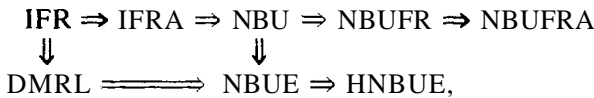
$$B = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^n M_j}{\max_j M_j},$$

$$r = \min_j \left\{ \frac{M_j}{\sigma(X_j)} \right\},$$

and

$$f(t, r) = (1 + tr^2)^{-1} \left( \frac{1 + tr^2}{1 - t} \right)^{r^2(1-t)/(1+r^2)}.$$

In Bennett (1968) there is a table of  $f(t, r)$  to six decimal places for  $t = 0.00(0.02)1.00$ ,  $r = 2.0(0.5)5.0$ . Among further properties of IHR and DHR distributions, we note that  $(1 - F(x))^{1/x}$  is a decreasing (increasing) function of  $x$  if  $F(x)$  is IHR (DHR). The following implications (and no others) hold among the eight classes discussed above:



[Kochar and Wiens (1987); Bondesson (1983)], also

$$\text{IFR} \Rightarrow \text{IFR} * \text{IFR}$$

(\* denotes convolution). The exponential distribution belongs to each of the eight classes, with equality in each defining inequality.

Table 33.3 Bounds on distribution functions

Names	Conditions	Values of $x$	Limits on $1 - F(x)$
Chebyshev	—	$x' > \mu_r$	$1 - F(x)$
Cantelli	—	$x' \geq \mu_{2r}^2/\mu_r$	$1 - F(x) \leq \mu_r^2/x'$
		$x' \leq \mu_r$	$1 - F(x) \leq (\mu_{2r}^2 - \mu_r^2)/[(x' - \mu_r)^2 + \mu_{2r}^2 - \mu_r^2]$
			$1 - F(x) \leq (\mu_{2r}^2 - \mu_r^2)/\{(\mu_r - x')^2 + \mu_{2r}^2 - \mu_r^2\}$
			$1 - F(x) \leq (\mu_s^2 - \mu_r^2 \delta^{s-r})/(x'(x^{s-r} - \delta^r))$ , where $\delta (> 0, \neq x)$ satisfies $\mu_r x^s - \mu_s x^r + \delta^r(\mu_s - x^s) + \delta^s(\mu_r - x^r) = 0$
Wald	$r < s$	$1 \geq \mu_r/x' \geq \mu_s/x^s$	$1 - F(x) \leq 1 - x[(r + 1)\mu_r]^{-1/r}$
Gauss-Winkler	$F'(x') \geq F'(x)$ $\geq F'(x'')$	$x' < r'(r + 1)^{-r-1}\mu_r$ $x' > r'(r + 1)^{-r-1}\mu_r$	$1 - F(x) \leq [(1 + r^{-1})x]^{-r}\mu_r$

where  ${}_2F_1$  is the hypergeometric function and S and T are given by (32.76). The estimator  $\tilde{\rho}_{n,k,l}$  does not satisfy the inequality  $|\tilde{\rho}_{n,k,l}| \leq 1$  if  $l = 0$ , n is a positive integer and  $2k < n + 1$  or if  $l > -1$ , n is positive integer and  $n - 2k = 1$ .

Generally

$$E[\tilde{\rho}_{n,k,l}] = \rho {}_2F_1\left(-l, k + \frac{1-n}{2}; \frac{3}{2}; \rho^2\right). \quad (32.78)$$

[If  $\xi$  and  $\eta$  are unknown, replace S and T by

$$U = \frac{2}{1+\rho} \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \frac{(X_i - \bar{X}) + (Y_i - \bar{Y})}{2} \right)^2$$

and

$$V = \frac{2}{1-\rho} \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \frac{(X_i - \bar{X}) - (Y_i - \bar{Y})}{2} \right)^2,$$

which are mutually independent  $\chi_{n-1}^2$  random variables.]

For  $k = \frac{1}{2}$ ,  $l = 0$ , we have the Sibuya (1964) estimator. For  $n = 2$ ,  $k = 1$ ,  $l = 0$ , we arrive at Pradhan and Sathé's (1975) estimator. For  $k = 0$ ,  $l = 0$ , we have  $\tilde{\rho}_{n,0,0} = (\sum_{i=1}^n X_i Y_i) / n$ , the conventional estimator which is locally MVUE at  $\rho = 0$ . For  $k = 1$ ,  $l = 0$ , we have

$$\tilde{\rho}_{n,1,0} = R' {}_2F_1\left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}; \frac{1}{2}(n-1); 1 - R'^2\right), \quad (32.79)$$

where  $R' = 2\sum X_i Y_i / \sum (X_i^2 + Y_i^2)$  is DeLury's (1938) estimator. This is Olkin and Pratt's estimator, (32.70a), with R replaced by R'. As  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $\tilde{\rho}_{n,k,0} \rightarrow \tilde{\rho}_{n,k,0}^* \equiv (S - T) / (S + T)^k$ . Iwase (1985) derived an expression for  $\text{var}(\tilde{\rho}_{n,k,0}^*)$  and showed that the asymptotic variance is

$$\text{var}(\tilde{\rho}_{n,k,0}^*) \sim \frac{1}{n} \{1 + (1 - 4k + k^2)\rho^2 + k^2\rho^4\} + O(n^{-2}). \quad (32.80)$$

For  $k = (1 + 2\rho^2)^{-1}$  the expression simplifies to

$$\text{var}(\tilde{\rho}_{n,k,0}^*) \sim \frac{n^{-1}(1 - \rho^2)^2}{1 + \rho^2} + O(n^{-2}).$$

The leading term is the Cramér-Rao lower bound.

Note that  $\tilde{\rho}_{n,1,0}$  is the UMVUE for  $\rho$ , with variance attaining the Cramér-Rao lower bound  $(1 - \rho^2)^2 / n$  in the  $\Phi(0, 0; \sigma^2, \sigma^2; \rho)$  model, which is larger than the bound  $n^{-1}(1 - \rho^2)^2(1 + \rho^2)^{-1}$  for the model ( $\xi = \eta = 0$ ,



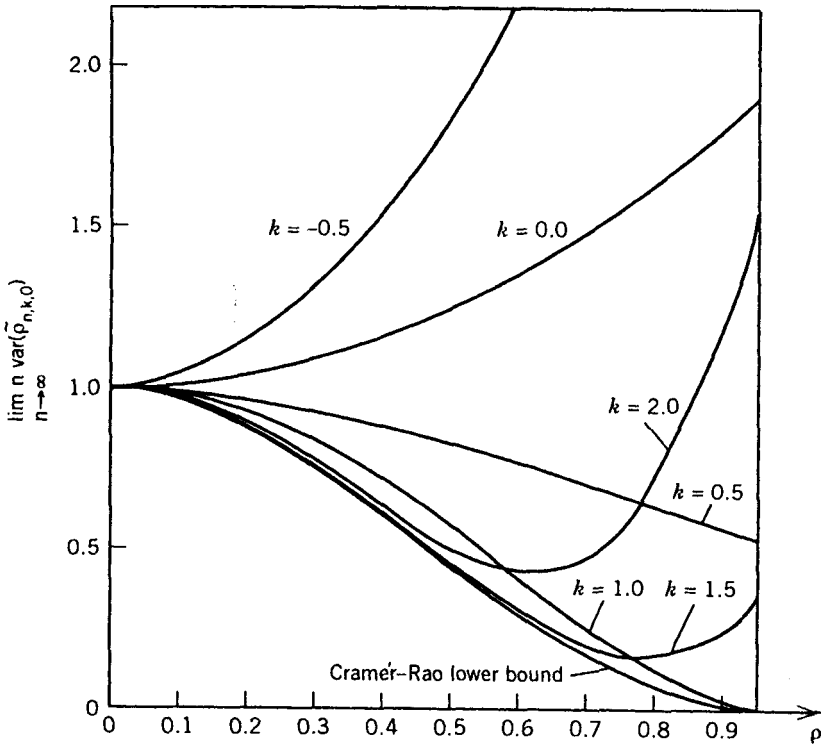


Figure 32.3  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n \text{var}(\tilde{\rho}_{n,k,0})$

$\sigma_X = a, = 1$ ) under consideration. Graphs of  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n \text{var}(\tilde{\rho}_{n,k,0})$  against  $\rho$  for various values of  $k$  are presented in Figure 32.3, indicating that, at least for large  $\rho$ , the value  $k = 1$  seems to be optimal.

DeLury (1938) noted that if it is known only that  $\xi = \eta$  and  $\sigma_X = a$ , then the statistic

$$R' = \frac{2\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - M)(Y_i - M)}{\sum_{i=1}^n \{(X_i - M)^2 + (Y_i - M)^2\}}, \tag{32.81a}$$

where  $M = \frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i + Y_i)$ , is a slightly better estimator of  $\rho$  than is  $R$ . If it is only known that  $\sigma_X = a$ , DeLury suggested using the estimator

$$R'' = \frac{2\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n \{(X_i - \bar{X})^2 + (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2\}}, \tag{32.81b}$$

which has the pdf

$$p_{R^n}(r|\rho) = \{B(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}n)\}^{-1} (1 - \rho^2)^{n/2} (1 - \rho r)^{-n} (1 - r^2)^{(n-2)/2},$$

$$-1 \leq r \leq 1.$$

Iwase and Setô (1984) generalized Iwase's (1981) results. More precisely, they generalized the unbiased estimator

$$\tilde{\rho}_{n,k,0} = \frac{2^{k-1} \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}n)}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}n + 1 - k)} \frac{S - T}{(S + T)^2} {}_2F_1\left(\frac{k}{2}, \frac{k+1}{2}; \frac{n}{2}; \frac{4ST}{(S+T)^2}\right),$$
(32.82)

for both positive and negative  $k$  to

$$\tilde{\rho}_{n,k}(c) = \frac{(1+c)^k}{\Gamma(k)} \int_0^\infty F_n(S, T; u) u^{k-1} e^{-cu} du$$
(32.83)

(under the condition  $n + 1 > 2k > 0$  for  $c = 0$ ), where

$$F_n(S, T; u) = 2^{(n-3)/2} \Gamma^2\left(\frac{1}{2}n\right) (ST)^{1-(n/4)} u^{-(n-1)/2}$$

$$\times \left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{T}} J_{n/2}(\sqrt{2uS}) J_{(n/2)-1}(\sqrt{2uT}) \right.$$

$$\left. - \frac{1}{\sqrt{S}} J_{(n/2)-1}(\sqrt{2uS}) J_{n/2}(\sqrt{2uT}) \right\},$$
(32.84)

where  $J(\cdot)$  is a Bessel function of the first kind. Their aim was to adjust the random variables  $S$  and  $T$  to  $2aS$  and  $2bT$ , with appropriately chosen  $a$  and  $b$  [not necessarily  $a = (1 + \rho)^{-1}$  and  $b = (1 - \rho)^{-1}$ ].

It is easy to show that if  $c = 0$ , the integration can be performed explicitly, yielding  $\tilde{\rho}_{n,k}$ . An alternative form, for  $n > 1$  and  $c > 0$ , is

$$\tilde{\rho}_{n,k}(c) = \frac{1}{n} \left( \frac{1+c}{c} \right)^k (S - T) \int_0^1 (v(1-v))^{(n-3)/2}$$

$$\times {}_2F_1\left(k, n-1; \frac{n}{2} + 1; -\frac{1}{2c} \left\{ (\sqrt{S} + \sqrt{T})^2 - 4\sqrt{ST}v \right\}\right) dv.$$
(32.85a)

For  $n = 1$  we have

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{\rho}_{1,k}(c) = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1+c}{c} \right)^k XY \left\{ \exp \left[ -\frac{X^2}{2c} \right] {}_1F_1 \left( \frac{3}{2} - k; \frac{3}{2}; \frac{X^2}{2c} \right) \right. \\ \left. + \exp \left[ -\frac{Y^2}{2c} \right] {}_1F_1 \left( \frac{3}{2} - k; \frac{3}{2}; \frac{Y^2}{2c} \right) \right\}, \end{aligned} \quad (32.85b)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{\rho}_{1,1/2}(c) = (1+c)^{1/2} \frac{\sqrt{2\pi}}{4} \\ \times \left\{ X \operatorname{sgn}(Y) \operatorname{erf} \left( \frac{|Y|}{\sqrt{2c}} \right) + Y \operatorname{sgn}(X) \operatorname{erf} \left( \frac{|X|}{\sqrt{2c}} \right) \right\}, \end{aligned} \quad (32.85c)$$

where

$$\operatorname{erf}(z) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^z \exp(-t^2) dt.$$

It is evident that  $\tilde{\rho}_{1,1/2}(c)$  approaches the Sibuya estimator  $\tilde{\rho}'$  as  $c \rightarrow 0$ . In this sense we can identify  $\tilde{\rho}_{1,1/2}(0)$  with  $\tilde{\rho}'$ .

The authors recommend, for "practical application" (with  $n = 1!$ ) the values  $k = \frac{3}{2}$  and  $c = 1$ , leading to

$$\tilde{\rho}_{1,1.5}(1) = \sqrt{2} XY \{ e^{-X^2/2} + e^{-Y^2/2} \} \quad (32.86)$$

with variance

$$\operatorname{var}(\tilde{\rho}_{1,1.5}(1)) = 4(4 - 2\rho^2 + \rho^4)(4 - \rho^2)^{-5/2} + 4 \cdot 3^{-3/2} - \rho^2. \quad (32.87)$$

The introduction of the parameter  $c$  makes it possible to reduce the variance in the case  $n = 1$ , especially when  $\rho_{1,1}(\frac{1}{2})$  is compared with Sibuya's simplified estimator  $\tilde{\rho}'$ , for all values of  $\rho$ . The authors further conjecture that  $\tilde{\rho}_{n,k}(c)$  *might* be expected to have small variances when  $n$  is greater than 1 and suggest studying the construction of estimators with  $c$  a random variable depending on  $S$  and  $T$ , in the expectation that the variance will be close to the **Cramér-Rao** lower bound.

### 6.3 Maximum Likelihood Estimation

The likelihood function for a random sample  $(X_i, Y_i)$  ( $i = 1, \dots, n$ ) of size  $n$  from a bivariate normal distribution (32.2) is

$$\begin{aligned}
 l(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y} | \xi, \eta; \sigma_X, \sigma_Y; \rho) \\
 = (277)^{-n} (1 - \rho^2)^{-n/2} \exp \left[ - \frac{1}{2(1 - \rho^2)} \left\{ \sigma_X^{-2} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \xi)^2 \right. \right. \\
 \left. \left. - 2\rho\sigma_X^{-1}\sigma_Y^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \xi)(Y_i - \eta) + \sigma_Y^{-2} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \eta)^2 \right\} \right]. \quad (32.88)
 \end{aligned}$$

Equivalently

$$\begin{aligned}
 \log l(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y} | \xi, \eta; \sigma_X, \sigma_Y; \rho) \\
 = -n \log(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2}n \log(1 - \rho^2) - \frac{1}{2}(1 - \rho^2)^{-1} \\
 \times \left\{ \sigma_X^{-2} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \xi)^2 - 2\rho\sigma_X^{-1}\sigma_Y^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \xi)(Y_i - \eta) \right. \\
 \left. + \sigma_Y^{-2} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \eta)^2 \right\}. \quad (32.88)'
 \end{aligned}$$

Solving the maximum likelihood equations

$$\frac{\partial \log l}{\partial \xi} = \frac{\partial \log l}{\partial \eta} = \frac{\partial \log l}{\partial \sigma_X} = \frac{\partial \log l}{\partial \sigma_Y} = \frac{\partial \log l}{\partial \rho} = 0$$

yields the maximum likelihood estimators

$$\begin{aligned}
 \hat{\xi} &= \bar{X}, \\
 \hat{\eta} &= \bar{Y}, \\
 \hat{\sigma}_X &= \left\{ n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 \right\}^{1/2}, \\
 \hat{\sigma}_Y &= \left\{ n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 \right\}^{1/2}, \quad (32.89)
 \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\hat{\rho} = \frac{n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\hat{\sigma}_X \hat{\sigma}_Y} = R.$$

But, starting from the pdf of  $R$  in the form (32.6b), we obtain the equation

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{R - \hat{\rho}' \cosh x}{(\cosh x - \hat{\rho}' R)^n} dx = 0 \quad (32.90)$$

for the corresponding maximum likelihood estimator  $\hat{\rho}'$  of  $R$ . Of course both  $\hat{\rho}$  and  $\hat{\rho}'$  have the same asymptotic maximum likelihood properties.

Fisher (1915) showed that from (32.90)

$$\hat{\rho}' \doteq R \left( 1 + \frac{1 - R^2}{2n} \right)^{-1}. \quad (32.91)$$

Comparison with (32.14a) shows that for  $p > (<) 0$ ,  $R$  has a negative (positive) bias, and consequently  $\hat{\rho}'$  will have an even greater negative (positive) bias. If some (or all) of the parameters  $\xi$ ,  $\eta$ ,  $\sigma_X$ , and  $\sigma_Y$  are known, the corresponding maximum likelihood estimators would probably yield better results (at least asymptotically) than  $\hat{\rho}$  or  $\hat{\rho}'$ .

The simplest case is when  $\xi$  and  $\eta$  are known but not  $\sigma_X$  or  $\sigma_Y$ . Replacing  $\bar{X}$  and  $\bar{Y}$  in  $R$  by  $\xi$  and  $\eta$ , respectively, we obtain the MLE

$$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \xi)(Y_i - \eta)}{\left[ \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \xi)^2 \right\} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \eta)^2 \right\} \right]^{1/2}}. \quad (32.92)$$

The associated distribution theory is the same as for  $R$ , except that  $n$  is replaced by  $n + 1$ . If  $\sigma_X$  and  $\sigma_Y$  are known but not  $\xi$  or  $\eta$ , the natural estimator

$$R(\sigma_X, \sigma_Y) = \frac{n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y} \quad (32.93)$$

is unbiased but suffers from the drawback that it can take values outside the range of values of  $\rho$  ( $-1 \leq \rho \leq 1$ ). The maximum likelihood equation for a MLE,  $\hat{\rho}(\sigma_X, \sigma_Y)$ , under these conditions is the real root of the cubic equation

$$\begin{aligned} \rho^3 - R(\sigma_X, \sigma_Y) \rho^2 + n^{-1} \left\{ \sigma_X^{-2} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 + \sigma_Y^{-2} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 \right\} \rho \\ - R(\sigma_X, \sigma_Y) = 0, \end{aligned} \quad (32.94)$$

which maximizes  $I$  and lies between  $-1$  and  $1$  [Kendall (1949); Madansky (1958)]. Madansky (1958) gives a detailed analysis of the conditions for a unique solution of (32.94) satisfying the stated requirements. He shows that asymptotically a unique solution exists with probability 1. He also compares

the asymptotic variances of  $R$ ,  $R(\sigma_X, \sigma_Y)$ , and  $\hat{\rho}(\sigma_X, \sigma_Y)$ , which are

$$\begin{aligned} n \operatorname{var}(R) &= (1 - \rho^2)^2, \\ n \operatorname{var}(R(\sigma_X, \sigma_Y)) &= 1 + \rho^2, \\ n \operatorname{var}(\hat{\rho}(\sigma_X, \sigma_Y)) &= (1 + \rho^2)^{-1}(1 - \rho^2)^2. \end{aligned} \quad (32.95)$$

Therefore the ARE of  $R$  is  $(1 + \rho^2)^{-1}$  and of  $R(\sigma_X, \sigma_Y)$ ,  $(1 - \rho^2)^2(1 + \rho^2)^{-2}$ . As in the cases described earlier, if  $\xi$  and  $\eta$  are known in addition to  $\sigma_X$  and  $\sigma_Y$ , the appropriate analysis is obtained by replacing  $\bar{X}$  and  $\bar{Y}$  with  $\xi$  and  $\eta$ , respectively. The asymptotic variances and relative efficiencies are unchanged.

Azen and Reed (1973) consider maximum likelihood estimation of  $\rho$  when it is known that  $\sigma_X/\xi = \sigma_Y/\eta = c > 0$ . (This also implies that  $\xi > 0$  and  $\eta > 0$ .) They present an iterative procedure for calculating the maximum likelihood estimator,  $\hat{\rho}(c)$ , say. They find that the asymptotic efficiency of  $R$  relative to  $\hat{\rho}(c)$  is less than 81% for  $c < 0.1$  and  $|\rho| > 0.5$ , although  $R$  is almost as efficient as  $\hat{\rho}(c)$  for  $c > 1$  and  $|\rho| < 0.3$ , and for large  $c$  ( $\geq 10$ ) the efficiency is practically 100%. The efficiency of  $R$  [relative to  $\hat{\rho}(c)$ ] is less for negative  $\rho$  than for the corresponding positive  $\rho$ . Azen and Reed's (1973) general recommendations are: "For samples of size  $n = 25$  or larger,  $\hat{\rho}(1)$  or  $\hat{\rho}$  be used if  $c \leq 1$  and it is suspected that  $|\rho| \geq 0.5$ . This is because, asymptotically,  $R$  is at most 80% as efficient as  $\hat{\rho}$  for  $|\rho| \geq 0.5$ . If  $n$  is approximately equal to 10, we recommend using  $\hat{\rho}(1)$ , or  $\hat{\rho}$  if  $|\rho| \geq 0.7$ . On the other hand, for samples as small as  $n = 5$ , we recommend using Pearson's  $R$ . Finally, for  $c > 1$  we recommend Pearson's  $R$ ."

#### 6.4 Estimation of Common $\rho$ Based on Several Samples

Donner and Rosner (1980) compare four different methods of estimating a common correlation coefficient  $\rho$  based on samples for  $k$  ( $\geq 2$ ) bivariate normal populations of sizes  $n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k$ . In general, since the expected values  $(\xi_i, \eta_i)$  and variances  $(\sigma_{X_i}^2, \sigma_{Y_i}^2)$  will vary with  $i = 1, \dots, k$ , it is not valid to use the Pearson product moment sample correlation coefficient based on all  $n$  ( $= \sum_{i=1}^k n_i$ ) pairs  $(X_{ij}, Y_{ij})$  ( $i = 1, \dots, k; j = 1, \dots, n_i$ ) of observed values. The most common procedure is to compute the product-moment coefficients  $R_1, \dots, R_k$  for each sample separately, convert to the  $Z'$  transform values

$$Z'_i = \frac{1}{2} \log \left( \frac{1 + R_i}{1 - R_i} \right) = \tanh^{-1} R_i,$$

and estimate  $\rho$  by

$$\tilde{\rho}_c = \tanh \bar{Z}'_c = \{\exp(2\bar{Z}'_c) - 1\} \{\exp(2\bar{Z}'_c + 1)\}^{-1}, \quad (32.96)$$

where

$$\bar{Z}'_c = (n - 3k)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^k (n_i - 3) Z'_i.$$

Explicitly,

$$\tilde{\rho}_c = \frac{\prod_{i=1}^k (1 + R_i)^{g_i} - \prod_{i=1}^k (1 - R_i)^{g_i}}{\prod_{i=1}^k (1 + R_i)^{g_i} + \prod_{i=1}^k (1 - R_i)^{g_i}}, \quad (32.96)'$$

where  $g_i = (n - 3k)^{-1}(n_i - 3)$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$ .

Donner and Rosner (1980) compare  $\tilde{\rho}_c$  with the following estimators:

1. Convert the observed  $(X_{ij}, Y_{ij})$  to standardized values

$$X'_{ij} = \frac{X_{ij} - \bar{X}_i}{S_{X_i}},$$

$$Y'_{ij} = \frac{Y_{ij} - \bar{Y}_i}{S_{Y_i}},$$

where  $(\bar{X}_i, \bar{Y}_i)$  are the sample means and  $S_{X_i}, S_{Y_i}$  the sample standard deviations for the data from the  $i$ th population. Then calculate  $\tilde{\rho}_S$  as the sample product-moment coefficient for the  $n$  pairs  $(X'_{ij}, Y'_{ij})$ . Evidently

$$\tilde{\rho}_S = (n - k)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^k (n_i - 1) R_i. \quad (32.97)$$

[Donner and Rosner (1980) showed that when  $\rho = 0$ ,  $\tilde{\rho}_c$  is a superior estimator (for  $\rho$ ) than  $\tilde{\rho}_S$ .]

2. Obtain Pearson's (1933) "maximum likelihood estimator"  $\tilde{\rho}_P$  by solving the equation

$$\sum_{i=1}^k n_i (R_i - \tilde{\rho}_P) (1 - R_i \tilde{\rho}_P)^{-1} = 0. \quad (32.98)$$

Table 333 Bounds on distribution functions

Names	Conditions	Values of $x$	Limits on $1 - F(x)$
Chebyshev	—	$x^r > \mu_r$	$1 - F(x) \neq \mu'_r/x^r$
Cantelli	—	$x^r \geq \mu'_{2r}/\mu'_r$	$1 - F(x) \leq (\mu'_{2r} - \mu_r'^2)/[(x^r - \mu'_r)^2 + \mu'_{2r} - \mu_r'^2]$
		$x^r \leq \mu'_r$	$1 - F(x) \geq 1 - \{(\mu'_{2r} - \mu_r'^2)/[(\mu'_r - x^r)^2 + \mu'_{2r} - \mu_r'^2]\}$
Wald	$r < s$	$1 \geq \mu'_r/x^r \geq \mu'_s/x^s$	$1 - F(x) \neq (\mu'_s - \mu'_r \delta^{s-r})/\{x^r(x^{s-r} - \delta^r)\}$ , where $\delta (> 0, \neq x)$ satisfies $\mu'_s x^s - \mu'_r x^r + \delta^r(\mu'_s - x^s) + \delta^s(\mu'_r - x^r) = 0$
Gauss-Winkler	$F'(x') \geq F'(x) \geq F'(x'')$	$x^r < r^r(r+1)^{-(r-1)}\mu'_r$ if $x' < x < x''$ $x^r > r^r(r+1)^{-(r-1)}\mu'_r$	$1 - F(x) \neq 1 - x[(r+1)\mu'_r]^{-1/r}$ $1 - F(x) \leq [(1+r^{-1})x]^{-r}\mu'_r$



3. Replace  $Z'_i$  in (32.96) by  $Z''_i$  to obtain Hotelling's (1953) estimator  $\tilde{\rho}_{H1}$ ,

$$Z''_i = Z'_i - (2n_i - 5)^{-1} R_i \quad (32.99)$$

so that

$$\tilde{\rho}_{H1} = \tanh Z'_{H1}, \quad (32.100)$$

with

$$Z'_{H1} = \left( \sum_{i=1}^k n_i - \frac{7}{3}k \right) \sum_{i=1}^k \left( n_i - \frac{7}{3} \right) Z''_i$$

[since  $\text{var}(Z''_i) \approx (n_i - \frac{7}{3})^{-1}$ ].

In the special case where  $n_1 = n_2 = \dots = n_k = n_0$ , we have

$$\tilde{\rho}_H = \tanh Z'_H, \quad (32.101)$$

with

$$Z'_H = \bar{Z}'_c - (2n_0 - \frac{9}{2})^{-1} \tilde{\rho}_c.$$

Hotelling (1953) [see also Paul (1988)] suggested the further adjustment

$$Z'''_i = Z'_i - \frac{3Z'_i + R_i}{4(n_i - 1)}, \quad (32.102)$$

leading to

$$\tilde{\rho}_{H2} = \tanh Z'_{H2} \quad (32.103)$$

with

$$Z'_{H2} = \left( \sum_{i=1}^k n_i - k \right)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^k (n_i - 1) Z'''_i.$$

[The variance of  $Z'''_i$  differs from  $(n_i - 1)^{-1}$  only by terms of order  $n_i^{-3}$  and higher.]

Donner and Rosner (1980) and Paul (1988) studied the performance of these estimators of  $\rho$  by means of Monte Carlo simulations, using the "score statistic"  $\tilde{\rho}_S$  as the standard of comparison. Paul (1988) carried out a more extensive set of comparisons, using bivariate normal distributions with standardized variables ( $\xi_i = \eta_i = 0$ ;  $\sigma_{X_i} = \sigma_{Y_i} = 1$ ) with  $\rho = 0, 0.1(0.2)0.7$ , for

the following sets of values of  $n_i$ :

$k = 2$ :

$$\begin{aligned}n_1 = n_2 &= 10, 25, 50, \\n_1 = 10, \quad n_2 &= 5, 25.\end{aligned}$$

$k = 3$ :

$$\begin{aligned}n_1 = n_2 = n_3 &= 10, 25, 50, \\n_1 = n_2 = 10, \quad n_3 &= 50, \\n_1 = 10, \quad n_2 = 25, \quad n_3 &= 50.\end{aligned}$$

$k = 4$ :

$$\begin{aligned}n_1 = n_2 = n_3 = n_4 &= 10, 25, 50, \\n_1 = n_2 = 10, \quad n_3 = n_4 &= 50 \\n_1 = 10, \quad n_2 = 25, \quad n_3 = 50, \quad n_4 &= 100.\end{aligned}$$

The ratios of mean square errors

$$\frac{\text{MSE}(\tilde{\rho}_S)}{\text{MSE}(\tilde{\rho}_J)}$$

and also relative closeness:

$$\text{Pr}\left[|\tilde{\rho}_S - \rho| - |\tilde{\rho}_J - \rho| > 0\right]$$

for  $J = c, H1, H2$ , and  $P$  were used as criteria for comparisons. Summarized here are the results:

1. For  $\rho < 0.5$ ,  $\tilde{\rho}_{H2}$  performs best; for  $\rho > 0.5$ ,  $\tilde{\rho}_c$  performs best.
2. Performance of  $\tilde{\rho}_{H1}$  is between  $\tilde{\rho}_{H2}$  and  $\tilde{\rho}_c$ .
3. In the neighborhood of  $\rho = 0.5$ ,  $\tilde{\rho}_c$ ,  $\tilde{\rho}_{H2}$ , and  $\tilde{\rho}_S$  perform about equally well.
4.  $\tilde{\rho}_p$  is a relatively poor estimator, unless  $p$  is small.
5. When sample sizes  $n_i$  are equal, the performances of  $\tilde{\rho}_c$  and  $\tilde{\rho}_p$  are nearly identical.

The ranges of relative efficiencies (inverse **MSE**) to  $\bar{\rho}_S$ , with

$$n_1 = 10, \quad n_2 = 25, \quad n_3 = 50, \quad n_4 = 100,$$

and  $p$  increasing from 0 to 0.7 are for  $\bar{\rho}_c$  from 0.97 to 1.09, for  $\bar{\rho}_{H2}$  from 1.01 to 0.97 and for  $\bar{\rho}_{H1}$  from 0.97 to 1.10. The Donner and Rosner (1980) estimator  $\rho_S$  is quite good and is simple to calculate.

Mi (1990) uses Kraemer's (1973) suggested approximation,

$$\frac{\sqrt{\nu_i}(R_i - \rho)}{\{(1 - R_i^2)(1 - \rho^2)\}^{1/2}} \sim t_{\nu_i},$$

for a suitable value of  $\nu_i$  (depending on  $n_i$ ) that implies that  $R$ , has an *approximate* pdf

$$p_{R_i}(r) = \frac{(1 - \rho^2)^{\nu_i/2} (1 - r^2)^{(\nu_i - 2)/2}}{B(\frac{1}{2}\nu_i, \frac{1}{2})(1 - \rho r)^{\nu_i}}, \quad -1 \leq r \leq 1. \quad (32.104)$$

The corresponding likelihood function is proportional to

$$(1 - \rho^2)^{\frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^k \nu_i} \left\{ \prod_{i=1}^k (1 - \rho R_i) \right\}^{-\nu_i}, \quad (32.105)$$

and the maximum likelihood equation is

$$\sum_{i=1}^k \nu_i \left( \frac{\hat{\rho}_A}{1 - \hat{\rho}_A^2} - \frac{R_i}{1 - \hat{\rho}_A R_i} \right) = 0. \quad (32.106)$$

Mi (1990) recommends using  $\nu_i = n_i$  (resulting in an estimator that minimizes  $E[(\hat{\rho}_A - \rho)^2]$ ). The equivalent equation

$$\sum_{i=1}^k \frac{n_i R_i}{1 - \hat{\rho}_A R_i} = \frac{\hat{\rho}_A}{1 - \hat{\rho}_A^2} \sum_{i=1}^k n_i \quad (32.106)'$$

was given by Hedges and Olkin (1985) and is also equivalent to Pearson's equation (32.98) for  $\bar{\rho}_p$ . The mean square error of  $\hat{\rho}_A$  is approximately  $(1 - \rho^2)^2 / \sum_{i=1}^k n_i$ .

In yet another investigation Viana (1982) studied in detail the three following maximum-likelihood-type estimators of  $\rho$ :

1. The only real root of

$$\rho^{*3} + \left( 1 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^k u_i R_i^2 \right) \rho^* + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^k \nu_i R_i = 0, \quad (32.107)$$

where

$$u_i = \{3 - 2n_i - 9(8n_i - 3)^{-1}(4n_i + 2)^{-1}\}(n - k)^{-1} \left( n = \sum_{i=1}^k n_i \right),$$

$$v_i = \{3 - 2n_i - (8n_i + 13)(8n_i - 3)^{-1}(4n_i + 2)^{-1}\}(n - k)^{-1}.$$

This approximation is based on the truncated expansions

$$\rho(1 - \rho^2)^{-1} = \rho + \rho^3 + O(\rho^5), \quad (32.108a)$$

$$R_i(1 - \rho R_i)^{-1} = R_i + \rho R_i^2 + O(\rho^2 R_i^3), \quad i = 1, \dots, k. \quad (32.108b)$$

## 2. A linearly combined estimator

$$\tilde{\rho}_L^* = (n - k)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^k (n_i - 1) R_i \left\{ 1 + \frac{1 - R_i^2}{2(n_i - 4)} \right\}. \quad (32.109)$$

We have  $\text{var}(\tilde{\rho}_L^*) \sim (1 - \rho^2)^2(n - k)^{-1}$  as  $n \uparrow \infty$ .

## 3. A doubly transformed linearly combined estimator that is simply $\tilde{\rho}_c$ [Eq. (32.96)].

For  $k = 3$ ,  $n \leq 90$ , and  $n_1 \neq n_2 = n_3$ ,  $\hat{\rho}^*$  has a smaller mean square error and variance than both  $\tilde{\rho}^*$  and  $\tilde{\rho}_c^*$  at the expense of a relatively large bias.

We note with regret the marked lack of coordination among the studies by Viana (1982), Paul (1988), and Mi (1990) despite the fact that all three papers appeared in the same journal! Viana does not refer to Donner and Rosner (1980) either, despite similarity in problems and methodology.

## 6.5 Miscellaneous Estimation Problems

1. Maximum likelihood estimation of  $\rho$  from a "broken random sample" was considered by DeGroot and Goel (1980). Specifically each pair of observations  $(X_i, Y_i)$  ( $i = 1, \dots, n$ ) gets "broken" so that all that is available is  $(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$  and  $(Y'_1, Y'_2, \dots, Y'_n)$ , where the latter is some (unknown) permutation of  $Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n$ . Denoting by  $R_{[\theta]}$  the sample correlation coefficient for a specific "pairing"  $(X_i, Y'_{\theta(i)})$  ( $i = 1, \dots, n$ ), where  $\theta = (\theta(1), \dots, \theta(n))$  is a permutation of  $(1, \dots, n)$ , the maximum likelihood estimator of  $\rho$  is

$$\hat{\rho} = \begin{cases} \max_{\theta} R_{[\theta]} & \text{if } \max_{\theta} R_{[\theta]} \geq \left| \min_{\theta} R_{[\theta]} \right|, \\ \min_{\theta} R_{[\theta]} & \text{if } \max_{\theta} R_{[\theta]} \leq \left| \min_{\theta} R_{[\theta]} \right|. \end{cases} \quad (32.110)$$

Unfortunately, this estimator is not reasonable because it is always equal to the maximum or minimum possible sample correlation coefficient that can be calculated from the broken sample. DeGroot and Goel (1980) proposed to use an estimator  $\tilde{\rho}$  which would maximize the "integrated" (average) likelihood defined as

$$(n!)^{-1} \sum_{\theta} \phi(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y} | \xi, \eta; \sigma_X, \sigma_Y; \rho; \theta), \quad (32.111)$$

summation being over all  $n!$  permutations  $\theta$  of  $(1, \dots, n)$ . The log (likelihood) function is

$$\text{Constant} - \frac{1}{2} n \log(1 - \rho^2) + n(1 - \rho^2)^{-1} + \log \left[ \sum_{\theta} \exp \{ n\rho(1 - \rho^2)^{-1} R_{[\theta]} \} \right] \quad (32.112)$$

Equating the derivative with respect to  $\rho$  to zero, we obtain

$$\frac{\sum_{\theta} R_{[\theta]} \exp \{ n\rho(1 - \rho^2)^{-1} R_{[\theta]} \}}{\sum_{\theta} \exp \{ n\rho(1 - \rho^2)^{-1} R_{[\theta]} \}} = \rho. \quad (32.113)$$

This equation has to be solved numerically to obtain  $\tilde{\rho}$ .

- Bayesian estimation of  $\rho$  has received relatively little attention in the literature. Gokhale and Press (1982) have mentioned, as possible prior distributions for  $\rho$ , triangular distributions (see Chapter 26, Section 9) with the pdfs

$$p(\rho | \alpha) = \begin{cases} \frac{1 - \rho}{1 - \alpha}, & \alpha \leq \rho \leq 1, \\ \frac{1 + \rho}{1 + \alpha}, & -1 \leq \rho \leq \alpha, \quad \text{with } \alpha^2 < 1, \end{cases} \quad (32.114a)$$

or

$$p(\rho | \alpha = 1) = \frac{1}{2}(1 + \rho), \quad -1 \leq \rho \leq 1, \quad (32.114b)$$

or

$$p(\rho | \alpha = -1) = \frac{1}{2}(1 - \rho), \quad -1 \leq \rho \leq 1. \quad (32.114c)$$

They also mention beta priors with the pdfs

$$p(\rho | \alpha, \beta) = 2^{-(\alpha + \beta - 1)} \{ B(\alpha, \beta) \}^{-1} (1 + \rho)^{\alpha - 1} (1 - \rho)^{\beta - 1}, \quad -1 \leq \rho \leq 1; \alpha, \beta > 0. \quad (32.115)$$

However, no justification (or motivation) is presented for choice of these priors.

They do discuss assessing a prior distribution for  $\rho$ , using the *concordance probability*

$$\tau(\rho) = \Pr[(X_1 < X_2, Y_1 < Y_2) \cup (X_1 > X_2, Y_1 > Y_2) | \rho] \quad (32.116)$$

or the *conditional exceedance probability*

$$\psi(\rho) = \Pr[Y_2 > Y_1 | x_1, x_2, \rho]. \quad (32.117)$$

### 7 SAMPLE COVARIANCE

The sample covariance can be defined as

$$n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y}). \quad (32.118)$$

If each of the independent pairs  $(X_i, Y_i)$  has a bivariate normal distribution as in (32.2), this is the maximum likelihood estimator of the population covariance  $\rho\sigma_X\sigma_Y$ . We will find it more convenient to consider the distribution of the sums of products of deviations from sample means:

$$C = \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y}). \quad (32.119)$$

The distribution of  $C$  has been derived, using various methods, by Mahalanobis, Bose, and Roy (1937), Pearson, Jeffery, and Elderton (1929), Wishart and Bartlett (1932), and Hirschfeld (1937). Remembering that the conditional distribution of  $Y$ , given  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$ , is normal with expected value  $[\eta + (\rho\sigma_Y/\sigma_X)(X_i - \xi)]$  and standard deviation  $\sigma_Y\sqrt{1 - \rho^2}$ , we see that the conditional distribution of  $C$ , given  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  is normal with expected value  $(\rho\sigma_Y/\sigma_X)S$  and standard deviation  $\sigma_Y\sqrt{(1 - \rho^2)S}$ , where

$$S = \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2.$$

Noting that  $S$  is distributed as  $\chi_{n-1}^2\sigma_X^2$ , it follows that the probability density

function of  $C$  is

$$p_C(c) = \frac{1}{\sigma_Y \sqrt{2\pi(1-\rho^2)}} \int_0^\infty \left[ \frac{S^{(n-4)/2} \exp(-\frac{1}{2}S/\sigma_X^2)}{(2\sigma_X^2)^{(n-1)/2} \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(n-1))} \right] \times \exp\left[-\frac{(c - \rho\sigma_Y S/\sigma_X)^2}{2\sigma_Y^2(1-\rho^2)S}\right] dS. \quad (32.120)$$

If  $\sigma_X = \sigma_Y = 1$ , then

$$p_C(c) = \frac{e^{c\rho/(1-\rho^2)}}{2^{n/2} \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(n-1)) \sqrt{\pi(1-\rho^2)}} \int_0^\infty S^{(n-4)/2} \exp\left[-\frac{S + c^2 S^{-1}}{2(1-\rho^2)}\right] dS \\ = \frac{|c|^{(n/2)-1} e^{c\rho/(1-\rho^2)}}{2^{(n/2)-1} \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(n-1)) \sqrt{\pi(1-\rho^2)}} K_{(n-2)/2}\left(\frac{|c|}{1-\rho^2}\right), \quad (32.121)$$

where  $K_\nu(z)$  denotes the modified Bessel function of the second kind, of order  $\nu$  (Chapter 12, Section 4). From this formula, distributions of  $C$ , with  $\sigma_X \neq 1$ ,  $\sigma_Y \neq 1$ , are easily derived. Some other equivalent forms for the density function have been given by Press (1967). He also pointed out that if  $n$  is odd, then it is possible to express the density as a finite series of elementary functions, since

$$K_{(n-2)/2}(z) = \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2z}} e^{-z} \sum_{j=0}^{(n-3)/2} \frac{(\frac{1}{2}(n-3)+j)!}{j!(\frac{1}{2}(n-3-j))!} \cdot \frac{1}{(2z)^j}. \quad (32.122)$$

The characteristic function of  $C$  is

$$\{1 - 2it\rho\sigma_X\sigma_Y + t^2(1-\rho^2)\sigma_X^2\sigma_Y^2\}^{-(n-1)/2} \\ = \left[ \left\{ 1 - 2it \frac{\sigma_X\sigma_Y(1+\rho)}{2} \right\} \left\{ 1 + 2it \frac{\sigma_X\sigma_Y(1-\rho)}{2} \right\} \right]^{-(n-1)/2}. \quad (32.123)$$

Hence the distribution of  $C$  is also that of  $\frac{1}{2}\sigma_X\sigma_Y\{(1+\rho)Z_1 - (1-\rho)Z_2\}$ , where  $Z_1$  and  $Z_2$  are independent random variables each distributed as  $\chi^2$  with  $n-1$  degrees of freedom. Note that this distribution is the  $K$  form of the Bessel function distribution described in Chapter 12, Section 4.

From the representation

$$C = \frac{1}{2}\sigma_X\sigma_Y\{(1+\rho)Z_1 - (1-\rho)Z_2\}, \quad (32.124)$$

it follows that

$$\kappa_r(C) = (\frac{1}{2}\sigma_X\sigma_Y)^r \{ (1 + \rho)^r + (-1)^r (1 - \rho)^r \} \kappa_r(\chi_{n-1}^2). \quad (32.125)$$

In particular

$$E(C) = (n - 1)\rho\sigma_X\sigma_Y, \quad (32.126a)$$

$$\text{var}(C) = (n - 1)(1 + \rho^2)\sigma_X^2\sigma_Y^2, \quad (32.126b)$$

$$\alpha_3(C) = \sqrt{\beta_1(C)} = 2\rho(3 + \rho^2)(1 + \rho^2)^{-3/2}(n - 1)^{-1/2}, \quad (32.126c)$$

$$\alpha_4(C) = \beta_2(C) = 3 + 6(1 + 6\rho^2 + \rho^4)(1 + \rho^2)^{-2}(n - 1)^{-1}. \quad (32.126d)$$

The representation (32.124) also shows clearly how the distribution of  $C/n$  tends to normality as  $n$  tends to infinity.

### 8 CIRCULAR SERIAL CORRELATION

In formula (32.1) for the correlation coefficient,  $X_t$  and  $Y_t$  are usually thought of as representing observations of *different* characters on the *same* individual. Although this is so in very many applications, it is not formally necessary, and some useful models and techniques can be based on modifications of this idea. In particular, one can take  $Y_t = X_{t+k}$ , with appropriate allowance for end effects. The correlation coefficients so obtained are called *serial correlations*. The absolute value of the difference between  $t$  and the subscript of  $X$  corresponding to  $Y_t$  is called the *lag* of the correlation. (It is clear that similar results are obtained by taking  $Y_t = X_{t+k}$  or  $Y_t = X_{t-k}$ .)

Serial correlations are most commonly employed when the subscript  $t$  in  $X_t$  defines the number of units of time elapsed, from some initial moment, when  $X_t$  is observed. However, serial correlations can be, and have been used when the ordering is nontemporal (e.g. spatial).

There is occasionally confusion between serial correlation and *biserial* correlation coefficients. The latter are discussed in the (first) edition of *Multivariate Continuous Distributions*. Here we just note two additional references [Bedrick (1990, 1992)].

It is of interest to note that the mean square successive difference ratio [von Neumann (1941)],

$$d = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{n-1} (X_t - X_{t+1})^2}{\sum_{t=1}^n (X_t - \bar{X})^2}, \quad (32.127)$$



is closely related to a serial correlation  $R_1$  of lag 1. In fact

$$d = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{n-1} (X_t - \bar{X})^2 - 2\sum_{t=1}^{n-1} (X_t - \bar{X})(X_{t+1} - \bar{X}) + \sum_{t=1}^{n-1} (X_{t+1} - \bar{X})^2}{\sum_{t=1}^n (X_t - \bar{X})^2}$$

$$= 2(1 - R_1) - \frac{(X_1 - \bar{X})^2 + (X_n - \bar{X})^2}{\sum_{t=1}^n (X_t - \bar{X})^2}. \quad (32.128)$$

The simplest way of allowing for end effects is to regard the data as consisting of  $(n - k)$  pairs

$$(X_1, X_{1+k}), (X_2, X_{2+k}), \dots, (X_{n-k}, X_n).$$

Sometimes, however, mathematical analysis is facilitated by using the *circular serial correlation*, based on the  $n$  pairs

$$(X_t, X_{t+k}), \quad t = 1, \dots, n,$$

putting  $X_{n+j} = X_j$  for  $j = 1, 2, \dots, k$ . Note that in this case the denominator of  $R_k$  is simply  $\sum_{t=1}^n (X_t - \bar{X})^2$ . If  $k$  is small compared with  $n$ , it may be hoped that distributions appropriate to circular correlations may be applied to noncircular correlations with relatively small risk of serious error.

In the case of the mean square successive difference ratio, for example, the circular definition would lead to

$$\bar{d} = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^n (X_t - X_{t+1})^2}{\sum_{t=1}^n (X_t - \bar{X})^2}, \quad (32.129)$$

while the circular serial correlation of lag 1 is

$$\bar{R}_1 = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^n (X_t - \bar{X})(X_{t+1} - \bar{X})}{\sum_{t=1}^n (X_t - \bar{X})^2} \quad (32.130)$$

(with, of course,  $X_{n+1} = X_1$ ). The relationship between  $\bar{d}$  and  $\bar{R}_1$  is

$$\bar{d} = 2(1 - \bar{R}_1) \quad (32.131)$$

which is tidier than that between  $d$  and  $R_1$ .

We will now consider the distribution of circular serial correlation of lag 1 when the  $X$ 's are related by equations of form

$$X_t = \rho X_{t-1} + Z_t, \quad |\rho| < 1, \quad t = 1, 2, \dots, n, \quad (32.132)$$

where the  $Z_i$ 's are mutually independent normal random variables, each having expected value zero and standard deviation  $\sigma$ . Further  $Z_i$  is independent of all  $X_j$  for  $j < i$ . The series is supposed to be started by a random variable  $X_0$ , which is distributed normally with expected value zero, and has standard deviation  $\sigma(1 - \rho^2)^{-1/2}$ . The effect of this rather odd-looking assumption is to ensure that each  $X_i$  has the same variance ( $\sigma^2$ ) as well as the same expected value (zero).

The method used by von Neumann (1941) in deriving the distribution of  $d$  (for  $\rho = 0$ ) may also be used in deriving the distributions of serial correlations (for  $\rho = 0$  or  $\rho \neq 0$ ). The results possess the characteristic property that the density functions take different forms for different intervals in the range of variation of the variable.

The density function of  $\tilde{R}_1$  for the case  $\rho = 0$  was obtained by Anderson (1942) [see also Koopmans (1942)] in the simple form

$$\Pr[\tilde{R}_1 > r] = \sum_{j=1}^m \alpha_j^{-1} (\lambda_j - r)^{(n-3)/2}$$

(for  $\lambda_{m+1} \leq r \leq \lambda_m, m = 1, 2, \dots, n - 1$ ) (32.133)

where

$$\lambda_j = \cos\left(\frac{2\pi j}{n}\right),$$

$$\alpha_j = \begin{cases} \prod_{i \neq j, i=1}^{(n-1)/2} (\lambda_j - \lambda_i) & (n \text{ odd}), \\ \left[ \prod_{i \neq j, i=1}^{(n-2)/2} (\lambda_j - \lambda_i) \right] \sqrt{1 + \lambda_j} & (n \text{ even}). \end{cases} \quad (32.133)'$$

Anderson also obtained formulas for the distribution of  $R$ , (circular serial correlation with lag 1). He also considered the distribution of the statistic

$$\tilde{R}'_1 = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^n X_j X_{j+1}}{\sum_{j=1}^n X_j^2} \quad (32.134)$$

(where we use our knowledge that  $E[X_j] = 0$ ). Roughly speaking, the distribution of  $\tilde{R}'_1$  is close to that of  $R$ , with  $n$  increased by 1. For the case  $n$  odd (and  $\rho = 0$ ), Anderson showed that this is exactly so, provided that  $\alpha_j$  is multiplied by  $\sqrt{1 - \lambda_j}$ . Madow (1945) extended these results to the case  $\rho \neq 0$ . He used the simple, but effective, device of noting that if

$(T_1, T_2, \dots, T_S) \equiv T$  is a sufficient set of statistics for parameter(s)  $\theta$ , then

$$\frac{p_T(\mathbf{t}|\theta)}{p_T(\mathbf{t}|0)} = \frac{p_{X_1, \dots, X_n}(x_1, \dots, x_n|\theta)}{p_{X_1, \dots, X_n}(x_1, \dots, x_n|0)}.$$

The joint distribution of  $T$  for general  $\rho$  can then easily be derived for  $\theta = 0$ . In this case  $T$  is composed of the numerator and denominator of  $\tilde{R}'_1$  (or  $R_1, \tilde{R}_1$ , etc.). The density function of  $\tilde{R}'_1$  so obtained is

$$p_{\tilde{R}'_1}(r) = \frac{1}{2}(n-3) \frac{\prod_{j=1}^n (1 + \rho^2 - \lambda_j \rho)^{1/2}}{(1 + \rho^2 - 2\rho r)^{(n/2)-1}} \sum_{j=1}^m \alpha_j^{-1} (\lambda_j - r)^{(n-5)/2}$$

for  $\lambda_{m+1} \leq r \leq \lambda_m, \quad m = 1, \dots, (n-1)$ . (32.135)

Daniels (1956) obtained the following expansion for the density of  $\tilde{R}'_1$ :

$$p_{\tilde{R}'_1}(r) = \frac{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}n + 1)(1 - \rho^n)}{\sqrt{\pi}(1 + \rho^2 - 2\rho r)^{n/2}}$$

$$\times \left\{ \frac{(1 - r^2)^{(n-1)/2}}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}n + \frac{1}{2})} - \frac{3}{2^n \Gamma(\frac{3}{2}n + \frac{1}{2})} \frac{d^n}{dr^n} (1 - r^2)^{(3n-1)/2} + \dots \right\}.$$

(32.136)

The  $j$ th term is

$$(-1)^{j-1} \frac{2j-1}{2^{jn} \Gamma((j - \frac{1}{2})n + \frac{1}{2})} \cdot \frac{d^{jn}}{dr^{jn}} (1 - r^2)^{(2j-1)n-1/2}.$$

Kemp (1970) used the first-order approximation from (32.136),

$$p_{\tilde{R}'_1}(r) = (n+1)(1 - r^2)^{(n-1)/2}, \quad -1 \leq r \leq 1, \quad (32.137)$$

to obtain approximate expressions for the moments of  $R_1$ , arriving at

$$E[\tilde{R}'_1] \doteq \frac{(n-1)\rho - 1 - n(n-1)(n+3)^{-1}\rho^2}{n(1-\rho) + 1 + \rho} \quad (32.138a)$$

and

$$\text{var}(\bar{R}_1) \doteq \left[ \frac{n - 2n(n-1)(n+3)^{-1}\rho + 2n(n-1)(n-3)(n+3)^{-1}(n+5)^{-1}\rho^3}{(n-1)^2(n-3)(n+3)^{-2}(n+5)^{-1}\rho^4} \right] \frac{1}{\{n(1-\rho) + 1 + \rho\}^2} \quad (32.138b)$$

The *randomization* ( $\rho = 0$ ) *distribution* of  $\bar{R}_1$  (or  $\bar{R}'_1$ ) is the distribution obtained by considering all possible orderings of the  $n$  observed values  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ . Since the denominator is unchanged by reordering, this is essentially the distribution of the  $n!$  possible values of the numerator. Wald and Wolfowitz (1943) studied this distribution.

## 9 NONCIRCULAR SERIAL CORRELATION

The distributions of noncircular serial correlations are generally even more complicated than those of the corresponding circular correlations. It is possible, however, to obtain formulas for the moments which are reasonably easy to comprehend.

We will first consider the noncircular serial correlation of lag 1, as

$$\hat{R}_1 = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^n X_{j-1} X_j}{\sum_{j=1}^{n-1} X_j^2}, \quad (32.139)$$

with  $X_0 = 0$ , and its distribution under model (32.132). The joint density function of  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  is

$$p_{X_1, \dots, X_n}(x_1, \dots, x_n) = (2\pi\sigma)^{-n/2} \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{j=1}^n (x_j - \rho x_{j-1})^2 \right],$$

$$x_0 = 0. \quad (32.140)$$

The distribution of  $\hat{R}_1$  clearly does not depend on  $\sigma$ , and we will henceforth take  $\sigma = 1$ . The **joint** moment-generating function of the numerator and denominator of  $\hat{R}_1$  is then

$$E \left[ \theta_1 \sum_{j=1}^n X_{j-1} X_j + \theta_2 \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} X_j^2 \right] = [D_n(\theta_1, \theta_2)]^{-1/2},$$

where for  $n \geq 2$ ,

$$D_n(\theta_1, \theta_2) = (1 + \rho^2 - 2\theta_2)D_{n-1}(\theta_1, \theta_2) - (\rho + \theta_1)^2 D_{n-2}(\theta_1, \theta_2), \quad (32.141)$$

with  $D_0(\theta_1, \theta_2) = D_1(\theta_1, \theta_2) = 1$ .

White (1957) evaluated the first and second moments of  $\hat{R}_1$ , using the formula

$$\mu'_m(\hat{R}_1) = \int_{-\infty}^0 \int_{-\infty}^{t_m} \cdots \int_{-\infty}^{t_2} \frac{\partial^m \{D_n(\theta_1, t_1)\}^{-1/2}}{\partial \theta_1^m} \Big|_{\theta_1=0} dt_1 dt_2 \cdots dt_m. \quad (32.142)$$

Shenton and Johnson (1965) found it more convenient to use the formula for moments about  $\rho$  ( $[\frac{1}{2}m] \equiv$  integer part of  $\frac{1}{2}m$ ):

$$E\left[(\hat{R}_1 - \rho)^m\right] = \sum_{j=0}^{[m/2]} a_j^{(m)} \int_0^\infty \left(\frac{d}{d\rho}\right)^{m-2j} H_{m-j}(t) dt, \quad (32.143)$$

where

$$H_r(t) = \frac{t^r}{r!} \{D_n(0, t)\}^{-1/2},$$

where  $a_j^{(m)}$  are defined by

$$\sum_{j=0}^{[m/2]} (-1)^j a_j^{(m)} y^{m-2j} = e^{-D^2/2} y^{m*} \quad \text{and} \quad a_0^{(m)} = 1.$$

We now quote some of their results, in the form of asymptotic series

$$\begin{aligned} E[\hat{R}_1] &= \rho - \frac{2(n-2)\rho}{(n+1)(n-1)} - \frac{12\rho^3}{(n+5)(n+3)(n+1)} \\ &+ \frac{18(n+8)\rho^5}{(n+9)^{(4)}} + \frac{24(n+10)(n+12)\rho^7}{(n+13)^{(5)}} \\ &+ \frac{30(n+12)(n+14)(n+16)\rho^9}{(n+17)^{(6)}} + \cdots, \end{aligned} \quad (32.144a)$$

$$\begin{aligned} E\left[(\hat{R}_1 - \rho)^2\right] &= \frac{n^2 - 4n + 7}{(n+1)^{(3)}} - \frac{(n^3 - 6n^2 - 25n + 42)\rho^2}{(n+5)^{(4)}} \\ &+ \frac{3(n+19)(n-3)\rho^4}{(n+9)^{(5)}} + \frac{3(n^3 + 32n^2 + 111n - 928)\rho^6}{(n+13)^{(6)}} \\ &+ \frac{3(n+12)(n^3 + 42n^2 + 215n - 1950)\rho^8}{(n+17)^{(7)}} + \cdots, \end{aligned} \quad (32.144b)$$

where  $n^{(s)} = n(n-2)(n-4) \cdots (n-2 \cdot \overline{s-1}) = 2^s (\frac{1}{2}n)^{(s)}$ .

"Here  $D$  denotes the differential operator described in Chapter 1, Section A4.

For  $n$  large the following expansions in powers of  $n^{-1}$  can be used:

$$E[\hat{R}_1] = \rho - \frac{2\rho}{n} + \frac{4\rho}{n^2} - \frac{2\rho(1 - 8\rho^2 + 4\rho^4)}{n^3(1 - \rho^2)^2} \quad (32.145a)$$

$$+ \frac{4\rho(1 - 30\rho^2 + 12\rho^4 - 4\rho^6)}{n^4(1 - \rho^2)^3} - \dots,$$

$$E[(\hat{R}_1 - \rho)^2] = \frac{1 - \rho^2}{n} - \frac{1 - 14\rho^2}{n^2} + \frac{5 - 78\rho^2 + 76\rho^4}{n^3(1 - \rho^2)}$$

$$+ \frac{11 + 316\rho^2 - 692\rho^4 + 344\rho^6}{n^4(1 - \rho^2)^2} + \dots, \quad (32.145b)$$

$$\text{var}(\hat{R}_1) = \frac{1 - \rho^2}{n} - \frac{1 - 10\rho^2}{n^2} + \frac{5 - 62\rho^2 + 60\rho^4}{n^3(1 - \rho^2)}$$

$$+ \frac{11 + 292\rho^2 - 596\rho^4 + 296\rho^6}{n^4(1 - \rho^2)^2} + \dots. \quad (32.145c)$$

(The original expansions for  $E[\hat{R}_1]$  and  $E[(\hat{R}_1 - \rho)^2]$  were given up to and including terms in  $n^{-6}$ .)

Shenton and Johnson (1965) also obtained formulas for  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$  and gave results of calculations using **these** formulas. These are included in Table 32.3. The exact distribution of  $\hat{R}_1$  was obtained by Pan (1964) for the case where the correlation between  $X_i$  and  $X_j$  is  $\rho$  for  $|i - j| = 1$  and zero otherwise. In this case  $\sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - \bar{X})^2$  is distributed as a multiple of  $\chi^2$ , and it is possible to follow the method of von Neumann (1941). It can be shown that  $\hat{R}_1$  is distributed as

$$\frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \lambda_j U_j^2}{\sum_{j=1}^{n-1} U_j^2},$$

where  $U_1, U_2, \dots, U_{n-1}$  are independent unit normal variables and

$$\lambda_1 > \lambda_2 > \dots > \lambda_{n-1},$$

Table 32.3 Moment values for the distribution of  $\hat{R}_1$ 

$\rho$	$n$	6	8	10	15	50	100	500
0.0	(b)	0.4254	0.3519	0.3109	0.2530	0.1401	0.0995	0.0447
	(d)	4.7331	3.0022	2.7859	2.7440	2.8919	2.9430	2.9881
0.2	(a)	0.0456	0.0380	0.0323	0.0232	0.0077	0.0039	0.0008
	(b)	0.4244	0.3500	0.3086	0.2502	0.1378	0.0977	0.0438
	(c)	0.0267	0.0418	0.0476	0.0477	0.0241	0.0134	0.0029
	(d)	4.8014	3.0767	2.8625	2.8171	2.9302	2.9648	2.9930
0.4	(a)	0.0902	0.0755	0.0642	0.0463	0.0154	0.0078	0.0016
	(b)	0.4217	0.3445	0.3017	0.2419	0.1304	0.0920	0.0410
	(c)	0.1067	0.1719	0.1999	0.2067	0.1085	0.0610	0.0134
	(d)	5.0031	3.3104	3.1096	3.0613	3.0647	3.0422	3.0103
0.6	(a)	0.1321	0.1114	0.0952	0.0689	0.0230	0.0118	0.0024
	(b)	0.4182	0.3358	0.2901	0.2275	0.1172	0.0815	0.0359
	(c)	0.2392	0.4021	0.4872	0.5372	0.3099	0.1774	0.0394
	(d)	5.3160	3.7301	3.5833	3.5721	3.3839	3.2310	3.0535
0.8	(a)	0.1674	0.1426	0.1228	0.0900	0.0306	0.0157	0.0032
	(b)	0.4155	0.3256	0.2751	0.2067	0.0958	0.0641	0.0272
	(c)	0.4319	0.7466	0.9563	1.1876	0.9171	0.5318	0.1235
	(d)	5.6832	4.3496	4.3732	4.5969	3.8334	3.8032	3.1926
1.0	(a)	0.1893	0.1599	0.1369	0.0998	0.034"	0.019"	0.004"
	(b)	0.4146	0.3167	0.2603	0.1826	0.06"	0.03"	0.006"
	(c)	0.7456	1.2859	1.7182	2.4705	3.89 <sup>a</sup>	5.1"	6.5"
	(d)	6.0955	5.1633	5.5432	6.5897	9.3"	11.3"	13.2"

Source: Shenton and Johnson (1965).

Key: (a)  $E[\hat{R}_1 - \rho]$ , (b) standard deviation of  $\hat{R}_1$ , (c)  $\beta_1(\hat{R}_1)$ , (d)  $\beta_2(\hat{R}_1)$ .  $E[\hat{R}_1 - \rho]$  and  $\beta_1(\hat{R}_1)$  are zero for  $\rho = 0$ .

"The values thus marked are tentative due to uncertain round-off error.

and zero are the characteristic roots of the matrix **MAM** with

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - n^{-1} & -n^{-1} & \cdots & -n^{-1} \\ n^{-1} & 1 - n^{-1} & \cdots & -n^{-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ n^{-1} & n^{-1} & \cdots & 1 - n^{-1} \end{pmatrix},$$

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The values of the  $A$ 's are, for odd order  $A$ 's,

$$\lambda_{2k-1} = \cos \frac{2k\pi}{n+1}, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots, \left[ \frac{1}{2}n \right],$$

while  $\lambda_2, \lambda_4, \dots, \lambda_{2[(n-1)/2]}$  are roots of the equation

$$(1 - \lambda)^{-2} \left\{ \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)^n - \frac{1}{2}D_{n-1}(\lambda) - (n+1 - n\lambda)D_n(\lambda) \right\},$$

with

$$D_n(\lambda) = \left(-\frac{1}{2}\lambda\right)^n \sum_{j=1}^{[(n/2)+1]} \binom{n+1}{2j-1} (-1)^{j-1} (\lambda^2 - 1)^{j-1}.$$

The cumulative distribution function of  $\hat{R}_1$  is of different form in each of the intervals  $\lambda_{j+1} \leq \hat{R}_1 \leq \lambda_j$ , being

$$F_{\hat{R}_1}(r) = 1 + \pi^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{[j/2]} (-1)^i \int_{-1}^1 \frac{(y_{2i}(t) - r)^{(n-3)/2}}{\prod_{\substack{k=1 \\ k \neq j}}^{n-1} |y_j(t) - \lambda_k|^{1/2}} \frac{dt}{\sqrt{1-t^2}} \\ + \frac{1 - (-1)^j}{\pi} (-1)^{(j+1)/2} \int_{-1}^1 \frac{(y_j(t) - r)^{(n/2)-1}}{\prod_{\substack{k=1 \\ k \neq j}}^{n-1} |y_j(t) - \lambda_k|^{1/2}} \frac{dt}{\sqrt{1-t^2}} \\ \text{for } \lambda_{j+1} \leq r \leq \lambda_j, \quad (32.146)$$

The integrals in this formula can be evaluated approximately by means of the formula (with  $N$  sufficiently large)

$$\int_{-1}^1 f(y) \frac{dy}{\sqrt{1-y^2}} \doteq \pi N^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^N f(y_j^{(N)}), \quad (32.147)$$

where

$$y_j^{(N)} = \cos \frac{(2j-1)\pi}{2N}.$$

Note that the variables  $U_j^2[\sum_{j=1}^n U_j^2]^{-1}$  are correlated beta variables with a joint Dirichlet distribution (see Chapter 40 of the first edition of Continuous Multivariate Distributions) and so  $R_1$  is a linear function of such variables. Pan (1964) also considered a modified noncircular serial correlation coefficient obtained by dividing a sequence of  $2n$  values  $X_1, \dots, X_{2n}$  into two



sets—the first  $n$  and the last  $n$  values, respectively. The coefficient is defined as

$$R_{1,1} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n-1} (X_j - \bar{X}_1)(X_{j+1} - \bar{X}_1) + \sum_{j=n+1}^{2n-1} (X_j - \bar{X}_2)(X_{j+1} - \bar{X}_2)}{\sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - \bar{X}_1)^2 + \sum_{j=n+1}^{2n} (X_j - \bar{X}_2)^2}, \quad (32.148)$$

where

$$\bar{X}_1 = n^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^n X_j; \quad \bar{X}_2 = n^{-1} \sum_{j=n+1}^{2n} X_j.$$

By essentially the same procedure as before it can be shown that  $R_{1,1}$  is distributed as  $(\sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \lambda_j V_j) / (\sum_{j=1}^{n-1} V_j)$ , where the  $V$ 's are mutually independent variables, each distributed as  $\chi^2$  with two degrees of freedom. The  $\lambda$ 's have the same values as for  $\hat{R}_1$ . The cumulative distribution function now takes the much simpler form

$$\Pr[R_{1,1} \leq r] = 1 - \sum_{i=1}^j \left[ \prod_{\substack{k=1 \\ k \neq j}}^{n-1} (\lambda_j - \lambda_k) \right]^{-1} (\lambda_j - r)^{n-2} \quad \text{for } \lambda_{j+1} \leq r \leq \lambda_j \quad (32.149)$$

Similar investigations of the distribution of  $R_{1,1}$  were performed earlier by Watson and Durbin (1951) (who also computed tables of 5% significant points for their well known and widely used exact noncircular test of the existence of serial correlation in a series of  $n$  observations). Watson and Durbin's paper was reproduced in Kotz and Johnson (1991). The asymptotic normality of  $\hat{R}_l$  for general  $l$  was proved by Pan (1964, 1966). The *randomization* ( $\rho = 0$ ) *distribution* of  $\hat{R}_1$  was studied by David and Fix (1966).

For independent  $X_i$ 's with a common normal distribution,

$$\text{var}(R_{1,1}) = n^{-2}(n-1)^{-1}(n-2)^2. \quad (32.150)$$

Despite numerous investigations, by highly skilled researchers, in various fields during the last 20 years, the problem of the behavior of sample serial correlation coefficient under nonnormality has not as yet been fully resolved. This is partly due to the uncoordinated and sporadic nature of this research. More organized comprehensive studies (utilizing modern computational technology) are desirable to put this problem at rest.

We note here a few results relating to the distribution of  $R_{1,1}$  in *nonnormal* populations. In each case the  $X_i$ 's are assumed to be independent. For

**Table 32.4 Distributions of first serial correlation coefficient**

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Lower Quantiles				
	$\mu$	$\sigma$	$\tilde{X}_{0.001}$	$\tilde{X}_{0.005}$	$\tilde{X}_{0.010}$	$\tilde{X}_{0.050}$	$\tilde{X}_{0.100}$
Exponential	-0.00207 (0.00002)	0.04683 (0.00001)	-0.13604 (0.00008)	-0.11541 (0.00005)	-0.10522 (0.00006)	-0.07673 (0.00005)	-0.06113 (0.00004)
$\frac{1}{2}$ Weibull	-0.00214 (0.00002)	0.04483 (0.00001)	-2.861 (0.00016)	-2.420 (0.00008)	-2.203 (0.00007)	-1.595 (0.00003)	-1.261 (0.00003)
$K\chi_2$			-2.221	-1.915	-1.764	-1.343	-1.109
	Skewness	Kurtosis	Upper Quantiles				
	$\tilde{\gamma}_1$	$\tilde{\gamma}_2$	$\tilde{X}_{0.900}$	$\tilde{X}_{0.950}$	$\tilde{X}_{0.990}$	$\tilde{X}_{0.995}$	$\tilde{X}_{0.999}$
Exponential	0.17041 (0.00082)	0.04871 (0.00219)	0.05872 (0.00005)	0.07712 (0.00004)	0.11281 (0.00007)	0.12610 (0.00008)	0.15439 (0.00017)
$\frac{1}{2}$ Weibull	1.02894 (0.00209)	2.12262 (0.01 146)	1.298 (0.00006)	1.691 (0.00003)	2.453 (0.00014)	2.737 (0.00026)	3.341 (0.00032)
$K\chi_2$			1.297	1.847	3.079	3.609	4.849

*Note:* Estimated quantiles, means, standard deviations and coefficients of skewness and kurtosis of the sample serial correlation coefficient of order 1. Series of  $n = 450$  independent exponential and  $\frac{1}{2}$  Weibull variates. Averaged estimates from six synthetic samples each with 750,000 trials. Quantities in parentheses are estimates of the standard deviation of the estimates. The third line in each group gives the estimated quantiles, standardized by subtracting  $\hat{\mu}$  and dividing by  $\hat{\sigma}$ .

Source: Lewis (1972).

exponential distributions, Moran (1967b) obtained

$$\text{var}(R_{1,1}) \cong \frac{1}{n} - \frac{7}{n^2} + \frac{52}{n^3} - \frac{398}{n^4} + \dots \quad (32.151)$$

Generally,  $n^{1/2}R_{1,1}$  converges in distribution to a unit normal variable, if the first moments of the  $X_i$  exist. The variance of  $R_{1,1}$  tends to be smaller for random variables with long tails (**platykurtic**) than in the normal case.

Very serious departures from normal theory occur for the quantiles of  $R_{1,1}$  when the  $X_i$ 's have a common Weibull, distribution (Chapter 21) with parameter  $c = \frac{1}{2}$ , (i.e., a  $K\chi_2$  distribution). In this case Moran's approximation to the variance is poor and the normal approximation is considerably off. Table 32.4, from Lewis (1972), illustrates some results for this case and for exponentially distributed  $X_i$ 's.

Cox (1966), Moran (1967a, b, 1970), Yang (1970), and Lewis (1972), among others, used simulation methods to investigate the properties of

$$R_1^* = \frac{(n-1)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (X_i - \bar{X})(X_{i+1} - \bar{X})}{n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}, \quad (32.139)'$$

where  $\bar{X} = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ , for the following parent distributions: normal, mixture of two normal, uniform, Laplace, Cauchy, gamma ( $a, 1$ ) with  $a = 1.5, 2, 3, 10, 26$ , Weibull, and exponential for  $n = 10, 20$ , as reported in Goodman and Lewis (1972).

## 10 LEIPNIK DISTRIBUTION

The distributions described in Sections 7 and 8 (dealing with sample covariance and circular serial correlation) are rather complicated in form. An ingenious method of "smoothing" the characteristic function [eliminating the discontinuities in the derivatives of  $p_{\bar{R}_1}(r)$ ] proposed by Dixon (1944) and Rubin (1945) and extended by Leipnik (1947) leads to the much simpler (approximate) formula

$$p_{\bar{R}_1}(r) = [B(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}(n+1))]^{-1} (1-r^2)^{(n-1)/2} (1+\rho^2 - 2\rho r)^{-n/2}, \quad -1 \leq r \leq 1. \quad (32.152)$$

Daniels (1956) investigated the error of this approximation and obtained an upper bound for it. Note that if  $\rho = 0$ , we have

$$p_{\bar{R}_1}(r) = [B(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}(n+1))]^{-1} (1-r^2)^{(n-1)/2},$$

which is the distribution of an ordinary (**nonserial**) correlation for a bivariate normal population with  $\rho = 0$ , when the sample size is  $n + 3$ .

White (1957) pointed out that  $(1 + \rho^2 - 2\rho r)^{-n/2}$  can be expressed in terms of Gegenbauer polynomials  $c_j^{(n/2)}(x)$  as

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} c_j^{(n/2)}(r) \rho^j, \quad (32.153)$$

where

$$c_j^{(n/2)}(x) = \sum_{m=0}^{[j/2]} \frac{(-\frac{1}{2}n)^{(j-m)} (-2x)^{j-2m}}{m!(j-2m)!}, \quad (32.154)$$

with  $x^{(r)} = x(x-1) \cdots (x-r+1)$ , and so

$$\begin{aligned} (-x)^{(r)} &= (-x)(-x-1) \cdots (-x-r+1) \\ &= (-1)^r x(x+1) \cdots (x+r-1) = (-1)^r x^{[r]} \left[ \equiv (-1)^r (x)_r \right]. \end{aligned}$$

The Gegenbauer polynomials are a special kind of Jacobi polynomials, [see Chapter 1, Eq. (1.175)]. They are orthogonal with respect to the weight function  $(1-x^2)^{(n-1)/2}$  over the interval  $-1 \leq x \leq 1$ .

The cumulative distribution function is

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Pr}[\bar{R}_1 \leq R_0] &= I_{(R_0+1)/2} \left( \frac{n+1}{2}, \frac{n+1}{2} \right) - \frac{n}{B(\frac{1}{2}, (n+1)/2)} \\ &\quad \times (1-R_0^2)^{(n+1)/2} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{\rho^j}{j(n+j)} c_{j-1}^{(\frac{1}{2}n+1)}(R_0). \quad (32.155) \end{aligned}$$

The moment-generating function of  $\bar{R}'_1$  is

$$E[e^{it\bar{R}'_1}] = (2t^{-1})^{n/2} \Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}n+1\right) \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} (i\rho)^j \frac{\Gamma(n+j)}{j!\Gamma(n)} J_{(n/2)+j}(t), \quad (32.156)$$

where  $J_\nu(t)$  is a Bessel function of order  $\nu$  [see Eqs. (32.8)].

The  $r$ th moment about zero is

$$\mu'_r = \frac{r!}{2^r} \frac{\Gamma((n/2)+1)}{\Gamma(n)} \sum_{j=0}^{[r/2]} \frac{\Gamma(n+r-2j)}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}n+r-j+1)} \frac{\rho^{r-2j}}{j!(r-2j)!}. \quad (32.157)$$

From (32.157) we find that [Jenkins (1956)]

$$\mu'_1 = \frac{n}{n+2}\rho, \quad (32.158a)$$

$$\mu_2 = \frac{1}{n+2} - \frac{n(n-2)\rho^2}{(n+2)^2(n+4)}, \quad (32.158b)$$

$$\mu_3 = \frac{1}{(n+2)^2} \left[ -\frac{6n\rho}{n+4} + \frac{2n(n-2)(3n-2)\rho^3}{(n+2)(n+4)(n+6)} \right], \quad (32.158c)$$

$$\mu_4 = \frac{12}{(n+2)(n+4)} \left[ 1 - \frac{2n(n^2-8n-4)\rho^3}{(n+2)^2(n+6)} + \frac{n(n^4-16n^3+40n^2-32n+16)\rho^4}{(n+2)^3(n+6)(n+8)} \right]. \quad (32.158d)$$

Kemp (1970) derived formulas for the  $j$ th moment about 1, and the  $j$ th central moment, denoted by  ${}_n\mu'_j(1)$  and  ${}_n\mu_j$ , respectively, of distribution (32.152) in several alternative forms. Among them we note that

$${}_n\mu_j = (1-\bar{\rho})(1+\rho)^{-n} F_3 \left( \frac{1}{2}(n+1), \frac{1}{2}(n+1), \frac{1}{2}n-j; n+1; \frac{4\rho}{(1+\rho)^2}, \frac{2}{1-\bar{\rho}} \right), \quad (32.159)$$

where  $\bar{\rho} = n\rho/(n+1)$  is the expected value,

$$F_3(a, b, c, d; e; x, y) = \sum_{m, n} \frac{(a)_m (b)_n (c)_m (d)_n x^m y^n}{(e)_{m+n} m! n!} \quad (32.160)$$

is Appell's hypergeometric function of the third kind, and

$${}_n\mu'_j(1) = \frac{(-2)^j \left(\frac{1}{2}(n+1)\right)_j}{(1+\rho)^n (n+1)_j} {}_2F_1 \left[ \frac{n}{2}, \frac{n+1}{2}; j+n+1; \frac{4\rho}{(1+\rho)^2} \right], \quad (32.161)$$

where  ${}_2F_1$  is a Gaussian hypergeometric function (Chapter 1, Section A6).

A recurrence relation for (32.161) is

$$(n+2+2j)\rho {}_n\mu'_{j+1}(1) = \{(n+j)(1-\rho)^2 - 2(1+2j)\rho\} {}_n\mu'_j(1) + (n-1+2j)(1-\rho^2) {}_n\mu'_{j-1}(1). \quad (32.162)$$

Some 18 years later McCullagh (1989) rediscovered Leipnik's distribution in a different context, as a noncentral version of the symmetric beta family. He provided plots of the density for various  $\rho$  and  $n$ . The densities are asymptotically normal as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  for each fixed  $\rho$ .

McCullagh extends the definition of the density to values  $|\rho| > 1$  by defining

$$p_X(x; \rho, n) = \frac{(1-x^2)^{(n-1)/2} |\rho|^n}{(1-2\rho x + \rho^2)^{n/2} B(\frac{1}{2}(n+1), \frac{1}{2})} \\ -1 \leq x \leq 1, |\rho| > 1. \quad (32.163)$$

He derived expressions for cumulants of this distribution and also those of a distribution with the pdf

$$p_X(x; \rho, \nu) = \frac{(1-x^2)^{(n-1)/2} (1-\rho)^2}{(1-2\rho x + \rho^2)^{(n/2)+1} B(\frac{1}{2}(n+1), \frac{1}{2})}, \quad -1 \leq x \leq 1, \\ (32.164)$$

which is related to the Leipnik distribution by

$$X - \rho = \frac{(\bar{R}_1 - \rho)(\rho^2 - 1)}{1 - 2\rho\bar{R}_1 + \rho^2}. \quad (32.165)$$

McCullagh (1989) also obtained a pivotal statistic for  $\rho$ , namely

$$\tau(\rho) = \frac{1 - \bar{R}_1^2}{1 - 2\rho\bar{R}_1 + \rho^2}, \quad (32.166)$$

which has a beta  $(\frac{1}{2}(n+1), \frac{1}{2})$  distribution.

The maximum likelihood estimator,  $\hat{\rho}$ , of  $\rho$ , based on  $n$  independent random variables  $Y_i$  ( $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ) with common distribution (32.152), satisfies the equation

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{Y_i - \hat{\rho}}{1 - 2\hat{\rho}Y_i + \hat{\rho}^2} = 0. \quad (32.167)$$

Note that this equation depends on  $n$ , only as the number of terms in the summation. Equivalently

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{Y_i - \hat{\rho}}{1 - Y_i^2 + (Y_i - \hat{\rho})^2} = 0. \quad (32.167)'$$

Note the similarity to the Cauchy maximum likelihood equation [Chapter 16, Eq. (16.35)]

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{Y_i - \hat{\theta}}{\lambda^2 + (Y_i - \hat{\theta})^2} = 0, \quad (32.168)$$

where  $\theta$  and  $\lambda$  are the location and (known) scale parameters, respectively.

Viewing  $\rho$  and  $n = 2\nu$  as two unknown parameters, **McCullagh** calculates the Fisher information matrix, noting that the Fisher information tends to infinity as  $\rho \rightarrow \pm 1$ . The distributions (32.152) and (32.164) arise as exit distributions of Brownian motion in  $n + 2$  space (for integer  $n$ ), where a particle starts at the point  $\mathbf{p} = (\rho, 0, \dots, 0)$  on  $x_1$ -axis. The probability of hitting the unit sphere is 1 for  $-1 < \rho < 1$  and  $|\rho|^{-n}$  for  $|\rho| > 1$ . **Saw** (1984) encountered **Leipnik** distributions (also without naming them) in connection with decomposition of densities on unit  $m$  spheres. It might be expected that the transformation  $\tanh^{-1} \tilde{R}_1$  would produce a more nearly normally distributed variable, as is the case for the ordinary product-moment correlation (32.1). Such a transformation was studied by **Quenouille** (1948).

However, from (32.158b) it can be seen that

$$\text{var}(\tilde{R}_1) \doteq \frac{1 - \rho^2}{n}, \quad (32.169)$$

whereas  $\text{var}(R) = (1 - \rho^2)^2/n$ . Equation (32.169) suggests the use of the transformation

$$\tilde{Z} = \sin^{-1} \tilde{R}_1, \quad (32.170)$$

which would be variance equalizing for  $\tilde{R}_1$  in the same sense as is  $Z'$  [Eq. (32.42)] for  $R$ . Indeed **Jenkins** (1954a) showed that (32.170) is of comparable effectiveness for  $R$ , as  $Z'$  is for  $R$ . He obtained the formulas

$$E[\tilde{Z}] = \sin^{-1} \rho - \frac{3}{2} \rho (1 - \rho^2)^{-1/2} n^{-1} + \frac{1}{8} \rho (17 - 2\rho^2) (1 - \rho^2)^{-3/2} n^{-2} + O(n^{-3}), \quad (32.171a)$$

$$\text{var}(\tilde{Z}) = n^{-1} - \frac{1}{2} (2 - 5\rho^2) (1 - \rho^2)^{-1} n^{-2} + O(n^{-3}), \quad (32.171b)$$

$$\mu_3(\tilde{Z}) = -3\rho (1 - \rho^2)^{-1/2} n^{-2} + O(n^{-3}), \quad (32.171c)$$

$$\mu_4(\tilde{Z}) = 3n^{-2} - (8 - 29\rho^2) (1 - \rho^2)^{-1} n^{-3} + O(n^{-4}), \quad (32.171d)$$

and

$$\sqrt{\beta_1} = -3\rho(1 - \rho^2)^{-1/2}n^{-1/2}\{1 + (2 - 5\rho^2)(1 - \rho^2)^{-1}n^{-1}\} + O(n^{-5/2}), \tag{32.172a}$$

$$\beta_2 = 3 + 2(7\rho^2 - 1)(1 - \rho^2)^{-1}n^{-1} + O(n^{-2}). \tag{32.172b}$$

### 11 MULTIPLE CORRELATION COEFFICIENT

The multiple correlation coefficient between a random variable  $X_0$ , (the dependent variable) and variables  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k$  (the independent variables), with  $k \geq 2$ , is defined to be the maximum correlation between  $X_0$ , and any linear function of the independent variables:

$$P_{0.12\dots k} = \max_{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k} \rho\left(X_0, \sum_{j=1}^k a_j X_j\right). \tag{32.173}$$

(Where there is no risk of confusion the subscripts  $0.12\dots k$  can be omitted.)  
If the variance-covariance matrix of  $X_0, X_1, \dots, X_k$  is

$$\mathbf{V} = \begin{pmatrix} \text{var}(X_0) & \mathbf{V}'_0 \\ \mathbf{V}_0 & \mathbf{V}_{(1)} \end{pmatrix}$$

(where  $\mathbf{V}_{(1)}$  is the variance-covariance matrix of  $X_1, \dots, X_k$ ), then

$$\rho\left(X_0, \sum_{j=1}^k a_j X_j\right) = \frac{(\mathbf{V}'_0 \mathbf{a})}{\{(\mathbf{a}' \mathbf{V}_{(1)} \mathbf{a}) \text{var}(X_0)\}^{1/2}}. \tag{32.174}$$

Since (by appropriate choice of signs of the  $a_j$ 's)  $\rho(\cdot)$  can always be arranged not to be negative, we can choose  $\mathbf{a}$  to maximize the square

$$\frac{(\mathbf{a}' \mathbf{V}_0 \mathbf{V}'_0 \mathbf{a})}{(\mathbf{a}' \mathbf{V}_{(1)} \mathbf{a})}.$$

The maximized value of the square of the correlation coefficient is

$$\frac{\mathbf{V}'_0 \mathbf{V}^{-1} \mathbf{V}_0}{\text{var}(X_0)},$$

so the multiple correlation coefficient is

$$\sqrt{\frac{\mathbf{V}'_0 \mathbf{V}^{-1} \mathbf{V}_0}{\text{var}(X_0)}}. \tag{32.175}$$



(The more common term for the square is the multiple coefficient of determination, but we will not follow this practice.) Suppose now that  $X_0, X_1, \dots, X_k$  have a joint multinormal distribution and that we have available values of  $n$  independent sets of these variables. The quantity  $R_{0.12\dots k}$  obtained by replacing in (32.175) the elements of  $V$  by their maximum likelihood estimators (i.e., the mean squares and mean products of deviations from sample means) is called the sample multiple correlation coefficient. This is of course a random variable and has a sampling distribution, though the word "sample" is often omitted from its name when the meaning is otherwise clear. Also, just as  $\rho_{0.12\dots k}$  is often replaced by  $\rho$ , so  $R_{0.12\dots k}$  is replaced by  $R$  when this is conveniently possible.

Following the method of Ruben (1966), already described in Section 3, Hodgson (1967) showed that (with  $n > k + 1$ ),  $R^2(1 - R^2)^{-1}$  is distributed as

$$\frac{\chi_{k-1}^2 + \left\{ U + \rho(1 - \rho^2)^{-1/2} \chi_{n-1} \right\}^2}{\chi_{n-k-1}^2}, \quad (32.176)$$

where the  $\chi^2$ 's and the unit normal variable  $U$  are mutually independent. From the identity (noting that  $R$  cannot be negative)

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr\{R \leq r\} &= \Pr\left[ R^2(1 - R^2)^{-1} \leq r^2(1 - r^2)^{-1} \right] \\ &= \Pr\left[ \chi_{k-1}^2 + \left\{ U + \rho(1 - \rho^2)^{-1/2} \chi_{n-1} \right\}^2 - r^2(1 - r^2)^{-1} \chi_{n-k-1}^2 < 0 \right] \end{aligned} \quad (32.177)$$

and approximating the distribution of the ratio (32.176) or the left-hand side of the last inequality in (32.177) in the braces, Hodgson suggested the following approximations ( $h$  being a suitable positive number):

$$\frac{(n - k + h - 2)^h \left[ R^2(1 - R^2)^{-1} \right]^h - \left\{ k + 2h - 2 + (n + h - 2)\rho^2(1 - \rho^2)^{-1} \right\}^h}{\sqrt{2}h \left[ (n - k - 1)^{2h-1} \left( \frac{R^2}{1 - R^2} \right)^{2h} + \left( 2 + \frac{\rho^2}{1 + \rho^2} \right) \left\{ k + \frac{(n - 1)\rho^2}{1 - \rho^2} \right\}^{2h-1} \right]^{1/2}} \quad (32.177)'$$

has approximately a unit normal distribution, and

$$\left\{ R^2(1 - R^2)^{-1} \right\}^h \quad (32.177)''$$

is approximately normally distributed with expected value

$$[(n - k + h - 2)^{-1} \left\{ k + 2h - 2 + (n + h - 2) \left[ \rho^2(1 - \rho^2)^{-1} \right] \right\}^h]$$

and variance

$$2h^2(n - k - 1)^{-2h+''} (k + (n - 1)\rho^2(1 - \rho^2)^{-1})^{2h-1} (2n - k)(1 - \rho^2)^{-1}.$$

The distribution of  $R^2$  was originally obtained by Fisher (1928), using a geometrical method [see also Soper (1929)]. [Special cases had been discussed earlier by Yule (1921) and Isserlis (1917).] Fisher obtained the formula

$$p_{R^2}(r^2) = \frac{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}n)(1 - \rho^2)^{(n-1)/2}}{\pi\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(k - 1))\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(n - k))} (r^2)^{(k/2)-1} (1 - r^2)^{(n-k)/2-1} \\ \times \int_0^\pi \int_{-\infty}^\infty \frac{\sin^{k-2}\theta}{(\cosh \phi - \rho r \cos \theta)^{n-1}} d\phi d\theta, \quad 0 < r^2 < 1. \tag{32.178}$$

The integral can be evaluated by expanding the integrand in powers of  $\cos \theta$  and integrating term by term. The result can be conveniently expressed in terms of a hypergeometric function

$$p_{R^2}(r^2) = \frac{(1 - \rho^2)^{(n-1)/2} (r^2)^{(k/2)-1} (1 - r^2)^{(n-k-1)/2-1}}{B(\frac{1}{2}k, \frac{1}{2}(n - k - 1))} \\ \times {}_2F_1\left(\frac{n - 1}{2}, \frac{n - 1}{2}; \frac{k}{2}; \rho^2 r^2\right), \quad 0 < r^2 < 1. \tag{32.179}$$

An alternative expression is

$$p_{R^2}(r^2) = \frac{(1 - r^2)^{(n-k-3)/2} (r^2)^{(k-2)/2} (1 - \rho^2)^{(n-1)/2}}{\Gamma\{(n - 1)/2\}\Gamma\{(n - k - 1)/2\}} \\ \times \sum_{i=0}^\infty \frac{(\rho^2)^i (r^2)^i [\Gamma\{(n - 1)/2 + i\}]^2}{i!\Gamma\{(k/2) + i\}}, \quad 0 < r^2 < 1. \tag{32.179}'$$

[This expression was given by Anderson (1984), and used by Ding and Bargmann (1991a) as a basis for a numerical method, and an efficient computer program (Algorithm AS260) for evaluation of the distribution of  $R^2$ .]

The null ( $\rho^2 = 0$ ) pdf of  $R^2$  is

$$p_{R^2}(r^2) = \frac{(1-r^2)^{(n-k-3)/2}(r^2)^{(k-2)/2}}{B[(n-k-1)/2, k/2]}, \quad 0 < r^2 < 1. \quad (32.180)$$

This is a standard beta distribution with parameters  $fk, \frac{1}{2}(n-k-1)$ .

From the representation (32.179), or by direct expansion, it is possible to express  $p_{R^2}(r^2)$  as a mixture of standard beta distributions with parameters  $(\frac{1}{2}k+j), \frac{1}{2}(n-k-1)$ , with weights being the terms in the expansion of the negative binomial

$$\left( \frac{1}{1-\rho^2} - \frac{\rho^2}{1-\rho^2} \right)^{-(n-1)/2}$$

That is,

$$p_{R^2}(r^2) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} b_j \left[ B\left(\frac{1}{2}k+j, \frac{1}{2}(n-k-1)\right) \right]^{-1} (r^2)^{(k/2)+j-1} (1-r^2)^{(n-k-1)/2-1} r^2 > 0, \quad (32.181)$$

with weights

$$b_j = \frac{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(n-1)+j)}{j! \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(n-1))} \frac{(\rho^2)^j}{(1-\rho^2)^{(n-1)/2+j}}$$

This result was obtained by Gurland (1968), using characteristic functions. He also showed that for  $n-k$  odd,  $R^2(1-\rho^2)(1-\rho^2R^2)^{-1}$  is distributed as a mixture of standard beta distributions with parameters  $(\frac{1}{2}k+j), \frac{1}{2}(n-k-1)$  and weights given by the terms in the binomial expansion of  $\{\rho^2 + (1-\rho^2)\}^{(n-k-1)/2}$  so that

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[R \leq r] &= \sum_{j=0}^{(n-k-1)/2} \binom{\frac{1}{2}(n-k-1)}{j} (\rho^2)^j \\ &\times (1-\rho^2)^{(n-k-1)/2-j} I_{R^2(1-\rho^2)/(1-\rho^2R^2)}\left(\frac{1}{2}k+j, \frac{1}{2}(n-k-1)\right), \end{aligned} \quad (32.182)$$

where  $I_x(a, b)$  is the incomplete beta ratio. Note that there is only a finite number of terms in this expansion. Various methods of derivation of the distribution will be found in Garding (1941), Moran (1950), Soper (1929), and

Wilks (1932). Williams (1978) obtained (32.182) by another method, essentially showing that conditionally on sample values of  $(X_1, \dots, X_k)$ ,  $(R^2/k)\{(1 - R^2)/(n - k - 1)\}^{-1}$  (the ratio of mean square due to multiple linear regression to residual mean square in the analysis of variance) has a noncentral F-distribution (see Chapter 27) and then averaging over the  $(X_2, \dots, X_k)$  distribution (cf. beginning of Section 2). Detailed numerical investigations of series (32.181) and (32.182) are reported in Gurland and Milton (1970).

In a more recent paper Gurland and Asiribo (1991) provided other representations of the distribution of  $R^2$ , utilizing Gurland's (1968) result that  $W = R^2(1 - R^2)^{-1}$  is distributed as the ratio  $Y_1/Y_2$  of mutually independent random variables with characteristic functions

$$\begin{aligned} \phi_{Y_1}(t) &= (1 - 2it)^g (1 - 2iat)^{-h}, \\ \phi_{Y_2}(t) &= (1 - 2it)^{-g}, \end{aligned} \tag{32.183}$$

where  $g = \frac{1}{2}(n - k)$ ,  $h = \frac{1}{2}(n - 1)$ ,  $a = (1 - \rho^2)^{-1}$ . They concentrated on the distribution of  $Y$ , [termed a "kinked"  $\chi^2$  by Gurland and Milton (1970)] and offered several alternative representations for the cdf and pdf of  $Y$ , in terms of scaled  $\chi^2$ -distributions and confluent hypergeometric distributions, implying alternative representations of the distribution of  $R^2$ .

The  $m$ th moment of  $R$  about zero can be expressed in a convenient form, due to Banerjee (1952),

$$\mu'_m(R) = \frac{(1 - \rho^2)^{(n-1)/2} \Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(k + m))}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}(n - 1 + m))} D'^m {}_2F_1\left(\frac{1}{2}(n - 1 + m), \frac{1}{2}n; \frac{1}{2}k; \rho^2\right), \tag{32.184}$$

where  $D'$  denotes the operator  $\frac{1}{2}\rho^3(\partial/\partial\rho)$ . The expected value and variance of  $R^2$  are

$$\begin{aligned} E[R^2] &= 1 - \frac{n - k - 1}{n - 1} (1 - \rho^2) {}_2F_1\left(1, 1; \frac{1}{2}(n + 1); \rho^2\right) \\ &= \rho^2 + \frac{k}{n - 1} (1 - \rho^2) - \frac{2(n - k - 1)}{n^2 - 1} \rho^2 (1 - \rho^2) + O(n^{-2}), \end{aligned} \tag{32.185a}$$

(note that  $R^2$ , as an estimator of  $\rho^2$ , has a substantial positive bias), and

$$\begin{aligned} \text{var}(R^2) &= \frac{(n-k)^2 - 1}{n^2 - 1} (1 - \rho^2)^2 {}_2F_1\left(2, 2; \frac{1}{2}(n+3); \rho^2\right) - [E[R^2] - 1]^2 \\ &= \begin{cases} \frac{4\rho^2(1 - \rho^2)^2(n-k-1)^2}{(n^2 - 1)(n+3)} + O(n^{-2}) & \text{for } \rho \neq 0, \\ \frac{2k(n-k-1)}{(n-1)^2(n+1)} & \text{for } \rho = 0 \end{cases} \end{aligned} \quad (32.185b)$$

[Wishart (1931)].

The distribution of  $R$  (or  $R^2$ ) is complicated in form, and considerable attention has been devoted to the construction of useful approximations. It is natural to try Fisher's transformation  $Z' = \frac{1}{2} \log\{(1+R)/(1-R)\} = \tanh^{-1} R$ . However, as for serial correlation, it is clear that this transformation is not very suitable. Gajjar (1967) has shown that the limiting distribution of  $\sqrt{n-1} \tanh^{-1} R$ , as  $n$  tends to infinity, is not normal but is noncentral  $\chi$  with  $k$  degrees of freedom and noncentrality parameter  $(n-1)(\tanh^{-1} \rho)^2$ . Numerical calculations indicate that  $\tanh^{-1} R$  will not give generally useful results.

Khatri (1966) proposed two approximations. The first is to regard

$$\frac{k^{-1}(n-k-1)(1-\rho^2)\omega(\rho)R^2}{1-R^2} \quad (32.186a)$$

with

$$\begin{aligned} \omega(\rho) &= \left[ k + \left\{ n - k - 1 + \sqrt{(n-1)(n-k-1)} \right\} \rho^2 \right] \\ &\quad \times \left[ k + (n-k-1)(2-\rho^2)\rho^2 \right]^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

as being approximately distributed as noncentral  $F$  with  $k$ ,  $(n-k-1)$  degrees of freedom and noncentrality parameter

$$\frac{1}{2}\rho^2\omega(\rho)\sqrt{(n-1)(n-k-1)}$$

[cf. Williams (1978)]. The second of Khatri's approximations uses a different

multiple of  $R^2/(1 - R^2)$ . The multiplier is

$$(n - k - 1)(1 - \rho^2)\{(n - k - 1)\rho^2 + k\}^{-1}$$

and the approximate distribution is a *central* F-distribution with

$$[(n - k - 1)\rho^2 + k]^2[(n - k - 1)\rho^2(2 - \rho^2) + k]^{-1}, \quad n - k - 1 \tag{32.186b}$$

degrees of freedom. Independently Gurland (1968) also obtained this approximation.

Khatri suggested that these approximations be used for  $n - k - 1 \geq 100$ ; he preferred the second when  $\rho^2$  is large. Gurland and Asiribo (1991) provided a further approximation to the distribution by applying the Wilson-Hilferty transformation of a  $\chi^2$  random variable (Chapter 18). This yields an approximation to the distribution of  $U = R^2/(1 - R^2)^2$  in terms of a normal distribution. Comparisons with the approximation (32.186b) of Khatri (1966) and Gurland (1968) for  $k = 6, 10, n = 10, 20, 40, p = 0, 0.1(0.2)0.9$ , and also for values  $\rho^2 = 0.1(0.2)0.9$  are presented. They indicate that for the most part, the approximations are of about the same accuracy.

Moschopoulos and Mudholkar (1983) provide a normal approximation to the distribution of  $R^2$  that seems to be very accurate for  $p > \frac{1}{2}$ , with errors in the cdf only in the fourth decimal place. For smaller values of  $p$ , errors may appear in the third decimal place.

The approximation is of form

$$\left\{ \frac{-\log(1 - R^2)}{g_1} \right\}^h,$$

which is approximately normal with expected value and variance (and also  $h$  and  $g_1$ ) given by rather complicated functions of  $n, k$ , and  $p$ .

Srivastava (1983), Gupta and Kabe (1991), and Amey (1990) have discussed the distribution of  $R^2$  based on random samples from a mixture of  $m$   $(k + 1)$ -variate multinormal populations, and they have obtained expressions for the exact distribution. Srivastava and Gupta and Kabe deal with the case  $m = 2$ , whereas Amey deals with the general case.

Amey (1990) programmed this cdf for the case  $p = 0$  using IMSL (1987) subroutines and obtained upper percentage points of  $R^2$  for selected values of the parameters. He tabulated the values of  $R_\alpha^2$ , where  $\Pr\{R^2 \leq R_\alpha^2 | \rho = 0\} = \alpha$  for  $\alpha = 0.90, 0.95, 0.99, k = 2, 3, 4, 5, n = 10, 15, 20$ , and for  $k = 2, 3, 4, 5$  and  $n = 10, 15, 20$  with selected values of differences among the expected values of component distributions.

It can be shown that  $\Pr\{R \leq r | \rho\}$  is a decreasing function of  $p$ . Upper and lower limits for  $100(1 - \alpha)\%$  confidence intervals for  $p$  can be obtained by solving the equations  $\int_{-\infty}^R p_R(r | \rho) dr = \alpha, 1 - \alpha,$  with  $(\alpha, + \alpha_2) = \alpha$ .

Kramer (1963) gave tables for constructing lower 95% limits (i.e.,  $\alpha_1 = 0.05$ ,  $\alpha_2 = 0$ ).

$R^2$  is a biased estimator of  $\rho^2$ , as can be seen from (32.185a). Venables (1985) discussed Fisher's (1924) A-transformation of  $R^2$ , which is aimed at reducing this bias. It is defined as

$$A = \frac{R^2 - k(n-1)^{-1}}{1 - k(n-1)^{-1}}, \quad (32.187)$$

or, equivalently,

$$1 - A = (n-1)(n-k-1)^{-1}(1 - R^2). \quad (32.187)'$$

Venables showed that A is very close to the maximum likelihood estimator of  $\rho^2$ , based on marginal likelihood calculated from (32.179). Specifically he proved that (32.179) has a unique maximum value in the parameter space  $0 \leq \rho^2 \leq 1$  at  $\hat{\rho}^2$ , say, and that if  $R^2 \leq k(n-1)^{-1}$ ,  $\hat{\rho}^2 = 0$ ; on the other hand, if  $1 > R^2 > k(n-1)^{-1}$ , Venables showed the maximum likelihood estimator to be at the unique maximum of the marginal likelihood function in the range  $0 < \rho^2 < 1$ . What this implies is that for  $k(n-1)^{-1} < R^2 < 1$ , the maximum marginal likelihood estimator  $\hat{\rho}^2$  satisfies the inequalities

$$A < \hat{\rho}^2 < A + \frac{2(1-A)^2}{n+2(1-A)}. \quad (32.188)$$

Note, however, that  $\hat{\rho}^2$ , being a nonnegative estimator, cannot be exactly unbiased, although it has a substantially smaller bias than  $R^2$ . Venables (1985) also provided an expansion for  $\hat{\rho}^2$  of the type

$$1 - \hat{\rho}^2 = \frac{n-1}{n-1-k}(1 - R^2) + \sum_{j=2}^{\infty} b_j(1 - R^2)^j, \quad (32.189)$$

thus extending the A statistic. Here

$$b_2 = \frac{2(n-1)}{[2(n-1) - k + 2](n-1-k)},$$

$$b_3 = \frac{2(n-1)\{-4k(k+2) + (n-1)(k^2 + 10k + 8) - 2(n-1)^2(k+2)\}}{[2(n-1) - k - 2]^2[2(n-1) - k - 4](n-1-k)^2}.$$

He justifiably pointed out that for higher j the coefficients are much more complicated and probably of doubtful numerical usefulness.

Olkin and Pratt (1958) showed that

$$R^{*2} = 1 - (n - k)^{-1}(n - 2)(1 - R^2) {}_2F_1\left(1, 1; \frac{1}{2}(n - k + 2); (1 - R^2)\right) \tag{32.190}$$

is the unique minimum variance unbiased estimator of  $\rho^2$ . It differs from  $R^2$  only by quantities of order  $n^{-1}$  and is a strictly increasing function of  $R^2$ . Note that if  $R^2 = 1$ , then  $R^{*2} = 1$ ; however, if  $R^2 = 0$ , then  $R^{*2} = -k(n - k + 2)^{-1}$  which is negative, as ~~must~~ be the case since  $E[R^{*2}|\rho = 0] = 0$ .

Sylvan's (1969) MLE of the multiple correlation coefficient when some observations of one variable, say, the last one,  $x_k$ , are missing is constructed as follows: Let

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x}' &= (x_1, \dots, x_k), \\ \mathbf{x}^{*'} &= (x_1, \dots, x_{k-1}), \\ \mathbf{x}'_+ &= (x_1, \dots, x_k, X_0), \\ \mathbf{x}^{*'}_+ &= (x_1, \dots, x_{k-1}, X_0). \end{aligned}$$

The multiple correlation coefficient is

$$\rho = \sqrt{\frac{\mathbf{V}'_0 \mathbf{V}^{-1} \mathbf{V}_0}{\text{var}(X_0)}} \tag{32.175'}$$

Hence

$$1 - \rho^2 = \frac{\text{var}(X_0) - \mathbf{V}'_0 \mathbf{V}^{-1} \mathbf{V}_0}{\text{var}(X_0)} \tag{32.191}$$

We partition the overall sample variance-covariance matrix  $\Sigma$  into

$$\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} \Sigma_{x^*x^*} & \Sigma_{x^*x_k} & \Sigma_{x^*x_0} \\ \Sigma_{x_kx^*} & \Sigma_{x_kx_k} & \Sigma_{x_kx_0} \\ \Sigma_{x_0x^*} & \Sigma_{x_0x_k} & \Sigma_{x_0x_0} \end{pmatrix} = \left( \begin{array}{c|c} \Sigma_{\underline{x}\underline{x}} & \Sigma_{\underline{x}x_0} \\ \hline \Sigma_{x_0\underline{x}} & \Sigma_{x_0x_0} \end{array} \right) \tag{32.192}$$

Assume that  $x_p$  has  $c$  missing observations. Let the matrix of the corrected sums of squares (ss) and products (sp) of observations including all of  $x$ 's and  $x_0$  be

$$\mathbf{S}_{\mathbf{x}_+ \mathbf{x}_+} = \begin{pmatrix} S_{\underline{x}\underline{x}} & S_{\underline{x}x_k} & S_{\underline{x}x_0} \\ S_{x_k\underline{x}} & S_{x_kx_k} & S_{x_kx_0} \\ S_{x_0\underline{x}} & S_{x_0x_k} & S_{x_0x_0} \end{pmatrix} = \left( \begin{array}{c|c} S_{\underline{x}\underline{x}} & S_{\underline{x}x_0} \\ \hline S_{x_0\underline{x}} & S_{x_0x_0} \end{array} \right) \tag{32.193}$$



based on  $n - c$  degrees of freedom. The matrix of corrected sum of squares and sum of products of all observations on  $\underline{x}^*$  and  $x_0$  is

$$\mathbf{T}_{kk} = \begin{pmatrix} T_{\underline{x}^* \underline{x}^*} & T_{\underline{x}^* x_0} \\ T_{x_0 \underline{x}^*} & T_{x_0 x_0} \end{pmatrix} \quad (32.194)$$

based on  $n$  degrees of freedom.

To obtain Sylvan's (1969) estimator, the estimators

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\Sigma}_{x_p k} &= \frac{1}{n} T_{kk}, \\ \hat{\Sigma}_{x_p k} &= \frac{1}{n} S_{x_p k} S_{kk}^{-1} T_{kk}, \\ \hat{\Sigma}_{x_p x_p} &= \frac{1}{n - c} S_{x_p x_p \cdot k} + \frac{1}{n} S_{x_p k} S_{kk}^{-1} T_{kk} S_{kk}^{-1} S_{k x_p}, \end{aligned} \quad (32.195)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} S_{x_p x_p \cdot k} &= S_{x_p x_p} - S_{x_p k} S_{kk}^{-1} S_{k x_p}, \\ S_{kk}^{-1} &= \begin{pmatrix} S_{x^* x^*}^{-1} + \frac{S_{x^* x_0} S_{x_0 x^*} S_{x^* x^*}^{-1}}{S_{x_0 x_0 \cdot x^*}} & - \frac{S_{x^* x_0} S_{x^* x^*}^{-1}}{S_{x_0 x_0 \cdot x^*}} \\ - \frac{S_{x_0 x^*} S_{x^* x^*}^{-1}}{S_{x_0 x_0 \cdot x^*}} & \frac{1}{S_{x_0 x_0 \cdot x^*}} \end{pmatrix}, \end{aligned}$$

are substituted into (32.175) or (32.175)'.

Gupta (1987) extended Sylvan's result and obtained somewhat simpler estimator  $\tilde{R}^2$  when  $c$  observations on a variable are missing. To this end, Gupta (1987) recalled the identity

$$1 - R^2 = (1 - R_{\underline{x}^*}^2) \cdot (1 - R_{x_k \cdot x^*}^2), \quad (32.196)$$

where the first factor is the contribution of  $\underline{x}^*$  to  $1 - R^2$ , while the second factor is the contribution of  $x_k$  conditional on  $\underline{x}^*$ . Noting that  $1 - R^2$  is a particular case of Wilks's  $A$  [cf. Eq. (32.174)], he obtained the somewhat simpler estimator:

$$1 - \tilde{R}^2 = \left( \frac{T_{x_0 x_0 \cdot x^*}}{T_{x_0 x_0}} \right) \cdot \left( \frac{S_{x_0 x_0 \cdot x^*}}{S_{x_0 x_0 \cdot x^*}} \right)^{(n-c)/n}. \quad (32.197)$$

It appears that the true value of  $\rho^2$  is overestimated by Sylvan's (1969) method but underestimated by Gupta's (1987) method. It was further noted by Gupta, based on the general theory of Wilks's  $\Lambda$  statistics, that

$$-\left\{n - \frac{(k^2 - 1)}{2k} - \frac{n(2k + 1)}{2k(n - c)}\right\} \log_e(1 - \bar{R}^2), \quad (32.198)$$

where  $c$  is the number of observations missing, has an asymptotic  $\chi^2$  distribution with  $k$  degrees of freedom.

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## CHAPTER 33

# Lifetime Distributions and Miscellaneous Orderings

### 1 INTRODUCTION

The number of possible different continuous distributions is limitless. In this chapter we restrict our attention to distributions of some importance in statistical practice or theory that were not covered in Chapters 12 through 32.

We will mostly concentrate on lifetime distributions, a field that has been intensively studied in the years since the publication of the first edition of this volume. The basic text by **Barlow** and Proschan (1981) has substantially influenced the development of the subject. A more recent paper by **Barlow** and **Mendel** (1992) is a significant contribution to Bayesian analysis of lifetime distributions. The literature on lifetime (or life) distributions is enormous, so we have again had to restrict ourselves to a small representative sample of the results. Some of the literature is cited in the references without mention in the text.

We will look in some detail at a representative class of life distributions known as *Birnbaum-Saunders distributions*. These distributions are generated by a simple transformation of normal variables and have been rather extensively studied. Birnbaum-Saunders distributions can be derived from several models of mechanism of lifetime distribution.

We will also consider results on *ordering* of distributions, since this topic is especially relevant to life distributions. Ordering also confers considerable generality and enables some practical applications of distributions. Books by **Pečarić**, Proschan, and Tong (1992) and Shaked and Shanthikumar (1994) (and their co-authors who contributed to the chapters on applications) both provide a detailed and systematic treatment of stochastic orders, highlight their growing importance, and illustrate their usefulness in numerous applications. A classified bibliography of stochastic orders and applications has also been prepared by Mosler and Scarsini (1993) with the collaboration of R. Dyckerhoff and H. Holz.

We have omitted discussion of Kolmogorov-Smirnov and related distributions involving sample cumulative distribution functions. Although we presented this topic in the first edition, interest in it has grown over the last 25 years and now there is available orderly classification in the literature. The reader is referred to the compendium by **D'Agostino** and **Stephens** (1986) for extensive information on this subject. The discussion of circular normal (**von Mises**) distributions and their extensions (spherical normal distributions, etc.), the subject of a comprehensive monograph by **Fisher**, **Lewis**, and **Embleton** (1989) has been moved to the planned new edition of *Continuous Multivariate Distributions*.

## 2 LIFE DISTRIBUTIONS

Every cumulative distribution function  $F$  over the nonnegative real line can be a life distribution. If  $F$  is absolutely continuous then, provided that  $1 - F_T(t) > 0$ , the hazard (or failure) rate function

$$h_T(t) = -\left(\frac{d}{dt}\right)\log\{1 - F_T(t)\} \quad (33.1)$$

represents the conditional density of failure at time  $t$ , given survival until time  $t$ . When  $p_T(t)$  is a density function, we also have the hazard rate function to be  $h_T(t) = p_T(t)/(1 - F_T(t))$ ; see Chapter 1. Given  $h_T(t)$ ,  $F_T(t)$  can be derived from

$$F_T(t) = 1 - \exp\left[-\int_0^t h_T(x) dx\right], \quad 0 \leq t < \infty. \quad (33.2)$$

Note that the hazard rate function is sometimes confused with the conditional failure density function

$$\frac{d \Pr[T \leq t | T > x]}{dt} = \frac{p_T(t)}{1 - F_T(x)}, \quad t > x.$$

We have already encountered a number of more or less commonly used life distributions such as exponential, mixture of exponentials, Weibull, and especially extreme value distributions, whose truncated form is the well-known Gompertz distribution (see Chapter 22). Extensive classes of such distributions, covering developments up to the early 1960s, were discussed by **Buckland** (1964).

The exponential distribution is used in many situations to represent distribution of lifetimes. If the departure from this distribution is too pro-

nounced to be ignored, a **Weibull** distribution may be used. Among others used [Barlow (1968); Bain (1974)] there is the linear failure rate distribution (see also Section 4) with density function

$$p_T(t) = (1 + \theta t) \exp\left\{-\left(t + \frac{1}{2}\theta t^2\right)\right\}, \quad t > 0, \quad (33.3)$$

and a distribution with density function

$$p_T(t) = [1 + \theta(1 - e^{-t})] \exp\left\{-[t + \theta(t + e^{-t} - 1)]\right\}, \quad t > 0. \quad (33.4)$$

(These distributions are in standard form. A further parameter can be introduced by considering the distribution of  $\alpha T$ , with  $\alpha > 0$ .)

Flehinger and Lewis (1959) discussed two lifetime distributions constructed from specific hazard rate functions (see Section 4). These are given by

$$a + 2b^2t, \quad a + 3c^3t^2 \quad (\text{Hazard rate}),$$

leading to

$$1 - \exp[-at - (bt)^2], \quad 1 - \exp[-at - (ct)^3] \\ (\text{Cumulative distribution function}). \quad (33.5)$$

[cf. (33.3)]. The parameters  $a$ ,  $b$ , and the argument  $t$  are all positive. It is, of course, also possible to consider a distribution with hazard rate  $a + 2b^2t + 3c^3t^2$  and cumulative distribution function

$$1 - \exp[-at - (bt)^2 - (ct)^3],$$

but the extra complexity makes this unattractive. Flehinger and Lewis also discussed the use of a truncated normal distribution (Chapter 13, Section 10.1) as a lifetime distribution.

Greenwich (1992) has suggested use of a distribution with unimodal hazard rate

$$at(b^2 + t^2)^{-1}, \quad a, b > 0, \quad (33.6a)$$

which corresponds to

$$F_T(t) = 1 - (1 + b^{-2}t^2)^{-a/2}, \quad t \geq 0, \quad (33.6b)$$

and is in fact the distribution of  $b(2F_{2,a}/a)^{1/2}$ , where  $F_{2,a}$  denotes a central F random variable with  $(2, a)$  degrees of freedom (see Chapter 27). Shaked (1977) has investigated life distributions with hazard rate functions of the general form

$$h_T(t) = A_1g_1(t) + A_2g_2(t), \quad 0 \leq t, \quad (33.7)$$



where the functions  $g_1(t)$  and  $g_2(t)$  are assumed to be known and not to depend on  $A$ , or  $A$ . The form (33.7) includes many types of hazard rate functions that are encountered in practice, including functions that are not everywhere monotonic. As noted above, Bain (1974) dealt with the case  $g_j(t) = t^{\theta_j}$  ( $j = 1, 2$ ) [and the linear hazard rate obtained by taking  $\theta_1 = 0$ ,  $\theta_2 = 1$ ; see (33.3).] Gaver and Acar (1979) gave a thorough discussion of models of this kind. Gaver and Acar discussed bathtub hazard rate models

(i)  $XL(X)R(X)$  with  $X$  standard exponential, and

$$L(X) \text{ concave in } X, L(0) < 1, L(\infty) = 1, \\ R(X) \text{ convex in } X, R(0) = 1, R(0) > R(\infty);$$

(ii) Hazard rate of form  $h(t) = g(t) + \lambda + k(t)$ , where

$$g(t) > 0 \text{ decreasing function of } t, \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} g(t) = 0, \\ k(t) \text{ increasing (preferably with } k(0) = 0, k(\infty) = \infty), \\ \text{e.g. } h(t) = \frac{A}{t + \alpha} + Bt + A.$$

Crowder et al. (1991) give, inter alia, graphs of hazard functions for

- Weibull ( $c = 0.5, 1.5, 2.5, 5$ ); Unit normal; Gumbel;
- Log normal [ $\log X \rightarrow N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  with  $\sigma = \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2}, 1, 1\frac{1}{2}$ , and  $\mu$  chosen to make  $E[X] = 11$ ;
- Gamma [ $a = 0.5, 1.5, 2.5, 5$  with  $\beta$  chosen to make  $E[X] = 1$ ].

Hazard rates of the form (33.7) arise naturally, and commonly for systems with two independent components. Bain and Engelhardt (1991) provide a detailed discussion of estimation procedures for parameters of life-time distributions with polynomial hazard rates. Their method involves the determination of a least-squares polynomial fit to a set of points, and is applicable to both complete and censored samples.

Foster and Craddock (1974) considered (33.7) for the case  $g_1(t) = 1$ ,  $g_2(t) = \exp(-at)$ . Substituting

$$g_1(t) = I_{[0, K]}(t),$$

$$g_2(t) = I_{[K, \infty)}(t)$$

(for some  $K > 0$ ), in (33.7), we obtain piecewise constant hazard rate functions discussed by Prairie and Ostle (1961) and Colvert and Boardman (1976). Dimitrov, Chukova, and Green (1993) have discussed continuous probability distributions with periodic hazard rates. Shaked (1977) arrived at functions of

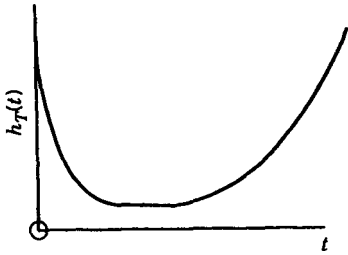


Figure 33.1 A bathtub-shaped hazard function.

form (33.7) with  $g_1(t) = 1$ ,  $g_2(t) = \sin t$  when modeling the hazard rate function of an item influenced by periodic fluctuations of temperature. He investigated maximum likelihood estimation of  $A$ , and  $A$ , when the distribution corresponding to (33.7) is of form IHR (increasing hazard rate), IHRA (increasing hazard rate on average), or NBU (new better than used) (see Section 4). Note that the distributions (33.5) are all of IHR type.

For many living (i.e., human) populations the hazard rate is of the so-called bathtub type (see Figure 33.1). In several practical situations, the effect of age on a component is initially beneficial, but after a certain period the effect of age is adverse. Infant mortality or work hardening of certain tools are typical instances of such aging. This type of monotonic aging is usually modelled using life distributions displaying bathtub failure rates (**BFR**) and may be defined as follows.

A life distribution  $F$  is said to be a BFR (upturned bathtub failure rate, **UBFR**) distribution if there exists a  $t_0 \geq 0$  such that the cumulative hazard rate function  $-\log \bar{F}(t)$  is concave (convex) on  $[0, t_0]$  and convex (concave) on  $[t_0, \infty)$ .

This definition of a BFR distribution is quite general and extends the idea of distributions possessing a bathtub-shaped failure rate to situations where the failure rate itself does not exist [see Mitra and Basu (1994)].

MacGillivray (1981) investigated the relation between the number of changes from increasing to decreasing hazard rate and that of

$$\frac{p'_T(t)}{p_T(t)} = \frac{d \log F_T(t)}{dt},$$

the motivation being that the number of changes in concavity of  $\log[1 - F_T(t)]$  is limited by that of  $\log p_T(t)$ .

Dhillon (1981) [see also Leemis (1986)] introduced a two-parameter system of life distributions — the exponential power distributions. The two-parameter system can have increasing, decreasing, or bathtub-shaped hazard rates. The survival functions are

$$\bar{F}_T(t) = 1 - F_T(t) = \exp\left[1 - \exp\{(\alpha t)^\beta\}\right], \quad \alpha, \beta > 0, \quad (33.8a)$$

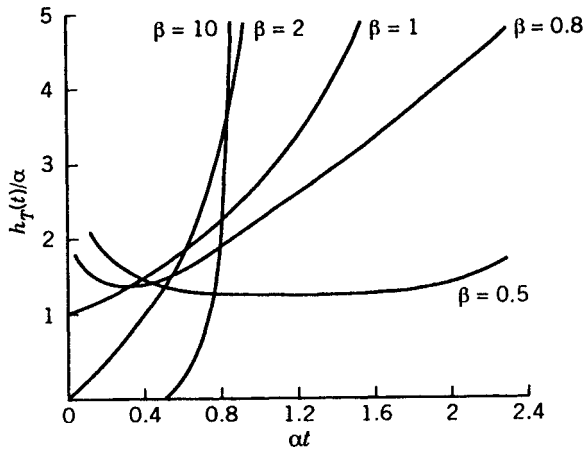


Figure 33.2 Hazard rate (33.8b) for various values of  $\beta$ .

with hazard rates

$$h_T(t) = \alpha\beta(\alpha t)^{\beta-1} \exp\{(\alpha t)^\beta\}. \quad (33.8b)$$

This is bathtub shaped if  $\beta < 1$ , achieving a minimum value for  $h_T(t)$  at  $t = \{(1 - \beta)/(\alpha\beta)\}^{1/\beta}$  (see Figure 33.2). For  $\beta = 1$  we have extreme value distributions (see Chapter 22).

Dhillon (1981) also constructed another two-parameter system, with survival functions

$$\bar{F}_T(t) = \exp[-\{\log(\lambda t + 1)\}^{\beta+1}], \quad \beta \geq 0, \quad \lambda > 0, \quad t \geq 0 \quad (33.9)$$

and hazard rate functions

$$h_T(t) = (\beta + 1)(\lambda t + 1)^{-1} \{\log(\lambda t + 1)\}^\beta. \quad (33.10)$$

Typical graphs of  $h_T(t)$  are shown in Figure 33.3. Dhillon provided maximum likelihood estimation procedures for both systems of distributions, (33.8a) and (33.9).

Hjorth (1980) proposed a three-parameter system of life distributions with survival functions

$$\bar{F}_T(t) = (1 + \beta t)^{-\gamma/\beta} \exp(-\frac{1}{2}\alpha t^2), \quad \alpha, \beta > 0, \quad (33.11)$$

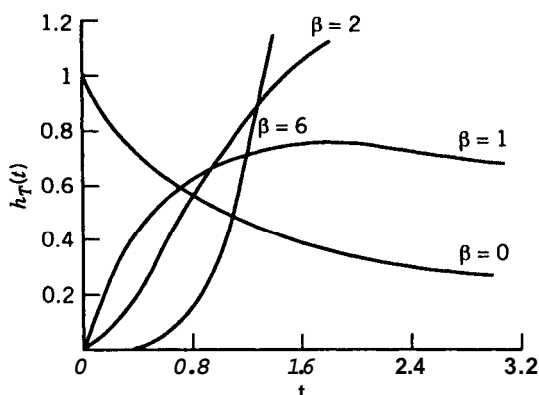


Figure 33.3 Hazard rate (33.10) for various values of  $\beta$ .

and hazard rates

$$h_T(t) = \alpha t + \gamma(1 + \beta t)^{-1}. \quad (33.12)$$

These distributions have bathtub shaped hazard rate functions, if  $0 < \alpha < \beta\gamma$ .

A mixture of two Weibull distributions with shape parameters  $\beta_k$  satisfying  $\beta_1 < 1 < \beta_2$  (see Chapter 21) also produces a distribution with a bathtub hazard rate. Unlike Dhillon's two-parameter bathtub distributions, this distribution involves five parameters; see Nelson (1982) and Lawless (1982).

By noting that the shape of a probability density function restricts that of its hazard function and vice versa, Sibuya (1994) was primarily concerned with the six specific shapes, viz., increasing, decreasing, unimodal, anti-unimodal, increasing-decreasing-increasing, and decreasing-increasing-decreasing. Then, of the six by six total possible shape combinations, Sibuya (1994) has shown that sixteen are impossible and by means of examples has shown the remaining twenty are possible.

Kunitz (1989) suggests using a mixture of gamma distributions (see Chapter 17) as an adequate model for distributions with bathtub-shaped hazard functions. These are defined in terms of the *total-time-on-test (TTT) transform*

$$\bar{H}_{F^{-1}}(t) = \int_0^{F_T^{-1}(t)} \bar{F}_T(u) du. \quad (33.13)$$

These change from convex to concave in the interval  $(0, 1)$  and are "extremal" in the power of tests of exponentiality for DFR or IFR alternatives.

The type of monotonic ageing described earlier for bathtub failure rate models can also be studied through the class of IDMRL distributions,

introduced by Guess, Hollander, and Proschan (1986) through the mean residual life function, defined as follows:

A life distribution  $F$  is said to be an increasing initially, then decreasing mean residual life (**IDMRL**) (decreasing initially, then increasing mean residual life, **DIMRL**) distribution if there exists a  $t_0 \geq 0$  such that  $\mu_{(F)}(t) = \int_t^\infty \bar{F}(x) dx / \bar{F}(t)$  is nondecreasing (nonincreasing) on  $[0, t_0]$  and nonincreasing (nondecreasing) on  $[t_0, \infty)$ . See Section 4.2 (page 670) for related families introduced by Mitra and Basu (1994).

Zelterman (1992) studied hazard rate functions which rise rapidly and become unbounded at a finite point  $\psi$  corresponding to a cap on the maximum lifetime attainable. (The motivation is to estimate an absolute limit on attainable human lifespan conditional on the existence of such a limit.) Specifically:

$$h(t) = \theta\beta(\psi - t)^{\beta-1}, \quad 0 \leq t < \psi, \quad \theta > 0$$

with parameter  $0 < \beta < 1$  controlling the shape. (Models with  $\beta < 0$  correspond to the Type 2 extreme value distribution; see Chapter 22. For  $\beta \rightarrow 0$ , we obtain a generalized Pareto distribution (see Chapter 19) with survival function

$$\bar{F}(t) = \{1 - (\beta t / \sigma)\}^{1/\beta}, \quad 0 \leq t \leq \sigma / \beta, \quad \sigma > 0, \quad \beta > 0,$$

with the hazard rate  $h(t) = (\alpha - \beta t)^{-1}$ .) The corresponding survival function is

$$\bar{F}(t|\theta, \beta, \psi) = \begin{cases} 1, & t < 0 \\ \exp[-\theta\{\psi^\beta - (\psi - t)^\beta\}], & 0 \leq t < \psi \\ 0, & t \geq \psi. \end{cases}$$

The main feature of these survival functions is the discrete jump of  $\bar{F}(t)$  to zero at  $t = \psi$ , representing an abrupt mass extinction of all survivors at the cap  $t = \psi$ , and the density function  $p(t)$  associated with this  $h(t)$  and  $\bar{F}(t)$  is mixed in the sense that it contains both a continuous and a discrete component:

$$p(t) = p(t|\theta, \beta, \psi) = \begin{cases} \theta\beta(\psi - t)^{\beta-1}\bar{F}(t), & 0 \leq t < \psi \\ \exp(-\theta\psi^\beta), & \text{point mass at } t = \psi \\ 0, & \text{other values of } t. \end{cases}$$

Hazard rates with a change point or phases have been studied by Blackstone, Naftel, and Turner (1980) and Hazelrig, Turner, and Blackstone (1982) among others.

Hazelrig, Turner, and Blackstone (1982) provide some hazard functions for analyzing survival data with a family of continuous-differential survival distributions. (The models are related by a common differential equation; similarity to the earlier ideas of Voit, mentioned in Chapter 12, should be

noted.) The generic differential equation, in terms of the cumulative distribution function,  $F(t)$ , is given by

$$\dot{F}(t) = \mu \{F(t)\}^{1-(1/m)} \left\{ \frac{m}{|m|} (1 - F(t))^{1/m} \right\}^{1/(1+\nu)},$$

with the shape parameters  $m, \nu > 0$ , yielding under the initial condition  $F(0) = 0$

$$F(t) = 1 - \frac{m}{|m|} \left( \frac{m + |m|}{2|m|} + \frac{\mu t}{|m|} \right)^{-\nu}.$$

The parameter  $\mu$  in the time-scale factor is often called the *modulus of mortality*. Values of  $m$  are naturally classified into three categories:

- (i)  $m > 1$  or  $m < -1/\nu$
- (ii)  $m = 1$  or  $m = -1/\nu$
- (iii)  $0 < m < 1$  or  $-1/\nu < m < 0$ .

Hazlrig, Turner, and Blackstone (1982) provide a schematic diagram of special cases of this generic family which includes hyperbolic, hyper logistic, single-hit [ $F(t) = (1 - e^{-\mu t/m})^m$ ], hyper-Gompertz, and exponential distributions. Figure 33.4 presents graphs of four examples of this generic hazard function  $h(\mu t)$ . Note that the case  $\nu = 3$  and  $m = -0.2$  yields a hazard rate with a local maximum and a local minimum.

Hazard rates of the form

$$h(t) = \exp(a_0 + a_1 t + a_2 t^2)$$

were studied by Lewis and Shedler (1976, 1979) using simulation methodology.

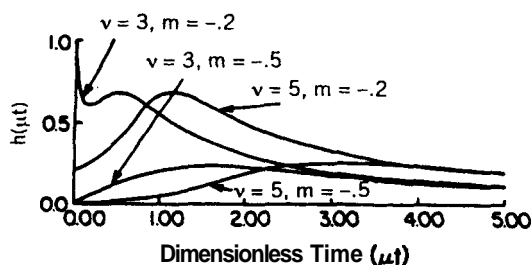


Figure 33.4 Four examples of the generic hazard function  $h(\mu t)$ .

Makino (1984) introduced the concept of mean hazard rate (MHR):

$$E[r_{(F)}(t)] = \int_0^{\infty} r_{(F)}(t) p_T(t) dt,$$

where  $r_{(F)}(t) \equiv h_T(t)$ . He showed that

$$E[r_{(F)}(t)] \geq \left[ \int_0^{\infty} \{1 - F_T(t)\} dt \right]^{-1}.$$

(The latter quantity is sometimes called mean failure rate.)

For a unit normal distribution,  $MHR = 0.9048557$ ; a Weibull distribution (Chapter 21) with shape parameter  $c = 3.4392$  has approximately the same MHR. (It is noteworthy that for  $c = 3.43938$  the median and expected value of the Weibull distribution coincide.)

Armero and Bayarri (1993) have discussed Kummer distributions. A random variable  $X$  has a Kummer distribution with parameters  $a, \beta, \gamma, \delta$  ( $a > 0, \beta > 0, \gamma > 0$ ) if it has a continuous distribution with probability density function

$$p_X(x|\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta) = Ce^{-\beta x} x^{\alpha-1} / (1 + \delta x)^{\gamma}, \quad 0 < x < \infty,$$

where the constant  $C$  is such that

$$C^{-1} = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha)}{\delta^{\alpha}} U(\alpha, \alpha + 1 - \gamma, \beta/\delta).$$

Here,  $U(a, b, z)$  is one of Kummer's functions (a confluent hypergeometric function; see Chapter 1) with an integral representation

$$\Gamma(a)U(a, b, z) = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-zt} t^{a-1} (1+t)^{b-a-1} dt, \quad a > 0, \quad z > 0.$$

The moments of  $X$  can be easily expressed in terms of the  $U$  function. For example, we have

$$E[X^k] = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha + k)}{\delta^k \Gamma(\alpha)} \frac{U(\alpha + k, \alpha + k + 1 - \gamma, \beta/\delta)}{U(\alpha, \alpha + 1 - \gamma, \beta/\delta)}.$$

As noted by Armero and Bayarri (1993), the Kummer distribution generalizes both gamma and F distributions. For example, the above Kummer distribution, when  $\gamma = 0$ , becomes the Gamma ( $a, \beta$ ) distribution. Similarly, it may be easily seen that the Kummer distribution with  $a = \nu_1/2, \beta = 0, \gamma = (\nu_1 + \nu_2)/2$  and  $\delta = 1$  becomes the F-distribution with  $(\nu_1, \nu_2)$  degrees of freedom.

Evans and Swartz (1994) have discussed a class of densities useful in life-test analyses formed by taking the product of nonnegative polynomials and normal densities, and termed these distributions as polynomial-normal distributions. A polynomial-normal density function is of the form

$$\frac{C}{\theta} Q\left(\frac{x - \xi}{\theta}\right) Z\left(\frac{x - \xi}{\theta}\right), \quad \theta > 0,$$

where  $Z(\cdot)$  is the standard normal density function,  $Q(\cdot)$  is a nonnegative polynomial, and the normalizing constant  $C$  is given by

$$C = \left\{ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} Q(x) Z(x) dx \right\}^{-1}.$$

If  $Q(\cdot)$  is a polynomial of degree  $2m$ , the integration needed to determine  $C$  can be exactly evaluated by a Gauss-Hermite rule of order  $m + 1$ ; in this case,

$$C^{-1} = \sum_{i=1}^{m+1} w_i Q(x_i)$$

where the  $w$ , and  $x$ , are the Gauss-Hermite weights and points, respectively. Similarly, the  $r$ th moment about zero can be evaluated exactly by a Gauss-Hermite rule of order  $[(r + 2m + 1)/2]$ . Observing that this family provides a rich class of distributions that can be used in modeling when faced with non-normal characteristics such as skewness and multimodality, Evans and Swartz (1994) have discussed some inference procedures for these distributions.

Creedy and Martin (1994) have used a generalized gamma distribution as a model of the distribution of prices. The probability density function of this distribution is

$$p_X(x) = \exp\{\theta_1 \log x + \theta_2 x + \theta_3 x^2 + \theta_4 x^3 - \eta\}, \quad x > 0.$$

The normalizing constant  $\eta$  needs to be determined numerically. This generalized gamma distribution includes many well-known distributions as special cases. For example, the case  $\theta_1 = \theta_3 = \theta_4 = 0$  gives an exponential distribution, the case  $\theta_2 = \theta_4 = 0$  gives a Rayleigh distribution, and the case  $\theta_3 = \theta_4 = 0$  yields a gamma distribution. In addition, this distribution is related to the generalized gamma distribution of McDonald (1984) and also to the generalized lognormal distribution discussed by Lye and Martin (1993).



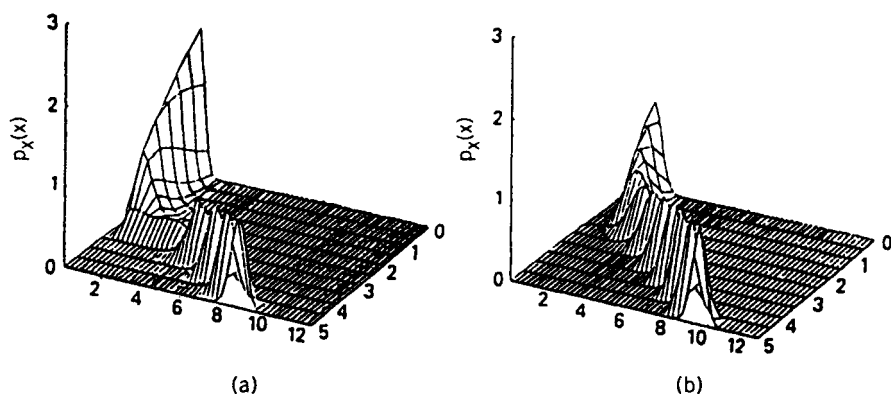


Figure 33.5 Two generalized gamma densities of Creedy and Martin.

Two plots of Creedy and Martin's generalized gamma densities are presented in Fig. 33.5.

$$(a) \quad p_X(x) = \exp\{6 \log x - 11x + \theta_3 x^2 - (x^3/3) - \eta\}$$

$$(b) \quad p_X(x) = \exp\{6 \log x - 5x + \theta_3 x^2 - (x^3/3) - \eta\}$$

Sobolev (1994) introduced the following family of life distributions, termed  $q-r$  distributions, and investigated its properties as well as estimation procedures:

$$p(x; p, q, r) = |q| \frac{p^q x^{q-1}}{\Gamma(1 + \frac{1}{2}qr)} e^{-(px)^{2/r}}, \quad x \geq 0,$$

where  $p$  is a scale parameter. He considered the following cases: 1.  $q, r > 0$ ; 2.  $q, r > 0$  and  $r \rightarrow 0$ ; 3.  $q, r < 0$ ; and 4.  $q, r < 0$  and  $|r| \rightarrow 0$ . Case 2 yields

$$p(x) = qp^q x^{q-1}, \quad 0 \leq x \leq \frac{1}{p} \quad (\text{power function})$$

while Case 4 yields

$$p(x) = qp^q x^{-q-1}, \quad p \leq x \leq \infty \quad (\text{Pareto})$$

Values of  $(q, r)$  equal to  $(-\frac{1}{2}, -2)$ ,  $(1, 0)$ ,  $(1, 1)$ ,  $(2, 1)$ ,  $(3, 1)$ ,  $(2, 2)$  and  $(\frac{2}{r}, r)$  correspond respectively to stable Levy, rectangular, folded normal, Rayleigh, Maxwell, exponential, and Weibull distributions. Note the resemblance with the generalized distributions of McDonald (see Chapter 27) and with the generalizations of the gamma distribution (see Chapter 17). The modified Laplace transform of the Sobolev family

$$\int_0^\infty p(x) \exp\{-(sx)^{2/r}\} dx = p \left[ (p^{2/r} + s^{2/r})^{r/2} \right]^{-q}$$

for Case 1, and similarly for the other cases it is of the form  $\psi^q$ ,  $\psi$  being a function of the remaining parameters.

### 3 BIRNBAUM-SAUNDERS DISTRIBUTIONS AND TRANSFORMATIONS

In this section we will consider some other distributions that have been suggested to represent lifetime based on more or less realistic conjectures about the mechanism leading to conclusion of a "life." This treatment is far from exhaustive.

We have already discussed a number of simple transformations of normal variables in Chapter 12, from the viewpoint of construction of general systems of distributions. Birnbaum and Saunders (1968a) were led to a discussion of the distribution of

$$T = \beta \left[ \frac{1}{2} U \alpha + \sqrt{\left( \frac{1}{2} U \alpha \right)^2 + 1} \right]^2 \quad (33.14)$$

(where  $\beta$  and  $\alpha$  are positive parameters and  $U$  is a unit normal variable) from a model representing time to failure of material subjected to a cyclically repeated stress pattern. They supposed that the  $j$ th cycle leads to an increase  $X_j$  in length of a "crack" and that the sum  $\sum_{j=1}^n X_j$  is approximately normally distributed with expected value  $n\mu_0$  and standard deviation  $\sigma_0\sqrt{n}$ . Then the probability that the crack does not exceed a critical length  $w$ , say, is

$$\Phi \left( \frac{\omega - n\mu_0}{\sigma_0\sqrt{n}} \right) = \Phi \left( \frac{\omega}{\sigma_0\sqrt{n}} - \frac{\mu_0\sqrt{n}}{\sigma_0} \right).$$

It was supposed that "failure" occurs when the crack length exceeds  $w$ . If  $T$  denotes the lifetime (in number of cycles) until failure, then the cdf of  $T$  is approximately

$$F_T(t) \doteq 1 - \Phi \left( \frac{\omega}{\sigma_0\sqrt{t}} - \frac{\mu_0\sqrt{t}}{\sigma_0} \right) = \Phi \left( \frac{\mu_0\sqrt{t}}{\sigma_0} - \frac{\omega}{\sigma_0\sqrt{t}} \right) \quad (33.15)$$

(it being assumed that probability of negative values of  $X_j$ 's can be neglected). If (33.15) is regarded as an exact equation, then it follows that

$$U = \frac{\mu_0\sqrt{T}}{\sigma_0} - \frac{\omega}{\sigma_0\sqrt{T}} \quad (33.16)$$

has a unit normal distribution. Equation (33.16) can be rewritten

$$T = \frac{\omega}{\mu_0} \left[ \frac{U\sigma_0}{2\sqrt{\omega\mu_0}} + \sqrt{\left( \frac{U\sigma_0}{2\sqrt{\omega\mu_0}} \right)^2 + 1} \right]^2, \quad (33.16)'$$

which is of the same form as (33.14), with

$$\beta = \frac{\omega}{\mu_0},$$

$$\alpha = \frac{\sigma_0}{\sqrt{\omega\mu_0}}. \quad (33.17)$$

Thus  $T$  has a Birnbaum-Saunders distribution if

$$\frac{1}{\alpha} \left( \sqrt{\frac{T}{\beta}} - \sqrt{\frac{\beta}{T}} \right) \quad (33.18)$$

has a unit normal distribution. Clearly  $cT$  ( $c > 0$ ) also has a Birnbaum-Saunders distribution, with parameters  $\beta c$  and  $a$  [Birnbaum and Saunders (1969)]. Also the distribution of  $T^{-1}$  is the same as that of  $T$ , with  $\beta$  replaced by  $\beta^{-1}$  and the parameter  $a$  unchanged in value.

From Eq. (33.18), Chang and Tang (1994a, b) recently proposed a simple random variate generation algorithm for the Birnbaum-Saunders distribution as follows: "Suppose  $Z$  is a standard normal variable and  $U$  is a uniform  $(0, 1)$  random variable. Let  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  be the roots of the quadratic equation

$$t^2 - \beta(2 + \alpha^2 z^2)t + \beta^2 = 0,$$

where  $z$  is a value of  $Z$ . Then, a Birnbaum-Saunders random variable with  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  as its shape and scale parameters, respectively, is given by

$$t_1 I_{(U > 0.5)} + t_2 I_{(U < 0.5)},$$

where  $I_{(A)}$  is the indicator function of event  $A$ . "Observe that the last step is along the lines of Michael, Schucany, and Haas (1976) ensuring that the conditional probability of selecting either of the two roots  $t_1$  and  $t_2$ , given that  $Z = z$ , is  $1/2$ .

The parameter  $\beta$  is simply a multiplier and does not affect the shape of the distribution of  $T$ . The moment ratios of  $T$  depend only on  $a$ , and the  $(\beta_1, \beta_2)$  points lie on a line. The situation is analogous to that for lognormal distributions [see Chapter 14, Eqs. (14.9)].

The expected value of  $(T/\beta)^r$  is

$$\begin{aligned}
 E\left[\left(\frac{T}{\beta}\right)^r\right] &= \sum_{j=0}^r \binom{2r}{2j} E\left[\left\{\left(\frac{1}{2}U\alpha\right)^2 + 1\right\}^j \left(\frac{1}{2}U\alpha\right)^{2(r-j)}\right] \\
 &= \sum_{j=0}^r \binom{2r}{2j} \sum_{i=0}^j \binom{j}{i} E[U^{2(r-j+i)}] \left(\frac{1}{2}\alpha\right)^{2(r-j+i)} \\
 &= \sum_{j=0}^r \binom{2r}{2j} \sum_{i=0}^j \binom{j}{i} \frac{[2(r-j+i)]!}{2^{r-j+i}(r-j+i)!} \left(\frac{1}{2}\alpha\right)^{2(r-j+i)}. \tag{33.19}
 \end{aligned}$$

Note that  $E[(\frac{1}{2}U\alpha)^s\{(\frac{1}{2}U\alpha)^2 + 1\}^j] = 0$  if  $s$  is odd. From (33.19) we find that

$$E[T] = \beta\left(\frac{1}{2}\alpha^2 + 1\right), \tag{33.20a}$$

$$\text{var}(T) = \beta^2\alpha^2\left(\frac{5}{4}\alpha^2 + 1\right), \tag{33.20b}$$

$$\beta_1(T) = \frac{16\alpha^2(11\alpha^2 + 6)}{(5\alpha^2 + 4)^3}, \tag{33.20c}$$

$$\beta_2(T) = 3 + \frac{6\alpha^2(93\alpha^2 + 41)}{(5\alpha^2 + 4)^2}. \tag{33.20d}$$

As  $\alpha$  tends to zero, the distribution tends to normality. The ratio

$$\frac{\beta_2(T) - 3}{\beta_1(T)}$$

is remarkably stable, varying between 2.88 (as  $\alpha \rightarrow \infty$ ) and 3.42 (as  $\alpha \rightarrow 0$ ).

$T$  is a monotonically increasing function of  $U$ . The median of  $T$  corresponds to  $U = 0$  and is equal to  $\beta$ . Since

$$(U + \sqrt{U^2 + 1})^{-1} = (-U) + \sqrt{(-U)^2 + 1},$$

it follows that the relation

$$T_\alpha T_{1-\alpha} = \beta^2 \tag{33.21}$$

holds between the lower and upper  $100\alpha\%$  points of the distribution of  $T$ .

The average hazard rate  $\nu(t) = (1/t) \int_0^t h(s) ds$  of the Birnbaum-Saunders distribution approaches a constant as  $t \rightarrow \infty$ . This rate is nearly **non-decreasing**. Mann, Schafer, and Singpurwalla (1974) provide graphs of the density and the corresponding  $\nu(t)$ . A comparison between the hazard rates of the Birnbaum-Saunders and the lognormal distributions is given in Nelson (1990). While the hazard rate of Birnbaum-Saunders is zero at  $t = 0$ , then increases to a maximum for some  $t_0$  and finally decreases to a finite value, the hazard rate of the lognormal distribution decreases to zero (see Chapter 14, Section 1).

An alternative expression for the Birnbaum-Saunders distribution prevalent in the literature is

$$F_T(t; \alpha, \beta) = \Phi \left[ \frac{1}{\alpha} \xi \left( \frac{t}{\beta} \right) \right], \quad t > 0, \quad (33.21)'$$

where  $\xi(t) = t^{1/2} - t^{-1/2}$  and  $\Phi(\cdot)$  is the standard normal cumulative distribution function. [See also the remarks made after Eq. (33.22).]

The pdf of T is

$$p_T(t; \alpha, \beta) = \frac{\exp(\alpha^{-2})}{2\alpha\sqrt{2\pi\beta}} t^{-3/2} (t + \beta) \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2\alpha^2} \left( \frac{t}{\beta} + \frac{\beta}{t} \right) \right\},$$

$$t > 0; \alpha, \beta > 0. \quad (33.22)$$

The alternative expression for the probability density function corresponding to (33.21)' is

$$p_T(t; \alpha, \beta) = (\alpha\beta)^{-1} (2\pi)^{-1/2} \xi' \left( \frac{t}{\beta} \right) \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2\alpha^2} \xi^2 \left( \frac{t}{\beta} \right) \right\},$$

$$t > 0, \quad \alpha > 0, \quad \beta > 0. \quad (33.22)'$$

Desmond (1985, 1986) noted that this distributional form, derived by Birnbaum and Saunders (1969), had been previously obtained by Freundenthal and Shinozuka (1961) with a somewhat different parametrization.

He observed that this model is based on the following assumptions about the "fatigue" process:

1. Fatigue failure is due to repeated application of a common cyclic stress pattern.
2. Under the influence of this cyclic stress a dominant crack in the material grows until a critical size  $w$  is reached at which point fatigue failure occurs.
3. The crack extensions in each cycle are random variables with the same mean and variance.
4. The crack extensions in each cycle are statistically independent.
5. The total extension of the crack, after a large number of cycles, is approximately normally distributed by the central limit theorem.

It was noted above that the crack length is assumed to be normally distributed in Birnbaum and Saunders' original derivation, so it can, in principle, take on negative values with nonzero probability. This possibility is ignored in the derivation. Desmond (1985) provided a more general derivation of the Birnbaum-Saunders distribution without assuming normality for the distribution of crack length:

1. A variety of distributions for crack size (many of which are on the positive real line) are possible which still result in a Birnbaum-Saunders distribution for the fatigue failure time.
2. It is possible to allow the crack increment in a given cycle to depend on the total crack size at the beginning of the cycle and still obtain a fatigue life distribution of the Birnbaum-Saunders type.

Desmond (1985) also derived the Birnbaum-Saunders distribution, using a biological model due to Cramér (1946, p. 219) of which the "law of proportional effects" [see, e.g., Mann, Schafer, and Singpurwalla (1974)] is a special case. He points out that the application of Cramér's argument in the fatigue context leads to a Birnbaum-Saunders type distribution, rather than a lognormal distribution, as suggested by Birnbaum and Saunders (1969) and Mann, Schafer, and Singpurwalla (1974).

He further provided failure models in random environments described by stationary continuous-time Gaussian processes, for which the Birnbaum-Saunders distribution is appropriate. These include failure due to the response process being above a fixed level for too long a period of time. The damage in an excursion above the fixed level is related to the so-called  $Z_n$ -exceedance measures of Cramér and Leadbetter (1967). (The case  $n = 1$  corresponds to using areas cut off by the process above the fixed level of measures of damage.) Fatigue failure may also be due to the stress history, that is proportional to the response of a lightly damped single degree of freedom oscillator excited by stationary Gaussian white noise. All of these models lead to distributions of the Birnbaum-Saunders type. Sető, Iwase, and Oohara (1993), analyzing the rainfall characteristics of the city of Hiroshima, reached the conclusion that for these data the distribution of periods of continuous rainfall is best fitted by a Birnbaum-Saunders distribution with a cdf of form (33.15). Their analysis employs a so-called Tsukatani-Shigemitsu test which is based on the  $(\delta_2, \delta_3)$  chart where

$$\delta_2 = \frac{\mu_2}{(\mu'_1)^2} \quad (33.23a)$$

and

$$\delta_3 = \frac{\mu_3}{\mu'_1 \mu_2}, \quad (33.23b)$$

$\mu_i$  being the  $i$ th moment about the mean  $\mu'_1$  ( $i = 2, 3$ ). For the distribution (33.22), these parameters are functions of  $\alpha^2$  only:

$$\delta_2 = \frac{5\alpha^4 + 4\alpha^2}{(\alpha^2 + 2)^2}, \quad (33.24a)$$

$$\delta_3 = \frac{44\alpha^4 + 24\alpha^2}{(5\alpha^2 + 4)(\alpha^2 + 2)}. \quad (33.24b)$$

Saunders and Birnbaum (1969) have proposed the following methods for calculating maximum likelihood estimators of the parameters. The maximum likelihood estimator of  $\beta$  is the unique positive root of

$$\hat{\beta}^2 - \hat{\beta}\{2H + K(\hat{\beta})\} + H\{\bar{T} + K(\hat{\beta})\} = 0, \quad (33.25)$$

where

$$\bar{T} = n^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^n T_j,$$

$$H = \left[ n^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^n T_j^{-1} \right]^{-1},$$

$$K(\hat{\beta}) = \left[ n^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^n (\hat{\beta} + T_j)^{-1} \right]^{-1}.$$

[See also Achcar (1993).] Having calculated  $\hat{\beta}$ , the maximum likelihood estimator  $\hat{\alpha}$  of  $\alpha$  can be obtained directly from the formula

$$\hat{\alpha} = 2 \left[ \frac{1}{2} (\bar{T}\hat{\beta}^{-1} + H^{-1}\hat{\beta}) - 1 \right]^{1/2}. \quad (33.26)$$

As an initial value to use in the iterative solution of (33.25), the "mean mean"

$$(\bar{T}H)^{1/2} = \left\{ \left( \sum_{i=1}^n T_i \right) \left( \sum_{i=1}^n T_i^{-1} \right)^{-1} \right\}^{1/2} \quad (33.27)$$

is suggested. It is further shown that if

$$2\bar{T} < 3H + \min(T_1, T_2, \dots, T_n),$$

the Newton-Raphson iteration method will converge to  $\hat{\beta}$  (for any initial

value between  $\bar{T}$  and  $H$ ). If  $2H > \bar{T}$ , then iterative calculation of

$$H + \frac{1}{2}K(\hat{\beta}) - \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}[K(\hat{\beta})]^2 - H(\bar{T} - H)}$$

will converge to  $\hat{\beta}$ .

The "mean mean,"  $(\bar{TH})^{1/2}$ , referred to above, has approximate variance (for  $n$  large)

$$n^{-1} \left[ \frac{1}{8} (1 + \frac{3}{8}\alpha^2) (1 + \frac{1}{4}\alpha^2)^{-1} \beta^2 \alpha^2 \right]. \tag{33.28}$$

The expected value is approximately

$$\beta \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{4} (1 + \frac{3}{8}\alpha^2) (1 + \frac{1}{4}\alpha^2)^{-1} \alpha^2 n^{-1} \right].$$

For  $\alpha < \sqrt{2}$  it is suggested that  $(\bar{TH})^{1/2}$  can be used in place of the maximum likelihood estimator of  $\beta$ .

Ahmad (1988) noted that while the "mean-mean" estimator is asymptotically unbiased, it does have a positive bias in finite size samples. He suggested the following jackknife estimator, based on a random sample  $T_1, \dots, T_n$  of size  $n = mg$  ( $m$  and  $g$  being integers). Divide the sample into  $m$  groups  $B_1, \dots, B_m$  of size  $g$  each and calculate

$$\beta_i^* = \frac{\sum_{(i)} T_j}{\sum_{(i)} T_j^{-1}}, \tag{33.29}$$

where  $\sum_{(i)}$  denotes summation over all  $j = 1, \dots, n$  except  $j = i$  ( $i = 1, \dots, m$ ). The jackknife estimator is

$$\beta^* = m\beta_0^* - (1 - m^{-1}) \sum_{i=1}^m \beta_i^*, \tag{33.30}$$

where

$$\beta_0^* = \left( \frac{\sum_{j=1}^n T_j}{\sum_{j=1}^n T_j^{-1}} \right)^{1/2} \quad [\text{the "mean mean;" see (33.27)}].$$

Ahmad (1988) also showed that  $\beta^*$ , as defined in (33.30), is a consistent estimator of  $\beta$  (as is also the mean-mean estimator). He evaluated the mean square errors of both estimators, concluding that  $\beta^*$  has the smaller error, although both have the same limiting distribution.



An alternative approach, based on the idea of equating first moments, leads to a simple estimator. Since  $\alpha^{-1}\{(T/\beta)^{1/2} - (\beta/T)^{1/2}\}$  has a unit normal distribution [see (33.18)],

$$E\left[\left(\frac{T}{\beta}\right)^{1/2} - \left(\frac{\beta}{T}\right)^{1/2}\right] = 0.$$

Equating the observed average value

$$n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \left[ \left(\frac{T_i}{\beta}\right)^{1/2} - \left(\frac{\beta}{T_i}\right)^{1/2} \right]$$

to zero, we obtain the estimator

$$\beta' = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n T_i^{1/2}}{\sum_{i=1}^n T_i^{-1/2}} \quad [\text{cf. (33.27)}]. \quad (33.31)$$

Corresponding to any estimator  $\beta_e$ , say, of  $\beta$  it is natural to use the "moment estimator" of  $\alpha$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_e &= \left[ n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \left\{ \left(\frac{T_i}{\beta_e}\right)^{1/2} - \left(\frac{\beta_e}{T_i}\right)^{1/2} \right\}^2 \right]^{1/2} \\ &= \left\{ n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \beta_e^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n T_i + \beta_e \sum_{i=1}^n T_i^{-1} \right) - 2 \right\}^{1/2}. \end{aligned} \quad (33.32)$$

Note that, if the value of  $\beta$  is known, the statistic obtained by replacing  $\beta_e$  by  $\beta$  in (33.32) is a maximum likelihood estimator of  $\alpha$ , distributed as  $\alpha\chi_n/\sqrt{n}$ .

Comparing (33.22) with Eq. (15.4a) of Chapter 15 (and reparametrizing the latter with  $\mu = \beta$ ,  $A = \beta\alpha^{-2}$ ), we see that there is a clear relationship between the pdfs of Birnbaum-Saunders and inverse Gaussian distributions. In fact the Birnbaum-Saunders pdf (33.22) is a mixture (with equal weights) of the inverse Gaussian  $IG(\beta, \beta\alpha^{-2})$  pdf and the pdf of the reciprocal  $IG(\beta, \beta^{-1}\alpha^2)$  of this variable. This result was noted by Desmond (1985, 1986), and by Jørgensen, Seshadri, and Whitmore (1991), who have noted that the Birnbaum-Saunders distribution belongs to a two-parameter exponential family [contrary to the opinion of Bhattacharyya and Fries (1982)], but it is not an exponential dispersion model.

Engelhardt, Bain, and Wright (1981) point out that the pdf (33.22) satisfies regularity conditions that ensure that the maximum likelihood estimators

$(\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta})$  of  $(a, \beta)$  have a joint asymptotically bivariate normal distribution with mean  $(a, \beta)$  and asymptotic variance-covariance matrix

$$\|nB_{ij}(\alpha, \beta)\|^{-1}, \quad i = 1, 2, j = 1, 2, \tag{33.33}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} B_{11}(\alpha, \beta) &= 2\alpha^{-2}, \\ B_{12}(\alpha, \beta) &= B_{21}(\alpha, \beta) = 0, \\ B_{22}(\alpha, \beta) &= \beta^{-2}\left\{\frac{1}{4} + \alpha^{-2} + I(\alpha)\right\} \end{aligned}$$

with

$$I(\alpha) = 2 \int_0^\infty \left[ \{1 + \xi^{-1}(\alpha z)\}^{-1} - \frac{1}{2} \right]^2 \phi(z) dz, \quad \phi(z) = \Phi'(z),$$

where, as before,  $\xi(t) = t^{1/2} - t^{-1/2}$ . Engelhardt, Bain, and Wright (1981) utilized this result to construct large-sample inference procedures on  $a$  and  $\beta$ . The variable  $\sqrt{n}(\hat{\alpha}a^{-1} - 1)$  is approximately a pivotal statistic (has a parameter-free distribution) as also is  $n^{1/2}(\hat{\beta}\beta^{-1} - 1)\left\{\frac{1}{4} + \hat{\alpha}^{-2} - I(\hat{\alpha})\right\}^{-1/2}$ . Hence approximate independent  $100(1 - \varepsilon)\%$  confidence intervals

$$\left( \hat{\alpha} \left\{ 1 + (2n)^{-1/2} u_{1-\frac{\varepsilon}{2}} \right\}^{-1}, \hat{\alpha} \left\{ 1 + (2n)^{-1/2} u_{\frac{\varepsilon}{2}} \right\}^{-1} \right) \quad \text{for } a \tag{33.34a}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} &\left( \hat{\beta} \left[ 1 + n^{-1/2} \left\{ \left( 1 + \left( \frac{1}{4} + \hat{\alpha}^{-2} - I(\hat{\alpha}) \right)^{-1/2} u_{1-\frac{\varepsilon}{2}} \right\} \right]^{-1}, \right. \\ &\quad \left. \hat{\beta} \left[ 1 + n^{-1/2} \left\{ 1 + \left( \frac{1}{4} + \hat{\alpha}^{-2} - I(\hat{\alpha}) \right)^{-1/2} u_{\frac{\varepsilon}{2}} \right\} \right]^{-1} \right) \quad \text{for } \beta, \tag{33.34b} \end{aligned}$$

can be constructed. Engelhardt, Bain, and Wright (1981) also discussed some asymptotic results.

Achcar (1993) has developed Bayesian estimation procedures based on two "noninformative" joint prior distributions for  $a$  and  $\beta$ , with the pdfs

$$p_{\alpha, \beta}(a, b) \propto (ab)^{-1}, \quad a, b > 0, \tag{33.35}$$

and

$$p_{\alpha, \beta}(a, b) \propto (ab)^{-1} \left( \frac{1}{4} + a^{-2} \right)^{1/2}, \quad a, b > 0. \tag{33.36}$$

(Both distributions are improper.) For (33.36) the joint posterior distribution

of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , given  $T = (T_1, \dots, T_n)$ , has the pdf

$$p_{\alpha, \beta}(a, b | \mathbf{T}) \propto a^{-(n+1)} b^{-(n/2)-1} \left(\frac{1}{4} + a^{-2}\right)^{1/2} \left\{ \prod_{i=1}^n (b + T_i) \right\} \\ \times \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} a^{-2} \left( b^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n T_i + b \sum_{i=1}^n T_i^{-1} - 2n \right) \right\}, \quad a, b > 0. \quad (33.37)$$

The corresponding pdf in case (33.35) is obtained by omitting the factor  $(\frac{1}{4} + a^{-2})^{1/2}$ .

The posterior density function of  $\beta$ , for case (33.35), is

$$p_{\beta}(b | \mathbf{T}) \propto b^{-(n/2)-1} \left\{ \prod_{j=1}^n (b + T_j) \right\} \left( b^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n T_i + b \sum_{i=1}^n T_i^{-1} - 2n \right)^{-n/2}. \quad (33.38)$$

For the case (33.36) Achcar (1993) obtained an *approximate* formula for  $p_{\beta}(b | \mathbf{T})$  by multiplying the right-hand side of (33.38) by

$$\left\{ 4 + (n+2)^{-1} \left( b^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n T_i + b \sum_{i=1}^n T_i^{-1} - 2n \right) \right\}^{1/2}. \quad (33.39)$$

The posterior density of  $\alpha$  is of simpler form, being proportional to

$$a^{-n} \exp \left[ -na^{-2} \left\{ \left( \sum_{i=1}^n T_i \right)^{1/2} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n T_i^{-1} \right)^{-1/2} - 1 \right\} \right], \quad a > 0, \quad (33.40)$$

for case (33.35), and *approximately* proportional to

$$a^{-(n+1)} \left(\frac{1}{4} + a^{-2}\right)^{1/2} \exp \left[ -na^{-2} \left\{ \left( \sum_{i=1}^n T_i \right)^{1/2} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n T_i^{-1} \right)^{-1/2} - 1 \right\} \right], \\ a > 0, \quad (33.41)$$

for case (33.36). If  $\beta$  is known, Achcar (1993) suggested using a prior gamma distribution (Chapter 17) for  $\alpha^{-2}$ . This had been discussed by Padgett (1982) in connection with Bayesian estimation of the reliability function corresponding to (33.22). Padgett also discussed use of an improper prior for  $\alpha$ , with  $p_{\alpha}(a)$  proportional to  $a^{-1}$ .

If  $T$  is distributed as (33.22), and  $Y = \log T$  (i.e.,  $T = e^Y$ ), then

$$\alpha^{-1} (\beta^{-1/2} e^{Y/2} - \beta^{1/2} e^{-Y/2}) = 2\alpha^{-1} \sinh \left\{ \frac{1}{2} (Y - \gamma) \right\},$$

where  $\gamma = \log \beta$ , has a unit normal distribution. This is a special case ( $\sigma = 2$ ) of the *sinh-normal* distribution [denoted  $\text{SN}(\alpha, \gamma, \sigma)$ ] introduced by Rieck and Nedelman (1991) as the distribution of  $Z$  if

$$2\alpha^{-1} \sinh\left\{\frac{1}{2}(Z - \gamma)/\sigma\right\}$$

has a unit normal distribution.

The pdf of  $Z$  is

$$p_Z(z) = 2(\alpha\sigma\sqrt{2\pi})^{-1} \cosh\left\{\frac{z - \gamma}{\sigma}\right\} \exp\left[-2\alpha^{-2} \sinh^2\left\{\frac{z - \gamma}{\sigma}\right\}\right]. \quad (33.42)$$

Rieck and Nedelman (1991) noted that  $\text{SN}(\alpha, \gamma, \sigma)$  distributions have the following properties:

1. The distribution is symmetric about the location parameter  $\gamma$ .
2. The distribution is strongly unimodal for  $\alpha \leq 2$  and bimodal for  $\alpha > 2$ .
3. The mean and variance are given by  $E[Z] = \gamma$  and  $\text{var}(Z) = \sigma^2 \omega(\alpha)$ , where  $\omega(\alpha)$  is the variance when  $\sigma = 1$ . There is no closed-form expression for  $\omega(\alpha)$ , but Rieck (1989) provided asymptotic approximations to it for small and large  $\alpha$ .
4. If  $Z_\alpha \sim \text{SN}(\alpha, \gamma, \sigma)$ , then  $S_\alpha = 2(Z_\alpha - \gamma)/\sigma$  converges in distribution to the standard normal distribution as  $\alpha$  approaches 0.

Rieck and Nedelman (1991) discussed maximum likelihood and least-squares estimation of the model

$$Y_i = \mathbf{x}'_i \boldsymbol{\theta} + Z_i, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n, \quad (33.43)$$

where  $Z_i \sim \text{SN}(\alpha, 0, 2)$ ,  $\mathbf{x}'_i = (x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots, x_{ip})$  are  $p$  explanatory variables and  $\boldsymbol{\theta}' = (\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_p)$  is a vector of unknown parameters to be estimated. The MLE of  $\alpha^2$  is given by

$$\hat{\alpha}^2 = \left(\frac{4}{n}\right) \sum_{i=1}^n \sinh^2\left[\frac{Y_i - \mathbf{x}'_i \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}}{2}\right], \quad (33.44)$$

where  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$  is the MLE for the vector  $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ . A numerical procedure must be used to determine  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$ . The asymptotic variance of  $\hat{\alpha}^2$  is  $\hat{\alpha}^2/(2n)$ , and the vector  $n^{1/2}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\eta}} - \boldsymbol{\eta})$  [where  $\boldsymbol{\eta} = (\boldsymbol{\theta}, \alpha^2)$ ] converges in distribution to a multinormal with expected value vector  $\mathbf{0}$ .

The bimodality of the *sinh-normal* density when  $\alpha > 2$  can cause multiple maxima of the likelihood. Rieck (1989) provided an example with three least-squares solutions to the likelihood equations; two solutions were maxima, and the third a saddle point.

Experience with aircraft-engine data indicates that the case  $\alpha > 2$  is unusual in practice, and Rieck (1989) showed that if  $\alpha < 2$  the MLE of 0 is

Table 33.1 Least-squares efficiency for values of  $\alpha$ 

$\alpha$	Efficiency	Monte Carlo Results ( $p = 2$ )			
		$\theta_1$		$\theta_2$	
		$n = 10$	$n = 20$	$n = 10$	$n = 20$
0.5	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00
1.5	0.81	0.88	0.84	0.89	0.84

unique if  $X' \equiv (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$  has rank  $p$ . Rieck and Nedelman (1991) also investigate a "reduced biased MLE" estimator of  $\alpha$  given by

$$\alpha^2 = [n / \{n - pA(\hat{\alpha})\}] \hat{\alpha}^2, \quad (33.45)$$

where

$$A(\alpha) = 2(2 + \alpha^2)(4 + \alpha^2)^{-1}$$

for small  $\alpha$ . The relative error for values of  $\alpha$  less than 0.5 is less than 0.3%;  $A(\alpha)$  approaches 2 as  $\alpha$  approaches infinity. The authors also investigated least-squares estimation of model (33.43). They found that the least-squares estimator (LSE) of  $\theta$  is not as efficient as the MLE but provides an unbiased estimator for  $\theta$  and that it is highly efficient for small values of  $\alpha$ , as indicated in Table 33.1 (for  $p = 2$ ), based on simulations that compare small-sample relative efficiency of LSE and MLE. The LSE of  $\beta$  is given by the classical equation:

$$\tilde{\beta} = (X'X)^{-1}X'Y,$$

where  $Y$  is the column vector of the observations ( $Y_i$ 's) and  $X$  is as previously defined.

Achcar and Espinosa (1993) have discussed Bayesian estimation for model (33.43) when the  $Z$ 's have a Birnbaum-Saunders distribution.

Chang and Tang (1994) have discussed the construction of confidence intervals for the 100 $p^{\text{th}}$  percentile of the Birnbaum-Saunders distribution, and then the determination of conservative two-sided tolerance limits using these confidence limits. These authors have also described how these results could be used for the reliability evaluation when using the Birnbaum-Saunders model.

Chaudhry and Ahmad (1993) have recently introduced a distribution with the pdf

$$p_T(t) = 2\sqrt{\frac{\alpha}{\pi}} \exp\left[-(t\sqrt{\alpha} - t^{-1}\sqrt{\beta})^2\right], \quad \alpha, \beta > 0, t > 0. \quad (33.46)$$

The mode is at  $t = (\beta/\alpha)^{1/4}$ . This is, in fact, the distribution of  $1/\sqrt{Y}$ , when  $Y$  has an inverse Gaussian distribution.

Ahmad and Chaudhry (1993) have exploited this relationship inter alia to obtain the characterization that given  $T_1, \dots, T_n$  independent and identically distributed, such that  $E\{T^r\}$  exists for  $r = -4, -2$ , and  $2$ , and that  $\{E\{T^{-2}\}\}^{-1}$  exists, a necessary and sufficient condition for  $\sum_{i=1}^n T_i^{-2}$  and  $\sum_{i=1}^n T_i^2 - n^2(\sum_{i=1}^n T_i^{-1})^{-1}$  to have distribution (33.46) is that they be independent. Compare these with characterizations of the inverse Gaussian distribution presented in Chapter 15.

## 4 ORDERING AND CLASSIFICATION OF DISTRIBUTIONS

### 4.1 Basic Definitions and Bounds

In this section we will only discuss ordering among independent random variables, although the general topic was initiated, to a large extent, in a classical paper of Lehmann (1966) (and independently in the pioneering work of van Zwet in 1964) where it was associated with dependence properties of two (or more) random variables. (This aspect will find a place in our planned volume on *multivariate* distributions.)

It should be emphasized here that the number of various classifications and orderings of distributions is legion. Many of them are only loosely coordinated and a certain amount of confusion and duplication is inevitable. A systematic ordering and classification of various orderings is very much needed, perhaps utilizing modern computer facilities. The books by Pečarić, Proschan, and Tong (1992) and Shaked and Shanthikumar (1994), mentioned in the beginning of this chapter, are useful contributions in this direction.

An original aim of development of some of these orderings was to replace overreliance on moment functions—standard deviations, skewness ( $\sqrt{\beta_1}$ ), and kurtosis ( $\beta_2$ ), for example—as measures to be used in comparing distributions. However, it might also be said that there has been an unnecessary proliferation of varieties of ordering, many of doubtful practical value. We have attempted to give a reasonably comprehensive overview of the relatively well-established types of ordering, but it is quite likely that more or less ingenious further kinds will have been developed by the time of publication. We have endeavored to reproduce faithfully the ideas and concepts current in this field but have often not provided thorough critical evaluation.

There is an immense (and occasionally overlapping) literature on ordering, so, once again, we are compelled to be selective in our discussion of references here (we give an additional few at the end of the chapter) and even of basic concepts.

Ordering of life distributions with respect to aging properties has been a popular and fruitful area of investigation during the last 30 years. The discussion in Section 7.2 of Chapter 33 of the first edition of this volume ("Distributions Classified by Hazard Rate") dealt only with IHR (DHR) and IHRA (DHRA) criteria of aging. In the more recent literature it has been fashionable to use slightly different terminology. For completeness, we will

provide eight classes of life distributions based on aging concepts and related orderings. **Although** these definitions are valid for distributions on the whole real line, they are usually restricted to life distributions with  $F_X(0) = 0$ .

As indicated in Section 2 of this chapter [see Eq. (33.1)] the *failure rate* (referred therein as hazard rate) function is

$$r_{(F)}(x) = -\frac{d}{dx} \log\{1 - F_X(x)\} = p_X(x)\{1 - F_X(x)\}^{-1} = \frac{p_X(x)}{\bar{F}_X(x)}, \quad (33.47)$$

where  $\bar{F}_X(x) = 1 - F_X(x)$  is the *survivor function*.

The definitions of orderings also use the *mean residual lifetime*

$$\mu_{(F)}(x) = E[X - x | X > x] = \frac{\int_x^\infty \bar{F}_X(t) dt}{\bar{F}_X(x)}. \quad (33.48)$$

In the definitions below the subscript  $X$  is omitted. The subscript  $X$  will also often be omitted later.

1.  $F(x)$  is said to be an *increasing failure rate (IFR)* distribution if  $-\log \bar{F}(x)$  is convex. If the density exists, this is equivalent to saying that  $r_{(F)}(x)$  is nondecreasing.
2.  $F(x)$  is said to be an *increasing failure rate average (IFRA)* distribution if  $-\log \bar{F}(x)$  is a star-shaped function, namely, if  $-\log \bar{F}(\lambda x) \leq -\lambda \log \bar{F}(x)$  for  $0 < \lambda < 1$  and  $x \geq 0$ . When the failure rate exists, this is equivalent to saying that  $\nu(x) = \int_0^x r_{(F)}(t) dt / x$  is nondecreasing.
3.  $F(x)$  is said to be a *new better than used (NBU)* distribution if  $-\log \bar{F}(x)$  is superadditive, namely, if  $-\log \bar{F}(x + y) \geq -\log \bar{F}(x) - \log \bar{F}(y)$ ,  $x, y \geq 0$ . This is equivalent to the statement  $\Pr[X > x + y | X > x] \leq \Pr[X > y]$ .
4.  $F(x)$  is said to be a *decreasing mean residual life (DMRL)* distribution if  $\mu_{(F)}(x)$  is nonincreasing.
5.  $F(x)$  is said to be a *new better than used in expectation (NBUE)* distribution if  $\mu_{(F)}(x) \leq \mu_{(F)}(0)$ ,  $x \geq 0$ .
6.  $F(x)$  is said to be a *harmonic new better than used in expectation (HNBUE)* distribution if  $\int_x^\infty \bar{F}(t) dt \leq \mu_{(F)}(x) \exp\{-x/\mu_{(F)}(x)\}$ ,  $x \geq 0$ .
7. For absolutely continuous  $F(x)$ , with failure rate  $r_{(F)}(x)$ , we say that  $F(x)$  is a *new better than used in failure rate (NBUFR)* distribution if  $r_{(F)}(x) \geq r_{(F)}(0)$ ,  $x \geq 0$ .
8. For absolutely continuous  $F(x)$ , we say that  $F(x)$  is a *new better than used in failure rate average (NBUFRA)* distribution if

$$r_{(F)}(0) \leq \frac{1}{x} \int_0^x r_{(F)}(t) dt = \frac{-\log \bar{F}(x)}{x}.$$

Further classes can be defined by replacing **B** (better) by **W** (worse), with appropriate changes in the signs of inequalities. Hazard (**H**) can replace failure (**F**) in the definitions.

The NBU class [3 above] was extended by Hollander, Park, and Proschan (1986) to a **NBU**- $t_0$  class, defined as follows: A life distribution  $F(x)$  is NBU of age  $t_0$  (**NBU**- $t_0$ ) if

$$\bar{F}(x + t_0) \leq \bar{F}(x)\bar{F}(t_0) \quad \text{for all } x \geq 0. \quad (33.49)$$

The dual **NWU**- $t_0$  class is defined analogously, reversing the inequality (33.49).

The **NBU**- $t_0$  includes the NBU class, and the **NWU**- $t_0$  includes the **NWU** class. There is a detailed discussion in Hollander et al. (1986). For more discussion of **IFRA**, **HNBUE** (**HNWUE**), **NBUE** (**NWUE**), and related classes, we refer the reader to Alzaid, Ahmed, and Al-Osh (1987), Block and Savits (1976), Bondesson (1983), Cao and Wang (1990), Klefsjö (1982a, b), and Mehrotra (1981), and there are many others.

As indicated in 1, distributions with increasing hazard rate (**IHR** distributions) and with decreasing hazard rate (**DHR** distributions) are those distributions for which  $r_{(F)}(x)$  is an increasing or decreasing function of  $x$ , respectively. The exponential distribution, with a constant hazard rate, is a natural boundary between these two classes. The half-normal (chi with one degree of freedom) distribution is a **DHR** distribution. The Weibull distribution [see (21.1), Chapter 21] is **IHR** if  $c > 1$ , and **DHR** if  $c < 1$ .

Barlow and Marshall (1964, 1965, 1967) gave bounds on the cdfs for **IHR** and **DHR** distributions. Some of these bounds are provided in Table 33.2. These bounds can be compared with the well-known Chebyshev-type bounds, which are summarized for convenience in Table 33.3. A few references

**Table 33.2** Bounds on distributions classified by hazard rates

Conditions	Values of $x$	Limits on $1 - F(x)$
<b>IHR</b>	$x \geq \mu_r^{1/r}$	$1 - F(x) \leq w(x)$ , where $\mu'_r = rx^r \int_0^1 t^{r-1} [w(x)]^t dt,$ i.e., $A_r = (-x/\log w(x))^r (\Gamma_{-\log w(x)}(r)/\Gamma(r))$
<b>DHR</b>	$x \leq \mu_r^{1/r}$ $x \leq r\lambda_r^{1/r}$ $x \geq r\lambda_r^{1/r}$	$1 - F(x) \geq \exp(-x/\lambda_r^{1/r})$ $1 - F(x) \geq \exp(-x/\lambda_r^{1/r})$ $1 - F(x) \geq (rx/e)^r \lambda_r$
<b>IHRA</b>	$x < \mu_r^{1/r}$	$1 - F(x) \geq \exp(-bx)$ , where $b$ satisfies $\mu'_r = x^r(1 - e^{-bx}) + b \int_x^\infty t^r e^{-bt} dt$

Note:  $A_r = \mu'_r/\Gamma(r + 1)$ .

Barlow and Marshall (1967) gave limits for  $F(x_2) - F(x_1)$  for any  $x_2 > x_1 > 0$  for each of the above cases. For the case where  $r = 1$ , and when both the first and second moments are known, better, but considerably more complicated, inequalities are available in Barlow and Marshall (1964, 1965).



## 4.2 Reliability Classification of Orderings

From the classification described in the previous section, we have the following orderings (which overlap with other orderings introduced from different viewpoints by various authors):

1.  $F \stackrel{\text{IFR}}{<} G$  iff  $G^{-1}\{F(x)\}$  is convex [ $F(0) = G(0) = 0$  and  $G$  is strictly increasing on its support which is a single interval.] This is also equivalent to concex ordering denoted by  $F \stackrel{c}{<} G$ . When the densities exist, an equivalent formulation is

$$\frac{r_{(F)}(F^{-1}(u))}{r_{(G)}(G^{-1}(u))} \text{ is nondecreasing for } u \text{ in } [0, 1].$$

2.  $F \stackrel{\text{IFRA}}{<} G$  iff  $G^{-1}\{F(x)\}$  is star-shaped. This is equivalent to star-ordering and is also denoted  $F \stackrel{*}{<} G$ .
3.  $F$  is superadditive (*subadditive*) with respect to  $G$  [denoted  $F \stackrel{\text{su}}{<} G$  ( $F \stackrel{\text{su}}{<} G$ )] if

$$G^{-1}[F(x+y)] \geq (\leq) G^{-1}[F(x)] + G^{-1}[F(y)]$$

for all  $x$  and  $y$  in the support of  $F$ .

4.  $F \stackrel{\text{NBU}}{<} G$  iff  $G^{-1} * F(x)$  is superadditive. This is equivalent to *superad-*ditice ordering (see 3 above) and is also denoted as  $F \stackrel{\text{su}}{<} G$ . The relationships among these orderings are expressed by the following scheme of implications:

$$F \stackrel{\text{IFR(c)}}{<} G \Rightarrow F \stackrel{\text{IFRA}(*)}{<} G \Rightarrow F \stackrel{\text{NBU}(\text{su})}{<} G.$$

Kochar and Wiens (1987) and Kochar (1989) define a (*M*)DMRL (more decreasing in mean residual *life*) ordering [for distribution functions  $F$  on  $[0, \infty)$  with  $F(0) = 0$ ] as

$$F \stackrel{\text{DMRL}}{<} G \text{ if and only if}$$

$$\frac{\mu_{(F)}(F^{-1}(u))}{\mu_{(G)}(G^{-1}(u))} \text{ is nonincreasing for } u \text{ in } [0, 1].$$

If  $\bar{G}(x) = e^{-x}$ , then  $F \stackrel{\text{DMRL}}{<} G$  iff  $F$  is a DMRL distribution (see Definition 4 on page 664). Exponential distributions thus act as a reference point for DMRL relationship. The relation between IFR (convex) ordering and DMRL ordering is

$$F \stackrel{\text{IFR}}{<} G \Rightarrow F \stackrel{\text{DMRL}}{<} G.$$

5. Kochar and Wiens also introduce *NBUE* and *HNBUE* orderings (cf. definitions 5 and 6 in the preceding section), using the concept of the *equilibrium survival function*, defined as

$$\bar{F}_e(x) = \int_x^\infty \frac{\bar{F}(t)}{\mu_{(F)}(t)} dt. \tag{33.51}$$

The hazard rate of  $\bar{F}_e(x)$  is

$$\bar{r}_{(F_e)}(x) = \frac{\bar{F}_e(x)/\mu_{(F)}(x)}{\bar{F}_e(x)} \tag{33.52}$$

[Note that  $\bar{r}_{(F)}(x) = \{\mu_{(F)}(x)\}^{-1}$ .] Then

$$F \overset{NBUE}{<} G \quad \text{if and only if} \quad \frac{\bar{r}_{(F)}(F^{-1}(u))}{\bar{r}_{(G)}(G^{-1}(u))} \geq \frac{\mu_{(G)}(u)}{\mu_{(F)}(u)} \tag{33.53}$$

for all  $u$  in  $[0, 1]$ . Equivalently,

$$F \overset{NBUE}{<} G \quad \text{if and only if} \quad G_e^{-1} * F_e(x) \geq G^{-1} * F(x) \quad \text{for all } x \geq 0, \tag{33.53}'$$

where as above  $*$  denotes the convolution operator. Also

$$F \overset{HNBUE}{<} G \quad \text{if and only if} \quad \frac{G_e^{-1} * F_e(x)}{x} \geq \frac{d}{dx} G_e^{-1} * F_e(x) |_{x=0} \left( \equiv \frac{\mu_{(G)}(x)}{\mu_{(F)}(x)} \right) \quad \text{for all } x \geq 0, \tag{33.54}$$

or equivalently

$$F \overset{HNBUE}{<} G \quad \text{if and only if} \quad \bar{F}_e(x\mu_{(F)}(x)) \geq \bar{G}_e(x\mu_G(x)) \quad \text{for all } x \geq 0 \tag{33.54}'$$

In general,  $F \overset{NBU}{<} G$  does not imply  $F \overset{NBUE}{<} G$  [see Kochar and Wiens (1987) for a counterexample]. However,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{if } \bar{G}(x) = e^{-x}, \text{ then } F \overset{NBU}{<} G &\Rightarrow F \overset{NBUE}{<} G \\ \text{and also } F \overset{NBUE}{<} G &\Rightarrow F \overset{HNBUE}{<} G. \end{aligned}$$

Relations among DMRL, NBUE, and dispersive (tail) orderings (see Section 4.3) can be expressed in terms of equilibrium distribution functions. They are not particularly revealing [see Kochar (1989) for details].

Mitra and Basu (1994) introduced a family of life distributions, called the NWBUE (NBWUE) family, which includes the IDMRL class of distributions as well as all BFR distributions (see the definition on page 643). Their definition of this family of distributions is as follows: A life distribution  $F$  having support on  $[0, \infty)$  and finite mean is said to be *new worse than better than used in expectation* (NWBUE) (*new better than worse than used in expectation*, NBWUE) if there exists a point  $x_0 \geq 0$  such that the mean residual life time

$$\mu_{(F)}(x) \begin{cases} \geq (\leq) \mu_{(F)}(0) & \text{for } x < x_0 \\ \leq (\geq) \mu_{(F)}(0) & \text{for } x \geq x_0. \end{cases}$$

Point  $x_0$ , referred to as *change point* of the distribution function  $F$ , need not be unique. However, for a continuous distribution function  $F$ , the collection of all change points of an NWBUE (or NBWUE) distribution (say,  $C_{(F)}$ ) is either a singleton or a closed interval. It may be noted that a NWBUE (NBWUE) distribution is NBUE (NWUE) if  $0 \in C_{(F)}$  while it is NWUE (NBUE) if  $\infty \in C_{(F)}$ .

Mitra and Basu (1994) have established some inequalities and used them to derive bounds for moments of a NWBUE distribution.

A close relation between HNBUE and Lorenz ordering [Chapter 12, Eq. (12.8)] is worth noting. Recall that the Lorenz curve of  $F(x)$  is

$$L_F(u) = \mu_{(F)}(u) \int_0^u F^{-1}(s) ds, \quad 0 \leq u \leq 1, \quad (33.55)$$

and the Lorenz ordering is

$$F \leq_L G \quad \text{if and only if} \quad L_F(u) \geq L_G(u) \quad \text{for all } u \text{ in } (0, 1).$$

Kochar (1989) shows that

$$F \stackrel{\text{HNBUE}}{<} G \quad \text{if and only if} \quad F \leq_L G,$$

namely, the conditions

$$\bar{F}_e(x\mu_{(F)}(x)) \geq \bar{G}_e(x\mu_{(G)}(x))$$

and

$$\mu_{(F)}(u) \int_0^u F^{-1}(s) ds \geq \mu_{(G)}(u) \int_0^u G^{-1}(s) ds$$

are equivalent.

Another revealing property of HNBUE ordering is that if  $F \stackrel{\text{HNBUE}}{<} G$ , then the coefficient of variation of  $F$  is less than that of  $G$ . (Of course the converse is not universally true.) Arnold and Villaseñor (1985) show that Lorenz ordering is preserved under monotonic transformation  $g(x)$  if and only if

$$g(x) = ax, \quad a > 0, x \geq 0,$$

or

$$g(x) = b, \quad b > 0, x \geq 0,$$

or

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x = 0, \\ c, & c > 0, x > 0. \end{cases}$$

Arnold (1991) shows that the only functions  $g(X)$  for which

$$g(X) \leq_L X \quad \text{for all } X$$

are defined by

$$g(x) > 0 \quad \text{for all } x > 0,$$

and are monotonically nondecreasing for  $x \geq 0$ , while  $g(x)/x$  are monotonically nonincreasing for  $x > 0$ . Analogously

$$X \leq_L g(X) \quad \text{for all } X$$

is equivalent to

$$g(x) > 0 \quad \text{for all } x > 0 \text{ and is monotonically nondecreasing}$$

and

$$g(x)/x \text{ is monotonically nondecreasing for } x > 0.$$

Arnold and Villaseñor (1991) study Lorenz orderings among order statistics  $X_{1:n} \leq X_{2:n} \leq \dots \leq X_{n:n}$  from random samples of size  $n$  for several specific population distributions. For standard uniform distributions (see Chapter 26) they show that

$$X_{i+1:n} \leq_L X_{i:n} \leq_L X_{i:n-1} \quad (33.56a)$$

and also that

$$X_{n+2:2n+3} \leq_L X_{n+1:2n+1}. \quad (33.56b)$$

[Here we are modifying the notation used heretofore.  $X_{i:n}$ , for example, represents the cdf of  $X_{i:n}$ .]

Relationship (33.56b) also applies for *any* symmetric population distribution with finite range 0 to  $c$  ( $> 0$ ). These results also hold for power-function distributions (see Chapter 25) with the cdf

$$F_X(x) = \left(\frac{x}{c}\right)^a, \quad 0 \leq x \leq c, a > 0.$$

However, for Pareto distributions with the cdf

$$F_X(x) = 1 - \left(\frac{x}{c}\right)^{-a}, \quad c \leq x, a > 1,$$

we have

$$X_{i:n} \leq_L X_{i+1:n}, \quad (33.57a)$$

reversing part of (33.56a); we also have

$$X_{i:n} \leq_L X_{i+1:n+1}. \quad (33.57b)$$

### 4.3 Alternative Stochastic Classification of Orderings

An alternative classification of orderings (not specifically geared to life distributions) is presented below, starting with the natural but very rigid *stochastic* ordering—which turns out to be related to other types of ordering popularized in the literature on reliability [see, e.g., Barlow and Proschan (1975, 1981)]:

1. It is hard to ascertain when and where the concept of stochastic ordering was introduced into probability theory. One of the earliest references in statistical literature is van Zwet (1964). A natural definition for " $F$  is stochastically less than  $G$ " (denoted  $F \leq_{st} G$ ) would be

$$F(x) \geq G(x) \quad \text{for all } x.$$

However, a conventional definition is

$$E[h(X)|F_X(x) = F(x)] \leq E[h(X)|F_X(x) = G(x)] \quad \text{for all } x, \quad (33.58)$$

for all nondecreasing functions  $h(\cdot)$ .

2.  $F$  is less than (or equal to)  $G$  in hazard-rate sense ( $F \leq_{\text{har}} G$ ) if

$$\frac{\bar{F}(x)}{\bar{G}(x)} \text{ is nonincreasing for } x \text{ in } [0, G^{-1}(1)].$$

This is also called positive uniform stochastic ordering by Keilson and Sumita (1992). There are several equivalent definitions:

- a.  $F \mathbf{I}_{,,,} G \Leftrightarrow r_{(F)}(x) \geq r_{(G)}(x)$  (if  $F$  and  $G$  are absolutely continuous). Note the reversed sign for the hazard rate inequality.
- b.  $F \mathbf{I}_{,,} G \Leftrightarrow \bar{F} \geq_{TP_2} \bar{G}$ , where  $TP_2$  is total *positivity* of order 2 ordering, defined by

$$\begin{vmatrix} \bar{F}(x) & \bar{F}(y) \\ \bar{G}(x) & \bar{G}(y) \end{vmatrix} \geq 0 \quad \text{for all } 0 \leq x \leq y.$$

- c.  $F \mathbf{I}_{,,,} G \Leftrightarrow \bar{F}(x|x > y) \leq \bar{G}(x|x > y)$  for all  $0 \leq x \leq y$ , where  $\bar{F}(x|x > y) = \bar{F}(x+y)/\bar{F}(y)$  and  $\bar{G}(x|x > y) = \bar{G}(x+y)/\bar{G}(y)$  are conditional survival functions.

Note that  $F \mathbf{I}_{,,,} G \Rightarrow F \leq_{st} G$ . See Keilson and Sumita (1992) for details.

- 3. When the densities  $f(x) = F'(x)$  and  $g(x) = G'(x)$  exist, we can have likelihood ratio (LR) ordering with  $F \leq_{LR} G$  if  $f(t)/g(t)$  is a nonincreasing function of  $t$  for  $t \geq 0$ . Since  $F \leq_{LR} G$  implies that for  $t_2 > t_1$ ,

$$f(t_2) \leq \frac{g(t_2)f(t_1)}{g(t_1)},$$

we have

$$\begin{aligned} r_{(F)}(t) &= \frac{f(t)}{\int_t^\infty f(x) dx} \geq \frac{f(t)}{\{f(t)/g(t)\} \int_t^\infty g(x) dx} \\ &= \frac{g(t)}{\int_t^\infty g(x) dx} = r_{(G)}(t). \end{aligned} \tag{33.59}$$

Therefore

$$F \mathbf{I}_{,,} G \Rightarrow F \leq_{\text{har}} G.$$

The converse is not valid.

4.  $F$  is stochastically less (more) *variable* than  $G$  [denoted  $F \leq_v (\geq_v)G$ ] if

$$E[h(X)|F_X(x) = F(x)] \leq E[h(X)|F_X(x) = G(x)] \quad (33.60)$$

for all nonincreasing (nondecreasing) *convex* integrable functions  $h(\cdot)$  with

$$E[X|F_X(x) = F(x)] \leq (\geq) E[X|F_X(x) = G(x)] \quad [\text{cf. (33.58)}].$$

If  $E[X|F_X(x) = F(x)] = E[X|F_X(x) = G(x)]$ , then (33.60) holds for all convex integrable functions  $h(\cdot)$  [Metzger and Riischendorf (1991)].

Equivalently  $F \mathbf{I}, G$  if and only if

$$\int_x^\infty \bar{F}(t) dt \leq \int_x^\infty \bar{G}(t) dt \quad \text{for all } x > 0. \quad (33.61)$$

If  $F \leq_v G$ , it implies that  $F$  gives less weight to extreme values than does  $G$ . As Metzger and Riischendorf (1991) have pointed out, variability ordering is in fact "a combination of a 'variability' ordering and of the stochastic ordering  $\leq_{st}$ ", and "a pure variability ordering" can be obtained by requiring

$$F(x - E[X]|F_X(x) = F(x)) \leq_v G(x - [X]|G_X(x) = G(x)). \quad (33.62)$$

5. *Dispersive* ordering (and related orderings) have been studied by several authors, including Bickel and Lehmann (1976, 1979), Lewis and Thompson (1981), Oja (1981), Shaked (1982), Deshpande and Kochar (1983), Bartoszewicz (1985, 1986), Droste and Wefelmeyer (1985), and Marzec and Marzec (1991a, b, 1993).

As pointed out by D. J. Saunders (1984), dispersive ordering can be described loosely by saying that the graph of one cdf is always steeper than that of the other, where the definition of "steeper" is in terms of the inverse (quantile) function. The following definition is implicit in Lewis and Thompson (1981):  $G$  is more dispersed than  $F$  ( $F \leq_{disp} G$ ) if

$$G(G^{-1}(\alpha) + a) \leq F(F^{-1}(\alpha) + a) \quad (33.63)$$

for all  $a > 0$  and  $0 < \alpha < 1$ . [ $F^{-1}(a) = \inf\{t: F(t) \geq a\}$ ]. Deshpande and Kochar (1983) showed that this definition is equivalent to

$$G^{-1}(\beta) - G^{-1}(\alpha) \geq F^{-1}(\beta) - F^{-1}(\alpha) \quad \text{for } 0 < \alpha < \beta < 1, \quad (33.63)'$$

an ordering considered by Saunders and Moran (1978) and Saunders (1978).

Lehmann (1966) defined  $F$  to have a *lighter tail* than  $G$  if

$$\frac{F^{-1}(\beta) - F^{-1}(\alpha)}{G^{-1}(\beta) - G^{-1}(\alpha)} \leq M \quad (33.64)$$

for some  $M > 0$  and all  $0 < \alpha < \beta < 1$ . An equivalent definition, introduced earlier by Fraser (1957) in his pioneering book on *Nonparametric Methods* is that  $\{G^{-1}(F(x)) - x\}$  is a nondecreasing function of  $x$ . This can be established by putting  $a = F(x)$  and  $\beta = F(y)$  with  $x \leq y$  in (33.63)'. It was referred to and used by Doksum (1969), in connection with studies on the power of rank tests, who termed it *tail-ordering*, and studied by Yanagimoto and Sibuya (1976), who described it as  $G$  is *stochastically more spread than*  $F$ . This definition is implicit in Shaked (1982), who dealt with the absolutely continuous case. Shaked's definition is given in terms of sign changes of a function. It was extended to a more general case by Lynch, Mimmack, and Proschan (1983), in the following way: Define  $S(x_1, \dots, x_m)$  as the number of sign changes of the sequence  $x, \dots, x_m$ , discarding zero terms, and  $S(f)$  as the number of sign changes of the function  $f$  on  $(-\infty, +\infty)$ . Specifically,

$$S(f) = \sup S[f(t_1), \dots, f(t_m)]$$

over all  $t_1 < t_2 < \dots < t_m$  ( $m = 2, 3, \dots$ ). Also denote  $F(x - c)$  as  $F_c$ , and  $S_c \equiv S(F_c - G)$  for distribution functions  $F$  and  $G$ . Then

$$F \leq_{\text{disp}} G \Leftrightarrow (\text{for each real } c) \quad (33.65)$$

- a.  $S(F_c - G) \leq 1$ ,
- b. if  $S_c = 1$ , then  $F - G$  changes sign from  $-$  to  $+$ .

The family of gamma  $(a, \beta)$  distributions (see Chapter 17), with constant  $\beta$ , is dispersively ordered by the shape parameter  $a$ . The larger the value of the shape parameter  $a$ , the more dispersed is the distribution.

**Barlow** and Proschan (1975) describe the following orderings for life distribution cdfs  $F$  and  $G$  [with  $F(0) = G(0) = 0$ ] and  $G$  strictly increasing on its support, which is a single interval:

- a.  $F$  is *convex-ordered* with respect to  $G$  (denoted  $F \leq_c G$ ) if  $G^{-1}[F(x)]$  is convex.
- b.  $F$  is *star-ordered* with respect to  $G$  (denoted  $F \leq^* G$ ) if  $G^{-1}[F(x)]$  is star-shaped, namely  $G^{-1}[F(x)]/x$  increases with  $x$  for all  $x$  in the support of  $F$ .



There is a simple relation between convex- and star-ordering, namely

$$F \leq_c G \Rightarrow F \leq^* G. \quad (33.66)$$

Also,  $F \leq^* G \Rightarrow F <_{\text{disp}} G$  under the single condition that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \left\{ \frac{G^{-1}[F(x)]}{x} \right\} \geq 1 \quad (33.67)$$

[Sathe (1984)]. Earlier versions of this result [Doksum (1969); Deshpande and Kochar (1983)] require that  $F$  and  $G$  be absolutely continuous and  $F'(0) \geq G'(0) > 0$ .

We note the relations

$$F \leq_{\text{st}} G \quad \text{and} \quad F \leq^* G \Rightarrow F <_{\text{disp}} G \quad [\text{Sathe (1984)}]$$

and

$$F \leq_{\text{st}} G \quad \text{and} \quad F \leq_c G \Rightarrow F <_{\text{disp}} G \quad [\text{Bartoszewicz (1985)}]$$

Bartoszewicz (1986) provided relations between hazard rate ordering and dispersive ordering. If  $F$  and  $G$  are absolutely continuous over their support  $t \geq 0$  and  $F(0) = G(0) = 0$ , then the conditions  $r_{(G)}(t) \leq r_{(F)}(t)$  for all  $t \geq 0$  and

$$\bar{F}(x|t) = \frac{\bar{F}(t+x)}{\bar{F}(t)} \quad \text{is a decreasing function of } x \text{ for all } t \geq 0$$

imply that  $F <_{\text{disp}} G$ . Similarly, under the same conditions,

$$F <_{\text{disp}} G \quad \text{and} \quad F \text{ (or } G) \text{ is IFR} \Rightarrow r_{(G)}(t) \leq r_{(F)}(t)$$

for all  $t > 0$ .

Barlow and Proschan (1975) obtained the classical result

$$F \leq_c G \Rightarrow F \leq^* G \Rightarrow F \leq^{\text{su}} G. \quad (33.68)$$

Also  $F \leq^{\text{su}} G$  and  $F <_{\text{st}} G \Rightarrow F <_{\text{disp}} G$ . This connection between superadditive ordering and dispersive ordering is established in Ahmed et al. (1986). [This is actually a combined version of three letters submitted by Alzaid and Ahmed, Bartoszewicz, and Kochar.]

The condition  $F <_{\text{st}} G$  is essential, as can be seen from the well known counterexample

$$\begin{aligned} F(x) &= 1 - \exp(-x^2), \\ G(x) &= 1 - \exp(-x), \quad x > 0, \end{aligned}$$

in which  $G^{-1}\{F(x)\} = x^2$  satisfies the superadditivity condition, while  $G^{-1}\{F(x)\} - x = x(x - 1)$  is neither nondecreasing nor nonincreasing in  $x$  for all  $x \geq 0$ . The same example shows that the condition  $r_{(F)}(t) \geq r_{(G)}(t)$  does not, in general, imply that  $F <_{\text{disp}} G$ . However, the condition  $F <_{\text{st}} G$  can be replaced by **Sathe's condition**

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0+} \left\{ \frac{G^{-1}\{F(x)\}}{x} \right\} \geq 1 \quad [\text{Ahmed et al. (1986)}]. \quad (33.67)'$$

Bagai and Kochar (1986) investigated the relation between  $TP_2$  (or equivalently hazard rate) ordering (see above—the beginning of Section 4.3) and dispersive (tail-) ordering. They showed that if  $F$  or  $G$  is IFR, then

$$F <_{\text{disp}} G \Rightarrow \bar{F} <_{TP_2} \bar{G} \quad (\equiv r_{(G)}(x) \leq r_{(F)}(x)).$$

Similarly, if  $F$  or  $G$  is DFR, then

$$\bar{F} <_{TP_2} \bar{G} \Rightarrow F <_{\text{disp}} G.$$

In particular, if both  $F$  and  $G$  are exponential distributions (and so both IFR and DFR), then

$$\bar{F} <_{\text{har}} \bar{G} \Leftrightarrow F <_{\text{disp}} G.$$

We note, again, the pivotal position of the exponential distribution in ordering schemes.

Droste and Wefelmeyer (1985) discuss the dispersive ordering and its alternative versions for strongly unimodal distributions [i.e., for the distributions such that their convolution with any unimodal distribution is unimodal; Ibragimov (1956)].

6. Oja (1981) introduces ordering based on convexity of order  $k$ . [A function  $f(x)$  is *convex of order  $k$* ,  $k = 2, 3, \dots$ , iff

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ x_1 & x_2 & \dots & x_k \\ x_1^{k-1} & x_2^{k-1} & \dots & x_k^{k-1} \\ f(x_1) & f(x_2) & \dots & f(x_k) \end{vmatrix} \geq 0 \quad \text{for all } x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_k.$$

If the sign of the inequality is reversed, the function is *concave* of order  $k$ . If the derivative exists,  $f(x)$  is convex (concave) of order  $k$  if and only if  $f^{(k)}(x) \geq (\leq) 0$  for all  $x$ .]

The ordering  $F \mathbf{I}, G$  applies if and only if

$$\Delta(x) = G^{-1}[F(x)] - x$$

is convex of order  $k$ . The ordering  $F \leq_1 G$  is, of course equivalent to  $F <_{\text{disp}} G$ , while  $F \leq_2 G$  is the usual *convex* ordering, introduced by van Zwet (1964). Oja (1981) used the terminology that  $F \mathbf{I}, G$  means that  $F$  is "not more skewed to the right than  $G$ ," and showed that

$$F \leq_2 G \Leftrightarrow \frac{R(x_4) - R(x_3)}{R(x_2) - R(x_1)} \geq \frac{x_4 - x_3}{x_2 - x_1}$$

for all  $x_1 < (x_2, x_3) \mathbf{I} x_4$  in the support of  $F$ , where

$$R(x) = G^{-1}[F(x)].$$

The  $\mathbf{I}$ , ordering is a natural extension of IFR ordering for random variables that are not necessarily positive. Indeed the condition " $G^{-1}F$  is convex (concave)" is an alternative definition for **IFR (DFR)** ordering (cf. 1 in Section 4.2). Oja (1981) asserted that  $\leq_3$  ordering is an alternative to ordering with respect to kurtosis, and he provided a motivation based on the convexity of the function

$$\frac{F'(t)}{G'(G^{-1}[F(t)])}. \quad (33.69)$$

7. Another ordering, focusing on tail behavior, is the more recently formulated Parzen ordering. This was suggested explicitly by Alzaid and Al-Osh (1989), motivated by the original paper of Parzen (1979) and its extension and refinement by Schuster (1984). It is based on the concept of the density-*quantile* function

$$F'[F^{-1}(u)] \quad \text{for } u \text{ in } [0, 1]. \quad (33.70)$$

Parzen (1979) observed that, as  $u \rightarrow 1$ ,

$$F'[F^{-1}(u)] \sim (1 - u)^{\alpha}. \quad (33.71)$$

He called the exponent  $\alpha$ , the right-tail exponent. It is defined by

$$\alpha_0 = \lim_{u \rightarrow 1^-} \frac{(1 - u)J(u)}{F'[F^{-1}(u)]}, \quad (33.72a)$$

where

$$J(u) = \frac{-F''[F^{-1}(u)]}{F'[F^{-1}(u)]}.$$

Similarly, as  $u \rightarrow 0$ ,

$$F'[F^{-1}(u)] \sim u^{\alpha_1}, \tag{33.72b}$$

where

$$\alpha_1 = \lim_{u \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{uJ(u)}{F'[F^{-1}(u)]}. \tag{33.72c}$$

Alzaid and Al-Osh (1989) defined an ordering based on the tail-exponent function

$$\alpha_{(F)}(1-u) = \frac{(1-u)J(u)}{F'[F^{-1}(u)]}. \tag{33.73}$$

For exponential distributions,  $\alpha_{(F)}(\cdot) \equiv 1$ . Values for some other distributions are

Pareto (Chapter 19)	$p_X(x) = (\beta x_{1+\beta^{-1}})^{-1}$	$\alpha_{(F)}(u) = 1 + \beta$
Logistic (Chapter 23)	$p_X(x) = e^{-x}(1 + e^{-x})^{-2}$	$\alpha_{(F)}(u) = 1 - 2u$
Power function (Chapter 25)	$p_X(x) = \beta(1-x)^{\beta-1}$	$\alpha_{(F)}(u) = 1 - \beta$

In view of the relationships

- a.  $F \leq G \Leftrightarrow \alpha_{(F)}(u) \leq \alpha_{(G)}(u)$ ,
- b.  $F$  is IFR (DFR) if and only if  $\alpha_{(F)}(u) \leq (\geq) 1$  for all  $u$  in  $[0, 1]$ ,

Alzaid and Al-Osh (1989) defined the *Parzen* ordering  $F <_P G$  if and only if

$$\lim_{u \rightarrow 1^-} \alpha_{(F)}(1-u) < \lim_{u \rightarrow 1^-} \alpha_{(G)}(1-u).$$

This ordering is preserved for the order statistics—namely  $F < G$  if and only if  $F_{j:n} <_P G_{j:n}$ , where  $F_{j:n}, G_{j:n}$  are the cdfs of the  $j$ th-order statistic in random samples of size  $n$  from  $F, G$ , respectively.

We have

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Uniform} <_P \text{Power}(\beta) <_P \text{Exponential} <_P \text{Pareto} (a < 1) \\ <_P \text{Cauchy} <_P \text{Pareto} (a > 1), \end{aligned} \tag{33.74}$$

an ordering in terms of tail behavior that has some intuitive appeal.

8. We finally note that Metzger and Riischendorf (1991) have introduced a more general concept of *conditional* ordering, in which the inequality(s) defining the ordering need apply only on a restricted subset of values of the variable. They applied this for the variability ordering [see (33.60) above] but the technique can be used for most other orderings.

Rojo (1992, 1993) introduced two "pure-tail" orderings:

*D-ordering* is defined by

$$\begin{cases} F \leq_D G & \text{if } \limsup_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\bar{F}(x)}{\bar{G}(x)} < \infty, \\ F <_D G & \text{if } F \blacktriangleright G \text{ but } G \not\leq_D F, \\ F \sim_D G & \text{if } F \blacktriangleright G \text{ and } G \blacktriangleright F. \end{cases} \quad (33.75)$$

*q-ordering* is defined by

$$\begin{cases} F \leq_q G & \text{if } \limsup_{u \rightarrow 1} \frac{F^{-1}(u)}{G^{-1}(u)} < \infty, \\ F <_q G & \text{if } F \blacktriangleright G \text{ but } G \not\leq_q F, \\ F \sim_q G & \text{if } F \blacktriangleright G \text{ and } G \leq_q F. \end{cases} \quad (33.76)$$

Although closely related, these two orderings are not identical. In fact q-ordering is location and scale invariant, but D-ordering is not. There is a detailed discussion of relationships between the two orderings in Rojo (1992).

D-ordering is related to hazard rate orderings (definition 2 at the start of this section) in that both depend on the behavior of the function  $\bar{F}(x)/\bar{G}(x)$ . Rojo (1988) discusses the effects on D-ordering and q-ordering of operations of convolution, finite mixture, and (strictly increasing) transformations. The "weak" orderings  $\leq_D, \blacktriangleright$  (also  $\sim_D, \sim_q$ ) are preserved under these operations. Although this is often also true for the "strong" orderings  $<_D, <_q$ , some restrictions are needed in convolutions for  $<_D$  and in transformations for  $<_q$ . See Rojo (1993) for details.

By considering two distributions F and G with respective densities f and g, Jorgensen (1994) defined a strict partial ordering by taking *F has a heavier upper tail than G* to mean there exists  $l > 0$  such that for every a and every  $b > 0$  there is an  $x^*$  for which

$$l + \frac{f(x)}{1 - F(x)} - \frac{g(a + bx)}{1 - G(a + bx)} < 0 \quad \text{for every } x > x^*$$

Jorgensen similarly defined the ordering *F has a heavier lower tail than G*.

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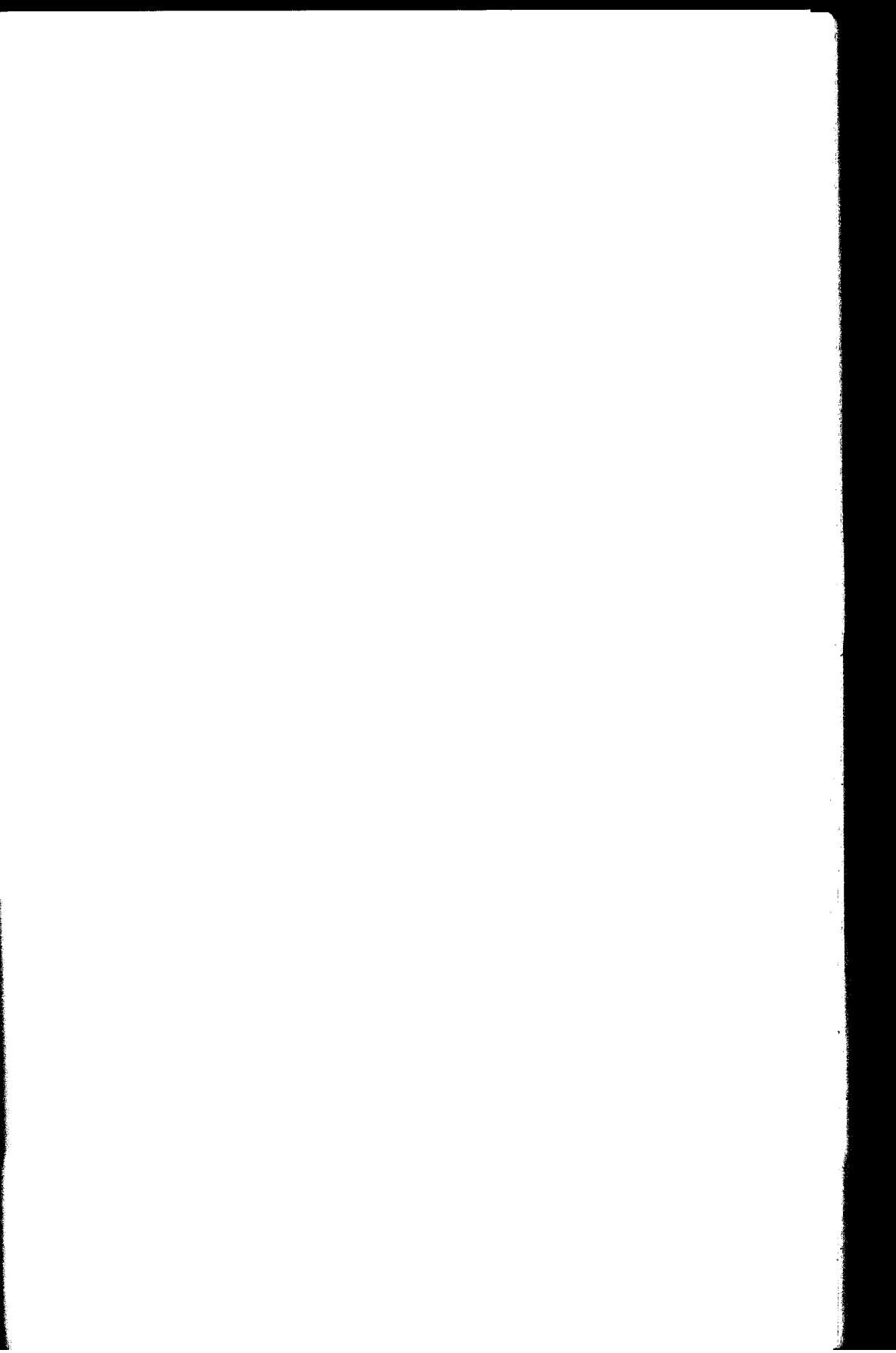
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# Abbreviations

<b>ABLUE</b>	asymptotically best linear unbiased estimator
<b>ARE</b>	asymptotic relative efficiency
<b>ARMA</b>	autoregressive moving average
<b>BFR</b>	bathtub failure rate
<b>BHR</b>	bathtub hazard rate
<b>BLIE</b>	best linear invariant estimator
<b>BLUE</b>	best linear unbiased estimator
<b>cdf</b>	cumulative distribution function
<b>cgf</b>	cumulant generating function
<b>CPU</b>	central processing unit
<b>DFR</b>	decreasing failure rate
<b>DFRA</b>	decreasing failure rate on average
<b>DHR</b>	decreasing hazard rate
<b>DHRA</b>	decreasing hazard rate on average
<b>DIMRL</b>	decreasing, then increasing mean residual life
<b>DMRL</b>	decreasing mean residual life
<b>G3B</b>	generalized three-parameter beta (distribution)
<b>G3F</b>	"corrected" F-distributions
<b>GB2</b>	generalized beta of the second kind
<b>GNB</b>	generalized negative binomial distribution
<b>GT</b>	generalized t (distribution)
<b>HNBUE</b>	harmonic new better than used in expectation
<b>HNWUE</b>	harmonic new worse than used in expectation
<b>IDMRL</b>	increasing, then decreasing mean residual life
<b>IFR</b>	increasing failure rate
<b>IFRA</b>	increasing failure rate on average
<b>IHR</b>	increasing hazard rate
<b>IHRA</b>	increasing hazard rate average
<b>LSE</b>	least-squares estimator
<b>MHR</b>	mean hazard rate
<b>MLE</b>	maximum likelihood estimator



MME	method of moments estimator
MMME	modified method of moments estimator
MRL	mean residual life
MSE	mean square error
MVUE	minimum variance unbiased estimator
$N(\mu, \sigma^2)$	normal distribution with mean $\mu$ and variance $\sigma^2$
NBU	new better than used
NBUE	new better than used in expectation
NBUFR	new better than used in failure rate
NBUFRA	new better than used in failure rate on average
NWUE	new worse than used in expectation
pdf	probability density function
PERT	program evaluation and review technique
Pr[E]	probability of event E
PWM	probability-weighted moment
UMVUE	<b>uniform</b> (ly) minimum variance unbiased estimator

# Author Index

The purpose of this Index is to provide readers with quick and easy access to the contributions (pertinent to this volume) of any individual author, and not to highlight any particular author's contribution.

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