

**ON A TWO-PARAMETER DISCRETE DISTRIBUTION
AND ITS APPLICATIONS**

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Abstract: Here we introduce two-parameter compounded geometric distributions with monotone failure rates. These distributions are derived by compounding geometric distribution and zero-truncated Poisson distribution. Some statistical and reliability properties of the distributions are investigated. Parameters of the proposed distributions are estimated by the maximum likelihood method as well as through the minimum distance method of estimation. Performance of the estimates by both the methods of estimation are compared based on Monte-Carlo simulations. An illustration with Air Crash casualties demonstrates that the distributions can be considered as a suitable model under several real situations.

Keywords: Compounding; Geometric Distribution; Hazard rate function; Maximum likelihood estimation; Method of minimum distance; Monte-Carlo; Zero-Truncated Poisson Distribution.

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1 Introduction

In theoretical and applied statistics, duration of life of certain organisms, devices, structures, materials etc. is one of the well known random variables that attracts interest of many researchers from various scientific disciplines. In reliability engineering, to assess or to determine the lifespan of a system of components, for example, bearings, seals, gears etc., sample information on failure history are collected in suitable fashion from the population. A major challenge to the statisticians and the reliability engineers is to develop an appropriate model for the observed failure time data. In this context, a substantial part has been devoted to the mathematical description of the length of life by a continuous failure time distribution.

However, in various practical scenarios, discrete failure time distributions are appropriate to model lifetime or the failure rate of the concerned object. For example, a discrete distribution is appropriate when (i) a piece of equipment operates in cycles and the number of cycles prior to failure is observed, (ii) failures occur only due to incoming shocks and number of rounds fired until failure becomes more crucial than age at failure, (iii) a device is monitored only once per time period (e.g., an hour, a day) and the observation is the number of time periods successfully completed prior to failure of the device. When data are collected from a continuous distribution, one will have to round it off. So, to be specific, data of continuous nature may be obtained only in theory, but in practice, data are always discrete in nature. Allison (1982) discussed discrete time models for the analysis of event histories in the context of Sociological methodologies. Hamerle (1986) addressed certain techniques of regression analysis for discrete event history or failure time data. Khalique (1989) studied some inferential aspects of certain class of discrete failure-time distributions. Interested readers may also see Salvia and Bollinger (1982), Padgett and Spurrier (1985), Adams and Watson (1989), Klar (1999) and the references therein.

Fahrmeir (1994) considered some dynamic modeling and penalized likelihood estimation methods for discrete time survival data, whereas Fahrmeir and Knorr-Held (1997) proposed estimation of dynamic discrete-time duration models via Markov Chain Monte Carlo. Rocha-Martine and Shaked (1995) proposed a discrete-time model of failure and repair. Fahrmeir and Wagenpfeil (1996) investigated time-varying effects in discrete duration for competing risk models. Scheike and Jensen (1997) proposed an interesting discrete survival

model with random effects in connection with time to pregnancy. Shis (1998) considered multivariate discrete failure time data.

Klar (1999) nicely summarised theory and methods for model selection for a family of discrete failure time distributions. He pointed out that though a large number of new discrete distributions have appeared in the literature, there is dearth of flexible discrete models which, at the same time, allow for easy statistical inference even though exhibit constant, increasing or decreasing failure rates. The scenario has changed only a little even after a decade though the importance of discrete lifetime distributions has well recognized among researchers and practitioners in Sociology and in Biometrics, among several other practical fields. It is well known that this is one of the major areas of interest to the reliability engineers.

In the recent times, host of researchers investigated discrete failure time models. Jiang and Kumar (2001) studied failure diagnosis of discrete event systems with linear-time temporal logic fault specifications. Belzunce et al. (2009) discussed ageing properties of a discrete time failure and repair model. Singh et al. (2009) analyzed the dynamic system model with discrete failure time distribution. Patil and Bagkavos (2012) proposed semiparametric smoothing of discrete failure time data.

In the present article, we propose two discrete distributions arising from the following motivating example:

Suppose a financial institution (FI) has m (known positive integer) regional offices. Further assume that i th regional office (RO) controls functioning of N_i ($i = 1, 2, \dots, m$) branch offices (BO) which work independently of each other. One of the indicators for the evaluation of the performance of each of the BO's under their respective RO's is the number of new accounts opened in the last three months each exceeding a high amount, τ , say, which is known. Let us call these accounts as High Deposit Accounts (HDA). Quarterly reviews on the performance of the BO's across all the RO's may incur some extra operational costs that may not be worthy to spend. A probabilistic model for the performance review may be recommended henceforth.

Let M_{ij} be the number of new HDA's opened in the last three months at the j th branch of the i th regional office. Then, $M_{i1}, M_{i2}, \dots, M_{iN_i}$ are assumed to be independent and identical geometric random variables. We assume that N_i follows zero-truncated Poisson distribution

independent of M_{ij} . If M_i denotes the minimum of the number of HDA's at the i th RO, we can write $M_i = \min_{1 \leq j \leq N_i} M_{ij}$ and may be termed as In-Bound Performance Index ($IBPI_i$) of the i th RO.

With similar arguments, the FI may be interested to know the number of old HDA's closed in the last three months each of which is less than a given amount, say, ϕ which is known. Let M_{ij}^* be the number of old HDA's closed in the last three months at the j th branch of the i th regional office. If M_i^* denotes the maximum of the number of HDA's at the i th RO, we can write $M_i^* = \max_{1 \leq j \leq N_i} M_{ij}^*$ and may be termed as Out-Bound Performance Index ($OBPI_i$) of the i th RO.

In the current context, we study the distributions of $IBPI_i$ and $OBPI_i$ which are described as Compounded Geometric (CG) distribution where the distribution of the observed discrete data is described by a geometric distribution, and a zero-truncated Poisson distribution is used for the distribution of sample size of each subgroup. We develop two types of CG distributions - one, from the minimum (e.g. the case of $IBPI_i$), and another from the maximum (e.g. the case of $OBPI_i$) of the observed data from each subgroup.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, a new distribution is obtained by mixing the geometric distribution and a zero-truncated Poisson distribution. In Section 3, various properties of the introduced distribution are discussed. Parameters of the distribution are estimated in Section 4 by the maximum likelihood method and the distance minimization method. In Section 5, a simulation study is performed to show the behaviour of asymptotic variances and covariances of maximum likelihood estimators (MLEs). An illustrative example based on real life data is provided in Section 6. Finally, Section 7 concludes the manuscript with a future research problem. It is to mention that by $\theta_1 \stackrel{sign}{=} \theta_2$ we mean that θ_1 and θ_2 have the same sign. In the manuscript, some of the proofs are trivial and hence are given in the Appendix.

2 The Compounded Geometric distribution

The geometric distribution with parameter $p \in (0, 1)$, denoted as $G(p)$, has the probability mass function (pmf) g_K given by

$$g_K(k; p) = pq^k, \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots; \quad p \in (0, 1), q = 1 - p, \quad (2.1)$$

with cumulative distribution function (CDF) given by

$$G_K(k; p) = 1 - q^{k+1}. \quad (2.2)$$

Let K_1, K_2, \dots, K_M be a random sample from $G(p)$ and M be a zero-truncated Poisson variable with pmf given by

$$P(m; \lambda) = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^m (1 - e^{-\lambda})^{-1}}{\Gamma(m+1)}, \quad m \in \mathcal{N}, \lambda > 0, \quad (2.3)$$

where \mathcal{N} is the set of natural numbers. Assuming that random variables K and M are independent, we define

$$U = \min_{1 \leq i \leq M} K_i.$$

Then the conditional distribution of $(U | M = m)$

$$F_U(u | m) = 1 - (1 - G_K(u; p))^m = 1 - q^{(u+1)m}, \quad (2.4)$$

with the corresponding pmf

$$f_U(u | m) = P(U \leq u | m) - P(U \leq u - 1 | m) = q^{um}(1 - q^m). \quad (2.5)$$

Thus, the unconditional pmf of U is given by

$$f(u; q, \lambda) = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} f_U(u | m) P(m; \lambda) = \frac{e^{\lambda q^u} - e^{\lambda q^{u+1}}}{e^{\lambda} - 1}, \quad u = 0, 1, 2, \dots; \quad q \in (0, 1), \lambda > 0. \quad (2.6)$$

Hereafter, the distribution of U will be referred to as the CG distribution of Type-I and will be denoted by CG(I). As λ approaches zero, the CG(I) distribution leads to the geometric distribution. Sometimes, to be specific, we write CG(I)(p, λ) to mean that the Type-I CG has been derived based on a CG(I) distribution with parameters p and λ .

In this context, it may be interesting to note that, writing

$$V = \max_{1 \leq i \leq M} K_i,$$

we may get another kind of CG distribution, say CG distribution of Type-II and may be denoted by CG(II). Using Equations (2.1)-(2.3), the conditional distribution of $(V | M = m)$ is given by

$$F_V(v | m) = (G_K(v; p))^m = (1 - q^{v+1})^m, \quad (2.7)$$

with the conditional pmf obtained as

$$f_V(v | m) = P(V \leq v | m) - P(V \leq v - 1 | m) = (1 - q^{v+1})^m - (1 - q^v)^m. \quad (2.8)$$

Thus, the unconditional pmf of V is derived as

$$f^*(v; q, \lambda) = \frac{e^{\lambda(1-q^{v+1})} - e^{\lambda(1-q^v)}}{e^\lambda - 1}, \quad v = 0, 1, 2, \dots; \quad q \in (0, 1), \lambda > 0. \quad (2.9)$$

As λ approaches zero, CG(II) also leads to its parent geometric distribution. Sometimes we write CG(II)(p, λ) to mean that the Type-II CG has been derived based on a CG(II) distribution with parameters p and λ . The following easy-to-show theorem talks of the shape of the CG(I) distribution.

Theorem 2.1. *Irrespective of the choices of parameters, the pmf of CG(I) distribution is strictly decreasing.*

Remark 2.1. The calculation of mode of CG(II) distribution is not very straightforward. Thus, we use the following indirect approach to get the mode(s). Denoting the nonnegative half of the real line by \mathfrak{R}_+ , let us write $f_1(w) = e^{-\lambda q^{w+1}} - e^{-\lambda q^w}$, $\lambda > 0, q > 0$. Let us, for the time being, pretend that $f_1(w)$ is continuous in $w \geq 0$ and is sufficiently differentiable. Now, $f_1'(w) = 0$ gives $w = \frac{1}{\ln q} \ln \left[\frac{\ln(1/q)}{p\lambda} \right] = w_0$, say. Note that, $p\lambda > 0$ and $\ln(1/q) > 0$, imply that $\left[\frac{\ln(1/q)}{p\lambda} \right] > 0$. As $\ln q < 0$ and $w > 0$, $\ln(1/q) \leq p\lambda \Rightarrow q \geq e^{-p\lambda}$. It can be shown that $f(w_0) \geq f(w)$ for all $w \geq 0$. Hence, if w_0 in an integer, then w_0 will be the mode; otherwise, either $[w_0]$ or $[w_0] + 1$ will be the mode depending on whether $f([w_0]) > f([w_0] + 1)$ or $f([w_0]) < f([w_0] + 1)$, where, $[\cdot]$ denotes the largest integer function. In case $f([w_0]) = f([w_0] + 1)$, the distribution will be bimodal with modes at w_0 and $w_0 + 1$. Hence, CG(II) has mode(s) for $q \geq e^{-p\lambda}$. It is to be noted that the distribution is decreasing and hence its mode exists at $v = 0$ when $q = e^{-p\lambda}$. \square

The shape of the pmfs for two types of CG distributions are illustrated for selected values of the parameters in Figures 2.A and 2.B respectively. It is to be noted that CG(I) degenerates at $u = 0$ for large λ and fixed p , or for fixed λ and large p . It is easy to see that

CG(II) also degenerates at $v = 0$ for fixed λ and large p . Nevertheless, if p is fixed, as $\lambda \rightarrow \infty$ right tail probability of CG(II) increases sharply.

<Figures 2.A and 2.B. HERE.>

3 Properties of the distribution

In this section we study different properties of the CG distributions viz. distribution function, moments, percentiles including median and quartiles, measures of skewness etc. The hazard rates of the CG distributions are also studied along with different results on stochastic orders. Some of the proofs are listed in the appendix.

3.1 Distribution function and moments

The CDF of U is given by

$$H_U(u; q, \lambda) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } u < 0 \\ \frac{e^\lambda - e^{\lambda q^{[u]+1}}}{e^\lambda - 1} & \text{if } u \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

Similarly, the CDF of V is given by

$$H_V(v; q, \lambda) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } v < 0 \\ \frac{e^{-\lambda q^{[v]+1}} - e^{-\lambda}}{1 - e^{-\lambda}} & \text{if } v \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

Below we see that the mean residual life (MRL) function of CG distributions does not exist. The proof is given in the appendix.

Result 3.1. *For strictly positive finite λ and $q \in (0, 1)$, the expectations and the higher order moments of neither of the two CG distributions exist. Hence MRL function does not exist.*

3.2 Percentiles, Median, Inter-Quartile Range and Skewness

It is easy to see that the $100\xi^{th}$ ($\xi \in [0, 1]$) percentile, say u_ξ , of CG(I) may be obtained by solving the equation

$$e^\lambda - e^{\lambda q^{[u]+1}} = \xi(e^\lambda - 1). \quad (3.1)$$

In other words, $100\xi^{th}$ percentile of CG(I) is

$$u_\xi = \frac{1}{\ln(q)} \ln \left(\frac{1}{\lambda} \ln((1 - \xi)e^\lambda + \xi) \right) - 1. \quad (3.2)$$

As a consequence, we get the following result. For the proof of the result, please see the Appendix given at the end of the manuscript.

Result 3.2.1. *Median ($\tilde{\mu}$), Inter-Quartile Range (IQR) and Bowley's coefficient of skewness (b_{1X}) of CG(I) are respectively given by*

$$\tilde{\mu} = \frac{1}{\ln(q)} \ln \left(\frac{1}{\lambda} \ln \left(\frac{1}{2} e^\lambda + \frac{1}{2} \right) \right) - 1,$$

$$IQR = \frac{1}{\ln(q)} \ln \left(\frac{\ln \left(\frac{1}{4} e^\lambda + \frac{3}{4} \right)}{\ln \left(\frac{3}{4} e^\lambda + \frac{1}{4} \right)} \right),$$

and

$$b_{1X} = \frac{\ln \left(\frac{\ln \left(\frac{1}{4} e^\lambda + \frac{3}{4} \right) \cdot \ln \left(\frac{3}{4} e^\lambda + \frac{1}{4} \right)}{\left(\ln \left(\frac{1}{2} e^\lambda + \frac{1}{2} \right) \right)^2} \right)}{\ln \left(\frac{\ln \left(\frac{1}{4} e^\lambda + \frac{3}{4} \right)}{\ln \left(\frac{3}{4} e^\lambda + \frac{1}{4} \right)} \right)}.$$

Similarly, $100\xi^{th}$ ($\xi \in [0, 1]$) percentile, say v_ξ , of CG(II) may be obtained by solving the equation

$$e^{-\lambda q^{[v]+1}} - e^{-\lambda} = \xi(1 - e^{-\lambda}), \quad (3.3)$$

which results in

$$v_\xi = \frac{1}{\ln(q)} \ln \left(-\frac{1}{\lambda} \ln((1 - \xi)e^{-\lambda} + \xi) \right) - 1 \quad (3.4)$$

The expressions for median, IQR and measure of skewness are given below. The proof may be obtained in the Appendix.

Result 3.2.2. *Median ($\tilde{\mu}$), IQR and Bowley's coefficient of skewness (b_{1X}) of CG(II) are respectively given by*

$$\tilde{\mu} = \frac{1}{\ln(q)} \ln \left(-\frac{1}{\lambda} \ln \left(\frac{1}{2} e^{-\lambda} + \frac{1}{2} \right) \right) - 1,$$

$$IQR = \frac{1}{\ln(q)} \ln \left(\frac{\ln \left(\frac{1}{4} e^{-\lambda} + \frac{3}{4} \right)}{\ln \left(\frac{3}{4} e^{-\lambda} + \frac{1}{4} \right)} \right),$$

and

$$b_{1X} = \frac{\ln \left(\frac{\ln \left(\frac{1}{4} e^{-\lambda} + \frac{3}{4} \right) \cdot \ln \left(\frac{3}{4} e^{-\lambda} + \frac{1}{4} \right)}{\left(\ln \left(\frac{1}{2} e^{-\lambda} + \frac{1}{2} \right) \right)^2} \right)}{\ln \left(\frac{\ln \left(\frac{1}{4} e^{-\lambda} + \frac{3}{4} \right)}{\ln \left(\frac{3}{4} e^{-\lambda} + \frac{1}{4} \right)} \right)}.$$

It is interesting to note that skewness of none of CG(I) and CG(II) depend on q . Moreover, expressions of b_{1X} for both CG(I) and CG(II) show that the distributions are positively skewed.

3.3 Survival and Hazard Rate functions

Survival functions of CG(I) and CG(II) are respectively given by

$$S(l; q, \lambda) = P(U \geq l) = \frac{e^{\lambda q^l} - 1}{e^\lambda - 1} \quad (3.5)$$

and

$$S^*(l; q, \lambda) = P(V \geq l) = \frac{1 - e^{-\lambda q^l}}{1 - e^{-\lambda}}. \quad (3.6)$$

The hazard rate of CG(I) is given by

$$h(l; q, \lambda) = \frac{P(U = l)}{P(U \geq l)} = 1 - \frac{e^{\lambda q^{l+1}} - 1}{e^{\lambda q^l} - 1}. \quad (3.7)$$

Similarly, the hazard rate of CG(II) is given by

$$h^*(l; q, \lambda) = \frac{P(V = l)}{P(V \geq l)} = 1 - \frac{1 - e^{-\lambda q^{l+1}}}{1 - e^{-\lambda q^l}}. \quad (3.8)$$

The shape of the hazard rate functions (hrf) of CG(I) and CG(II) are illustrated in Figs. 3.3.A and 3.3.B respectively.

The following theorems show the monotonicity of the failure rate functions of the CG distributions. The proofs are given in the Appendix.

Theorem 3.3.1. *CG(I) has decreasing failure rate (DFR).*

Theorem 3.3.2. *CG(II) has increasing failure rate (IFR).*

Remark 3.1. It can be shown that

- (i) $\lim_{l \rightarrow \infty} h(l) = p = \lim_{l \rightarrow \infty} h^*(l)$. Moreover, $h(0) > p$ and $h^*(0) < p$ give that the hazard rate of CG(I) family of distributions is bounded below by p and that of CG(II) is bounded above by p .
- (ii) $\lim_{\lambda \rightarrow 0} h(l) = p$ and $\lim_{\lambda \rightarrow \infty} h(l) = 1$
- (iii) $\lim_{\lambda \rightarrow 0} h^*(l) = p$ and $\lim_{\lambda \rightarrow \infty} h^*(l) = 0$

(iv) $\lim_{p \rightarrow 0} h(l) = 0 = \lim_{p \rightarrow 0} h^*(l)$ and $\lim_{p \rightarrow 1} h(l) = 1 = \lim_{p \rightarrow 1} h^*(l)$

<GRAPHS 3.3.A and 3.3.B HERE.>

3.4 Results on Ordering

To study different properties and usefulness of various stochastic orders for the proposed model, we write $X_{k:n}$ to denote the k th order statistic of a sample X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n of size n . We also use the standard notations, $X \leq^{ST} Y, X \leq^{DISP} Y, X \leq^C Y, X \leq^{SU} Y$ and $X \leq^* Y$ to mean that the random variable X is smaller than the random variable Y in stochastic order, dispersive order, convex transform order, super-additive order and star order respectively. For more information on stochastic orders used below, see, for instance, Shaked and Shanthikumar (2007). Let us consider U_1 and U_2 to be the random variables following CG(I) distribution with CDFs H_1 and H_2 , pmfs f_1 and f_2 , common scale parameter λ and shape parameters p_1 and p_2 respectively. Then the following theorems hold.

Theorem 3.4.A. *For $p_1 \geq p_2$ and fixed $\lambda (> 0)$, we have*

(i) $U_1 \leq^{ST} U_2.$

(ii) $U_1 \leq^{DISP} U_2.$

(iii) $U_1 \leq^C U_2.$

Proof. The proof of (i) is trivial and hence is omitted. To prove (ii), note that $U_1 \leq^{DISP} U_2$ if $H_2^{-1}H_1(u) - u$ is increasing in u . A simple calculation shows that $H_2^{-1}H_1(u) - u = (u + 1)\frac{\ln(q_1/q_2)}{\ln q_2}$, which is increasing in u if $q_1 \leq q_2$, or equivalently $p_1 \geq p_2$. The proof of (iii) follows from the fact that $U_1 \leq^C U_2$ if $H_2^{-1}H_1(u)$ is increasing in u , which follows from (ii) if $p_1 \geq p_2$. \square

The proof of the following corollary follows from the fact that star order and super-additive order follows from convex transform order as discussed in Theorem 3.4.A (iii) above where $U_1 \leq^* U_2$ if $H_2^{-1}H_1(u)/u$ is increasing in u and $U_1 \leq^{SU} U_2$ if $H_2^{-1}H_1(u_1 + u_2) \geq H_2^{-1}H_1(u_1) + H_2^{-1}H_1(u_2)$ for all u_1, u_2 .

Corollary: *For $p_1 \geq p_2$ and fixed $\lambda (> 0)$, $U_1 \leq^* U_2$ and $U_1 \leq^{SU} U_2$.* \square

Let $\{X_n\}$ be a sequence of iid nonnegative $CG(I)(p_1, \lambda)$ random variables and $\{Y_n\}$ be another sequence of iid nonnegative $CG(I)(p_2, \lambda)$ random variables. Assume that X_i and Y_i are independently distributed, for $i = 1, 2, \dots$. Further let M be a zero-truncated Poisson random variable independent of X_i and Y_i . Then we have the following theorem.

Theorem 3.4.B

- (i) For $p_1 \geq p_2$, $X_i \leq^{ST} Y_i \Rightarrow X_{1:M} \leq^{ST} Y_{1:M}$ and $X_{M:M} \leq^{ST} Y_{M:M}$ (Shaked and Wong, 1997).
- (ii) For $p_1 \geq p_2$, $X_i \leq^{DISP} Y_i \Rightarrow X_{1:M} \leq^{DISP} Y_{1:M}$ and $X_{M:M} \leq^{DISP} Y_{M:M}$ (Shaked and Wong, 1997)
- iii For $p_1 \geq p_2$, $X_i \leq^C Y_i \Rightarrow X_{1:M} \leq^C Y_{1:M} \Rightarrow X_{1:M} \leq^* Y_{1:M} \Rightarrow X_{1:M} \leq^{SU} Y_{1:M}$ and $X_{M:M} \leq^C Y_{M:M} \Rightarrow X_{M:M} \leq^* Y_{M:M} \Rightarrow X_{M:M} \leq^{SU} Y_{M:M}$ (Bartoszewicz, 2001).

Remark: Results similar to Theorem 3.4.A and its Corollary as well as Theorem 3.4.B hold true for $CG(II)$ with $p_1 \geq p_2$.

4 Estimation of the parameters

As moments of none of the $CG(I)$ and $CG(II)$ exist, one of the most popular methods of parameter estimation, viz. method of moment estimation cannot be employed in the present context. Other than the popular and widely used parameter estimation techniques viz. maximum likelihood (ML) estimation, minimum distance (MD) estimation approach has also been recommended by several authors in varying context of method of estimation. In this section, we consider ML estimation and MD estimation based on Cramér von-Mises criterion using the notion of empirical distribution function (EDF).

4.1 Method of Maximum Likelihood Estimation

In this section we derive the maximum likelihood (ML) estimators of the unknown parameters $q(= 1 - p)$ and λ . Let U_1, U_2, \dots, U_n and V_1, V_2, \dots, V_n be a random sample of size n drawn from $CG(I)$ and $CG(II)$ distributions respectively with parameters $q(= 1 - p)$ and λ . Then

the log-likelihood functions, $L_1(q, \lambda)$ for CG(I) and $L_2(q, \lambda)$ for CG(II), can respectively be written as

$$L_1(q, \lambda) = -n \log(e^\lambda - 1) + \sum_{i=1}^n \log \left(e^{\lambda q^{u_i}} - e^{\lambda q^{u_i+1}} \right) \quad (4.1)$$

$$L_2(q, \lambda) = -n \log(1 - e^{-\lambda}) + \sum_{i=1}^n \log \left(e^{-\lambda q^{v_i+1}} - e^{-\lambda q^{v_i}} \right) \quad (4.2)$$

The ML Estimates (MLE), if exist, can be obtained by solving the system of equations $\frac{\partial L_1}{\partial q} = 0$ and $\frac{\partial L_1}{\partial \lambda} = 0$ for CG(I) and $\frac{\partial L_2}{\partial q} = 0$ and $\frac{\partial L_2}{\partial \lambda} = 0$ for CG(II) as shown below.

$$\frac{\partial L_1}{\partial q} = \sum_{i=1}^n q^{u_i-1} \left(\frac{u_i e^{\lambda q^{u_i}} - (u_i + 1) q e^{\lambda q^{u_i+1}}}{e^{\lambda q^{u_i}} - e^{\lambda q^{u_i+1}}} \right) \quad (4.3)$$

$$\frac{\partial L_1}{\partial \lambda} = \frac{-n e^\lambda}{e^\lambda - 1} + \sum_{i=1}^n q^{u_i} \left(\frac{e^{\lambda q^{u_i}} - q e^{\lambda q^{u_i+1}}}{e^{\lambda q^{u_i}} - e^{\lambda q^{u_i+1}}} \right) \quad (4.4)$$

$$\frac{\partial L_2}{\partial q} = \sum_{i=1}^n q^{v_i-1} \left(\frac{v_i e^{-\lambda q^{v_i}} - (v_i + 1) q e^{-\lambda q^{v_i+1}}}{e^{-\lambda q^{v_i+1}} - e^{-\lambda q^{v_i}}} \right) \quad (4.5)$$

$$\frac{\partial L_2}{\partial \lambda} = \frac{-n e^{-\lambda}}{1 - e^{-\lambda}} + \sum_{i=1}^n q^{v_i} \left(\frac{e^{-\lambda q^{v_i}} - q e^{-\lambda q^{v_i+1}}}{e^{-\lambda q^{v_i+1}} - e^{-\lambda q^{v_i}}} \right) \quad (4.6)$$

It is clear that the explicit form of second order derivatives and consequently that of Hessian Matrices (as well as Fisher Information) for both CG(I) and CG(II) are complicated and are not of much practical interest. Computationally, it is easy to see that the Hessian matrices of both the distributions are nonnegative definite and hence MLE's exist. These estimators can be easily obtained by using the function *optim* from the statistical software *R* (version R.2.14.1, R Development Core Team, 2011). Since full Hessian matrices are difficult to compute in practice, in the current context, we recommend to use quasi-Newton algorithms, namely the BFGS (named after Broyden, Fletcher, Goldfarb and Shanno) algorithm for numerical maximization of log-likelihood functions. Details of the computational results are provided in subsequent section.

4.2 Method of minimum distance

Minimum distance (MD) estimation is a statistical method for fitting a mathematical model to data. Let X_1, \dots, X_n be a random sample from a population with CDF $F(.,; \theta): \theta \in \Theta$, the

parameter space and $\Theta \subseteq \mathfrak{R}^k (k \geq 1)$. Further suppose that $F_n(\cdot)$ is the empirical distribution function (EDF) based on the sample and $\hat{\theta}$ is an estimator of θ . Then it is legitimate to assume that $F(x; \hat{\theta})$ is an estimator for $F(x; \theta)$. Let $d[\cdot, \cdot]$ be a functional or the criterion function returning some measure of “distance” between the two arguments. Now, in such a set up, if there exists a $\hat{\theta} \in \Theta$ such that

$$d[F(x; \hat{\theta}), F_n(x)] = \inf_{\theta \in \Theta} d[F(x; \theta), F_n(x)],$$

then $\hat{\theta}$ is referred to as the “minimum distance estimator (MDE)” of θ . Interested readers may see Wolfowitz (1957), Blyth (1970), Drossos and Philippou (1980), Parr and Schucany (1980) and Boos (1982) and Weber et al. (2006). In the recent times, Hanselmann et al. (2007) also considered some parametric density estimation problems by minimizing an analytic distance measure.

In this section, we consider Cramér von-Mises type distance measure for estimating the parameters of CG(I) and CG(II) distributions. For CG(I) distribution, estimates of λ and p (or $q = 1 - p$) are obtained by minimizing

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \left[\frac{e^\lambda - e^{\lambda q^{(u_i+1)}}}{e^\lambda - 1} - F_n(u_i) \right]^2,$$

whereas for CG(II) distribution we minimize

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \left[\frac{e^{-\lambda q^{(v_i+1)}} - e^{-\lambda}}{1 - e^{-\lambda}} - F_n(v_i) \right]^2.$$

The technique is generally easy to program, as it neither requires evaluation of likelihood nor calculation of derivatives. The method is computationally faster compared to ML estimation. Performance of the MD method is found to be almost as good as ML method in most of the situations and is better in certain cases.

5 Simulation study

It is not feasible to solve the equations $\frac{\partial L_i}{\partial q} = 0$ and $\frac{\partial L_i}{\partial \lambda} = 0$ ($i = 1, 2$) explicitly in order to get ML estimates for CG(I) and CG(II) distributions. However, one can easily find the numerical solution applying some suitable optimization techniques. In the present context,

we use the in-built *optim* function in R.2.14.1 software for numerical minimization of negative of log-likelihood function. We adopt L-BFGS-B method as in Byrd et al.(1995) which is nothing but a limited-memory modification of the BFGS quasi-Newton method mentioned in subsection 4.1. This method allows box constraints, i.e., each parameter may be given a lower and/or upper bound. The initial values are supposed to satisfy the box constraints. For further details, one may see R documentation. We carry out detailed simulation studies to capture the means and the standard deviations (SD) of the ML estimators of λ and q . Five thousand replicates of Monte-Carlo experiments are considered in the present investigation. Similar method is applied to find out the MDEs and the means and the SDs of MD estimators.

In order to study the convergence of the estimators to its true value as sample size (n) increases, a random sample of size 10, 25, 50, 100, 500 and 1000 are obtained respectively from CG(I) and CG(II) for four choices of q viz. 0.97, 0.95, 0.93 and 0.91 and two choices of λ viz. 3 and 5. The means and the SDs of estimators $\hat{\lambda}$ and \hat{q} are obtained by two different techniques viz. ML method and MD method. The results for CG(I) distribution are reported in Table 5.1 and the same for CG(II) are presented in Table 5.2.

It is easy to see from Table 5.1 that, for CG(I) distribution, \hat{q} sharply converges to q in almost all cases, as n increases, irrespective of the choice of method of estimation. For $\lambda = 3$, convergence is faster with MD method when true value of q is 0.91 or 0.93, and elsewhere ML estimate of q converges at a faster rate. Interestingly, for small n , in almost all cases, bias of the estimator of q is less if MD method is adopted except when the true value of λ is 5 and that of q is 0.91. However, the MD estimator of λ in such cases returns a larger bias compared to the corresponding ML estimator. For λ , MD estimates are better than or as good as the corresponding ML estimates when n is large and q is 0.91 or 0.93. Estimates of λ for CG(I) distribution are fluctuating a little for small n , but slowly converges to its true value as n increases.

From Table 5.2, we see that for both the methods of estimation, $\hat{\lambda}$ and \hat{q} sharply converge to the true value of λ and q respectively for CG(II) distribution. We further see that MD method is unquestionably superior to ML approach for small to moderate n . Here superiority is judged on the basis of average bias. The lower is the bias, the better is the approach. For large n , however, both the approaches are nearly equally effective except for small sampling fluctuations.

INSERT TABLES 5.1 and 5.2 HERE.

6 Applications

In this section, we fit both CG(I) and CG(II) distributions to a real data set taken from *www.planecrashinfo.com*. The aviation accident database of this site includes all civil and commercial aviation accidents of noteworthy interest. The data consist of number of fatalities on board (passengers / crew) and persons killed in ground, if any, in different plane crashes in the calendar year 2011. This comprises of 44 observations on number of casualties in 44 different plane crashes. The data set is given below:

3	77	9	6	14	6	23	32	18	7	27
22	10	47	9	85	7	16	80	2	8	38
11	12	4	21	8	44	30	3	2	19	18
2	28	8	1	5	8	1	3	5	4	3

For each distribution, we derive the estimates obtained by ML method and by MD method along with Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) statistic for goodness-of-fit test and the corresponding p-value. In order to handle ties in the data set, simulated p-value is used for the K-S test. Under ML approach, standard error (SE) of the estimators, Akaike information criterion (AIC), Bayesian information criterion (BIC) are also obtained. The obtained results are presented in Table 6.1. The results show that the p-values of both the models are reasonably high under both ML and MD methods ensuring suitability of both the distributions for the current data set. These results are further validated by the comparison between observed and expected frequencies in Table 6.2. where expected frequencies for both the models commensurate well with the observed frequencies.

A mechanical search (using 1000x1000 possible combinations of the two parameters) for global maximum likelihood estimates correct up to 3 decimal places returns $\hat{\lambda} = 1.151$ and $\hat{q} = 0.961$, which justifies that L-BFGS-B algorithm performs almost accurately in the case of ML estimation of CG(I). Similar search algorithm for MD estimation in case of CG(I) gives $\hat{\lambda} = 9.342$ and $\hat{q} = 0.993$, and shows that MD approach may lead to multiple solutions based on starting values depending on local optima. For simplicity, we have considered ML

estimates as the starting values in the MD approach. Unfortunately, L-BFGS-B algorithm does not converge if the start up value is chosen as $\hat{\lambda} = 9.342$ and $\hat{q} = 0.993$. Interestingly, the choice of $\hat{\lambda} = 9.342$ and $\hat{q} = 0.993$ reduces the p-value of K-S test to 0.3969 but improves the same of chi-squared test to 0.8152. That gives class frequencies as 20.65, 10.42, 5.48, 2.99, 1.70 and 2.76. However, two different sets of solutions do not change the nature of fit drastically. A better algorithm for MDE could be an interesting future research problem.

In a similar manner, a mechanical search for global maximum likelihood estimates of CG(II) returns $\hat{\lambda} = 0.001$ and $\hat{q} = 0.947$ which again establishes accuracy of L-BFGS-B algorithm in case of ML estimation of CG(II). However, for the present data, estimate of $\hat{\lambda}$ hits the lower bound of L-BFGS-B algorithm in case of CG(II) model. Ordinary BFGS gives estimates of $\hat{\lambda}$ and \hat{q} as (0.000002, 0.9470) with the present data set which indicates that the true value of λ may tend to 0, which, in turn, implies that the CG(II) converges geometric distribution. This phenomenon is also observed from the observed and the expected frequencies in Table 6.2. The mechanical search algorithm yields $\hat{\lambda} = 1.68$ and $\hat{q} = 0.904$ which gives unusually poor fit to CG(II). Further, λ tends to zero, makes MD estimation of CG(II) little unstable and dependent on the choice of initial value as *optim* function often returns a local optima in R, as mentioned earlier.

In summary, K-S criterion suggests that CG(II) gives better fit to the raw data. However, if we consider group data with the class intervals as shown in Table 6.2., CG(I) gives a better fit as per the chi-square criterion. Of course, chi-square statistic depends on the choice of class intervals and can vary a bit. This example shows that there is no clear winner between the CG(I) and the geometric distribution, but under certain situations as mentioned earlier, CG(I) may give better fit to the data set than the geometric distribution.

Table 6.1. ML and MD estimates of the parameters of CG(I) and CG(II) and related statistics for the air-crash casualty data.

Distribution	Method	Estimates ($\hat{\lambda}, \hat{q}$)	SEs ($\hat{\lambda}, \hat{q}$)	AIC	BIC	K-S	p-value
CG(I)	ML	(1.1168; 0.9606)	(2.4368; 0.0004)	347.33	343.33	0.1319	0.3941
	MD	(0.1709; 0.9429)	x	x	x	0.1280	0.4310
CG(II)	ML	(0.0100; 0.9469)	(0.9790; 0.0002)	348.12	344.12	0.1050	0.6778
	MD	(0.0099; 0.9410)	x	x	x	0.1206	0.5063

x: Not relevant

Table 6.2. Observed and expected frequencies of the air-crash casualty data.

No of fatalities	Observed frequency	expected frequency					
		CG(I) MLE	CG(I) MDE	geometric MLE ($\hat{q} = 0.9469$)	geometric MDE ($\hat{q} = 0.9396$)	CG(II) MLE	CG(II) MDE
0-9	23	20.23	20.48	18.48	20.40	18.46	19.99
10-19	8	9.90	10.73	10.72	10.94	10.72	10.92
20-29	5	5.38	5.76	6.22	5.87	6.22	5.95
30-39	3	3.13	3.14	3.60	3.15	3.61	3.25
40-49	2	1.91	1.73	2.09	1.69	2.09	1.77
50 or More	3	3.45	2.14	2.89	1.95	2.88	2.12
Total	44						
Chi Square statistic	p-value	0.8390	1.492	2.144	1.8769	2.1634	1.7859
		0.8401	0.6839	0.7093	0.7584	0.5392	0.6180

7 Conclusion

In this paper, we have introduced two discrete distributions involving two parameters called the compounded geometric (CG) distributions and named as CG(I) and CG(II) respectively. Some statistical and reliability properties of both the distributions are derived with plots of the pmfs and the hazard rates. Estimation by maximum likelihood method and by distance

minimization method are discussed. Finally, both the distributions are fitted with a real data set on casualties from plane crashes which show that the distributions have potential to be used in various applications.

Intuitively, as λ approaches 0, a zero-truncated Poisson distribution becomes degenerate and assumes value 1 with probability 1. In such a case, subgroup size will also be a degenerate random variable which will assume value 1 with probability 1. When only one value is observed, eventually maximum and minimum is the same value and therefore both CG(I) and CG(II) will be same, as λ approaches zero. In fact, in such a case, we will only observe a sequence of geometric random variables and the information on subgroup size will be redundant. That is, as λ approaches 0, both CG(I) and CG(II) converge its parent geometric distribution. Further, when λ is large enough and p is also moderately large, most likely we shall have larger subgroup sizes with a few observations as 0. Obviously, the minimum will be 0 for most of the subgroups. As a consequence, CG(I) distribution will degenerate at 0. Although, this phenomenon is not observed in CG(II) for large λ .

The present work leaves two interesting future research problems. Note that CG(I) is DFR while CG(II) is IFR. It will be interesting to study the nature and the changing pattern of the compounded distribution obtained by any arbitrary order statistics in place of maximum or minimum. Another problem of worth considering is the simultaneous use of maximum and minimum to develop a bivariate geometric Poisson distribution.

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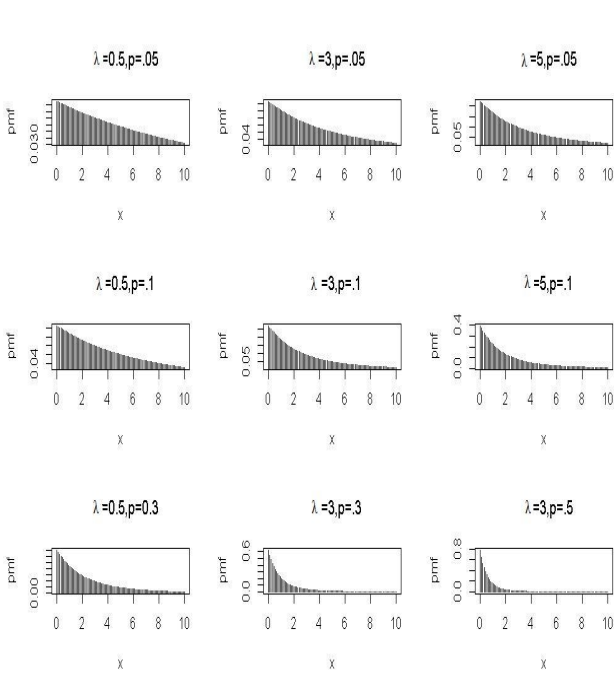


Figure 2.A : pmf Plot for CG(I)

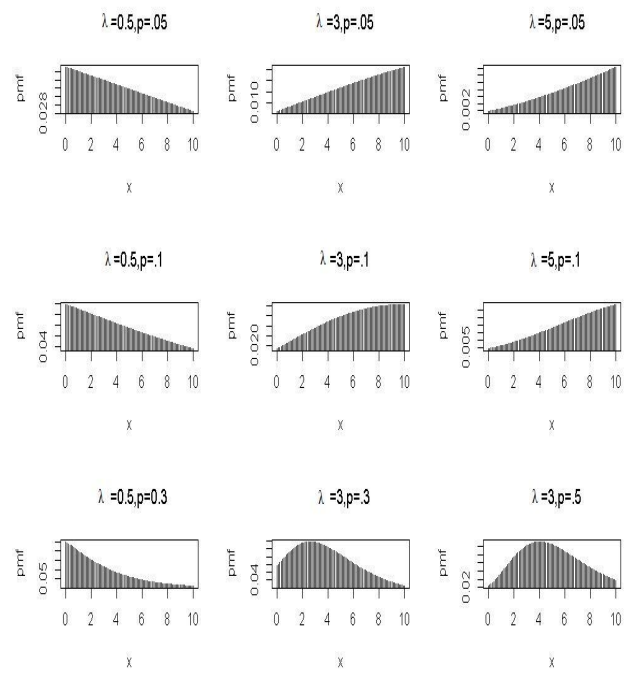


Figure 2.B : pmf Plot for CG(II)

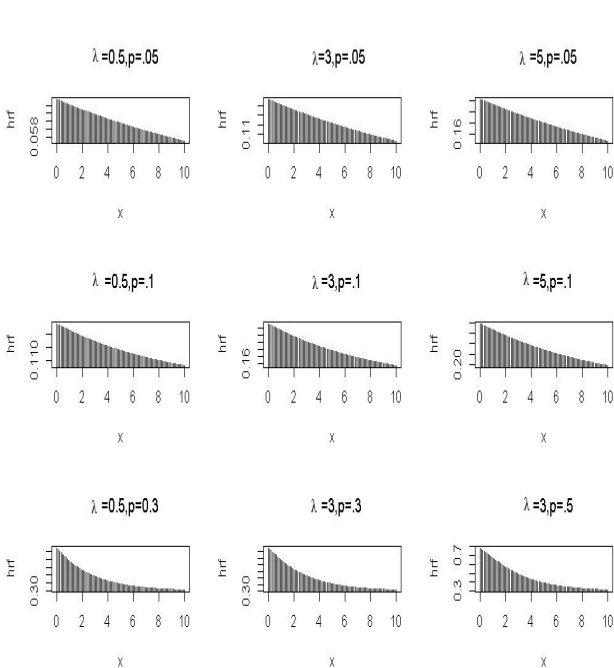


Figure 3.3.A : hrf Plot for CG(I)

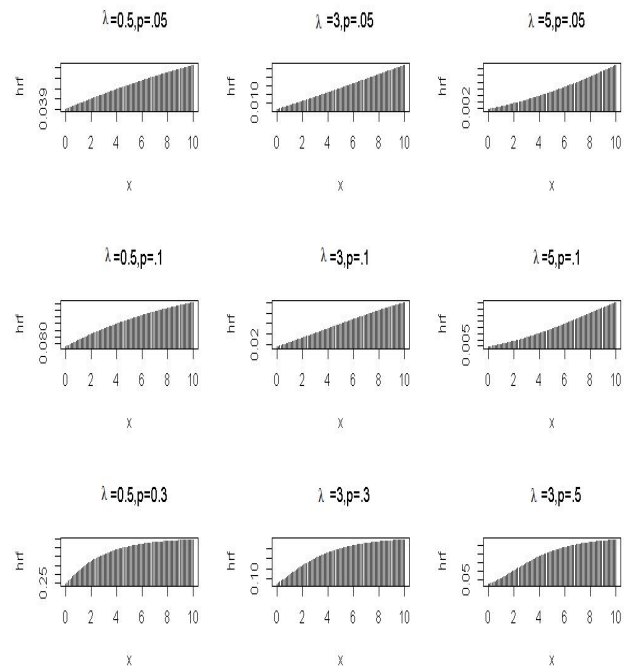


Figure 3.3.B : hrf Plot for CG(II)

TABLE 5.1. Comparison of MLEs and MDEs of parameters of CG(I) Distribution Based on Monte Carlo Simulation

λ	$q(= 1 - p)$	n	Means of MLEs ($\hat{\lambda}, \hat{q}$)	SD of MLEs ($\hat{\lambda}, \hat{q}$)	Means of MDEs ($\hat{\lambda}, \hat{q}$)	SD of MDEs ($\hat{\lambda}, \hat{q}$)
3	0.91	10	3.5152; 0.8879	3.3417; 0.0653	5.5364; 0.9020	4.1603; 0.0732
		25	3.8628; 0.9053	3.0719; 0.0458	5.5674; 0.9176	4.0173; 0.0513
		50	4.3465; 0.9144	3.2997; 0.0422	5.2432; 0.9210	3.6682; 0.0434
		100	4.6841; 0.9208	3.2724; 0.0389	4.7167; 0.9205	3.0466; 0.0380
		500	3.9545; 0.9202	1.8994; 0.0287	3.5669; 0.9135	1.5877; 0.0278
		1000	3.6277; 0.9178	1.3602; 0.0238	3.2520; 0.9101	1.1383; 0.0233
	0.93	10	4.5607; 0.9227	4.2889; 0.0529	5.8978; 0.9282	4.1893; 0.0564
		25	4.1341; 0.9286	3.4895; 0.0362	5.5686; 0.9377	3.8405; 0.0381
		50	4.3048; 0.9329	3.3057; 0.0324	5.0032; 0.9396	3.1909; 0.0310
		100	4.4150; 0.9369	3.0579; 0.0299	4.5138; 0.9394	2.5124; 0.0265
		500	3.6763; 0.9362	1.5861; 0.0201	3.6910; 0.9358	1.3866; 0.0198
		1000	3.4132; 0.9343	1.1167; 0.0166	3.4241; 0.9328	1.1495; 0.0188
	0.95	10	5.4152; 0.9493	4.8003; 0.0389	6.1410; 0.9506	4.0187; 0.0408
		25	4.6865; 0.9487	4.3336; 0.0289	5.4530; 0.9560	3.4835; 0.0264
		50	4.1451; 0.9476	3.6769; 0.0260	4.6839; 0.9554	2.7139; 0.0218
		100	3.9534; 0.9487	3.1502; 0.0235	4.2185; 0.9546	2.2051; 0.0193
		500	3.2983; 0.9496	1.4487; 0.0157	3.5754; 0.9530	1.2943; 0.0143
		1000	3.1852; 0.9499	1.0651; 0.0123	3.3914; 0.9523	0.9763; 0.0119
0.97	10	4.4751; 0.9648	4.3229; 0.0229	5.3507; 0.9683	3.1849; 0.0245	
	25	2.8779; 0.9592	2.8595; 0.0181	4.4408; 0.9707	2.4479; 0.0157	
	50	2.5999; 0.9600	1.9078; 0.0161	3.8418; 0.9701	1.8963; 0.0128	
	100	2.7644; 0.9631	1.6344; 0.0143	3.2177; 0.9683	1.4353; 0.0097	
	500	3.0533; 0.9681	1.1400; 0.0094	2.6935; 0.9664	0.5724; 0.0050	
	1000	3.1050; 0.9694	0.8719; 0.0069	2.6326; 0.9662	0.3643; 0.0036	
5	0.91	10	3.0567; 0.8551	2.5542; 0.0724	4.8463; 0.8289	3.8083; 0.1015
		25	4.1243; 0.8866	3.0995; 0.0581	5.2761; 0.8620	3.8863; 0.0797
		50	5.0045; 0.9040	3.3867; 0.0513	5.5391; 0.8743	3.9589; 0.0712
		100	5.4823; 0.9160	3.2057; 0.0444	5.8234; 0.8861	3.8355; 0.0655
		500	5.3046; 0.9253	1.9501; 0.0296	5.0579; 0.8886	2.6222; 0.0536
		1000	5.1239; 0.9269	1.3249; 0.0220	4.7715; 0.8899	1.9996; 0.0472
	0.93	10	3.0771; 0.8572	2.6046; 0.0762	5.3253; 0.8714	4.1498; 0.0871
		25	4.1413; 0.8868	3.1551; 0.0594	5.7998; 0.8971	4.2036; 0.0656
		50	4.9511; 0.9045	3.3372; 0.0511	6.0119; 0.9071	4.1283; 0.0570
		100	5.5958; 0.9180	3.2618; 0.0445	6.0426; 0.9128	3.8809; 0.0520
		500	5.2424; 0.9255	1.9181; 0.0292	5.1000; 0.9142	2.4684; 0.0415
		1000	5.1081; 0.9274	1.3282; 0.0222	4.9863; 0.9176	1.9409; 0.0363
	0.95	10	3.8505; 0.9014	3.6440; 0.0615	6.0502; 0.9178	4.3438; 0.0651
		25	4.2405; 0.9176	3.3466; 0.0449	5.9956; 0.9303	4.1376; 0.0459
		50	4.9074; 0.9292	3.4374; 0.0386	5.7054; 0.9331	3.8344; 0.0396
		100	5.3738; 0.9372	3.3306; 0.0342	5.2293; 0.9336	3.2541; 0.0352
		500	5.1517; 0.9445	1.9411; 0.0228	4.4308; 0.9339	1.9226; 0.0275
		1000	5.1241; 0.9474	1.3914; 0.0167	4.2525; 0.9337	1.5576; 0.0253
0.97	10	5.8701; 0.9520	4.9368; 0.0394	6.4033; 0.9532	4.1089; 0.0397	
	25	5.1786; 0.9516	4.5893; 0.0303	5.8148; 0.9595	3.4868; 0.0263	
	50	5.0388; 0.9530	4.2304; 0.0276	5.2442; 0.9597	2.9666; 0.0225	
	100	4.7922; 0.9542	3.6623; 0.0259	4.8486; 0.9599	2.4883; 0.0204	
	500	4.4794; 0.9601	1.9740; 0.0186	4.4268; 0.9615	1.5971; 0.0158	
	1000	4.6837; 0.9642	1.5167; 0.0142	4.4504; 0.9635	1.2659; 0.0125	

TABLE 5.2. Comparisons of MLEs and MDEs of parameters of CG(II) Distribution Based on Monte Carlo Simulation

λ	$q(= 1 - p)$	n	Means of MLEs ($\hat{\lambda}, \hat{q}$)	SD of MLEs ($\hat{\lambda}, \hat{q}$)	Means of MDEs ($\hat{\lambda}, \hat{q}$)	SD of MDEs ($\hat{\lambda}, \hat{q}$)
3	0.91	10	4.1225; 0.8991	2.6322; 0.0298	3.8843; 0.8920	2.8639; 0.0358
		25	3.4070; 0.9062	1.5063; 0.0186	3.4298; 0.9026	1.8148; 0.0213
		50	3.1741; 0.9086	0.9799; 0.0130	3.1557; 0.9069	1.1485; 0.0150
		100	3.0992; 0.9093	0.6587; 0.0090	3.0614; 0.9085	0.7668; 0.0105
		500	3.0176; 0.9101	0.2922; 0.0040	2.9748; 0.9101	0.3224; 0.0046
		1000	3.0093; 0.9100	0.2044; 0.0028	2.9742; 0.9102	0.2232; 0.0032
	0.93	10	4.1668; 0.9203	2.6648; 0.0239	3.8593; 0.9150	2.8412; 0.0274
		25	3.4209; 0.9262	1.4903; 0.0148	3.4364; 0.9236	1.7792; 0.0170
		50	3.2257; 0.9276	0.9942; 0.0104	3.2188; 0.9264	1.1186; 0.0119
		100	3.1266; 0.9285	0.6729; 0.0071	3.0845; 0.9282	0.7561; 0.0082
		500	3.0446; 0.9294	0.2847; 0.0031	3.0022; 0.9293	0.3176; 0.0036
		1000	3.0305; 0.9295	0.2049; 0.0022	2.9998; 0.9294	0.2198; 0.0024
	0.95	10	4.1038; 0.9436	2.6594; 0.0175	3.9606; 0.9384	2.8863; 0.0208
		25	3.4626; 0.9472	1.5207; 0.0107	3.4679; 0.9452	1.7489; 0.0123
		50	3.1993; 0.9486	0.9612; 0.0073	3.2302; 0.9476	1.1330; 0.0085
		100	3.1215; 0.9491	0.6585; 0.0052	3.0842; 0.9490	0.7458; 0.0057
		500	3.0381; 0.9497	0.2892; 0.0023	3.0417; 0.9497	0.3229; 0.0025
		1000	3.0252; 0.9498	0.2034; 0.0016	3.0404; 0.9498	0.2251; 0.0018
0.97	10	4.0492; 0.9659	2.6579; 0.0105	3.9121; 0.9626	2.7708; 0.0128	
	25	3.3954; 0.9682	1.5169; 0.0066	3.4606; 0.9670	1.8124; 0.0074	
	50	3.1348; 0.9691	0.9575; 0.0045	3.2329; 0.9685	1.1103; 0.0051	
	100	3.0486; 0.9695	0.6620; 0.0031	3.0995; 0.9694	0.7425; 0.0036	
	500	2.9631; 0.9699	0.2849; 0.0014	3.0431; 0.9698	0.3228; 0.0015	
	1000	2.9574; 0.9699	0.2040; 0.0010	3.0168; 0.9698	0.2274; 0.0010	
5	0.91	10	6.1029; 0.9033	3.0514; 0.0242	5.5673; 0.9010	3.1964; 0.0275
		25	5.7322; 0.9055	2.1306; 0.0160	5.6174; 0.9050	2.4589; 0.0179
		50	5.3470; 0.9076	1.3879; 0.0111	5.4395; 0.9064	1.7268; 0.0129
		100	5.1908; 0.9083	0.8946; 0.0076	5.2374; 0.9083	1.1386; 0.0090
		500	5.0476; 0.9093	0.3782; 0.0034	5.1006; 0.9094	0.4661; 0.0040
		1000	5.0330; 0.9094	0.2676; 0.0024	5.0747; 0.9096	0.3230; 0.0028
	0.93	10	6.1076; 0.9244	3.0669; 0.0193	5.5820; 0.9222	3.1538; 0.0217
		25	5.6716; 0.9270	2.1158; 0.0126	5.6753; 0.9253	2.5163; 0.0147
		50	5.3022; 0.9285	1.3653; 0.0088	5.4377; 0.9267	1.6739; 0.0100
		100	5.1504; 0.9292	0.9116; 0.0062	5.2570; 0.9279	1.1361; 0.0072
		500	5.0053; 0.9299	0.3755; 0.0027	5.0914; 0.9291	0.4653; 0.0030
		1000	4.9965; 0.9299	0.2705; 0.0019	5.0733; 0.9292	0.3204; 0.0022
	0.95	10	6.1885; 0.9459	3.0459; 0.0137	5.6378; 0.9438	3.1602; 0.0159
		25	5.7006; 0.9481	2.1215; 0.0088	5.6799; 0.9463	2.4927; 0.0108
		50	5.3788; 0.9489	1.3933; 0.0062	5.4157; 0.9479	1.6824; 0.0074
		100	5.2127; 0.9494	0.9086; 0.0043	5.0553; 0.9496	0.4192; 0.0021
		500	5.0671; 0.9500	0.3752; 0.0018	5.0553; 0.9496	0.4192; 0.0020
		1000	5.0509; 0.9500	0.2662; 0.0013	5.0331; 0.9497	0.3153; 0.0015
0.97	10	6.2291; 0.9675	3.0642; 0.0084	5.4861; 0.9662	3.0329; 0.0096	
	25	5.7601; 0.9685	2.1467; 0.0054	5.4998; 0.9679	2.2705; 0.0063	
	50	5.4016; 0.9692	1.3888; 0.0038	5.4111; 0.9688	1.7154; 0.0044	
	100	5.2049; 0.9696	0.8984; 0.0026	5.3095; 0.9692	1.1223; 0.0031	
	500	5.0712; 0.9698	0.3787; 0.0011	5.1219; 0.9698	0.4827; 0.0013	
	1000	5.0458; 0.9699	0.2663; 0.0008	5.0811; 0.9699	0.3312; 0.0009	

Appendix

Proof of Result 3.1: From (2.6), r th order raw moment (μ'_r) of CG(I) can be obtained as

$$E(U^r) = \frac{1}{e^\lambda - 1} \sum_{u=0}^{\infty} u^r (e^{\lambda q^u} - e^{\lambda q^{u+1}})$$

Considering partial sum of the infinite series $\sum_{u=0}^{\infty} u^r (e^{\lambda q^u} - e^{\lambda q^{u+1}})$, it can be easily shown that the series diverges. As a consequence, for CG(I), moments of order $r(\geq 1)$ and hence, MRL function, do not exist for finite λ and for q (or p) $\in (0, 1)$. Similar conclusion can be drawn easily for CG(II).

Proof of Result 3.2.1: Using (3.3), first quartile (Q_1), second quartile or median ($\tilde{\mu}$) and third quartile (Q_3) of CG(I) can be derived as $Q_1 = \frac{1}{\ln(q)} \ln\left(\frac{1}{\lambda} \ln((3/4)e^\lambda + 1/4)\right) - 1$, $\tilde{\mu} = \ln\left(\frac{1}{\lambda} \ln((1/2)e^\lambda + 1/2)\right) - 1$ and $Q_3 = \frac{1}{\ln(q)} \ln\left(\frac{1}{\lambda} \ln((1/4)e^\lambda + 3/4)\right) - 1$, resulting in

$$IQR = Q_3 - Q_1 = \frac{1}{\ln(q)} \ln\left(\frac{\ln\left(\frac{1}{4}e^\lambda + \frac{3}{4}\right)}{\ln\left(\frac{3}{4}e^\lambda + \frac{1}{4}\right)}\right) \text{ and } b_{1X} = \frac{(Q_3 - Q_2) - (Q_2 - Q_1)}{(Q_3 - Q_1)} = \frac{\ln\left(\frac{\ln\left(\frac{1}{4}e^\lambda + \frac{3}{4}\right) \cdot \ln\left(\frac{3}{4}e^\lambda + \frac{1}{4}\right)}{\left(\ln\left(\frac{1}{2}e^\lambda + \frac{1}{2}\right)\right)^2}\right)}{\ln\left(\frac{\ln\left(\frac{1}{4}e^\lambda + \frac{3}{4}\right)}{\ln\left(\frac{3}{4}e^\lambda + \frac{1}{4}\right)}\right)}.$$

Proof of Result 3.2.2: Using (3.5), first quartile (Q_1), second quartile or median ($\tilde{\mu}$) and third quartile (Q_3) of CG(II) can be derived as $Q_1 = \frac{1}{\ln(q)} \ln\left(\frac{-1}{\lambda} \ln((3/4)e^{-\lambda} + 1/4)\right) - 1$, $\tilde{\mu} = \ln\left(\frac{-1}{\lambda} \ln((1/2)e^{-\lambda} + 1/2)\right) - 1$ and $Q_3 = \frac{1}{\ln(q)} \ln\left(\frac{-1}{\lambda} \ln((1/4)e^{-\lambda} + 3/4)\right) - 1$, resulting in

$$IQR = Q_3 - Q_1 = \frac{1}{\ln(q)} \ln\left(\frac{\ln\left(\frac{1}{4}e^{-\lambda} + \frac{3}{4}\right)}{\ln\left(\frac{3}{4}e^{-\lambda} + \frac{1}{4}\right)}\right) \text{ and } b_{1X} = \frac{(Q_3 - Q_2) - (Q_2 - Q_1)}{(Q_3 - Q_1)} = \frac{\ln\left(\frac{\ln\left(\frac{1}{4}e^{-\lambda} + \frac{3}{4}\right) \cdot \ln\left(\frac{3}{4}e^{-\lambda} + \frac{1}{4}\right)}{\left(\ln\left(\frac{1}{2}e^{-\lambda} + \frac{1}{2}\right)\right)^2}\right)}{\ln\left(\frac{\ln\left(\frac{1}{4}e^{-\lambda} + \frac{3}{4}\right)}{\ln\left(\frac{3}{4}e^{-\lambda} + \frac{1}{4}\right)}\right)}.$$

Proof of Result 3.3.1: Write $a(x) = \frac{e^{\lambda q^{x+1}} - 1}{e^{\lambda q^x} - 1}$. Let us for the time being pretend that $a(x)$ is continuous in its domain and it is sufficiently differentiable. Then, differentiating $a(x)$ with respect to x , we get

$$a'(x) \stackrel{sign}{=} (e^{\lambda q^{x+1}} - 1)e^{\lambda q^x} - (e^{\lambda q^x} - 1)qe^{\lambda q^{x+1}} = y^{q+1} - y - qy^{q+1} + qy^q,$$

where $y = e^{\lambda q^x}$ and $y \geq 1$. Now, writing $b(y) = y^{q+1} - y - qy^{q+1} + qy^q$, we see, $b'(y) \stackrel{sign}{=} q^2 y^{q-1}(1-y) - (1-y^q) = c(y)$, say. Further, $c'(y) \stackrel{sign}{=} qy^{q-1}d(y)$ where $d(y) = q(q-1)/y - q^2 + 1$, which is increasing in $y \in [1, e^\lambda]$, giving that $d(y) > 0$ for all y . Thus, $a'(x) > 0$ for all x , which implies that $a(x)$ is increasing in x giving that $h(x)$ is decreasing x . Hence, CG(I) distribution is DFR.

Proof of Result 3.3.2: Expression (3.8) may be alternately written as $h^*(x; q, \lambda) = \frac{e^{\lambda p q^x} - 1}{e^{\lambda q^x} - 1}$.

As before, if we pretend same about the nature of the function h^* , then differentiating h^* with respect to x , we get, $\frac{d}{dx}(h^*(x; q, \lambda)) = \lambda q^x \log q [e^{\lambda q^x(1+p)}(p-1) - e^{\lambda q^x}(1 - pe^{-\lambda p q^x})] > 0$ as $\log q < 0$, $(p-1) < 0$ and $(1 - pe^{-\lambda p q^x}) > 0$, $h^*(x; q, \lambda)$ is increasing in x . Hence, CG(II) distribution is IFR.