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Radial Teukolsky Equation

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CONTENTS OF THE ISSUE

- i. Copyright Notice
 - ii. Editorial Board Members
 - iii. Chief Author and Dean
 - iv. Contents of the Issue
-
1. New Solutions of Radial Teukolsky Equation Via Transformation to Heuns Equation with the Application of Rational Polynomial of at Most Degree 2. *1-11*
 2. On the Hazard Rate Functions of HIV/Aids using Weibull and Exponential Models. *13-15*
 3. A New Method for Estimating Smooth Regression Functions. *17-26*
 4. Effect of Missingness Mechanism on Household Survey Estimates in Nigeria. *27-34*
 5. Effect of Cherenkov Radiation on Superluminal Free Spin-half Particles Motion in Spacetime. *35-48*
 6. The Distribution of Cube Root Transformation of the Error Component of the Multiplicative Time Series Model. *49-60*
-
- v. Fellows
 - vi. Auxiliary Memberships
 - vii. Process of Submission of Research Paper
 - viii. Preferred Author Guidelines
 - ix. Index



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New Solutions of Radial Teukolsky Equation Via Transformation to Heun's Equation with the Application of Rational Polynomial of at Most Degree 2

By S. Akinbode & A. Anjorin

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Abstract- The perturbation equation of massless fields for Kerr-de Sitter geometry are written in form of separable equations as in [19] called the Radial Teukolsky equation. The Radial Teukolsky equation is converted to General Heun's equation with singularities coinciding through some conuent process of one of five singularities. As in [17], [18] rational polynomials of at most degree two are introduced.

Keywords: *heun equation, teukolsky equation, type-d metrics, polynomial solutions.*

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New Solutions of Radial Teukolsky Equation Via Transformation to Heun's Equation with the Application of Rational Polynomial of at Most Degree 2

S. Akinbode ^α & A. Anjorin ^σ

Abstract- The perturbation equation of massless fields for Kerr-de Sitter geometry are written in form of separable equations as in [19] called the Radial Teukolsky equation. The Radial Teukolsky equation is converted to General Heun's equation with singularities coinciding through some confluent process of one of five singularities. As in [17], [18] rational polynomials of at most degree two are introduced.

Keywords: heun equation, teukolsky equation, type-d metrics, polynomial solutions.

I. INTRODUCTION

Teukolsky equation are the consequences of perturbation equation for Kerr-de Sitter geometry with the separability of angular and radial parts respectively. Carter [1] was the first to discover that the scalar wave function is separable. Other consideration is the $\frac{1}{2}$ spin electromagnetic field, gravitational perturbations and gravitino for the Kerr-de Sitter class of geometry.

The Teukolsky equation is applicable in the study of black holes in general. The solutions of the equation are in most cases expressed as series solutions of some specialized functions. This approach has been carried out by so many researchers say Teukolsky (1973), Breuer et al (1977), Frackerell and Crossman (1977), Leahy and Unruh (1979), Chakrabarti (1984), Siedel (1989), Suzuki et al (1989) just to mention but few. Although Teukolsky equation has five singular points one irregular with four regular points. By some confluent process, these singular points are reduced to four coinciding with the singular points of Heun's equation.

The objective of this work is to obtain polynomial solutions for the derived Teukolsky equation through its conversion to Heun's equation through rational polynomials of degree at most 2. New solutions in terms of the rational polynomials are obtained.

The paper is organized as follows; The first section deals with the introduction of Teukolsky equation as described in [19]. The second section deals with the derivation of Teukolsky using the work of [19]. The third

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section has to do with the derivation of Radial Teukolsky and its conversion to Heun's equation. The fourth section has to do with Heun's differential equation and its transformation to hypergeometric differential equation via rational polynomials of at most degree two.

II. THE TEUKOLSKY EQUATION [19]

Teukolsky equation was derived using the Kerr(-Newman)-de Sitter geometries.

$$ds^2 = -p^2 \left(\frac{dr^2}{\Delta_r} + \frac{d\theta^2}{\Delta_\theta} \right) - \frac{\Delta_\theta \sin^2 \theta}{(1 + \alpha)^2 p^2} [adt - (r^2 + a^2)d\varphi]^2 + \frac{\Delta_r}{(1 + \alpha)^2 \rho^2} (dt - a \sin^2 \theta d\varphi)^2, \quad (1)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta_r &= (r^2 + a^2) \left(1 - \frac{a}{ar^2} r^2 \right) - 2Mr + Q^2 = \\ &= -\frac{\alpha}{a^2} (r - r_+) (r - r_-) (r - r'_+) (r - r'_-) \\ \Delta_\theta &= 1 + a \cos^2 \theta, \alpha = \frac{\Lambda a^2}{3}, \bar{\rho} = r + ia \cos \theta \text{ and } \rho^2 = \bar{\rho} \bar{\rho}, \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

where Λ is the cosmological constant, M is the mass of the black hole, Mr its radial momentum and Q its charge. The electromagnetic field due to the charge of the black hole was given by

$$A_\mu dx^\mu = -\frac{Qr}{(1 + \alpha)^2 \rho^2} (dt - a \sin^2 \theta d\varphi). \quad (3)$$

In particular, the following vectors were adopted as the null tetrad,

$$\begin{aligned} l^\mu &= \left(\frac{(1 + \alpha)(r^2 + a^2)}{\Delta_r}, 1, 0, \frac{a(1 + \alpha)}{\Delta_r} \right), \\ n^\mu &= \frac{1}{2\rho^2} ((1 + \alpha)(r^2 + a^2), -\Delta_r, 0, a(1 + \alpha)), \\ m^\mu &= \frac{1}{p\sqrt{2}\Delta_\theta} (ia(1 + \alpha) \sin \theta, 0, \Delta_\theta, \frac{i(1 + \alpha)}{\sin \theta}) \bar{m}^\mu = m^{*\mu}. \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

It was assumed that the time and azimuthal dependence of the fields has the form $e^{-i(\omega t - m\varphi)}$, the tetrad components of derivatives and the electromagnetic field were

$$\begin{aligned} l^\mu &= D_0, \quad n^\mu \partial_\mu = \frac{\Delta_r}{2\rho} D_0^\dagger, \quad m^\mu \partial_\mu = \frac{\sqrt{\Delta_\theta}}{\sqrt{2}\rho} L_0^\dagger, \\ m^\mu \partial_\mu &= \frac{\sqrt{\Delta_\theta}}{\sqrt{2}p^*} L_0, \quad l^\mu A_\mu = -\frac{Qr}{\Delta_r}, \quad n^\mu A_\mu = -\frac{Qr}{2\rho^2}, \\ m^\mu A_\mu &= \bar{m}^\mu A_\mu = 0, \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

where

$$D_n = \partial_r - \frac{i(1 + \alpha)K}{\Delta_r} + n \frac{\partial_r \Delta_r}{\Delta_r}, \quad D_n^\dagger = \partial_r + \frac{i(1 + \alpha)K}{\Delta_r} + n \frac{\partial_r \Delta_r}{\Delta_r},$$



$$L_n = \partial_\theta + \frac{\iota(1 + \alpha)H}{\Delta_\theta} + n \frac{\partial_\theta(\sqrt{\Delta_\theta} \sin \theta)}{\sqrt{\Delta_\theta} \sin \theta},$$

$$L_n^\dagger = \partial_\theta - \frac{\iota(1 + \alpha)H}{\Delta_\theta} + n \frac{\partial_\theta(\sqrt{\Delta_\theta} \sin \theta)}{\sqrt{\Delta_\theta} \sin \theta}, \quad (6)$$

with $K = \omega(r^2 + a^2) - am$ and $H = -a\omega \sin \theta + \frac{m}{\sin \theta}$.

Using the Newman-Penrose formalism it was shown that perturbation equation in the Kerr-de sitter geometry are separable for massless spin $0, \frac{1}{2}, 1, \frac{3}{2}$ and 2 fields. Similarly in the Kerr-Newman-de sitter space those for spin $0, \frac{1}{2}$ fields are also separable. The separated equations for fields with spin s and charge e were given by

$$[\sqrt{\Delta_\theta} L_{1-s}^\dagger \sqrt{\Delta_\theta} L_s - 2(1 + \alpha)(2s - 1)a\omega \cos \theta - 2\alpha(s - 1)(2s - 1) \cos^2 \theta + \lambda] S_s(\theta) = 0$$

$$[\Delta_r D_1 D_s^\dagger + 2(1 + \alpha)(2s - 1)\iota\omega - \frac{2\alpha}{a^2}(s - 1)(2s - 1) + \frac{-2(1 + \alpha)eQKr + \iota seQr \partial_r \Delta_r + e^2 Q^2 r^2}{\Delta_r} - 2\iota seQ - \lambda] R_s(r) = 0. \quad (7)$$

III. TRANSFORMATION OF TEUKOLSKY EQUATION TO HEUN'S EQUATION [19]

It was shown in [19] that the Teukolsky equations can be transformed to the Heun's equation by factoring out a single regular singularity.

a) Radial Teukolsky equation

From (7), the radial teukolsky equation is explicitly written by

$$\left\{ \Delta_r^{-s} \frac{d}{dr} \Delta_r^{s+1} \frac{d}{dr} + \frac{1}{\Delta_r} \left[(1 + \alpha)^2 \left(K - \frac{eQr}{1 + \alpha} \right)^2 \left(K - \frac{eQr}{1 + \alpha} \right) \frac{d\Delta_r}{dr} \right] + 4\iota s(1 + \alpha)\omega r - \frac{2\alpha}{a^2}(s + 1)(2s + 1)r^2 + 2s(1 - \alpha) - \iota seQ - \lambda \right\} R = 0, \quad (8)$$

This equation has five regular singularities at r^\pm, r'_\pm and ∞ which are assigned such that $r_\pm \rightarrow M \pm \sqrt{M^2 - a^2 - Q^2} = r_\pm^0$ and $r'_\pm \rightarrow \pm \frac{a}{\alpha}$ in the limit $\alpha \rightarrow 0 (\Lambda \rightarrow 0)$. By using the new variable

$$z = \left(\frac{r_+ - r'_-}{r_+ - r_-} \right) \left(\frac{r - r_-}{r - r'_-} \right),$$

equation (8) becomes an equation which has regular singularities at $0, 1, z_r, z_\infty$ and ∞ ,

$$z_r = \left(\frac{r_+ - r'_-}{r_+ - r_-} \right) \left(\frac{r'_+ - r_-}{r'_+ - r'_-} \right),$$

$$z_\infty = \frac{r_+ - r'_-}{r_+ - r_-}.$$

Again we can factor out the singularity at $z = z_\infty$ by the transformation as

$$Ra(z) = z^{B_1}(z - 1)^{B_2}(z - z_r)^{B_3}(z - z_\infty)^{2s+1}g(z)$$

$$B_1 = \frac{1}{2} \left\{ -s \pm \iota \left[\frac{2(1 + \alpha)a^2(\omega(r_-^2 + a^2) - am - \frac{eQr_-}{1 + \alpha})}{\alpha(r'_+ - r_-)(r'_- - r_-)(r_+ - r_-)} - \iota s \right] \right\}$$

$$B_2 = \frac{1}{2} \left\{ -s \pm i \left[\frac{2(1+\alpha)a^2(\omega(r_+^2 + a^2) - am - \frac{eQr_+}{1+\alpha})}{\alpha(r'_+ - r_+)(r'_- - r_+)(r_- - r_+)} - is \right] \right\}$$

$$B_3 = \frac{1}{2} \left\{ -s \pm i \left[\frac{2(1+\alpha)a^2(\omega(r_+^2 + a^2) - am - \frac{eQr'_\pm}{1+\alpha})}{\alpha(r'_- - r_+)(r'_- - r_+)(r_+ - r_+)} - is \right] \right\}. \quad (9)$$

Then $g(z)$ satisfies the Heun's equation as

$$\left\{ \frac{d^2}{dz^2} + \left[\frac{2B_1 + s + 1}{z} + \frac{2B_2 + s + 1}{z - 1} + \frac{2B_3 + s + 1}{z - z_r} \right] \frac{d}{dz} + \frac{\sigma_+ \sigma_- z + \nu}{z(z - 1)(z - z_r)} \right\} g(z) = 0, \quad (10)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_\pm &= B_1 + B_2 + B_3 + 2s \\ &+ \frac{1}{2} \left\{ -s \pm i \left[\frac{2(1+\alpha)a^2(\omega(r_-'^2 + a^2) - am - \frac{eQr'_-}{1+\alpha})}{(r_+ - r'_-)(r_- - r'_-)(r'_+ - r'_-)} - is \right] \right\} \\ \nu &= \frac{2a^4(1+\alpha)^2(r_+ - r_+)^2(r_+ - r'_-)^2(r_- - r'_-)(r'_+ - r'_-)}{\alpha^2 D(r_+ - r_-)} \\ &\left\{ -\omega^2 r_-^3(r_+ r_- - 2r_+ r'_+ + r_- r'_+) + 2a\omega(a\omega - m)r_-(r_+ r'_+ - r_-^2) \right. \\ &- a^2(a\omega - m)^2(2r_- - r_+ - r'_+) \\ &+ \frac{eQ}{1+\alpha} [\omega r_-^2(r_+ r_- + r_-^2 - 3r_+ r'_+ + r_- r'_+) \\ &- a(a\omega - m)(r_+ r_- - 3r_-^2 + r_+ r'_+ + r_- r'_+)] \\ &\left. + \left(\frac{eQ}{1+\alpha} \right)^2 r_- (-r_-^2 + r_+ r'_+) \right\} \\ &+ \frac{2isa^2(1+\alpha) \left[\omega(r_- r'_- + a^2) - am - \frac{eQ}{1+\alpha} \frac{r_- + r'_-}{2} \right]}{(r_+ - r_-)(r'_+ - r'_-)(r_- - r'_-)} \\ &+ (s+1)(2s+1) \left[\frac{2r_-'^2}{(r_+ - r_-)(r'_+ - r'_-)} - z_\infty \right] \\ &- 2B_1(z_r B_2 + B_3) - (s+1)[(1+z_r)B_1 + z_r B_2 + B_3] \\ &- \frac{a^2}{\alpha(r_+ - r_-)(r'_+ - r'_-)} [-\lambda - 2iseQ + 2s(1-\alpha)]. \quad (11) \end{aligned}$$

Here D is the discriminant of

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta_r &= 0 \\ D &= (r_+ - r_-)^2(r_+ - r'_+)^2(r_+ - r'_-)^2(r_- - r'_+)^2(r_- - r'_-)^2(r'_+ - r'_-)^2 \\ &= \frac{16a^{10}}{\alpha^5} \left\{ (1-\alpha)^3 [M^2 - (1-\alpha)(a^2 + Q^2)] \right. \\ &\left. + \frac{\alpha}{a^2} [-27M^4 + 36(1-\alpha)M^2(a^2 + Q^2)] \right\} \end{aligned}$$

$$-8(1 - \alpha)^2(a^2 + Q^2)^2] - \frac{16\alpha^2}{a^4}(a^2 + Q^2)^3\}. \tag{12}$$

The sign ambiguity in B_2 or B_3 are related to the boundary condition at the horizon or at the de Sitter horizon, respectively. We can either one of signs of B_1

IV. HEUN'S EQUATION TO HYPERGEOMETRIC VIA RATIONAL POLYNOMIAL TRANSFORMATIONS

In this section, we transform the Heun's equation derived above to hypergeometric differential equation with three singularities and back again to the Heun's solutions with polynomial terms.

The hypergeometric equation has three regular singular points. Heun's equation has four regular points. The problem of conversion from Heun's equation to hypergeometric equation has been treated in the works of K.Kuiken[17]. The purpose of this work is to derive some forms solution to the Heun's equation via some rational transformation as stated earlier. The steps taken shall be conversion of Heun's function to the hypergeometric function then taken the derivatives, and through a push and pull back process we arrive back to a new Heun's function different from the original Heun's function.

Every homogenous linear second order differential equation with four regular singularities can be transformed into (10) with the assumption that $2B_1 + s + 1 = \gamma$, $2B_2 + s + 1 = \delta$, $2B_3 + s + 1 = \epsilon$, $\rho_{\pm} = \alpha\beta$, $\nu = q$, $z = t$ and $z_r = d$ as defined above, and read as

$$\frac{d^2u}{dt^2} + \left(\frac{\gamma}{t} + \frac{\delta}{t-1} + \frac{\epsilon}{t-d}\right)\frac{du}{dt} + \frac{\alpha\beta t - q}{t(t-1)(t-d)}u = 0, \tag{13}$$

where $\{\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta, \epsilon, d, q\} (d \neq 0, 1)$ are parameters, generally complex and arbitrary, linked by FUSCHAIN constraint $\alpha + \beta + 1 = \gamma + \delta + \epsilon$. This equation has four regular singular points at $\{0, 1, a, \infty\}$, with the exponents of these singular being respectively, $\{0, 1, -\gamma\}$, $\{0, 1, -\epsilon\}$ and $\{\alpha, \beta\}$. The equation (13) is called Heun's equation.

The Hypergeometric equation

$$z(1 - z)\frac{d^2u}{dz^2} + [c - (a + b + 1)z]\frac{du}{dz} - aby = 0, \tag{14}$$

has three regular singular points. in the above (13), it has been shown that these two equation above can be transformed to one another via six rational polynomial $z = R(t)$, where $R(t) = t^2, 1 - t^2, (t-1)^2, 2t - t^2(2t-1)^2, 4t(1-t)$. The following parameter relations were deduced.

For the polynomial $R(t) = t^2$

- $\alpha + \beta = 2(a + b), \alpha\beta = 4ab, \gamma = -1 + 2c, \delta = 1 + a + b - c, \delta\epsilon = \delta, q = 0$ and $d = -2$.

For the polynomial $R(t) = 1 - t^2$

- $\alpha + \beta = 2(a + b), \alpha\beta = 4ab, \gamma = -1 - 2c + 2a + 2b, \delta = c, \epsilon = \delta, q = 0$ and $d = 12$.

For the polynomial $R(t) = 2t - t^2$

- $\alpha + \beta = 2(a + b), \alpha\beta = 4ab, \gamma = c, \delta = 1 - 2c + 2a + 2b, \epsilon = \delta = c, q = 4ab$ and $d = 2$.

For the polynomial $R(t) = (2t - 1)^2$

- $\alpha + \beta = 2(a + b), \alpha\beta = 4ab, \gamma = -1 + a + b - c, \delta = \gamma, \delta = \epsilon = -1, q = 4ab$ and $d = \frac{1}{2}$.

For the polynomial $R(t) = 4t(1 - t)^2$

- $\alpha + \beta = 2(a + b), \alpha\beta = 4ab, \gamma = c, \delta = \gamma, \delta = 1 - 2c + 2a + 2b, q = 2ab$ and $d = \frac{1}{2}$.

Assuming $H(d, q, \alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta, \epsilon; t) = R_s(t); s = 1 \dots 14$ are solutions of the Radial Teukolsky in terms of Heun's with polynomial factor and ${}_2F_1(a, b; c; z = R(t))$ are representative forms of the solutions of (13) and (14) respective, together with parameters above relations can be established between these two forms via the polynomials data given above. We provide an answer to this in this paper. Indeed, we provide that the derivative of the solution of Heun's can be expressed in terms of another Heun's solution giving rise to new solutions of Teukolsky Radial equation.

V. MAIN RESULTS

a) New Derived Solutions of Radial Teukolsky Equation

In this section we shall apply the relation above in obtaining the derive solutions via these polynomial transformations. let $D = \frac{d}{dt}$ be a differential operator. Since $D{}_2F_1(a, b; c; z = R(t)) = R'(t) \frac{ab}{c} {}_2F_1(a + 1, b + 1; c + 1; z = R(t))$ and through a push and pull back processes we have the following possible solutions for the Teukolsky Radial equation;

1. For polynomial $R(t) = t^2$.

[a] Using $c = \frac{(\gamma+1)}{2}$, we get

$$\begin{aligned} & DH(-1, 0; \alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta, \epsilon; t) \\ &= \frac{\alpha\beta t}{\gamma + 1} {}_2F_1\left(\frac{\beta + 2}{2}, \frac{\alpha + 2}{2}, \frac{\gamma + 3}{2}; R(t) = t^2\right) \\ &= \frac{\alpha\beta t}{\gamma + 1} H(-1, 0; \alpha + 2, \beta + 2, \gamma + 2, \frac{\alpha + \beta - \gamma + 3}{2}, \frac{\alpha + \beta - \gamma + 3}{2}; t) \\ &= R_1(t). \end{aligned} \tag{15}$$

[b] Using $c = 1 - \delta + a + b$, we get

$$\begin{aligned} & DH(-1, 0; \alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta, \epsilon; t) \\ &= \frac{\alpha\beta t}{\alpha + \beta + 2(1 - \delta)} {}_2F_1\left(\frac{\beta + 2}{2}, \frac{\alpha + 2}{2}, \alpha + \beta - 2(2 - \delta); R(t) = t^2\right) \\ &= \frac{\alpha\beta t}{\gamma + 1} \times \\ & H(-1, 0; \alpha + 2, \beta + 2, \gamma + 2, \frac{\alpha + \beta - \gamma + 3}{2}, \frac{\alpha + \beta - \gamma + 3}{2}; t) \end{aligned}$$

$$= \frac{\alpha\beta t}{\alpha + \beta + 2(1 - \delta)}$$

$$\times H(-1, 0; \alpha + 2, \beta + 2, \alpha + \beta - 2\delta + 1, 1 + \delta, 1 + \delta; t) = R_2(t). \quad (16)$$

By changing δ to ϵ , similar expression can be obtained.

2. For the polynomial $R(t) = 1 - t^2$.

[a] Using $\delta = c$, we get

$$DH(-1, 0; \alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta, \epsilon; t)$$

$$= \frac{\alpha\beta t}{2\delta} {}_2F_1\left(\frac{\beta + 2}{2}, \frac{\alpha + 2}{2}; \delta + 1; R(t) = t^2\right)$$

$$= \frac{\alpha\beta t}{2\delta} H(-1, 0, \alpha + 2, \beta + 2, \alpha + \beta, -2\delta + 3, \delta + 1, \delta + 1; t)$$

$$= R_3(t). \quad (17)$$

[b] $DH(-1, 0; \alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta, \epsilon; t)$

$$= \frac{\alpha\beta t}{2\delta} {}_2F_1\left(\frac{\beta + 2}{2}, \frac{\alpha + 2}{2}; \epsilon + 1; R(t) = 1 - t^2\right)$$

$$= \frac{\alpha\beta t}{2\delta} H(-1, 0, \alpha + 2, \beta + 2, \alpha + \beta, -2\epsilon + 3, \epsilon + 1, \epsilon + 1; t)$$

$$= R_4(t). \quad (18)$$

[c] Using $c = 1 - \gamma + 2a + 2b$ we obtain

$$DH(-1, 0; \alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta, \epsilon; t) =$$

$$- \frac{\alpha\beta t}{\alpha + \beta + 2(1 - \delta)} \times$$

$${}_2F_1\left(\frac{\beta + 2}{2}, \frac{\alpha + 2}{2}, \frac{\alpha + \beta - \gamma + 3}{2}; R(t) = 1 - t^2\right)$$

$$= \frac{\alpha\beta t}{\alpha + \beta + 2(1 - \delta)} \times$$

$$H(-1, 0; \alpha + 2, \beta + 2, \gamma + 2, \frac{\alpha + \beta - \gamma + 3}{2}, \frac{\alpha + \beta - \gamma + 3}{2})$$

$$= R_5(t). \quad (19)$$

3. For the polynomial $R(t) = 2t - 2t^2$.

[a] Using $c = 1 - a + b - \gamma$ we obtain

$$DH(2, \alpha\beta, \alpha, \gamma, \delta, \epsilon; t) =$$

$$\frac{\alpha\beta(1 - t)}{2\gamma} {}_2F_1\left(\frac{\beta + 2}{2}, \frac{\alpha + 2}{2}; \gamma + 1; R(t) = 2t - 2t^2\right)$$

$$= \frac{\alpha\beta(1 - t)}{2\gamma} \times$$

$$H(2, (\beta + 2)(\alpha + 2); \alpha + 2, \beta + 2, \gamma + 1, \alpha + \beta - 2\gamma + 3, \eta; t)$$

$$= R_6(t)$$

$$\text{where } \eta = \frac{\alpha + \beta - 2\gamma + 3}{2}. \quad (20)$$

$$\begin{aligned} [b] \quad & DH(2, \alpha\beta, \alpha, \gamma, \delta, \epsilon; t) \\ &= \frac{\alpha\beta(1-t)}{2\gamma} {}_2F_1\left(\frac{\beta+2}{2}, \frac{\alpha+2}{2}; \frac{\alpha+\beta+2(2-\gamma)}{2}; R(t) = 2t - t^2\right) \\ &= \frac{\alpha\beta(1-t)}{2\gamma} \times \\ & \quad H(2, (\alpha+2)(\beta+2); \alpha+2, \beta+2, \gamma+1, \alpha+\beta-2\gamma+3, \gamma+1; t) \\ &= R_7(t). \end{aligned} \quad (21)$$

By changing γ to ϵ , we can obtain similar expression.

[c] Using $c = \frac{(1+\delta)}{2}$, we get

$$\begin{aligned} & DH(2, \alpha\beta, \alpha, \gamma, \delta, \epsilon; t) \\ &= \frac{\alpha\beta(1-t)}{2\gamma} {}_2F_1\left(\frac{\beta+2}{2}, \frac{\alpha+2}{2}, \frac{\delta+2}{2}; R(t) = 2t - t^2\right) \\ &= \frac{\alpha\beta(1-t)}{2\gamma} \\ & \quad \times (2, (\alpha+2)(\beta+2); \alpha+2, \beta+2, \zeta, \delta+2, \zeta; t) \\ &= R_8(t). \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{where } \zeta = \frac{\alpha + \beta - \delta + 3}{2} \quad (22)$$

4. For polynomial $R(t) = (1 - t^2)$

[a]. Using $c = \frac{(1+\delta)}{2}$, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} & DH(2, \alpha\beta; \alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta, \epsilon; t) \\ &= \frac{\alpha\beta(t-1)}{\delta+1} {}_2F_1\left(\frac{\beta+2}{2}, \frac{\alpha+2}{2}; \frac{\delta+3}{2}; R(t) = (t-1)^2\right) \\ &= \frac{\alpha\beta(t-1)}{\delta+1} \times H(2, (\alpha+2)(\beta+2); \alpha+2, \beta+2, \zeta, \delta+2, \zeta; t) \\ &= R_9(t), \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{where } \zeta = \frac{\alpha + \beta - \delta + 3}{2}. \quad (23)$$

[b]. Using $c = \frac{(1-\gamma+2\alpha+2\beta)}{2}$, we get

$$\begin{aligned} & DH(2, \alpha\beta; \alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta, \epsilon; t) \\ &= \frac{\alpha\beta(t-1)}{\alpha+\beta-\gamma+1} {}_2F_1\left(\frac{\beta+2}{2}, \frac{\alpha+2}{2}; \frac{\alpha+\beta-\gamma+3}{2}; R(t) = (t-1)^2\right) \\ &= \frac{\alpha\beta(t-1)}{\alpha+\beta-\gamma+1} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \times H\left(2, (\beta + 2)(\alpha + 2); \alpha + 2, \beta + 2, \frac{\gamma + 3}{2}, \alpha + \beta - 2\gamma + 3, \frac{\gamma + 3}{2}; t\right) \\ & = R_{10}(t). \end{aligned} \tag{24}$$

[c] By changing γ to ϵ in above, similar relation can be obtained.

5. For polynomial $R(t) = (2t - 1)^2$.

[a]. Using $c = \frac{1+\epsilon}{2} = \frac{1+\delta}{2}$

$$\begin{aligned} & DH\left(\frac{1}{2}, \alpha\beta; \alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta, \epsilon; t\right) \\ & = \frac{2(2t - 1)\alpha\beta}{(\epsilon + 1)} {}_2F_1\left(\frac{\beta + 2}{2}, \frac{\alpha + 2}{2}; \frac{\epsilon + 3}{2}; R(t) = (2t - 1)^2\right) \\ & = \frac{2(2t - 1)\alpha\beta}{(\epsilon + 1)} \\ & \times \left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{(\alpha + 2)(\beta + 2)}{2}; \alpha + 2, \beta + 2, \frac{\alpha + \beta - \epsilon - 1}{2}, \epsilon + 2; t\right) \\ & = R_{11}(t). \end{aligned} \tag{25}$$

By changing ϵ to δ a similar expression can be obtained.

[b] Using $c = -1 + a + b - \gamma$, we obtained

$$\begin{aligned} & DH\left(\frac{1}{2}, \alpha\beta; \alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta, \epsilon; t\right) \\ & = \frac{2(2t - 1)\alpha\beta}{(\epsilon + 1)} {}_2F_1\left(\frac{\beta + 2}{2}, \frac{\alpha + 2}{2}; \frac{\alpha + \beta - 2\gamma}{2}; R(t) = (2t - 1)^2\right) \\ & = \frac{2(2t - 1)\alpha\beta}{(\epsilon + 1)} \\ & \times \left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{(\alpha + 2)(\beta + 2)}{2}; \alpha + 2, \beta + 2, \mu, \mu, \tau; t\right) \\ & = R_{12}(t). \end{aligned} \tag{26}$$

where $\tau = \alpha + \beta - 2(\gamma - \frac{1}{2})$ and $\mu = \frac{\alpha + \beta + 2(1 - \gamma)}{2}$

6. For the polynomial $R(t) = 4t(1 - t)$

[a] Using $c = \gamma$, we get

$$\begin{aligned} & DH\left(\frac{1}{2}, \alpha\beta; \alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta, \epsilon; t\right) \\ & = \frac{(1 - 2t)\alpha\beta}{\gamma} {}_2F_1\left(\frac{\beta + 2}{2}, \frac{\alpha + 2}{2}; \gamma + 1; R(t) = 4t(1 - t)\right) \\ & = \frac{(1 - 2t)\alpha\beta}{\gamma} \\ & \times H\left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{(\alpha + 2)(\beta + 2)}{2}; \alpha + 2, \beta + 2, \gamma + 1, \alpha + \beta - 2\gamma + 3; t\right) \end{aligned}$$

$$= R_{13}(t). \tag{27}$$

[b] Using $c = \frac{(1-\epsilon+2a+2b)}{2}$

$$\begin{aligned} & DH\left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{\alpha\beta}{2}; \beta, \alpha, \gamma, \delta, \epsilon, ; t\right) \\ &= \frac{(1-2t)\alpha\beta}{\alpha + \beta - \epsilon + 1_2} F_1\left(\frac{\beta+2}{2}, \frac{\alpha+2}{2}; \frac{\alpha + \beta - \epsilon + 3}{2} R(t) = 4t(1-t)\right) \\ &= \frac{(1-2t)\alpha\beta}{\alpha + \beta - \epsilon + 1} \\ &\times \left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{(\alpha+2)(\beta+2)}{2}; \alpha+2, \beta+2, \gamma, \omega, \omega, \epsilon+2; t\right) \\ &= R_{14}(t), \tag{28} \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\omega = \frac{\alpha + \beta - \epsilon + 3}{2}.$$

IV. CONCLUDING REMARKS AND SUGGESTIONS

In this paper, we have shown that the solutions of the derived Radial Teukol-sky equation transformed to Heun's equation could be obtained in form of Heun's functions via polynomials of at most degree two transformations. The Heun's equation was initially compare with the hypergeometric differential equation with three singularities via the giving polynomials. Another results could be obtained if we apply the integral operator instead of the differential operator. Polynomials of higher degrees are being consider.

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On the Hazard Rate Functions of HIV/Aids using Weibull and Exponential Models

By O. D Ogunwale & O. Faweya
Ekiti State University

Abstract- This paper presents the hazard rate functions of Weibull and Exponential Distributions. Estimates of the hazard rates were obtained using simulated HIV/AIDS data, it was found that for exponential distribution the hazard rate is constant while that of the Weibull distribution increases as the time of infection increases.

Keywords: hazard, exponential distribution, weibull distribution, infection time.

GJSFR-F Classification : FOR Code : 11D61



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O. D Ogunwale ^α & O. Faweya ^σ

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I. INTRODUCTION

The hazard rate or mortality rates function $h(t)$ is usually obtained from the survival function and is defined as the probability that an individual who is under observation at a time t has an event at time t . It represents the instantaneous event rate for an individual who has already survival to time t .

The hazard rate $h(t)$, for a given distribution whose survival function is given by $S(t)$ is defined as

$$h(t) = \frac{\frac{d}{dt}S(t)}{S(t)} \quad \text{----- (1)}$$

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

The survival function of Weibull distribution is

$$\begin{aligned} S(t) &= P(T \geq t) \\ &= \int_t^\infty \lambda \gamma t^{\gamma-1} e^{-\lambda t^\gamma} dt \\ &= e^{-\lambda t^\gamma} \quad \text{----- (2)} \end{aligned}$$

The hazard rate function is therefore

$$\begin{aligned} h(t) &= \frac{\frac{d}{dt}e^{-\lambda t^\gamma}}{e^{-\lambda t^\gamma}} \\ &= \frac{\lambda \gamma t^{\gamma-1} e^{-\lambda t^\gamma}}{e^{-\lambda t^\gamma}} \\ &= \lambda \gamma t^\gamma \quad \text{----- (3)} \end{aligned}$$

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For exponential distribution $S(t)$ is obtained as follows

$$S(t) = \int_t^\infty \lambda e^{-\lambda t} dt = e^{-\lambda t} \quad \text{-----} \quad (4)$$

$$h(t) = \frac{-\frac{d}{dt}e^{-\lambda t}}{e^{-\lambda t}} = \frac{\lambda e^{-\lambda t}}{e^{-\lambda t}} = \lambda \quad \text{-----} \quad (5)$$

Hence the hazard rate of exponential survival function is equal to the parameter and is always a constant.

In dynamics of epidemics such as HIV/AIDS the hazard rate is not constant. Hence the Weibull has assumption is preferred. In particular, the hazard rate increases as the period of infectiousness increases.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

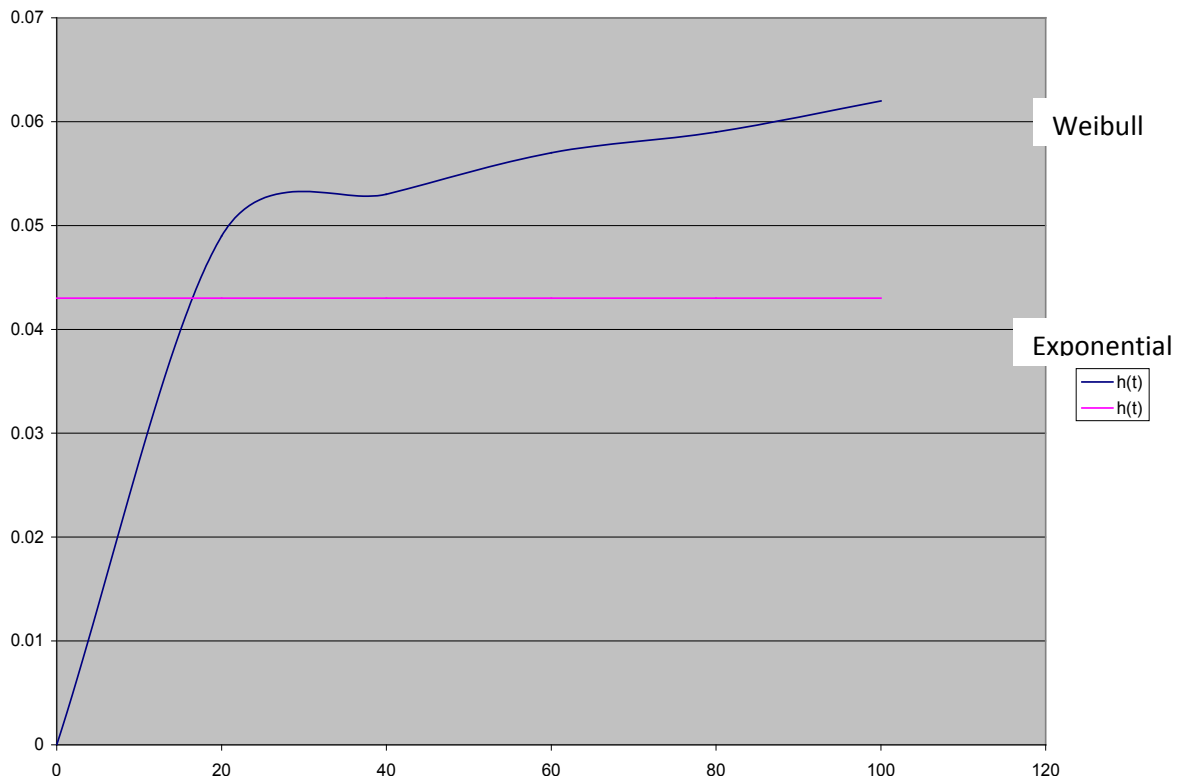
The Weibull 7⁺⁺ HIV/AIDS simulation for Weibull and Exponential Models with $n = 500$ yields for Weibull $\lambda = 0.0256, \gamma = 1.156$. For exponential $\lambda = 0.043$ With t (in months) = 0, 20, 40, 60, 80 and 100 yields the following tables For Weibull

| | | | | | | |
|------|---|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| T | 0 | 20 | 40 | 60 | 80 | 100 |
| h(t) | 0 | 0.049 | 0.053 | 0.057 | 0.059 | 0.062 |

and for exponential

| | | | | | | |
|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| T | 0 | 20 | 40 | 60 | 80 | 100 |
| h(t) | 0.043 | 0.043 | 0.043 | 0.043 | 0.043 | 0.043 |

The results are displayed in the following graph.



It could be observed from the graphical display that, the hazard rate using Exponential Survival Model is $\lambda = 0.043$ which is shown as a straight line with intercept 0.043 and is parallel to the t axis. Also looking at the display for Weibull's model, it increases sharply during the first 20 months of infectiousness and increases steadily from over 20 months.

IV. CONCLUSION

The hazard or mortality rate is the determiner of the number of years/months an individual diagnosed of HIV/AIDS or any other epidemic will survive before death.

The result obtained, for Exponential Function, show that the hazard rate is $\lambda = 0.043$ which is constant. This is not always the case with many epidemics like HIV/AIDS, for example, but the Weibull Model provided an in-depth information.

In the first 20 months of infection the failure rate increases sharply and this means that the immune system of an individual will breakdown devastatingly during this period this accounts for the fact that almost half of a cohort of infected individuals will die within the first 20 months approximately (Adeleke and Ogunwale 2013). The Weibull model is thus preferred to the Exponential Model because of this reason.

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A New Method for Estimating Smooth Regression Functions

By Eunji Lim & Annerys Matos

Kean University, United States

Abstract- We propose a new method for estimating a regression function from noisy data when the underlying function is known to satisfy a certain smoothness condition. The proposed method fits a function to the data set so that the roughness of the fitted function is minimized while ensuring that the sum of the absolute deviations of the fitted function from the data points does not exceed a certain limit. It is shown that the fitted function exists and can be computed by solving a quadratic program. Numerical results demonstrate that the proposed method generates more efficient estimates than its alternative in terms of the mean square error and the amount of time required to compute the fit.

Keywords: *nonparametric regression, smoothing spline, quadratic programming, penalized least, squares regression.*

GJSFR-F Classification : FOR Code : 62J05



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A New Method for Estimating Smooth Regression Functions

Eunji Lim ^α & Annerys Matos ^σ

Abstract- We propose a new method for estimating a regression function from noisy data when the underlying function is known to satisfy a certain smoothness condition. The proposed method fits a function to the data set so that the roughness of the fitted function is minimized while ensuring that the sum of the absolute deviations of the fitted function from the data points does not exceed a certain limit. It is shown that the fitted function exists and can be computed by solving a quadratic program. Numerical results demonstrate that the proposed method generates more efficient estimates than its alternative in terms of the mean square error and the amount of time required to compute the fit.

Keywords: nonparametric regression, smoothing spline, quadratic programming, penalized least, squares regression.

I. INTRODUCTION

When estimating an unknown function from noisy data, the underlying function is often assumed to be smooth in the independent variables. For example, the price of a stock option and its second derivative are often assumed to be smooth in the underlying stock price over a domain of interest: see Section 3.1 of Lim and Attallah (2016) for an example. In this paper, we consider the problem of estimating a function $f_* : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ over a domain $[a, b]$ of interest, which is known to have a square integrable k th derivative ($k \geq 2$), by observing a data set $((x_i, Y_{ij}) : 1 \leq i \leq n, 1 \leq j \leq m)$ satisfying

$$Y_{ij} = f_*(x_i) + \epsilon_{ij},$$

where the x_i 's satisfy $a < x_1 < \dots < x_n < b$, and the ϵ_{ij} 's are independent and identically distributed (iid) random variables with a mean of 0 and a variance of $\sigma^2 < \infty$.

One of the most popular approaches to estimating the underlying function f_* from the data set is to find a smooth function that is close to the data set by solving the following optimization problem:

$$\text{Minimize} \quad (1/n) \sum_{i=1}^n (g(x_i) - \bar{Y}_i)^2 + \lambda \int_a^b \{g^{(k)}(x)\}^2 dx \quad (1)$$

over $g \in \mathcal{D}^k$, where $\bar{Y}_i = \sum_{j=1}^m Y_{ij}/m$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$, λ is a non-negative constant,

$$\mathcal{D}^k = \left\{ f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} : f \text{ is } k \text{ times differentiable and } \int_a^b \{f^{(k)}(x)\}^2 dx < \infty \right\},$$

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and $g^{(k)}$ is the k th derivative of g . The term $(1/n) \sum_{i=1}^n (g(x_i) - \bar{Y}_i)^2$ in (1) measures the closeness of the fitted function g to the data set, and the term $\int_a^b \{g^{(k)}(x)\}^2 dx$ in (1) measures the “roughness” of the fitted function g . The parameter λ controls the trade-off between the closeness to the data set and the roughness of the fitted function.

Problem (1) appears to be an infinite-dimensional optimization problem at first glance, but the solution to (1) is known to be a piecewise polynomial function of degree $2k - 1$ with knots x_1, \dots, x_n (Theorem 20.1 on page 412 of Györfi et al., 2002). Since the set of piecewise polynomial functions of degree $2k - 1$ with knots x_1, \dots, x_n is finite dimensional, (1) can be reduced to an optimization problem over a finite-dimensional space. In fact, the solution to (1) can be obtained by solving a system of linear equations: see (20.6) on page 412 of Györfi et al. (2002) for details.

Despite the fact that the solution to (1) can be obtained easily, the performance of the solution to (1) is highly sensitive to the choice of λ . Several authors have proposed the method of cross-validation for choosing λ (Wahba and Wold, 1975). In the method of cross-validation, λ is chosen so that it minimizes the average squared error, which is defined by

$$CV(\lambda) = \sum_{i=1}^n (\tilde{g}_\lambda^i(x_i) - \bar{Y}_i)^2 / n$$

for $\lambda \geq 0$, where \tilde{g}_λ^i is the solution to (1) with the i th data point, (x_i, \bar{Y}_i) , omitted. In order to select the right value of λ , one needs to find the minimizer of $CV(\lambda)$ over $\lambda \geq 0$. $CV(\lambda)$ is a nonlinear function in λ in general. Thus, it takes a significant amount of time in practice to find the minimizer of $CV(\lambda)$.

To overcome the issue of selecting the right value of λ , the solution \tilde{g}_n to the following alternative formulation is preferred in the numerical analysis community:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Problem (A):} \quad & \text{Minimize} \quad \int_a^b \{g^{(k)}(x)\}^2 dx \\ & \text{subject to} \quad (1/n) \sum_{i=1}^n (g(x_i) - \bar{Y}_i)^2 \leq u_0 \end{aligned}$$

for some constant u_0 over $g \in \mathcal{D}^k$, which was first proposed by Reinsch (1967). Problem (A) is preferred in the numerical analysis community because a good estimate of u_0 can be easily computed from the data set $((x_i, Y_{ij}) : 1 \leq i \leq n, 1 \leq j \leq m)$ by using $\sum_{i=1}^n S_i^2 / (nm)$, where $S_i^2 = \sum_{j=1}^m (Y_{ij} - \bar{Y}_i)^2 / (m - 1)$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$: see page 151 of Lim and Attallah (2016) for details.

Recently, Lim and Attallah (2016) showed that the solution to Problem (A) can be computed by solving a convex program. Several efficient algorithms exist for solving convex programming problems, and they provide guaranteed convergence to the global solution; see the Lagrangian method on page 217 of Zangwill (1969) for an example of methods that solve convex programs. Thus, the formulation in Lim and Attallah (2016) enables one to compute the solution to Problem (A) with guaranteed convergence. However, the amount of time required to solve a convex program increases rapidly as $n \rightarrow \infty$, and hence, a computationally more efficient formulation is desired.

In this paper, we propose a new formulation that is designed for better computational efficiency. The new formulation replaces the constraint $(1/n) \sum_{i=1}^n (g(x_i) - \bar{Y}_i)^2 \leq u_0$ in Problem (A) with $(1/n) \sum_{i=1}^n |g(x_i) - \bar{Y}_i| \leq g_0$ for some constant g_0 . Thus, our proposed estimator is the solution \hat{g}_n to the following optimization problem:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Problem (B):} \quad & \text{Minimize} \quad \int_a^b \{g^{(k)}(x)\}^2 dx \\ & \text{subject to} \quad (1/n) \sum_{i=1}^n |g(x_i) - \bar{Y}_i| \leq g_0 \end{aligned}$$

over $g \in \mathcal{D}^k$. Problem (B) can be further transformed into a quadratic program (see Proposition 1 of this paper), so the solution to Problem (B) can be obtained by solving a quadratic program. Quadratic programs are special cases of convex programs with quadratic objective functions and linear constraints, so they can be solved more efficiently than convex programs. Thus, the solution to our new formulation can be computed more efficiently than the solution to Problem (A). Moreover, the constant g_0 appearing in Problem (B) can be estimated from the data set $((x_i, Y_{ij}) : 1 \leq i \leq n, 1 \leq j \leq m)$ readily, so the performance of the proposed estimator \hat{g}_n does not rely on any unnatural parameters; see Section 2.1 of this paper for a discussion of how to estimate g_0 . Even though Problem (B) was motivated by the need for better computational efficiency, the numerical experiments in Section 3 show that the proposed estimator not only is computed faster than the solution to Problem (A), but also achieves better mean squared errors, and hence, is a better estimate of the underlying function f_* . Furthermore, the convergence of the proposed estimator to the true function f_* as $n \rightarrow \infty$ is demonstrated empirically in Section 3 by showing that the empirical integrated mean square error between \hat{g}_n and f_* converges to 0 as $n \rightarrow \infty$. The numerical results in Section 3.2 show that our formulation is successfully applied to a problem of estimating the sensitivities of option prices as functions of the underlying stock price.

This paper is organized as follows. In Section 2.1, we describe how g_0 can be estimated from the data set in more detail. In Section 2.2, we prove that the solution to Problem (B) exists and can be obtained by solving a quadratic program. In Section 3, we compare the performance of the proposed estimator to that of the solution to Problem (A) through numerical experiments. Concluding remarks are included in Section 4.

II PROBLEM FORMULATION

a) How to Estimate g_0 from the Data Set?

In this section, we provide a heuristic argument on how g_0 can be estimated from the data set $((x_i, Y_{ij}) : 1 \leq i \leq n, 1 \leq j \leq m)$. We start by noticing that $\sum_{j=1}^m \epsilon_{ij} / \sqrt{m}$ converges in distribution to $N(0, \sigma^2)$ as $m \rightarrow \infty$ by the weak law of large numbers, where $N(0, \sigma^2)$ denotes a normal random variable with a mean of 0 and a variance of σ^2 . Hence, if we denote $\sum_{j=1}^m \epsilon_{ij} / m$ by $\bar{\epsilon}_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$, then $|\bar{\epsilon}_i|$ can be approximated by $|N(0, \sigma^2)| / \sqrt{m}$ for m sufficiently large. Therefore, the following approximation is possible:

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n |\bar{Y}_i - f_*(x_i)| = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n |\bar{\epsilon}_i| \approx \frac{1}{n\sqrt{m}} \sum_{i=1}^n |N(0, \sigma^2)|$$

for m sufficiently large. The symbol \approx is used to express “approximate equality” informally. When the ϵ_i ’s are assumed to be normally distributed, $\sum_{i=1}^n |N(0, \sigma^2)| / n$ converges to $\mathbb{E} |\epsilon_{11}|$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ by the strong law of large numbers. Thus, the following approximation is appropriate:

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n |\bar{Y}_i - f_*(x_i)| \approx \frac{\mathbb{E}|\epsilon_{11}|}{\sqrt{m}}$$

for n and m sufficiently large. Furthermore, $\mathbb{E}|\epsilon_{11}|$ can be estimated from the data set via $\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m |Y_{ij} - \bar{Y}_i| / (mn)$, and hence, a good estimate of g_0 is

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m |Y_{ij} - \bar{Y}_i| / (m^{3/2}n). \tag{2}$$

b) Quadratic Programming Representation of the Proposed Formulation

In this section, we describe how the proposed estimator can be obtained by solving a quadratic program. To make this paper self-contained, we present some preliminary results.

A spline function with degree $r > 1$ with knots x_1, \dots, x_n , where $a < x_1 < \dots < x_n < b$, is a function $s : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ having the following two properties: (a) In each of the intervals $[a, x_1], [x_1, x_2], \dots, [x_{n-1}, x_n], [x_n, b]$, $s(x)$ is given by some polynomial of degree r or less, and (b) $s(x)$ is $r - 1$ times continuously differentiable on $[a, b]$. We denote the set of spline functions with degree r by $\mathcal{S}_r([a, b])$. $\mathcal{S}_r([a, b])$ can be spanned by a finite number of elements in $\mathcal{S}_r([a, b])$, so we introduce one of the bases for $\mathcal{S}_r([a, b])$, which is the set of B-splines; the B-splines have bounded supports and produce well-conditioned numerical settings. We need to introduce additional knots $x_{-r}, \dots, x_0, x_{n+1}, \dots, x_{n+r+1}$ so that

$$x_{-r} < x_{-r+1} < \dots < x_0 < a < x_1 < \dots < x_n < b < x_{n+1} < \dots < x_{n+r+1}.$$

The B-spline $B_{i,r}$ of degree r is defined recursively by

$$B_{i,0}(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x_i \leq x < x_{i+1} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \tag{3}$$

for $i = -r, \dots, n + r$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}$ and

$$B_{i,l}(x) = \frac{x - x_i}{x_{i+l} - x_i} B_{i,l-1}(x) + \frac{x_{i+l+1} - x}{x_{i+l+1} - x_{i+1}} B_{i+1,l-1}(x) \tag{4}$$

for $i = -r, \dots, n + r - l$, $l = 1, \dots, r$, and $x \in \mathbb{R}$. By Theorem 14.1 on page 262 of Györfi et al. (2002), $\{B_{i,r} : i = -r, \dots, n\}$ restricted to $[a, b]$ is a basis of $\mathcal{S}_r([a, b])$. Proposition 1 below proves the existence of the solution to Problem (B) and describes how Problem (B) can be solved through a quadratic program.

Proposition 1 Assume $2 \leq k \leq n$. There exists a solution $\hat{g}_n \in \mathcal{D}^k$ to Problem (B). Furthermore, \hat{g}_n has the following representation:

$$\hat{g}_n(x) = \sum_{i=-(2k-1)}^n \hat{c}_i B_{i,2k-1}(x)$$

for $x \in [a, b]$, where $\hat{c}_{-(2k-1)}, \dots, \hat{c}_n, \hat{y}_1, \dots, \hat{y}_n, \hat{p}_1, \dots, \hat{p}_n, \hat{m}_1, \dots, \hat{m}_n$ is the solution to the following quadratic program in the decision variables $c_{-(2k-1)}, \dots, c_n, y_1, \dots, y_n, p_1, \dots, p_n, m_1, \dots, m_n \in \mathbb{R}$:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Minimize} \quad & \int_a^b \left(\sum_{i=-(2k-1)}^n c_i B_{i,2k-1}^{(k)}(x) \right)^2 dx \\
 & = \sum_{i=-(2k-1)}^n \sum_{j=-(2k-1)}^n c_i c_j \int_a^b B_{i,2k-1}^{(k)}(x) B_{j,2k-1}^{(k)}(x) dx \\
 \text{subject to} \quad & \bar{Y}_i - y_i = p_i - m_i, \quad 1 \leq i \leq n, \\
 & \sum_{i=1}^n (p_i + m_i)/n \leq g_0, \\
 & \sum_{i=-(2k-1)}^n c_i B_{i,2k-1}(X_j) = y_j, \quad j = 1, \dots, n, \\
 & p_i, m_i \geq 0, \quad 1 \leq i \leq n.
 \end{aligned} \tag{5}$$

Proof. The existence of the solution to Problem (B) is proven by an argument similar to the proof of Proposition 1 in Lim and Attallah (2016). Next, to show that the solution to (5) exists, we notice that (i) for any $c_{-(2k-1)}, \dots, c_n$, the objective function of (5) is greater than or equal to 0, and (ii) Problem (5) has a feasible solution because there exist $\bar{c}_{-(2k-1)}, \dots, \bar{c}_n$ satisfying

$$\sum_{i=-(2k-1)}^n \bar{c}_i B_{i,2k-1}(x_j) = \bar{Y}_j$$

for $1 \leq j \leq n$ by Lemmas 20.2 and 20.3 on pages 415 and 416 of Györfi et al. (2002). By Frank and Wolfe (1956), there exists a solution to (5).

Let \hat{g}_n be a solution to Problem (B). Let $\hat{y}_i = \hat{g}_n(x_i)$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$. By Lemmas 20.2 and 20.3 on pages 415 and 416 of Györfi et al. (2002), there exists a unique solution $(\hat{c}_{-(2k-1)}, \dots, \hat{c}_n)$ to the following linear system:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sum_{i=-(2k-1)}^n \hat{c}_i B_{i,2k-1}(x_j) &= \hat{y}_j \text{ for } 1 \leq j \leq n, \\
 \sum_{i=-(2k-1)}^n \hat{c}_i B_{i,2k-1}^{(l)}(a) &= 0, \\
 \sum_{i=-(2k-1)}^n \hat{c}_i B_{i,2k-1}^{(l)}(b) &= 0.
 \end{aligned}$$

Let $\hat{p}_i = \max(\bar{Y}_i - \hat{y}_i, 0)$ and $\hat{m}_i = \max(\hat{y}_i - \bar{Y}_i, 0)$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$. We will show that $\hat{c}_{-(2k-1)}, \dots, \hat{c}_n, \hat{y}_1, \dots, \hat{y}_n, \hat{p}_1, \dots, \hat{p}_n, \hat{m}_1, \dots, \hat{m}_n$ is a solution to (5). Let $\bar{c}_{-(2k-1)}, \dots, \bar{c}_n, \bar{y}_1, \dots, \bar{y}_n, \bar{p}_1, \dots, \bar{p}_n, \bar{m}_1, \dots, \bar{m}_n$ be any feasible solution to (5). Without loss of generality, we may assume that either $\bar{p}_i = 0$ or $\bar{m}_i = 0$ for each $1 \leq i \leq n$. (Otherwise, we replace \bar{p}_i with $\bar{p}_i - \min(\bar{p}_i, \bar{m}_i)$ and \bar{m}_i with $\bar{m}_i - \min(\bar{p}_i, \bar{m}_i)$ for each $1 \leq i \leq n$.) We notice that $|\bar{Y}_i - \bar{y}_i| = \bar{p}_i + \bar{m}_i$ for each $1 \leq i \leq n$. So, if we define $\bar{g}_n : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by

$$\bar{g}_n(x) = \sum_{i=-(2k-1)}^n \bar{c}_i B_{i,2k-1}(x)$$

for $x \in \mathbb{R}$, then \bar{g}_n satisfies $(1/n) \sum_{i=1}^n |\bar{g}_n(x_i) - \bar{Y}_i| \leq g_0$, and hence, is a feasible solution to Problem (B). Thus, $\int_a^b \{\hat{g}_n^{(k)}(x)\}^2 dx \leq \int_a^b \{\bar{g}_n^{(k)}(x)\}^2 dx$, and hence, $\hat{c}_{-(2k-1)}, \dots, \hat{c}_n, \hat{y}_1, \dots, \hat{y}_n, \hat{p}_1, \dots, \hat{p}_n, \hat{m}_1, \dots, \hat{m}_n$ is a solution to (5).

Conversely, let $\tilde{c}_{-(2k-1)}, \dots, \tilde{c}_n, \tilde{y}_1, \dots, \tilde{y}_n, \tilde{p}_1, \dots, \tilde{p}_n, \tilde{m}_1, \dots, \tilde{m}_n$ be a solution to (5). We will show that $\tilde{g}_n : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by

$$\tilde{g}_n(x) = \sum_{i=-(2k-1)}^n \tilde{c}_i B_{i,2k-1}(x)$$

for $x \in \mathbb{R}$ is a solution to Problem (B), or equivalently, $\int_a^b \{\tilde{g}_n^{(k)}(x)\}^2 dx \leq \int_a^b \{\hat{g}_n^{(k)}(x)\}^2 dx$ for any solution \hat{g}_n to Problem (B). First, we note that \tilde{g}_n is a feasible solution to Problem (B) since we may assume that either $\tilde{p}_i = 0$ or $\tilde{m}_i = 0$ for each $1 \leq i \leq n$. For any solution \hat{g}_n to Problem (B), let $\hat{y}_i = \hat{g}_n(X_i)$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$ and define the \hat{c}_i 's, \hat{p}_i 's, and \hat{m}_i 's as before. The \hat{c}_i 's, \hat{y}_i 's, \hat{p}_i 's, and \hat{m}_i 's form a feasible solution to (5), so it follows that $\int_a^b \{\tilde{g}_n^{(k)}(x)\}^2 dx \leq \int_a^b \{\hat{g}_n^{(k)}(x)\}^2 dx$. \square

III. NUMERICAL RESULTS

In this section, we compare the performance of the proposed estimator to that of the solution to Problem (A). In Section 3.1, we consider the case where f_* is given by a polynomial function of degree 5. In Section 3.2, f_* is the expected payoff of a certain equity-linked security. In both cases, we compute the empirical integrated mean square error and the amount of time required to compute the estimators.

All of the simulations are conducted on a 64-bit computer with an Intel(R) Core(TM) i7-6700K CPU at 4 GHz and a 32GB RAM. All of the simulations are programmed in MATLAB R2010a.

When solving Problems (A) and (B), one needs to evaluate the B-splines and the integration of the product of their k th derivatives. The B-splines can be evaluated recursively through Equations (3) and (4). The k th derivative of the B-spline can be evaluated recursively through the following relation: for a B-spline of degree r ,

$$dB_{i,r}(x)/dx = (r/(x_{i+r} - x_i))B_{i,r-1}(x) - (r/(x_{i+r+1} - x_{i+1}))B_{i+1,r-1}(x) \tag{6}$$

for $i = -r, \dots, n$ and $x \in [a, b]$; see Lemma 14.6 on page 265 of Györfi et al. (2002). Next, we compute $\int_a^b B_{i,2k-1}^{(k)}(x)B_{j,2k-1}^{(k)}(x)dx$ by evaluating $B_{i,2k-1}^{(k)}$ using the recursion in (6) and by numerically evaluating the integration.

a) A Stylized Model

We consider the case where $f_*(x) = x(x-0.5)(x+0.5)(x-1.05)(x+1.05)$ for $x \in \mathbb{R}$, $x_i = i/n - 1/(2n)$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$, $Y_{ij} = f(x_i) + \epsilon_{ij}$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$ and $1 \leq j \leq m$, and the ϵ_{ij} 's are iid random variables, each of which is normally distributed with a mean of 0 and a variance of 4. The proposed estimator \hat{g}_n is computed as the solution to Problem (B) with $m = 100$, $k = 4$, and g_0 estimated from (2).

The solution \tilde{g}_n to Problem (A) is computed from Problem (A) with $m = 100$, $k = 4$, and u_0 estimated from $\sum_{i=1}^n S_i^2 / (nm)$, where $S_i^2 = \sum_{j=1}^m (Y_{ij} - \bar{Y}_i)^2 / (m - 1)$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$. Both Problems (A) and (B) are solved with CVX, a package for specifying and solving convex programs (Grant and Boyd, 2014). To measure the accuracy of the proposed estimator, we compute the following empirical integrated mean square error (EIMSE):

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{g}_n(x_i) - f_*(x_i))^2. \tag{7}$$

The EIMSE of \tilde{g}_n is computed similarly by $\sum_{i=1}^n (\tilde{g}_n(x_i) - f_*(x_i))^2 / n$.

Table 1 reports the 95% confidence intervals of the EIMSE and the average amounts of time required to compute \hat{g}_n and \tilde{g}_n , based on 300 iid replications, for a variety of n values. The proposed estimator produces lower EIMSE values and is computed in less time than \tilde{g}_n .

Table 1 : The 95% confidence intervals of the EIMSE and the amounts of computer time required to compute the proposed estimator and the solution to Problem (A) when $f_*(x) = x(x - 0.5)(x + 0.5)(x - 1.05)(x + 1.05)$.

| n | Solution to Problem (A) | | Proposed Estimator | |
|-----|-------------------------|------------|--------------------|------------|
| | EIMSE | Time (sec) | EIMSE | Time (sec) |
| 10 | 0.0168 ± 0.0014 | 0.097 | 0.0156 ± 0.0013 | 0.094 |
| 20 | 0.0090 ± 0.0007 | 0.099 | 0.0081 ± 0.0007 | 0.097 |
| 40 | 0.0047 ± 0.0004 | 0.111 | 0.0041 ± 0.0003 | 0.107 |
| 80 | 0.0032 ± 0.0003 | 0.129 | 0.0023 ± 0.0002 | 0.125 |

Figure 1 displays the graphs of f_* , the \bar{Y}_i 's, \hat{g}_n , and \tilde{g}_n on the left side and the graphs of $f_*^{(2)}$, $\hat{g}_n^{(2)}$, and $\tilde{g}_n^{(2)}$ on the right side for the case when $n = 40$. The proposed estimator appears to have a smoother second derivative than \tilde{g}_n .

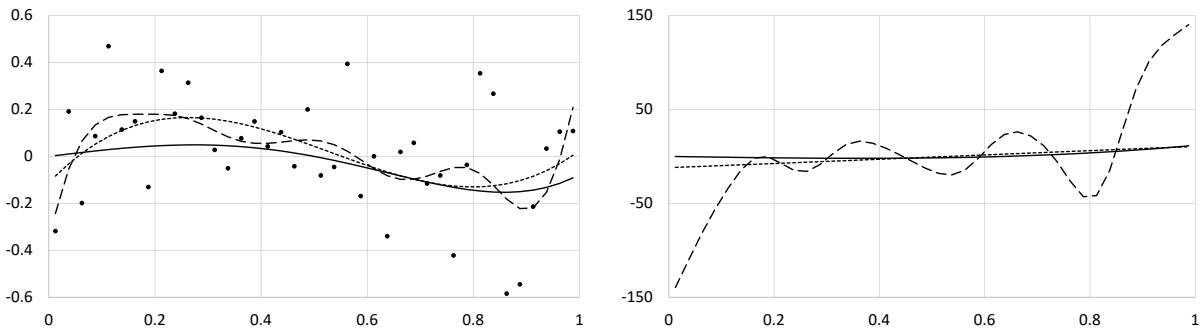


Figure 1 : The horizontal axis is x . On the left side, the solid line is $f_*(x)$, the dots are the \bar{Y}_i 's, the dotted line is $\hat{g}_n(x)$, and the dashed line is $\tilde{g}_n(x)$. On the right side, the solid line is $f_*^{(2)}(x)$, the dotted line is $\hat{g}_n^{(2)}(x)$, and the dashed line is $\tilde{g}_n^{(2)}(x)$.

b) *Sensitivity Estimation of Option Prices*

We consider the case where $f_*(x)$ is the expected payoff of a certain equity-linked security (ELS) when the underlying stock price is $x \geq 0$. The second derivative of f_* plays an important role when financial portfolio managers try to hedge the risks associated with the ELS; see Section 3.1 of Lim and Attallah (2016) for details. In particular, the second derivative of f_* is often assumed to be smooth over a domain of interest. The smoothness of the second derivative is particularly important because portfolio managers use the second derivative to make a decision on whether to buy or sell their ELS in order to hedge the risks, and a smooth second derivative suggests consistent selling strategies; see Section 3.1 of Lim and Attallah (2016) for a detailed explanation. One of the challenges is that there is no-closed form formula for f_* when the payoff structure of the ELS is complex, so simulation must be used to estimate f_* and its second derivative. Thus, the problem boils down to an estimation of the second derivative of f_* as a smooth function over a domain of interest. Since the roughness of a function $g : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is measured by $\int_a^b \{g^{(2)}(x)\}^2 dx$, the roughness of the second derivative of g is measured by $\int_a^b \{g^{(4)}(x)\}^2 dx$. Therefore, our proposed estimator is the solution to the following optimization problem:

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{Minimize} && \int_a^b \{g^{(4)}(x)\}^2 dx && (8) \\ &\text{subject to} && (1/n) \sum_{i=1}^n |g(x_i) - Y_i| \leq g_0, \end{aligned}$$

where g_0 can be estimated from (2).

We assume that the ELS is paid off in the following way: The ELS is issued at time 0 and matures at time $T = 365$. We denote the price of the underlying stock at time $t \in [0, T]$ by S_t . There are six days, d_1, \dots, d_6 , when early redemption is possible. On day d_i ($1 \leq i \leq 6$), the ELS expires with a payoff of $\$r_i$ if S_{d_i}/S_0 exceeds some threshold b_i . Otherwise, the ELS does not expire until maturity. If there is no early redemption and S_t/S_0 does not drop below a lower limit b over the entire lifetime of the ELS, then the ELS expires with a payoff of $\$1$ at maturity. In the rest of the cases, the ELS expires with a payoff of $\$S_T/S_0$ at maturity.

We let $x_i = 90 + (20)(i/n) - (10/n)$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$. For each x_i , a sample path of a geometric Brownian motion is generated as a trajectory of the stock price between now and maturity, and the corresponding payoff of the ELS is computed. Y_{ij} is the payoff computed this way in the j th replication at x_i . The parameters are $d_1 = 61, d_2 = 122, d_3 = 182, d_4 = 243, d_5 = 304, d_6 = 365, b_1 = 0.9, b_2 = 0.9, b_3 = 0.85, b_4 = 0.85, b_5 = 0.8, b_6 = 0.8, r_1 = 1.05, r_2 = 1.10, r_3 = 1.15, r_4 = 1.20, r_5 = 1.25, r_6 = 1.30$, and $b = 0.7$. The remaining time until maturity is 60 days, the annual volatility is 30%, the annual risk-neutral interest rate is 5%, and the initial stock price at time 0 is $\$125$.

We set $m = 10$, so 10 sample paths for the geometric Brownian motion are generated at each x_i to compute Y_{i1}, \dots, Y_{i10} for $1 \leq i \leq n$. We compute $\bar{Y}_i = \sum_{j=1}^{10} Y_{ij}/10$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$ and use $(x_1, \bar{Y}_1), \dots, (x_n, \bar{Y}_n)$ to compute the proposed estimator \hat{g}_n by solving Problem (B) with g_0 estimated from (2). The solution \tilde{g}_n to Problem (A) is computed from Problem (A) with $m = 10, k = 4$, and u_0 estimated from $\sum_{i=1}^n S_i^2/(nm)$, where $S_i^2 = \sum_{j=1}^m (Y_{ij} - \bar{Y}_i)^2/(m - 1)$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$. Both Problems (A) and (B) are solved with CVX. To measure the accuracy of the proposed estimate,



Table 2 : The 95% confidence intervals of the EIMSE and the amounts of computer time required to compute the proposed estimator and the solution to Problem (A) when f_* is the expected payoff of the ELS.

| n | Solution to Problem (A) | | Proposed Estimator | |
|-----|-------------------------|------------|--------------------|------------|
| | EIMSE | Time (sec) | EIMSE | Time (sec) |
| 10 | 0.0024 ± 0.0002 | 0.100 | 0.0024 ± 0.0002 | 0.098 |
| 20 | 0.0013 ± 0.0001 | 0.102 | 0.0012 ± 0.0001 | 0.096 |
| 40 | 0.0008 ± 0.0000 | 0.113 | 0.0005 ± 0.0000 | 0.104 |
| 80 | 0.0005 ± 0.0000 | 0.134 | 0.0003 ± 0.0000 | 0.129 |

we compute the following EIMSE between the underlying function and \hat{g}_n :

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{g}_n(x_i) - f_*(x_i))^2, \tag{9}$$

where $f_*(x_i)$ is estimated from the average of 2,000,000 iid replications of Y_{ij} at each x_i . The EIMSE of \tilde{g}_n is computed similarly by $\sum_{i=1}^n (\tilde{g}_n(x_i) - f_*(x_i))^2 / n$.

Table 2 reports the 95% confidence intervals of the EIMSE and the average amounts of time required to compute \hat{g}_n and \tilde{g}_n , based on 300 iid replications, for a variety of n values. The proposed estimator produces lower IMSE values and is computed in less time than \tilde{g}_n .

Figure 2 displays the graphs of f_* , the \bar{Y}_i 's, \hat{g}_n , and \tilde{g}_n on the left side and the graphs of $f_*^{(2)}$, $\hat{g}_n^{(2)}$, and $\tilde{g}_n^{(2)}$ on the right side for the case when $n = 40$. In the graphs of Figure 2, the proposed estimator shows a smoother second derivative than that of \tilde{g}_n . Considering the fact that our goal is to estimate the second derivative of f_* as a smooth function, our proposed estimator appears to have the desired property.

IV. CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this paper, we proposed a new method for estimating a smooth regression function f_* . The proposed estimator \hat{g}_n of f_* is designed for better computational efficiency. Numerical results show that the proposed estimator is computed faster and achieves better mean square errors than its alternative. Furthermore, the proposed estimator shows smoother derivatives than its alternative, which is a desired property when estimating a smooth regression function. The convergence of the proposed estimator to f_* as the number of data points increases to infinity was demonstrated

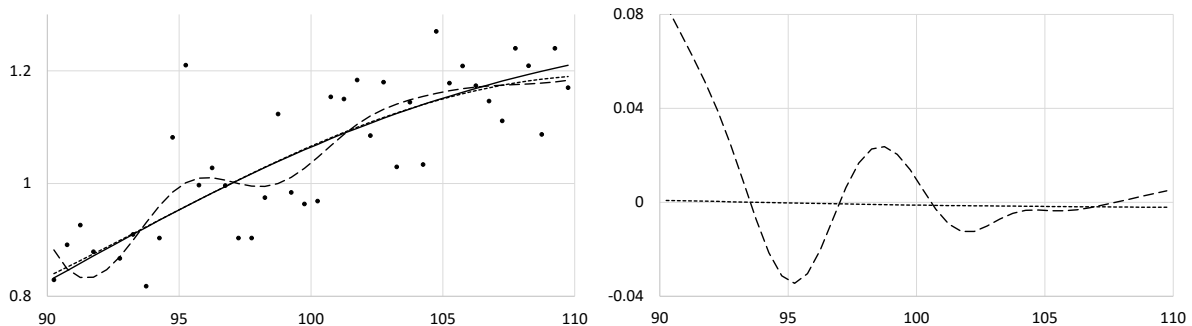


Figure 2 : The horizontal axis is x . On the left side, the solid line is $f_*(x)$, the dots are the \bar{Y}_i 's, the dotted line is $\hat{g}_n(x)$, and the dashed line is $\tilde{g}_n(x)$. On the right side, the dotted line is $\hat{g}_n^{(2)}(x)$, and the dashed line is $\tilde{g}_n^{(2)}(x)$.

empirically, so a promising future research topic involves proving the consistency of the proposed estimator theoretically.

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Effect of Missingness Mechanism on Household Survey Estimates in Nigeria

By Faweya Olanrewaju & G. N. Amahia
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Abstract- In this study, we employed three missingness mechanisms - MCAR, MAR and MNAR to investigate the effects of proportion of Missing data on descriptive and analytic statistics: Mean (\bar{Y}), Variance (σ^2y), correlation coefficient ($\rho_{yx_1x_2}$), coefficient of variation (cv), skewness (sk) and Kurtosis (K) which are likely situation a researcher may encounter in the field when dealing with household surveys.

This study reveals that sometimes, missing data introduce systematic distortion in survey estimates and bias flows from missing data when the causes of the missing data are linked to the survey statistic measured.

Keywords: missing data, MCAR, MAR, MNAR, descriptive statistics.

GJSFR-F Classification : FOR Code : 70B15



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Faweya Olanrewaju ^α & G. N. Amahia ^σ

Abstract- In this study, we employed three missingness mechanisms - MCAR, MAR and MNAR to investigate the effects of proportion of Missing data on descriptive and analytic statistics: Mean (\bar{y}), Variance (σ^2y), correlation coefficient ($\rho_{yx_1x_2}$), coefficient of variation (cv), skewness (sk) and Kurtosis (K) which are likely situation a researcher may encounter in the field when dealing with household surveys.

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I. INTRODUCTION

One of the greatest threats compromising the accuracy of most surveys estimate during design and analysis is the problem of missing data. This may occur when some individuals provide no information because of non-contact or refusal to respond (unit non-response) or when other individuals are contacted and provide some information, but fail to answer some of the questions (item non-response).

Unfortunately, unit and item non-response are often neglected or not properly handled during analysis, and this leads to bias in the estimate. Thus, this study focused on the detection and minimization of bias associated with missing data. Though missing data is a common problem in most research studies, yet no commonly agreed upon solution exists.

Consequently, researchers have developed a wide variety of approaches for handling missing data, however, no single approaches is without pitfalls. Thus, researchers facing a missing data problem should thoroughly investigate the sources of the missing data as well as the options for handling missing data under different missingness mechanism with different amount of missing data. Otherwise, when researchers use missing data techniques without considering the mechanism of the missingness, they run the risk of obtaining biased estimates and misleading conclusions. In such cases, analysis and publication of the data may be of dubious value and jeopardize credibility of the organization preparing the report (Little & Smith, 1983).

II. MISSING DATA MECHANISM

a) Missing Completely At Random

The distribution of the missing values R is assumed independent of both the target variable Y and auxiliary variable X. Thus,

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$$P(R/Y, X) = P(R) \quad (1)$$

b) Missing At Random (MAR)

In general, MAR occur when there is no direct relation between the target variable Y and response behaviour R and the same time there is a relation between the auxiliary variable and the response behaviour R . This is expressed as:

$$P(R/Y, X) = P(R / Y^0, X) \quad (2)$$

c) Missing Not At Random

Missing data Mechanism where missing values are assumed to be related to the unobserved dependent variable vector Y_i^m , in addition to the remaining observed values is called Missing not at Random (MNAR). This is expressed as:

$$P(R/Y, X) = P(R/ Y^m Y^0 X) \quad (3)$$

III. NON-RESPONSE IN SURVEY

Non-response is the failure of a sample survey (or a census) to collect data for all items in the survey questionnaire from all the population units designated for data collection. Non-response can be manifested either as item or as non-response.

a) Unit Non-Response

This refers to outright failure of a sampled subject to participation in a study.

b) Item Non-Response

Item non-response occurs in any kind of multivariate study (e.g. a survey) in which a subject responds to some, but not all survey items.

IV. METHOD OF ANALYSIS

We employed three missingness mechanisms - MCAR, MAR, and MNAR to investigate the effects of proportion of Missing data on descriptive and analytic statistics (Mean(\bar{Y})), Variance ($\sigma^2 y$), correlation coefficient ($\rho_{yx_1x_2}$), coefficient of variation (cv), skewness (sk) and Kurtosis (K) which are likely situation a researcher may encounter in the field when dealing with household surveys.

We denote by S the sample, $Y = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)^T$ where y_i denote the value of targeted random variable for unit i . Let X_i , $I = 1, 2, \dots, k$ be some auxiliary variable which is available for all $i \in S$. Let $R = (r_1, \dots, r_n)$ where $r_i = 0$ for unit that are observed and $r_i = 1$ for units that are missing. MCAR assumed distribution of missing values R to be independent of both targeted variable Y and auxiliary variable X_i , thus,

$$P(R/ Y, X_i) = P(R).$$

However, under MAR, there is no direct relationship between the targeted variable Y and the response behavior R and at the same time; there is no relationship between the auxiliary variable X_i and the response behaviour R . Thus, $P(R/ Y, X_i) = P(R/ Y^0, X_i)$. In MNAR, missing values assumed to be related to unobserved dependent variable Y^m in addition to the remaining observed values Y^0 and this relationship cannot be explained by an auxiliary variable X_i . Thus, $P(R/ Y^m, Y^0, X_i)$. A simple random sample of $n = 100$ households was selected from the record of survey data on "household income" from Akure North Local Government, Iju/ Ita- Ogbolu in Ondo

State to demonstrate the effect of missingness on descriptive and inferential statistics when different proportions of data are missing.

Three demographic variables; Y (Income N'000), Age (X_1) and year of schooling (X_2) were considered.

The variable Y was a combination of explanatory variables with added random components.

Then, differing amounts were deleted at random causing MCAR data, which had 0, 1, 5, 12, 23 and 44% missing data.

In MAR situation y become missing as follows: 0% for complete data set, 5% when $X_1 < 5$, 12% when $X_2 \geq 55$, 23% when $X_1 \leq 6$ and 44% when $X_1 \leq 6$ or $X_2 \geq 50$.

Sorting according to the actual y values in deleting the cases to give 6 different rate created MNAR data.

Table 1 : Table of Means, variance, correlation, skewness and kurtosis when different amounts of data are missing, under different assumption of missingness. The first row shows the mean, variances, correlation, skewness and kurtosis of the household income data when no data are missing. That is the data are complete

| Missing Completely At Random (MCAR) | | | | | | |
|-------------------------------------|-----------|--------------------|-----------------|-------|-------|-------|
| Missing | \bar{y} | $\bar{\sigma}^2_y$ | $\rho_{y_1x_2}$ | CV | S_k | K |
| 0 | 13.814 | 46.577 | 0.946 | 49.62 | 0.217 | 2.616 |
| 1 | 13.754 | 46.691 | 0.946 | 49.68 | 0.238 | 2.633 |
| 5 | 13.682 | 48.02 | 0.943 | 50.68 | 0.258 | 2.580 |
| 12 | 13.371 | 44.688 | 0.952 | 49.90 | 0.135 | 2.470 |
| 23 | 14.288 | 45.84 | 0.997 | 46.98 | 0.071 | 2.419 |
| 44 | 14.260 | 48.077 | 0.995 | 48.83 | -0.35 | 2.437 |

Table : The table cont

| Missing At Random (MAR) | | | | | | |
|-------------------------|-----------|--------------------|-----------------|-------|-------|-------|
| Missing | \bar{y} | $\bar{\sigma}^2_y$ | $\rho_{y_1x_2}$ | CV | S_k | K |
| 0 | 13.814 | 46.577 | 0.946 | 49.62 | 0.217 | 2.616 |
| 1 | 13.794 | 47.014 | 0.945 | 49.71 | 0.228 | 2.596 |
| 5 | 14.396 | 41.933 | 0.944 | 44.50 | 0.294 | 2.659 |
| 12 | 14.210 | 40.639 | 0.916 | 47.29 | 0.243 | 2.797 |
| 23 | 16.244 | 32.17 | 0.910 | 34.95 | 0.358 | 2.980 |
| 44 | 16.371 | 23.216 | 0.844 | 29.95 | 0.582 | 2.925 |

Table : The table cont

| Missing Not At Random (MNAR) | | | | | | |
|------------------------------|-----------|--------------------|-----------------|-------|--------|-------|
| Missing | \bar{y} | $\bar{\sigma}^2_y$ | $\rho_{y_1x_2}$ | CV | S_k | K |
| 0 | 13.814 | 46.577 | 0.946 | 49.62 | 0.217 | 2.616 |
| 1 | 13.880 | 46.608 | 0.496 | 49.21 | 0.198 | 2.623 |
| 5 | 13.045 | 36.965 | 0.944 | 45.84 | 0.005 | 2.204 |
| 12 | 12.22 | 30.331 | 0.936 | 44.52 | -0.096 | 2.268 |
| 23 | 11.103 | 24.457 | 0.931 | 44.93 | -0.089 | 2.348 |
| 44 | 9.07 | 17.48 | 0.916 | 44.09 | -0.072 | 2.490 |

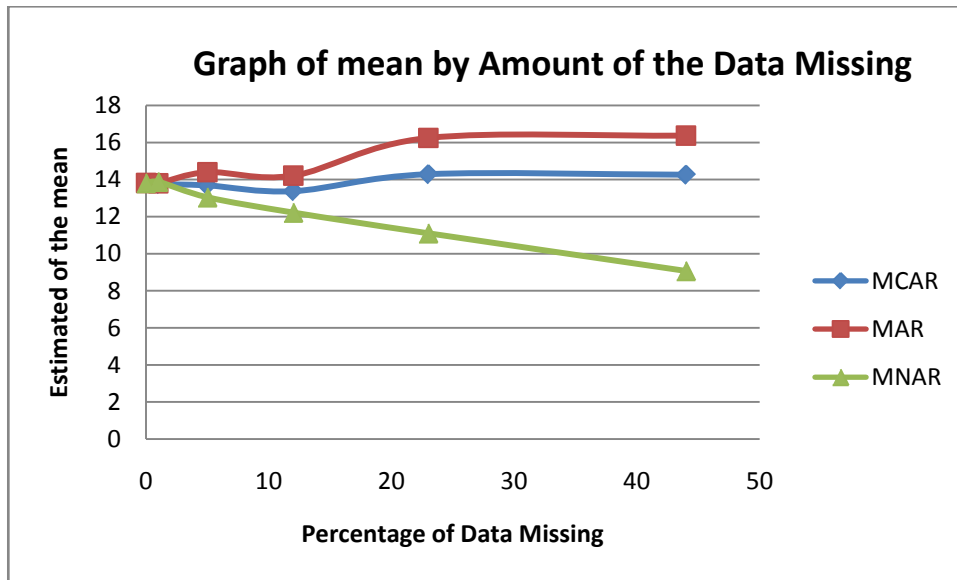


Figure 1 : Graph of Mean by Amount of the Data Missing

Comment: MCAR is approximately constant, while for MAR increases and MNAR decreases.

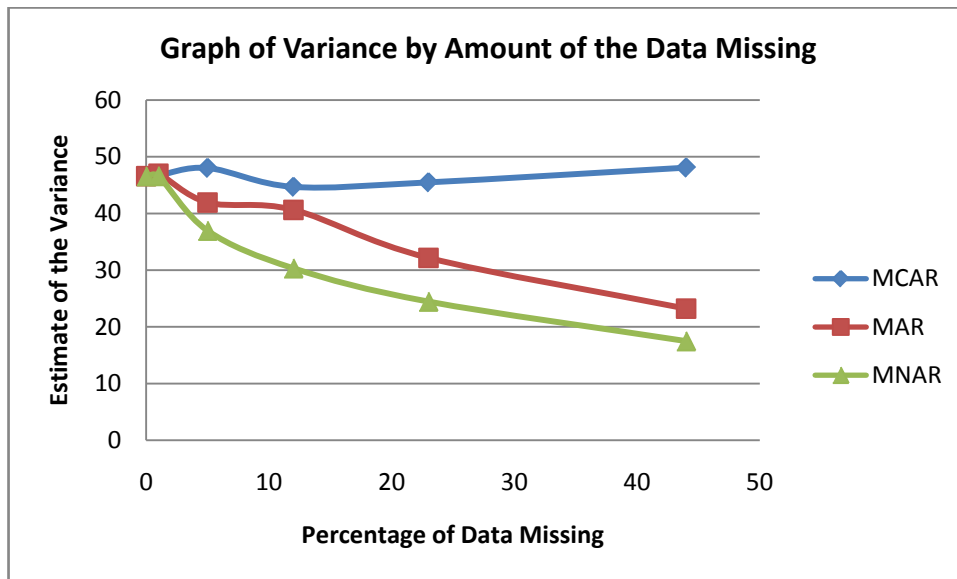


Figure 2 : Graph of Variance by Amount of the Data Missing

Comment: Under MCAR values for variances is approximately constant as proportion of missingness increases, while for MAR and MNAR decreases but MNAR is more drastical.

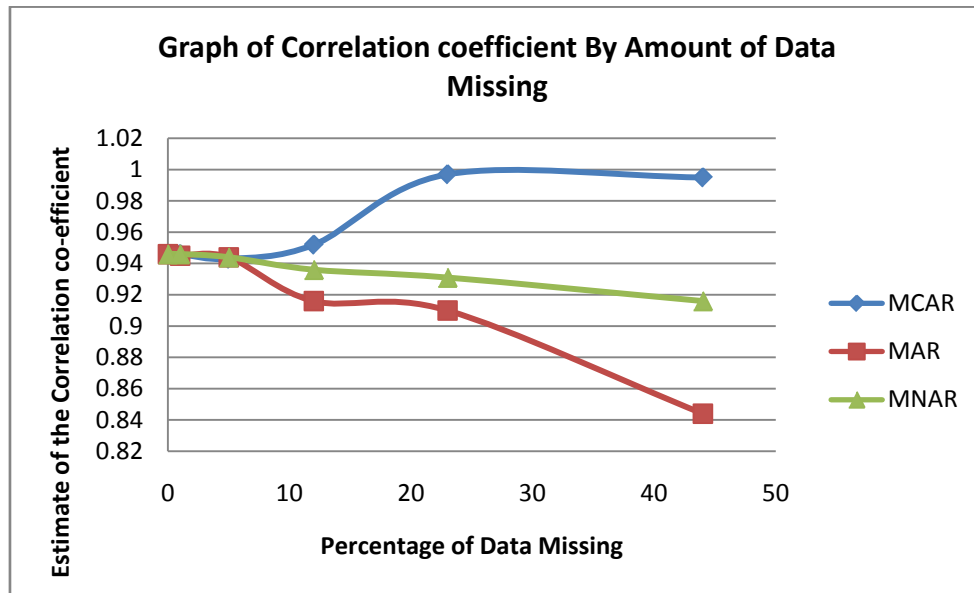


Figure 3 : Graph of Correlation Coefficient by Amount of the Data Missing

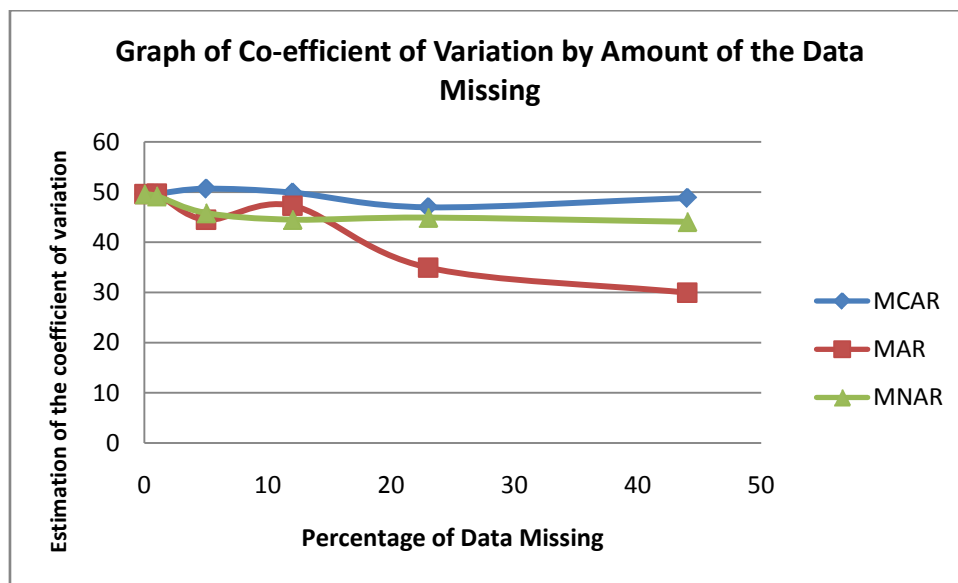


Figure 4 : Graph of Coefficient of Variation by Amount of the Data Missing

Comment: MCAR is approximately constant, while for MAR decreases.

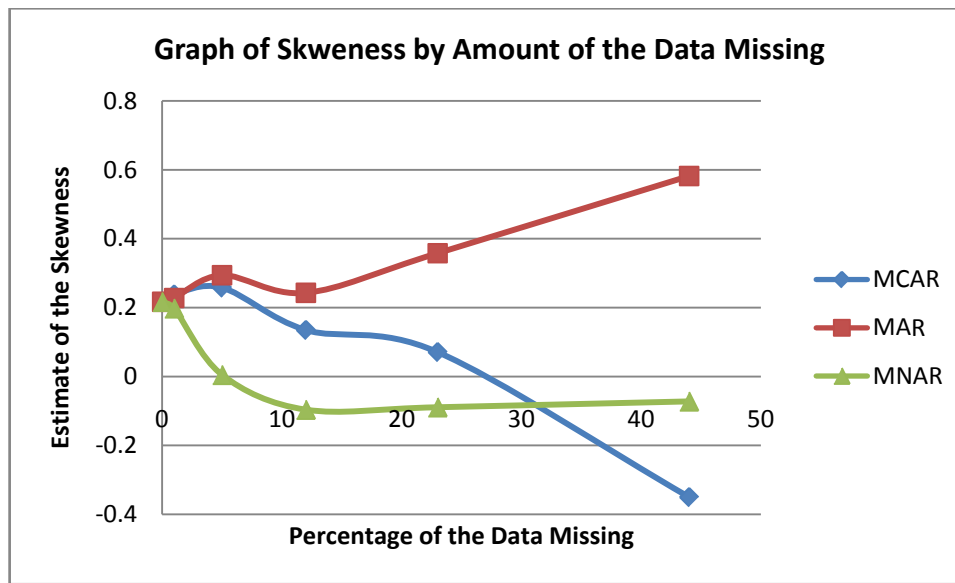


Figure 5 : Graph of Skewness by Amount of the Data Missing

Comment: MNAR formerly decreased but later constant as the proportion of missingness increases but MCAR increases while MAR decreases.

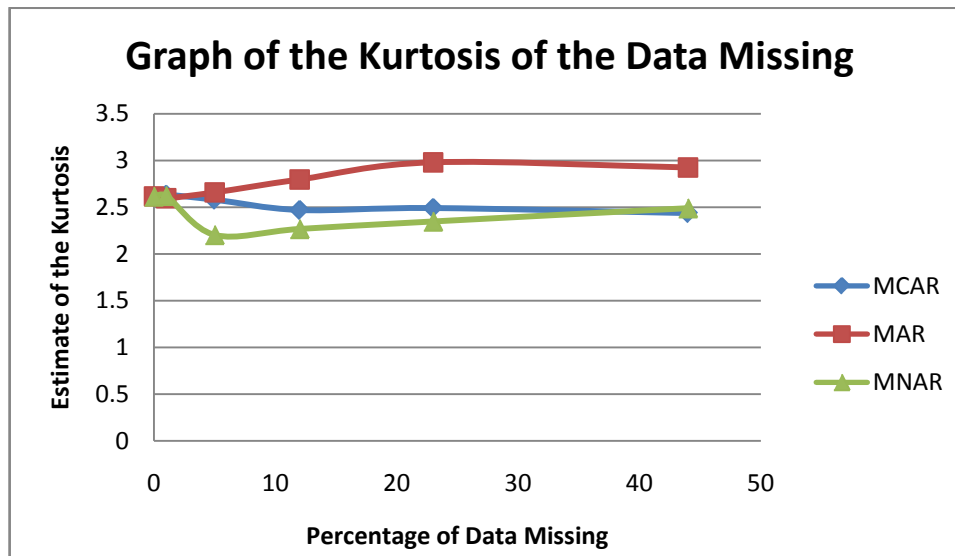


Figure 6 : Graph of Kurtosis by Amount of the Data Missing

Comment: MCAR and MNAR is approximately constant for kurtosis even as the proportional of missingness increases but MAR is a bit different.

V. DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

Among all the parameters considered, the one where there was no major significance difference under the three mechanisms is Kurtosis, which is the degree of peakedness of the curve of the distribution of the variable under consideration. Thus from the study, it implies that as the sample size 'n' increases, the curve tends to normality irrespectively of the nature missingness. In addition, this study revealed that sometimes, missing data introduce systematic distortion in survey estimates and bias flows from missing data when the causes of the missing data are linked to the survey statistics measured.

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Effect of Cherenkov Radiation on Superluminal Free Spin-half Particles Motion in Spacetime

By Emmanuel D. K. Gazoya

National Nuclear Research Institute

Abstract- Conservation laws, consisting of the existence of quantities which do not change in time, independent of the dynamical evolution of a system, are crucial and vital for the construction of any dynamical system theory. The basic properties such as conservation of energy, momentum, angular momentum, charge, isospin, or generalization thereof are fundamental and must be guaranteed by a physical system, if it is to give a valid description of nature. One persistent objection against the concept of superluminal entities is based on the anticipation of fast energy loss which could be incurred under Vavilov-Cherenkov radiation, with the consequent prediction that no such particles could be detected. Yet presently, no theoretical or experimental explication exists which justifies this claim. Here we show, in the limit of a kinematically permissible and non-dispersive medium, that energy conservation is feasible. Corresponding to radiation intensities from large energy-momentum transfer, when the parameter k of the generalized linear velocity of the superluminal free spin-half field is made sufficiently large, Cherenkov cone becomes flattened at 90° with direction of motion, bringing the radiated energy to merge with the circulating energy flow in the wave field of the particle.

Keywords: *cherenkov: radiation - cherenkov: photons - cherenkov: angle - cherenkov: flattened cone, spin, superluminal motion, Huygens' construction.*

GJSFR-F Classification : FOR Code : 35Q85



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Emmanuel D. K. Gazoya

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Keywords: *cherenkov: radiation - cherenkov: photons - cherenkov: angle - cherenkov: flattened cone, spin, superluminal motion, Huygens' construction.*

I. INTRODUCTION

The blue light observed by (Cherenkov, 1934) in his experiments was originally given a theoretical explanation by (Frank and Tamm, 1937). They associated it with the radiation of a charge moving uniformly with a velocity greater than that of light in medium. Under the restriction of non-dispersive medium, they derived the radiation intensity confined to the surface of the so-called Cherenkov cone defined by

$$\cos \theta = \frac{c}{nv}, \quad (1.1)$$

where v is particle velocity and n the medium refractive index (which is the ratio of the phase velocity of light in the medium to its velocity in free space). In the presence of dispersion, n and $\cos \theta$ vary with ω continuously. As a result, the Cherenkov radiation fills continuous sequence of Cherenkov cones, relatively to different frequencies in the frequency regions where $n > 1$. In their derivations, Tamm and Frank suggested that the charge velocity was constant, and they disregarded the recoil effects in case of which equation (1.1) involves an additive term, given by¹

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1. (Katharina, 2014)

$$\cos \theta = \frac{1}{n\beta} + \frac{\hbar k}{2p} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n^2}\right). \quad (1.2)$$

Here, $\beta = v/c$, and p and $\hbar k$ are particle and photon momentum, respectively. Also disregarded in their calculations was the case of arbitrary emission angle produced by the use of properly engineered one dimensional metamaterials, where

$$\cos \theta = \frac{1}{n\beta} + \frac{n}{k_0} \cdot \left(\frac{d\varphi}{n^2}\right). \quad (1.3)$$

This last equation originates from (Ginzburg, 1940) contribution, who evaluated the photon emission angle for an arbitrary energy loss of the initial charge, found the radiation intensity in the nonrelativistic approximation and showed that corrections to the Tamm–Frank formula are negligible in the visible and ultraviolet parts of the radiation spectrum. They further assumed smallness of the photon energy with respect to the energy of the initial charge. Since then, it is usually believed that the Vavilov–Cherenkov radiation for the fixed refractive index lies on the surface of the Cherenkov cone. As an early remark, it is clear from (1.1) that the emission angle θ relative to the direction of (linear) velocity depends only on particle linear constant velocity and the refractive index, but not on the coordinate x and hence, not on the particle trajectory. In his note (Vavilov, 1934) accompanying Cherenkov paper, Vavilov suggested that the radiation observed in Cherenkov experiments was due to the electron deceleration. This was further admitted by (Afanasiev, 2004) to be at least partly right since electrons were completely stopped in Cherenkov experiments (thorough discussion on this may be found in Cherenkov's Doctor of Science dissertation; (Cherenkov, 1944)), thus exhibiting deceleration.

Cherenkov radiation is frequently used in particle identification detectors (PID), (Alaeian, 2014; Jelle, 1955; Konrad, 1998; Leroy and Rancoita, 2014), a process which separates particles such as protons, electrons, muons, pions, etc at different velocities. A threshold measurement mechanism through which the number of particles at given velocities would be determined is set on a radiated angle equation in which the particle velocity exceeds c/n and photons are generated. If the particles pass through, for example, lucite or plexiglass, for which $n \approx 1.5$, only those with $v > 0.67c$ emit Cherenkov radiation and so can be detected as an optical signal. Particles with extreme relativistic energies can be detected in gas Cherenkov detectors where the refractive index n of the gas is just greater than 1. Another application is in the detection of ultra-high energy γ – rays when they enter the top of the atmosphere. The high energy γ – ray initiates an electron – photon cascade and, if the electron – positron pairs acquire velocities greater than the speed of light in air, optical Cherenkov radiation is emitted which can be detected by light detectors at sea-level (Longair, 1981; 1995; 1997). At present, evaluation of radiation intensities effect of Cherenkov photons on the superluminal motion of free fermions in spacetime remains to be determined. The aim of this observation is to analyze and ascertain where the context of very large energy-momentum transfer corresponding to radiation at an angle near to 90° leads, as far as energy conservation is concerned in superluminal motion.

The plan of our examination is as follows. In Section 2, we review the theory of Vavilov-Cherenkov radiation, using John Peacock's approach (Dunlop et al., 1990;

1996). In Section 3, the true mechanism of spin is re-exposed in order to provide a basis for correctly understanding the interaction between the fermion wave field and the right-angled radiated photons energy plane, as explained in Section 4; there, we show that, in a kinematically permissible localized region of spacetime and in the absence of dispersion, the radiated energy (conventionally believed to be lost) is a constant of motion and could merge with the circulating energy flow of the field; so, in this condition, it contributes to the field which carries the particle.

II. THEORY OF CHERENKOV RADIATION

Geometrically, the angle of emission (Cherenkov angle) is derived by Huygens' construction (see Fig.1). The origin of the emission is best appreciated from the following two Liénard -Wiechert potentials expressions $A(r, t)$ and $\phi(r, t)$ which are given by:

$$A(r, t) = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi r} \left[\frac{qv}{1 - (\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{i}_{obs})/c} \right]_{ret} ;$$

$$\phi(r, t) = \frac{1}{4\pi \epsilon_0 r} \left[\frac{q}{1 - (\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{i}_{obs})/c} \right]_{ret} , \quad (2.1)$$

where \mathbf{i}_{obs} is the unit vector in the direction of observation from the moving charge q with velocity v at distance r , the subscript *ret* stands for retarded potential, and μ_0 and ϵ_0 are permeability and permittivity of space, respectively. In the case of a vacuum, one of the standard results of electromagnetic theory is that a charged particle moving at constant velocity v does not radiate electromagnetic radiation. Radiation is emitted in vacuum if the particle is accelerated. In a medium with a finite permittivity ϵ , or refractive index n , however, the potentials in (2.1) become singular along the cone, invalidating the denominators in this equation. Explicitly, we have:

$$1 - \frac{1}{c}(\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{i}_{obs}) = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \cos \theta = \frac{c}{nv} , \quad (2.2)$$

if one takes θ to be the angle between velocity direction and the unit vector \mathbf{i}_{obs} . Thus the usual rule that only accelerated charges radiate no longer applies.

The geometric representation of this process is that, because the particle moves superluminally through the medium, a 'shock wave' is created behind the particle. The wave front of the radiation propagates at a fixed angle with respect to the velocity vector of the particle because the wave fronts only add up coherently in this direction according to Huygens' construction. The geometry of this figure shows that the angle of the wave vector with respect to the direction of motion of the particle is $\cos \theta = c/nv$.

We will now determine the main features of Cherenkov radiation, analytically. Let us consider an electron moving along the positive x -axis at a constant velocity v . This motion corresponds to a current density \mathbf{J} where

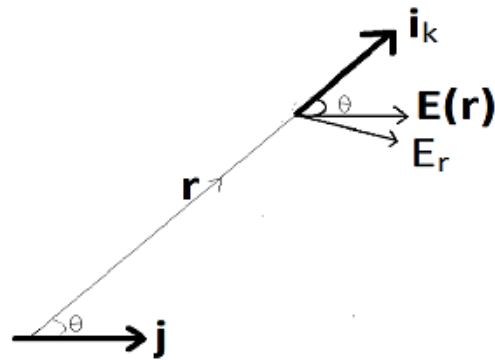


Fig. 1 : Illustrating the geometry used in the derivation of the expressions for Cherenkov angle and Cherenkov radiation

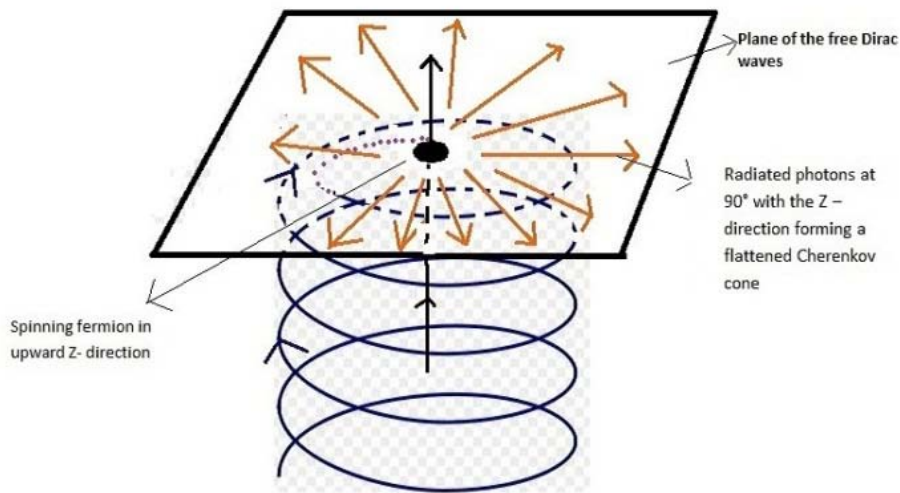


Fig. 2 : Sufficiently superluminal helical energy flow of a free fermion field for large parameter k . Photons are radiated at nearly 90° where Cherenkov cone becomes flattened and coincides with the plane of the particle wave field. The flow is shown in the transverse direction.

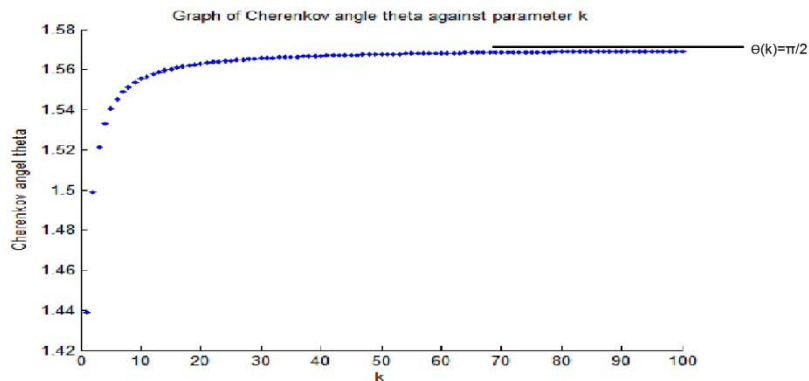


Fig. 3 : A graph illustrating the discrete evolution of Cherenkov angle θ to a limiting value, with respect to discrete parameter k

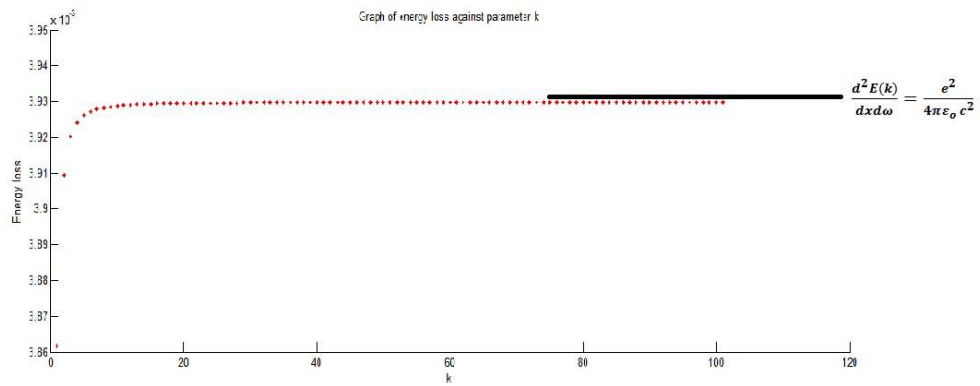


Fig. 4 : A graph illustrating the discrete evolution of the energy loss rate per unit path length and per frequency unit to a limiting value, with respect to discrete parameter k

$$\mathbf{J} = ev\delta(x - vt)\delta(y)\delta(z)\mathbf{i}_x. \quad (2.3)$$

Taking the Fourier transform of this current density to find the frequency components $\mathbf{J}(\omega)$ corresponding to this motion, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{J}(\omega) &= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{1/2}} \int \mathbf{J} \exp(i\omega t) dt \\ &= \frac{e}{(2\pi)^{1/2}} \delta(y)\delta(z) \exp(i\omega x/v) \mathbf{i}_x. \end{aligned} \quad (2.4)$$

Equation (2.4) can be regarded as a representation of the motion of the electron by a line distribution of coherently oscillating currents. Our task is to work out the coherent emission, if any, from this distribution of oscillating currents. The quite cumbersome full treatments given in standard texts such as (Jackson, 1999) and (Clemmow and Dougherty, 1969) will not be used in this paper. Rather, we will adopt an approach developed by John Peacock in (Dunlop et al., 1990; 1996), different from the usual derivation which employs energy and momentum conservation.

First, let us review some of the standard results concerning the propagation of electromagnetic waves in a medium of permittivity ϵ , or refractive index $n = \epsilon^{1/2}$. It is a standard result of classical electrodynamics that the flow of electromagnetic energy through a surface $d\mathbf{S}$ is given by the *Poynting vector flux*, $\mathbf{N} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = (\mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{H}) \cdot d\mathbf{S}$. The electric and magnetic field strengths \mathbf{E} and \mathbf{H} are related to the electric flux density \mathbf{D} and the magnetic flux density \mathbf{B} by the constitutive relations

$$\mathbf{D} = \epsilon\epsilon_0\mathbf{E}, \quad \mathbf{B} = \mu\mu_0\mathbf{H} \quad (2.5)$$

The energy density of the electromagnetic field in the medium is given by the standard formula

$$u = \int \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{D} + \int \mathbf{H} \cdot d\mathbf{B}. \quad (2.6)$$

If the medium has a constant real permittivity ϵ and permeability $\mu = 1$, the energy density in the medium is

$$u = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon\epsilon_0 E^2 + \frac{1}{2} \mu_0 H^2. \quad (2.7)$$

The speed of propagation of the waves is found from the dispersion relation $k^2 = \epsilon \epsilon_0 \mu_0 \omega^2$, that is, $c(\epsilon) = \omega/k = (\epsilon \epsilon_0 \mu_0)^{-1/2} = c/\epsilon^{1/2}$. This demonstrates the well-known result that, in a linear medium, the refractive index n is $\epsilon^{1/2}$. Another useful relation between the \mathbf{E} and \mathbf{B} fields in the electromagnetic wave, the ratio E/B , is $c/\epsilon^{1/2} = c/n$. Substituting this result into the expression for the electric and magnetic field energies (2.7), it is found that these are equal. Thus, the total energy density in the wave is $u = \epsilon \epsilon_0 E^2$. Furthermore, the Poynting vector flux $\mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{H}$ is $\epsilon^{1/2} \epsilon_0 E^2 c = n \epsilon_0 E^2 c$. This energy flow corresponds to the energy density of radiation in the wave $\epsilon \epsilon_0 E^2$ propagating at the velocity of light in the medium c/n . It follows that $N = n \epsilon_0 E^2 c$, as expected.

Let us consider the expressions for the retarded values of the current which contributes to the vector potential at the point \mathbf{r} , (Fig.1). The expression for the vector potential \mathbf{A} due to the current density \mathbf{J} at distance r is

$$\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \int d^3\mathbf{r}' \frac{\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{r}', \mathbf{t}-|\mathbf{r}-\mathbf{r}'|/c)}{|\mathbf{r}-\mathbf{r}'|} = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \int d^3\mathbf{r}' \frac{[\mathbf{J}]}{|\mathbf{r}-\mathbf{r}'|}; \quad (2.8)$$

the square brackets refer to retarded potentials. Taking the time derivative,

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}) = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial t} = -\frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \int d^3\mathbf{r}' \frac{[\dot{\mathbf{J}}]}{|\mathbf{r}-\mathbf{r}'|}. \quad (2.9)$$

In the distant far field limit, the electric field component E_r of the radiation field is perpendicular to the radial vector \mathbf{r} and so, as indicated in Fig.1, $\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}) = \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}) \times \mathbf{i}_k$, i.e.,

$$|\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r})| = \frac{\mu_0 \sin \theta}{4\pi} \left| \int d^3\mathbf{r}' \frac{[\dot{\mathbf{J}}]}{|\mathbf{r}-\mathbf{r}'|} \right|. \quad (2.10)$$

It should be observed that if we substitute $\int d^3\mathbf{r}' [\dot{\mathbf{J}}] = \mathbf{e} \ddot{\mathbf{r}}$ into (2.10), we obtain

$$E_{pc} = \frac{|\dot{\mathbf{p}}| \sin \theta}{4\pi \epsilon_0 c^2 r}; \quad (2.11)$$

this is the expression for the radiation of a point charge, and \mathbf{p} is the electric dipole moment of the charge with respect to some origin.

We now evaluate the frequency spectrum of the radiation. First of all, we work out the total radiation rate by integrating the Poynting vector flux over a sphere at a large distance \mathbf{r} ,

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{dE}{dt}\right)_{rad} &= \int_S n c \epsilon_0 E_r^2 dS \\ &= \int_{\Omega} \frac{n c \epsilon_0 \sin^2 \theta}{16\pi^2} \left| \int d^3\mathbf{r}' \frac{[\dot{\mathbf{J}}]}{|\mathbf{r}-\mathbf{r}'|} \right|^2 r^2 d\Omega \end{aligned} \quad (2.12)$$

Assuming the size of the emitting region is much smaller than the distance to the point of observation, i.e., $L \ll r$, we can write $|\mathbf{r}-\mathbf{r}'| = r$ and then,

$$\left(\frac{dE}{dt}\right)_{rad} = \int \frac{n \sin^2 \theta}{16\pi^2 \epsilon_0 c^3} \left| \int d^3\mathbf{r}' [\dot{\mathbf{J}}] \right|^2 d\Omega. \quad (2.13)$$

Next, we take the time integral of the radiation rate to find the total radiated energy,

$$\begin{aligned} E_{rad} &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left(\frac{dE}{dt} \right)_{rad} dt \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{\Omega} \frac{n \sin^2 \theta}{16\pi^2 \epsilon_0 c^3} \left| \int d^3 \mathbf{r}' [\mathbf{j}] \right|^2 d\Omega dt. \end{aligned} \quad (2.14)$$

Using Parseval's theorem to transform from an integral over time to an integral over frequency, and restricting our interest to positive frequencies only, we find:

$$E_{rad} = \int_0^{\infty} \int_{\Omega} \frac{n \sin^2 \theta}{8\pi^2 \epsilon_0 c^3} \left| \int d^3 \mathbf{r}' [\mathbf{j}(\omega)] \right|^2 d\Omega d\omega. \quad (2.15)$$

Let us now evaluate the volume integral $\int d^3 \mathbf{r}' [\mathbf{j}(\omega)]$. We take \mathbf{R} to be the vector from the origin of the coordinate system to the observer, and \mathbf{x} to be the position vector of the current element $\mathbf{j}(\omega) d^3 \mathbf{r}'$ from the origin; so that $\mathbf{r}' = \mathbf{R} - \mathbf{x}$. Now the waves from the current element at \mathbf{x} propagate outwards from the emitting region at velocity c/n with phase factor $\exp[i(\omega t - \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r}')]$ and therefore, relative to the origin at O , the phase factor of the waves, which we need to find for the retarded value of $\mathbf{j}(\omega)$, is

$$\exp[i(\omega t - \mathbf{k} \cdot (\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{x}))] = \exp(-i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{R}) \exp[i(\omega t + \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x})]. \quad (2.16)$$

So, evaluating $[\mathbf{j}(\omega)]$, we have

$$\left| \int d^3 \mathbf{r}' [\mathbf{j}(\omega)] \right| = \left| i\omega \int d^3 \mathbf{r}' [\mathbf{j}(\omega)] \right|$$

or, by including the phase factor explicitly

$$\left| \int d^3 \mathbf{r}' [\mathbf{j}(\omega)] \right| = \left| \int d^3 \mathbf{r}' \omega \mathbf{j}(\omega) \exp[i(\omega t + \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x})] \right|. \quad (2.17)$$

Using (2.4) we obtain:

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int d^3 \mathbf{r}' [\mathbf{j}(\omega)] \right| &= \left| \frac{\omega e}{(2\pi)^{1/2}} \exp(i\omega t) \int \exp\left[i\left(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x} + \frac{\omega \mathbf{x}}{v}\right)\right] dx \right| \\ &= \left| \frac{\omega e}{(2\pi)^{1/2}} \int \exp\left[i\left(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x} + \frac{\omega \mathbf{x}}{v}\right)\right] dx \right|. \end{aligned} \quad (2.18)$$

This is the key integral in deciding whether or not the particle radiates. If the electron propagates in a vacuum, $\omega/k = c$ and we can write the exponent as

$$kx \left(\cos \theta + \frac{\omega}{kv} \right) = kx \left(\cos \theta + \frac{c}{v} \right) \quad (2.19)$$

In a vacuum, $c/v > 1$, and so this exponent is always greater than zero and hence the exponential integral over all x is always zero, assuming boundary limits vanish. This means that a particle moving at constant velocity in a vacuum does not radiate. However, if the medium has refractive index n , $\omega/k = c/n$, and then the exponent is zero if $\cos \theta = -c/nv$. This is the origin of the Cherenkov radiation

phenomenon. The radiation is only coherent along the angle θ corresponding to the Cherenkov cone derived from Huygens' construction, i.e., given by (1.1).

We can therefore write down formally the energy spectrum using the relation (2.22) (below) of the average number of photons in a given state in the phase space, recalling that the radiation is only emitted at an angle $\cos \theta = c/nv$. But first, we need the equation which describes how the spectrum of radiation evolves towards the so called Bose-Einstein distribution (Einstein, 1905; 1915).

In the non-relativistic limit, this equation is known as the Kompaneets equation. It is written in terms of the occupation number of photons in phase space, because we need to include both spontaneous and induced processes in the calculation. Let us compare this approach with that involving the coefficients of emission and absorption of radiation. As a good reference for understanding the basic physics of spontaneous and induced processes, we present in the following Feynman's enunciation of the key rule for the emission and absorption of photons, which are spin-1 bosons (Feynman, Leighton and Sands, 1965; Feynman, 1972):

The probability that an atom will emit a photon in a particular final state is increased by a factor $(n + 1)$ if there are already n photons in that state.

The statement is made in terms of probabilities rather than quantum mechanical amplitudes; in the latter case, the amplitude would be increased by a factor $\sqrt{n+1}$. We will use probabilities in our analysis. The number n will turn out to be the occupation number. To derive the Planck spectrum, consider an atom which can be in two states, an upper state 2 with energy $\hbar\omega$ greater than the lower state 1. N_1 is the number of atoms in the lower state and N_2 the number in the upper state. In thermodynamic equilibrium, the ratio of the numbers of atoms in these states is given by the Boltzmann relation,

$$\frac{N_2}{N_1} = \exp(-\Delta E/kt) = \exp\left(-\frac{\hbar\omega}{kT}\right), \quad (2.20)$$

where $\Delta E = \hbar\omega$ and the corresponding statistical weights g_2 and g_1 are assumed to be the same. When a photon of energy $\hbar\omega$ is absorbed, the atom is excited from state 1 to state 2 and, when a photon of the same energy is emitted from state 2, the atom de-excites from state 2 to state 1. In thermodynamic equilibrium, the rates for the emission and absorption of photons between the two levels must be exactly balanced. These rates are proportional to the product of the probability of the events occurring and the number of atoms present in the appropriate state. Suppose \bar{n} is the average number of photons in a given state in the phase space of the photons with energy $\hbar\omega$. Then, the absorption rate of these photons by the atoms in the state 1 is $N_1 \bar{n} p_{12}$, where p_{12} is the probability that the photon will be absorbed by an atom in state 1, which is then excited to state 2. According to the rule enunciated above by Feynman, the rate of emission of photons when the atom de-excites from state 2 to state 1 is $N_2 (\bar{n} + 1) p_{12}$. At the quantum mechanical level, the probabilities p_{12} and p_{21} are equal. This is because the matrix element for, say, the p_{12} transition is the complex conjugate of the transition p_{21} and, since the probabilities depend upon the square of the magnitude of the matrix elements, these must be equal. This is called the *principle of jump rate symmetry*. Therefore,

$$N_1 \bar{n} = N_2 (\bar{n} + 1). \quad (2.21)$$

Solving for \bar{n} and using (2.20), we obtain

$$\bar{n} = \frac{1}{e^{\hbar\omega/kT} - 1} \quad (2.22)$$

as the required average number of photons in a given state in the phase space. Now from (2.15) and (2.22) we have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dE_{rad}}{d\omega} &= \int_{\Omega} \frac{n\omega^2 e^2 \sin^2 \theta}{16\pi^2 \epsilon_0 c^3} \left| \int \exp \left[ikx \left(\cos \theta + \frac{\omega}{kv} \right) \right] dx \right|^2 d\Omega \\ &= \frac{n\omega^2 e^2}{16\pi^2 \epsilon_0 c^3} \left(1 - \frac{c^2}{n^2 v^2} \right) \int_{\Omega} \left| \int \exp \left[ikx \left(\cos \theta + \frac{\omega}{kv} \right) \right] dx \right|^2 d\Omega. \end{aligned} \quad (2.23)$$

If one sets $k(\cos \theta + \omega/kv) = \alpha$, one gets

$$\begin{aligned} &\int_{\Omega} \left| \int \exp \left[ikx \left(\cos \theta + \frac{\omega}{kv} \right) \right] dx \right|^2 d\Omega \\ &= \int_{\theta} \left| \int \exp (i\alpha x) dx \right|^2 2\pi \sin \theta d\theta. \end{aligned} \quad (2.24)$$

We will evaluate the line integral along a finite path length from $-L$ to L , avoiding however the use of contour integration at values of θ ranging from $-\infty$ to ∞ . The integral should be taken over a small finite range of angles about $\theta = \cos^{-1}(c/nv)$ for which $(\cos \theta + \omega/kv)$ or $(-\cos \theta + \omega/kv)$ is close to zero. Integration therefore can be taken over all values of θ or $\alpha = k(-\cos \theta + \omega/kv)$ knowing that most of the integral is contributed by values of θ very close to $\cos^{-1}(c/nv)$; so that $d\alpha = d(k(-\cos \theta + \omega/kv)) = k \sin \theta d\theta$. Thence, with respect to α , the integral (2.24) becomes

$$\begin{aligned} &\int_{\Omega} \left| \int \exp \left[ikx \left(\cos \theta + \frac{\omega}{kv} \right) \right] dx \right|^2 d\Omega \\ &= 8\pi \int \frac{\sin^2 \alpha L}{\alpha^2} \frac{d\alpha}{k}, \end{aligned} \quad (2.25)$$

This is an improper integral to be taken over all values of α from $-\infty$ to ∞ . Combining test for convergence methods for such integrals and integration by parts, (2.25) is evaluated as

$$8\pi \int \frac{\sin^2 \alpha L}{\alpha^2} \frac{d\alpha}{k} = 8\pi^2 \left(\frac{L}{k} \right) = \frac{8\pi^2 c}{n\omega} L. \quad (2.26)$$

It follows that the energy radiated per unit bandwidth is

$$\frac{du}{d\omega} = \frac{\omega e^2}{2\pi \epsilon_0 c^2} \left(1 - \frac{c^2}{n^2 v^2} \right) L. \quad (2.27)$$

We obtain the energy loss rate per unit path length directly by dividing by $2L$. Thus, the energy loss rate per unit path length follows as

$$\frac{du(\omega)}{dx} = \frac{\omega e^2}{4\pi \epsilon_0 c^2} \left(1 - \frac{c^2}{n^2 v^2} \right) \quad (2.28)$$

Finally, the energy loss rate per unit path length and per frequency unit is obtained :

$$\frac{d^2E}{dx d\omega} = \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 c^2} \left(1 - \frac{c^2}{n^2 v^2}\right), \quad (2.29)$$

where it should be recalled that v is the particle superluminal velocity in the medium. Equations (1.1) and (2.29) are valid for arbitrary dependence $n(\omega)$.

As an important side remark, notice from (2.29) that the energy loss rate is a constant of motion with respect to constant ultra-relativistic (i.e., superluminal) velocity v and the medium refractive index n . We will now investigate what this means in the special context of free spin-1/2 particles superluminal motion in space time. However, before coming to the application in our field of interest, let us capture the true mechanism underlying the spin phenomenon.

III. UNDERSTANDING THE TRUE MECHANISM OF THE FREE SPIN-1/2 FIELD

What is spin? This is a short but exact query which had been perfectly clarified in (Belinfante, 1939; Ohanian, 1984). As echo of these references, we say that persistent prevailing speculations would have the spin of the electron or of some other particle a mysterious internal process for which no concrete physical picture exists, and for which there is no classical analogue. Judging from arguments which surface in scientific criticisms and statements found in modern textbooks on atomic physics and quantum theory, it is surprising to observe that our understanding of spin (or the lack thereof) has not made any advance since the early years of quantum mechanics (Dirac, 1928). It is usually believed that the spin is a nonorbital, "internal," "intrinsic," or "inherent" angular momentum (these words being often incorrectly used as synonyms), and often treated as an irreducible entity that cannot be explained further. Sometimes, the speculation goes that the spin is a product of an (unspecified) internal structure of the electron, or arises in a natural way from Dirac's equation or from the analysis of the representations of the Lorentz group. The mathematical formalism of the Dirac equation and of group theory resort to the existence of the spin to achieve the conservation of angular momentum and to construct the generators of the rotation group, but when it comes to understanding the physical mechanism that produces the spin, no explication is given. This lack of a concrete picture of the spin leaves a grievous gap in our understanding of quantum mechanics, and hinder the derivation of applications therefrom. However, the solution of this problem has been at hand since (Belinfante, 1939) who, on the basis of an old calculation, was able to give the true (concrete) picture of the spin. He established that the spin could be regarded as due to a circulating flow of energy, or a momentum density, in the electron wave field. He stressed that this picture of the spin is valid not only for electrons, but also for photons, vector mesons, and gravitons, and in all cases the spin angular momentum is due to a circulating energy flow in the fields. Thus, in contradistinction to the common prejudice, the spin of the electron has a close classical analogue; It is an angular momentum of exactly the same kind as carried by the fields of a classical circularly polarized electromagnetic wave. Moreover, according to a demonstration by (Gordon, 1928), the magnetic moment of the electron is due to the circulating flow of charge in the electron wave field. Definitely, as a result, neither the spin nor the magnetic moment are internal properties of the electron and other particles: they have nothing to do with the internal structure of the electron, but only depend on the structure of its wave field.

Further, a comparison between calculations of angular momentum in the Dirac field and the electromagnetic fields shows that the spin of the electron is entirely analogous to the angular momentum carried by a classical circularly polarized wave (Ohanian, 1984). From a theoretical point [cf.(Greiner,2000)], Maxwell (electromagnetic) equations given by

$$\text{curl } \mathbf{E} + \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \mathbf{H}}{\partial t} = 0, \quad \text{curl } \mathbf{H} - \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t} = \frac{4\pi}{c} \mathbf{j}$$

can be represented in the form of the Dirac equations (spinor equation)

$$\frac{1}{i} \sum_{r=0}^3 \hat{\alpha}^r \frac{\partial}{\partial x^r} \psi = \frac{4\pi}{c} \phi.$$

This relates the physics of self-interaction of the field of the particle, where it is known that a moving electron generates an electromagnetic field. All of these put together corroborate the above observations.

Having clarified the mechanism of spin, it is noteworthy that the Dirac (free) field is a plane wave, and so the axis of rotation of a free Dirac particle (which coincides with the direction of the field linear phase velocity) is perpendicular to this plane, Fig.2. Thus, a spinning free fermion is carried by a circularly polarized electromagnetic plane wave; in other words, a spinning free fermion rolls helically in an electromagnetic plane wave.

IV. CONSERVATION OF ENERGY BY SUPERLUMINAL FREE SPIN-1/2 PARTICLES UNDER CHERENKOV RADIATION

Theoretically (Afanasiev et al., 1999) and experimentally (Stevens et al., 2001; Wahlstr and and Merlin, 2003) it has been shown that the inclusion of the medium dispersion (a case we will not however consider in this work) leads to the appearance of additional radiation intensity maxima (or striped-like structure) in the angular distribution of the radiation.

Let us consider a free spin-1/2 particle moving in a localized, kinematically permissible region of spacetime with superluminal generalized linear velocity component of parameter k , given by (Gazoya et al., 2015; 2016):

$$V_{\text{Sup}}(k) = \left[\cos^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) \right] \times c \approx \left(\frac{21\pi}{50} + 2\pi k \right) \times c, \\ k = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad (4.1)$$

where c is the universal value of the speed of light in a vacuum. In the absence of dispersion, the Cherenkov angle expression (1.1), as a function of the parameter k takes the form

$$\cos \theta(k) = \frac{c}{nV_{\text{Sup}}(k)} = \frac{50}{\pi} \left(\frac{1}{100k+21} \right), \quad (4.2)$$

that is,

$$\theta(k) = \arccos \left(\frac{50}{\pi} \left(\frac{1}{100k+21} \right) \right). \quad (4.3)$$

Clearly, as the parameter k assumes large numerical values, the argument of the inverse cosine function in (4.3) tends to zero, this brings the direction of the radiated

Cherenkov photons to an angle near to 90° with the direction of the particle linear velocity; at this point Cherenkov cone becomes flattened. Mathematically, we write

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \theta(k) = \frac{\pi}{2}. \quad (4.4)$$

This situation corresponds to Cherenkov radiation at an angle of approximately 90° of moving free spin-1/2 particles with 'sufficiently' superluminal linear velocity in spacetime (of refractive index $n = 1.000277$ taken at Standard Temperature and Pressure (STP), for example) (see Fig.2).

On the other hand, the expression (2.29) of the radiated energy loss rate per unit path length and per frequency unit in terms of the parameter k becomes

$$\frac{d^2E(k)}{dx d\omega} = \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 c^2} \left[1 - \frac{2500}{n^2 \pi^2} \left(\frac{1}{100k+21} \right)^2 \right]. \quad (4.5)$$

Upon taking the limit as k assumes large numerical values in (4.5) we obtain

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \left[\frac{d^2E(k)}{dx d\omega} \right] = \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 c^2} = \text{const.} \quad (4.6)$$

Thus, in the particular case of large k , the radiated energy is still a constant of motion, independent of the medium refractive index $n(\omega)$, and so independent of frequency.

V. DISCUSSIONS

In light of the true mechanism of the free spin-1/2 field exposed in Section 3 above, the question arises: Is the radiated energy in (4.6) really lost, as conventionally claimed so far? For sufficiently superluminal motion induced by large parameter k , the direction of the radiated photons tends near to 90° with that of the plane wave spin-half field. There, the Cherenkov cone becomes flattened to a plane which in turn coincides with the plane wave field of the particle (see Fig. 2). As a result, the radiated energy could be regarded as merging with the planewave of the circulating energy flow which carries the particle. It could not be considered lost; it could rather contribute to the fermion wave field, or, precisely, 're-invested' in the fermion wave field. Clearly, in case this radiated energy (being a constant of motion) could really go into waste, this could not significantly affect the superluminal nature of the propagation. In Fig.3 and Fig.4, graphs of the parameter k against angle $\theta(k)$ and energy loss rate $d^2E(k)/dx d\omega$ are plotted. A limiting value is reached in each case by these functions as the parameter k takes on big values. Thus, clearly, the result of this demonstration completely contradicts the speculative anticipation of instant collapse of such superluminal particles due to fast energy loss under Cherenkov radiation.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

Theoretically it has been shown that, in the limit of a kinematically permissible medium with absence of dispersion, the superluminal motion of free spin-half particles could be a reliable dynamical system in conformity with one of nature's basic laws of conservation of energy. The other side-argument which anticipates and insists on fast energy loss that would bring this kind of systems to instant collapse in their dynamical evolution could not hold. The radiated energy, which is a constant of motion in this case, whether lost or re-invested (as shown) in the wave field of the particle, could not

significantly affect the superluminal nature of the propagation. Moreover, the larger the number the parameter k assumes in the quantization of the superluminal linear velocity, the less energy loss would be expected. In other words, the highly superluminal the propagation, the less the radiated energy would be gone into waste.

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The Distribution of Cube Root Transformation of the Error Component of the Multiplicative Time Series Model

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Keywords: *power transformations, probability density function, error component, mean, variance, multiplicative time series.*

GJSFR-F Classification : FOR Code : 65H04



THE DISTRIBUTION OF CUBE ROOT TRANSFORMATION OF THE ERROR COMPONENT OF THE MULTIPLICATIVE TIME SERIES MODEL

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Dike A. O. ^α, Otuonye E. L. ^σ & Chikezie D. C. ^ρ

Abstract- In this paper, the probability density function (pdf), of the cube root transformation was derived from the n^{th} power transformation of the error component of the multiplicative time series model. The mean and variance of the cube root transformation were equally established. From the simulated results it was found that the cube root transformed error component was normal with unit mean and variance approximately $\frac{1}{9}$ times that of the original error before transformation. Furthermore, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for normality was used ascertain the effect of cube root transformation as regard to normalization, from the results of the test at p-value of 0.05, we accepted normality for σ values of 0.001 to 0.22. Hence, a successful transformation is achieved when $0 \leq \sigma \leq 0.22$ depending on the decimal places desired.

Keywords: power transformations, probability density function, error component, mean, variance, multiplicative time series.

I. INTRODUCTION

The Gaussian distribution (commonly called the normal distribution) is the best well known and most frequently used in probability distribution theory. It is widely used in natural and social sciences to represent real-valued random variables whose distributions are not known.

The normal distribution derived its usefulness from the central limit theorem. The central limit theorem states that the averages of random variables independently drawn from independent distributions converges in distribution to the normal, that is, becomes normally distributed when the number of random variables is sufficiently large. Physical quantities that are expected to be the sum of many independent processes (such as measurement errors) often have distributions that are nearly normal.

The probability density function (pdf) of the normal distribution is given in Uche(2003)as

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x-1}{\sigma}\right)^2}, x \geq 0, \sigma^2 > 0 \quad (1)$$

The error component e_t of the multiplicative time series model has a pdf $N(1, \sigma^2)$ where $e_t > 0$, Iwueze(2007) established the distribution of the left-truncated normal distribution and is given by

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$$f(x) = \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x-1}{\sigma}\right)^2}}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}\left[1-\Phi\left(\frac{-1}{\sigma}\right)\right]}, x \geq 0, \sigma^2 > 0 \quad (2)$$

With mean $E(X)$ and variance $Var(X)$ given by

$$E(X) = 1 + \frac{\sigma e^{-\frac{1}{2}\sigma^2}}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}\left[1-\Phi\left(\frac{-1}{\sigma}\right)\right]}, x \geq 0, \sigma^2 > 0 \quad (3)$$

and

$$Var(X) = \frac{\sigma^2}{2\left(1-\Phi\left(\frac{-1}{\sigma}\right)\right)} \left(\left[1 + P_r\left(\chi_{(1)}^2 \leq \frac{1}{\sigma^2}\right)\right] - \frac{\sigma e^{-\frac{1}{2}\sigma^2}}{\sqrt{2\pi}\left[1-\Phi\left(\frac{-1}{\sigma}\right)\right]} \left[\frac{\sigma e^{-\frac{1}{2}\sigma^2}}{\sqrt{2\pi}\left[1-\Phi\left(\frac{-1}{\sigma}\right)\right]} \right]^2 \right) \quad (4)$$

He examined some implications of truncating the $N(1, \sigma^2)$ to the left.

The truncated normal distribution have gained much acceptance in various fields of human endeavours, these include inventory management, regression analysis, operation management, time series analysis and so on. Johnson and Thomopoulos (2004) considered the use of the left truncated distribution for improving achieved service levels. They presented the table of the cumulative distribution function of the left truncated normal distribution and derived the characteristic parameters of the distribution, and also presented the table of the partial expectation of the left truncated normal distribution. A time series is a collection of ordered observation made sequentially in time. Examples abound in Sciences, Engineering, Economics etc and methods of analysing time series constitute a vital area in the field of Statistics.

According to Spiegel and Stephens (1999) the general time series model is always considered as a mixture of four major components, namely the Trend T_t , Seasonal movements S_t , cyclical movements C_t and irregular or Random Movements e_t . The general multiplicative time series model is given as

$$X_t = T_t S_t C_t e_t \quad (5)$$

In short term series the trend and cyclical components are merged to give the trend-cycle component; hence equation (5) can be rewritten as

$$X_t = M_t S_t e_t \quad (6)$$

where M_t is the trend cycle component and e_t is independent identically distributed (*iid*) normal errors with mean 1 and variance $\sigma^2 > 0$ [$e_t \sim N(1, \sigma^2)$]

Cox (2007) observed that the cube (X^3) transformation is a fairly strong transformation with a substantial effect on distribution shape. It is also used for reducing right skewness, and has the advantage that it can be applied to zero and non negative values. A similar property is possessed by any other root whose power is the inverse of an odd positive integer example $1/3, 1/5, 1/7$, etc. The cubic transformation is stronger than the square (X^2) transformation, though weaker than the logarithm transformation.

a) Data Transformation

According to Cox (2007) transformation is the replacement of a variable by a function of that variable, for example, replacing a variable x by the square root of x or the logarithm of x . In a stronger sense, a transformation is a replacement that changes

the shape of a distribution or relationship. Reasons for transformation include stabilizing variance, normalizing, reducing the effect of outliers, making a measurement scale more meaningful, and to linearize a relationship. For more references see Bartlett (1947) Box and Cox (1964), etc.

Many time series analysis assume normality and it is well known that variance stabilization implies normality of the series. The most popular and common transformation are the logarithm transformation and the power transformations (square, square root, inverse, inverse square, and inverse square root). It is important to note that, if we apply the cube root transformation on model (6), we still obtain a multiplicative time series model given by

$$Y_t = M_t^3 S_t^3 e_t^3 = M_t^* S_t^* e_t^* \tag{7}$$

Where $M_t^3 = M_t^*$, $S_t^3 = S_t^*$, $e_t^3 = e_t^*$

Several studies abound in statistical literature on effects of power transformations on the error component of a multiplicative time series model whose error component is classified under the characteristics given in (3). The sole aim of such studies is to establish the conditions for successful transformation. A successful transformation is achieved when the derivable statistical properties of a data set remain unchanged after transformation, there basic properties or assumptions of interest for the studies are (i) unit mean and (ii) constant variance. Also Nwosu et al (2010) studied the effects of inverse and square root transformation respectively on the error component of the same model and discovered that the inverse transform $Y = \frac{1}{e_t}$ can be assumed to be normally distributed with mean, one and the same variance provided, $\sigma < 0.07$. Similarly Otuonye et al (2011) discovered that the square root transform; $\sqrt{e_t}$ can be assumed to be normally distributed with unit mean and variance $4\sigma^2$, for $\sigma_1 \leq 0.3$ where σ_1^2 is the variance of the original error component before transformation.

Ibeh et al (2013) studied the inverse square transformation of error the component of the multiplicative time series model, the results of the research showed that the basic assumptions of the error term of the multiplicative model which is normally distributed with mean 1 and finite variance can only be maintained if the standard deviation of the untransformed error term is less than or equal to 0.07 ($\sigma \leq 0.07$). the study also revealed that the variance of the transformed of the error term is 4 times the variance of the untransformed for $\sigma \leq 0.07$.

Ajibade et al (2015) studied the distribution of the inverse square root transformed error component of the multiplication time series model and found out that the means are the same and variance $Var(e_t^*) \approx \frac{1}{4} Var(e_t)$ for $\sigma \leq 0$.

Dike et al (2016) generalized the power transformation by establishing the n^{th} power transformation; they showed that any power transformation can be derived from the formular.

In this paper the cube root transformation was carried out, the probability density function, the mean and variance of the distribution were established using the n^{th} power transformation given by Dike *et al*(2016) by substituting $n = \frac{1}{3}$

According to Osborne (2002) caution should be exercised in the transformation so that the basic structure of the original series is not altered.

To this end comparison would be made between the transformed and the untransformed series for their mean and variances respectively to know the condition under which the transformation would be successful.

Otuonye *et al* (2011) showed that the variance of the untransformed is 4 times the variance of the transformed series for $0 < \sigma \leq 0.3$

In this cube root transformation we would demonstrate whether the transformation is normal with mean 1 and same variance. This would be done by simulating the original series for specified values σ and carry out the transformation.

The normality test of the cube root transformed series would be done using the kolmogorov- Smirnov normality test for varying values of σ .

To validate our finding simulation and practical example would be use to drive the research home.

b) The Probability Density Function (pdf) of the Cube Root Transformation

The pdf of the general equation of the n^{th} power transformation given by Dike *et al* (2016) is

$$f(y) = \frac{\frac{1}{|n|} y^{\frac{1}{n}-1} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{y^{\frac{1}{n}} - 1}{\sigma} \right)^2}}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi} \left[1 - \Phi \left(\frac{-1}{\sigma} \right) \right]} \tag{8}$$

Substituting $n = \frac{1}{3}$ in the General equation given in (8) yields the pdf of the cube root transformation given as

$$f(y) = \frac{\frac{1}{3} y^{\frac{1}{3}-1} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{y^{\frac{1}{3}} - 1}{\sigma} \right)^2}}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi} \left[1 - \Phi \left(\frac{-1}{\sigma} \right) \right]} \tag{9}$$

From equation (9) we derive the moments (mean and variance) of the cube root transformation

c) The Mean for cube root transformation

Given

$$E(Y) = 1 + \frac{n\sigma}{\sqrt{2\pi} \left[1 - \Phi \left(\frac{-1}{\sigma} \right) \right]} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}} + \frac{n(n-1)\sigma^2}{2\sqrt{2\pi} \left[1 - \Phi \left(\frac{-1}{\sigma} \right) \right]} \left(-\frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}}}{\sigma} + \frac{\sqrt{2\pi}}{2} \left[1 + P_r \left(\chi^2_{(1)} \leq \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \right) \right] \right) + \frac{2n(n-1)(n-2)\sigma^3}{3\sqrt{2\pi} \left[1 - \Phi \left(\frac{-1}{\sigma} \right) \right]} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \right) e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}} \tag{10}$$

For $n = \frac{1}{3}$

$$E(Y) = 1 + \frac{\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\sigma}{\sqrt{2\pi} \left[1 - \Phi \left(\frac{-1}{\sigma} \right) \right]} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}} + \frac{\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\left(\frac{1}{3}-1\right)\sigma^2}{2\sqrt{2\pi} \left[1 - \Phi \left(\frac{-1}{\sigma} \right) \right]} \left(-\frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}}}{\sigma} + \frac{\sqrt{2\pi}}{2} \left[1 + P_r \left(\chi^2_{(1)} \leq \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \right) \right] \right) + \frac{2\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\left(\frac{1}{3}-1\right)\left(\frac{1}{3}-2\right)\sigma^3}{3\sqrt{2\pi} \left[1 - \Phi \left(\frac{-1}{\sigma} \right) \right]} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \right) e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}} \tag{11}$$

$$= 1 + \frac{\sigma}{3\sqrt{2\pi} \left[1 - \Phi \left(\frac{-1}{\sigma} \right) \right]} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}} + \frac{\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\left(\frac{-2}{3}\right)\sigma^2}{2\sqrt{2\pi} \left[1 - \Phi \left(\frac{-1}{\sigma} \right) \right]} \left(-\frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}}}{\sigma} + \frac{\sqrt{2\pi}}{2} \left[1 + P_r \left(\chi^2_{(1)} \leq \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \right) \right] \right) + \frac{2\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\left(\frac{-2}{3}\right)\left(\frac{-5}{3}\right)\sigma^3}{6\sqrt{2\pi} \left[1 - \Phi \left(\frac{-1}{\sigma} \right) \right]} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \right) e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}} \tag{12}$$

$$= 1 + \frac{\sigma}{3\sqrt{2\pi}[1-\Phi(\frac{-1}{\sigma})]} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}} - \frac{\sigma^2}{9\sqrt{2\pi}[1-\Phi(\frac{-1}{\sigma})]} \left(-\frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}}}{\sigma} + \frac{\sqrt{2\pi}}{2} [1 + P_r(\chi^2_{(1)} \leq \frac{1}{\sigma^2})] \right) + \frac{10\sigma^3}{81\sqrt{2\pi}[1-\Phi(\frac{-1}{\sigma})]} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\right) e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}} \tag{13}$$

$$= 1 + \frac{\sigma}{3\sqrt{2\pi}[1-\Phi(\frac{-1}{\sigma})]} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}} + \frac{\sigma}{9\sqrt{2\pi}[1-\Phi(\frac{-1}{\sigma})]} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}} - \frac{\sigma^2}{18[1-\Phi(\frac{-1}{\sigma})]} \left(1 + P_r(\chi^2_{(1)} \leq \frac{1}{\sigma^2})\right) + \frac{10\sigma^3}{81\sqrt{2\pi}[1-\Phi(\frac{-1}{\sigma})]} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}} + \frac{5\sigma}{81\sqrt{2\pi}[1-\Phi(\frac{-1}{\sigma})]} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}} \tag{14}$$

$$= 1 + \frac{(27\sigma+9\sigma+5\sigma)}{81\sqrt{2\pi}[1-\Phi(\frac{-1}{\sigma})]} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}} - \frac{\sigma^2}{18[1-\Phi(\frac{-1}{\sigma})]} \left(1 + P_r(\chi^2_{(1)} \leq \frac{1}{\sigma^2})\right) + \frac{10\sigma^3}{81\sqrt{2\pi}[1-\Phi(\frac{-1}{\sigma})]} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}} \tag{15}$$

$$= 1 + \frac{41\sigma}{16\sqrt{2\pi}[1-\Phi(\frac{-1}{\sigma})]} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}} - \frac{\sigma^2}{18[1-\Phi(\frac{-1}{\sigma})]} \left(1 + P_r(\chi^2_{(1)} \leq \frac{1}{\sigma^2})\right) + \frac{10\sigma^3}{81\sqrt{2\pi}[1-\Phi(\frac{-1}{\sigma})]} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}} \tag{16}$$

$$\therefore E(Y) = 1 + \frac{41\sigma}{16\sqrt{2\pi}[1-\Phi(\frac{-1}{\sigma})]} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}} - \frac{\sigma^2}{18[1-\Phi(\frac{-1}{\sigma})]} \left(1 + P_r(\chi^2_{(1)} \leq \frac{1}{\sigma^2})\right) + \frac{10\sigma^3}{81\sqrt{2\pi}[1-\Phi(\frac{-1}{\sigma})]} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}} \tag{17}$$

d) Variance for cube root transformation

For $E(Y^2)$

Given

$$E(Y^2) = 1 + \frac{2n\sigma}{\sqrt{2\pi}[1-\Phi(\frac{-1}{\sigma})]} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}} + \frac{2n(2n-1)\sigma^2}{2!\sqrt{2\pi}[1-\Phi(\frac{-1}{\sigma})]} \left(-\frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}}}{\sigma} + \frac{\sqrt{2\pi}}{2} [1 + P_r(\chi^2_{(1)} \leq \frac{1}{\sigma^2})] \right) + \frac{2(2n)(2n-1)(2n-2)\sigma^3}{3!\sqrt{2\pi}[1-\Phi(\frac{-1}{\sigma})]} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\right) e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}} \tag{18}$$

For $n = \frac{1}{3}$

$$E(Y^2) = 1 + \frac{2(\frac{1}{3})\sigma}{\sqrt{2\pi}[1-\Phi(\frac{-1}{\sigma})]} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}} + \frac{2(\frac{1}{3})[2(\frac{1}{3})-1]\sigma^2}{2!\sqrt{2\pi}[1-\Phi(\frac{-1}{\sigma})]} \left(-\frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}}}{\sigma} + \frac{\sqrt{2\pi}}{2} [1 + P_r(\chi^2_{(1)} \leq \frac{1}{\sigma^2})] \right) + \frac{2[2(\frac{1}{3})][2(\frac{1}{3})-1][2(\frac{1}{3})-2]\sigma^3}{3!\sqrt{2\pi}[1-\Phi(\frac{-1}{\sigma})]} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\right) e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}} \tag{19}$$

$$= 1 + \frac{2\sigma}{3\sqrt{2\pi}[1-\Phi(\frac{-1}{\sigma})]} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}} + \frac{(\frac{2}{3})(\frac{-1}{3})\sigma^2}{2\sqrt{2\pi}[1-\Phi(\frac{-1}{\sigma})]} \left(-\frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}}}{\sigma} + \frac{\sqrt{2\pi}}{2} [1 + P_r(\chi^2_{(1)} \leq \frac{1}{\sigma^2})] \right) + \frac{2(\frac{2}{3})(\frac{-1}{3})(\frac{-4}{3})\sigma^3}{6\sqrt{2\pi}[1-\Phi(\frac{-1}{\sigma})]} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\right) e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}} \tag{20}$$

$$= 1 + \frac{2\sigma}{3\sqrt{2\pi}[1-\Phi(\frac{-1}{\sigma})]} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}} - \frac{\sigma^2}{9\sqrt{2\pi}[1-\Phi(\frac{-1}{\sigma})]} \left(-\frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}}}{\sigma} + \frac{\sqrt{2\pi}}{2} [1 + P_r(\chi^2_{(1)} \leq \frac{1}{\sigma^2})] \right) + \frac{8\sigma^3}{81\sqrt{2\pi}[1-\Phi(\frac{-1}{\sigma})]} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\right) e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}} \tag{21}$$

$$= 1 + \frac{2\sigma}{3\sqrt{2\pi}[1-\Phi(\frac{-1}{\sigma})]} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}} + \frac{\sigma}{9\sqrt{2\pi}[1-\Phi(\frac{-1}{\sigma})]} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}} - \frac{\sigma^2}{18[1-\Phi(\frac{-1}{\sigma})]} \left(1 + P_r(\chi^2_{(1)} \leq \frac{1}{\sigma^2})\right) + \frac{8\sigma^3}{81\sqrt{2\pi}[1-\Phi(\frac{-1}{\sigma})]} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}} + \frac{4\sigma}{81\sqrt{2\pi}[1-\Phi(\frac{-1}{\sigma})]} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}} \tag{22}$$

$$= 1 + \frac{(54+9+4)\sigma}{81\sqrt{2\pi}[1-\Phi(-\frac{1}{\sigma})]} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}} - \frac{\sigma^2}{18[1-\Phi(-\frac{1}{\sigma})]} \left(1 + P_r \left(\chi_{(1)}^2 \leq \frac{1}{\sigma^2}\right)\right) + \frac{8\sigma^3}{81\sqrt{2\pi}[1-\Phi(-\frac{1}{\sigma})]} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}} \quad (23)$$

$$\therefore E(Y^2) = 1 + \frac{67\sigma}{81\sqrt{2\pi}[1-\Phi(-\frac{1}{\sigma})]} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}} - \frac{\sigma^2}{18[1-\Phi(-\frac{1}{\sigma})]} \left(1 + P_r \left(\chi_{(1)}^2 \leq \frac{1}{\sigma^2}\right)\right) + \frac{8\sigma^3}{81\sqrt{2\pi}[1-\Phi(-\frac{1}{\sigma})]} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}} \quad (24)$$

Without any lost in generality, the subsequent terms in $E(Y^2)$ and $E(Y)$ with the factor $e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}}$ will decay fast to zero for values of $\sigma \geq 0$

$$E(Y^2) = 1 - \frac{\sigma^2}{18[1-\Phi(-\frac{1}{\sigma})]} \left(1 + P_r \left(\chi_{(1)}^2 \leq \frac{1}{\sigma^2}\right)\right)$$

And

$$\therefore E(Y) = 1 - \frac{\sigma^2}{18[1-\Phi(-\frac{1}{\sigma})]} \left(1 + P_r \left(\chi_{(1)}^2 \leq \frac{1}{\sigma^2}\right)\right)$$

$$\Rightarrow Var(Y) = E(Y^2) - [E(y)]^2$$

$$= \left[1 - \frac{\sigma^2}{18[1-\Phi(-\frac{1}{\sigma})]} \left(1 + P_r \left(\chi_{(1)}^2 \leq \frac{1}{\sigma^2}\right)\right)\right] - \left[1 - \frac{\sigma^2}{18[1-\Phi(-\frac{1}{\sigma})]} \left(1 + P_r \left(\chi_{(1)}^2 \leq \frac{1}{\sigma^2}\right)\right)\right]^2$$

$$\therefore Var(Y) = \left[\frac{\sigma^2}{18[1-\Phi(-\frac{1}{\sigma})]} \left(1 + P_r \left(\chi_{(1)}^2 \leq \frac{1}{\sigma^2}\right)\right)\right] - \left[\frac{\sigma^2}{18[1-\Phi(-\frac{1}{\sigma})]} \left(1 + P_r \left(\chi_{(1)}^2 \leq \frac{1}{\sigma^2}\right)\right)\right]^2 \quad (25)$$

II. NUMERICAL ILLUSTRATION

The graph forms of the probability density function of the cube root transformation for specified values of σ are given on figures 3.9 to 3.12. for want of space only graph of $\sigma = 0.22$ to 0.25 are shown here.

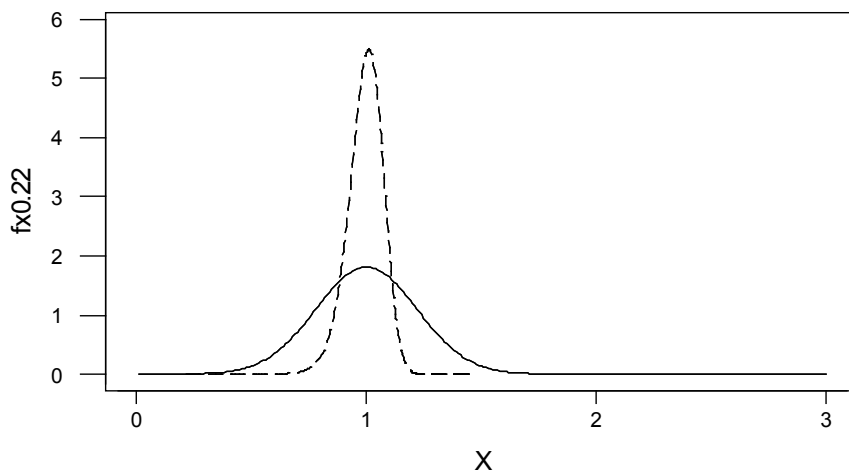


Figure 3.9 : Graph of $f(x)$ and $f(y)$ for $\sigma = 0.22$

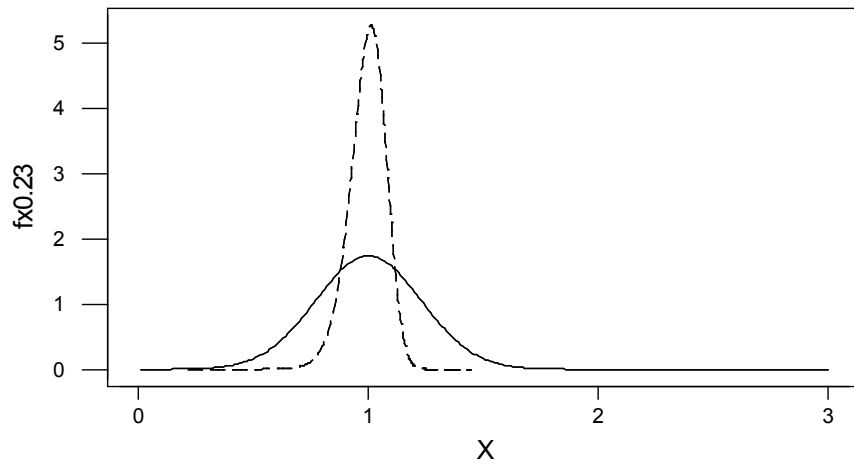


Figure 3.10 : Graph of $f(x)$ and $f(y)$ for $\sigma = 0.23$

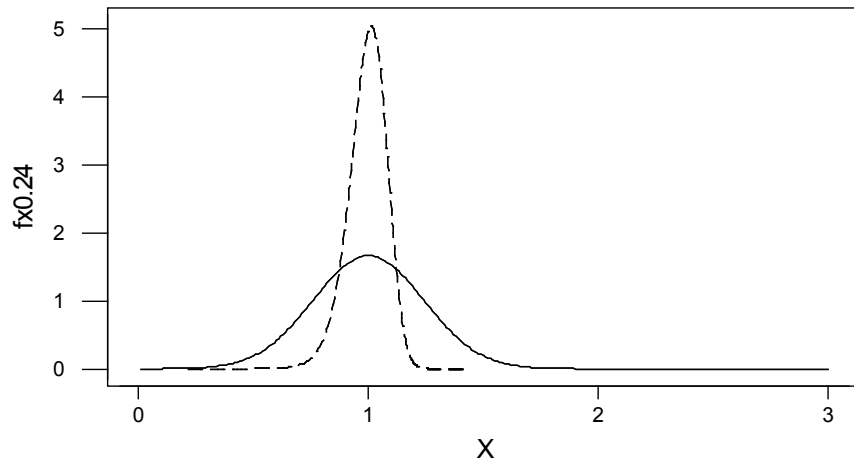


Figure 3.11 : Graph of $f(x)$ and $f(y)$ for $\sigma = 0.24$

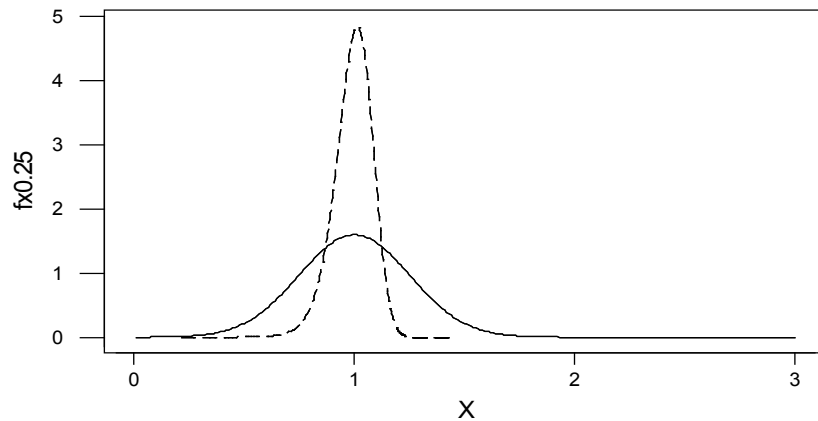


Figure 3.12 : Graph of $f(x)$ and $f(y)$ for $\sigma = 0.25$

The graphs of $f(x)$ and $f(y)$ look bell-shaped and there is none of the graphs where the two graphs coincide.

The numerical comparison of simulation between the cube root transformed distribution and the left-truncated $(1, \sigma^2)$ distribution for their means and variances for $0 < \sigma \leq 0.6$. the data is presented in table 1

Table 1 : Simulated values of E(X), E(Y), Var(X) and Var(Y)

| S/no | sigma | E(X) | E(Y) | VAR(X) | VAR(Y) | var(x)/var(y) |
|------|-------|---------|---------|----------|-----------|---------------|
| 1 | 0.001 | 1.00000 | 1.00000 | 0.000001 | 0.0000001 | 9.0000 |
| 2 | 0.002 | 1.00000 | 1.00000 | 0.000004 | 0.0000004 | 9.0000 |
| 3 | 0.003 | 1.00000 | 1.00000 | 0.000009 | 0.0000010 | 9.0000 |
| 4 | 0.004 | 1.00000 | 1.00000 | 0.000016 | 0.0000018 | 9.0000 |
| 5 | 0.005 | 1.00000 | 1.00000 | 0.000025 | 0.0000028 | 9.0000 |
| 6 | 0.006 | 1.00000 | 1.00000 | 0.000036 | 0.0000040 | 9.0000 |
| 7 | 0.007 | 1.00000 | 0.99999 | 0.000049 | 0.0000054 | 9.0000 |
| 8 | 0.008 | 1.00000 | 0.99999 | 0.000064 | 0.0000071 | 9.0001 |
| 9 | 0.009 | 1.00000 | 0.99999 | 0.000081 | 0.0000090 | 9.0001 |
| 10 | 0.010 | 1.00000 | 0.99999 | 0.000100 | 0.0000111 | 9.0001 |
| 11 | 0.011 | 1.00000 | 0.99999 | 0.000121 | 0.0000134 | 9.0001 |
| 12 | 0.012 | 1.00000 | 0.99998 | 0.000144 | 0.0000160 | 9.0001 |
| 13 | 0.013 | 1.00000 | 0.99998 | 0.000169 | 0.0000188 | 9.0002 |
| 14 | 0.014 | 1.00000 | 0.99998 | 0.000196 | 0.0000218 | 9.0002 |
| 15 | 0.015 | 1.00000 | 0.99997 | 0.000225 | 0.0000250 | 9.0002 |
| 16 | 0.016 | 1.00000 | 0.99997 | 0.000256 | 0.0000284 | 9.0003 |
| 17 | 0.017 | 1.00000 | 0.99997 | 0.000289 | 0.0000321 | 9.0003 |
| 18 | 0.018 | 1.00000 | 0.99996 | 0.000324 | 0.0000360 | 9.0003 |
| 19 | 0.019 | 1.00000 | 0.99996 | 0.000361 | 0.0000401 | 9.0004 |
| 20 | 0.020 | 1.00000 | 0.99996 | 0.000400 | 0.0000444 | 9.0004 |
| 21 | 0.021 | 1.00000 | 0.99995 | 0.000441 | 0.0000490 | 9.0004 |
| 22 | 0.022 | 1.00000 | 0.99995 | 0.000484 | 0.0000538 | 9.0005 |
| 23 | 0.023 | 1.00000 | 0.99994 | 0.000529 | 0.0000588 | 9.0005 |
| 24 | 0.024 | 1.00000 | 0.99994 | 0.000576 | 0.0000640 | 9.0006 |
| 25 | 0.025 | 1.00000 | 0.99993 | 0.000625 | 0.0000694 | 9.0006 |
| 26 | 0.026 | 1.00000 | 0.99992 | 0.000676 | 0.0000751 | 9.0007 |
| 27 | 0.027 | 1.00000 | 0.99992 | 0.000729 | 0.0000810 | 9.0007 |
| 28 | 0.028 | 1.00000 | 0.99991 | 0.000784 | 0.0000871 | 9.0008 |
| 29 | 0.029 | 1.00000 | 0.99991 | 0.000841 | 0.0000934 | 9.0008 |
| 30 | 0.030 | 1.00000 | 0.99990 | 0.000900 | 0.0001000 | 9.0009 |

Result of simulation of $\sigma = 0.001$ to 0.600 , but for want of space only 0.001 to 0.030 are shown in table 1 above.

Depending on the level of accuracy needed, we have the following conditions for the means to be equal to 1.0 and variance of the left truncated $N(1, \sigma^2)$ to be equal to 9 times the variance of the cube root transformed left truncated $N(1, \sigma^2)$

Table 2 : Conditions for the means and variances to be equal

| S/No | Decimal Places | E(x) = E(y) | Var(x) = 9*Var(y) |
|------|----------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1 | 4 | $0 \leq \sigma \leq 0.022$ | $0 \leq \sigma \leq 0.007$ |
| 2 | 3 | $0 \leq \sigma \leq 0.067$ | $0 \leq \sigma \leq 0.021$ |
| 3 | 2 | $0 \leq \sigma \leq 0.212$ | $0 \leq \sigma \leq 0.070$ |
| 4 | 1 | $0 \leq \sigma \leq 0.567$ | $0 \leq \sigma \leq 0.221$ |

By adopting 1 decimal place, the interval where the left truncated $N(1, \sigma^2)$ distribution and its cube root transformed counterpart have means equal to 1.0 and variance of the former equal to 9 times the variance of the later, that is given by $0 \leq \sigma \leq 0.221$.

a) Comparison of the means and standard deviations of the Simulated Series

In this section the summary of the simulated means, standard deviations, variances, ratios of standard deviations and variances of the untransformed and

transformed distributions would be presented on table 1 to observe if there are departures from the earlier established results. The means, standard deviations, variances, ratios of standard deviations and variances of the of the simulated values for the untransformed and transformed distributions are presented in Table 2.

Also in this Section, we would test for the normality of the cube root transformed values using Kolmogorov-Smirnov Goodness-of-Fit test (One sample case).

b) The Test Statistic

The difference between the theoretical cumulative distribution function $F(x)$ and the sample cumulative distribution $F^0(x)$ is measured by the statistic D , and it is the greatest vertical distance between $F(x)$ and $F^0(x)$. For a two- sided test of the hypothesis, the null hypothesis and alternative is given by

$$H_0: F^0(x) = F(x) \quad \forall x$$

$$H_1: F^0(x) \neq F(x) \text{ for at least one } x$$

The test statistic is $D = \text{Sup} |F^*(x) - F(x)|$

The null hypothesis is rejected at $\alpha = 0.05$ level of significance if the computed value of D exceeds the value read from a statistical table, and the sample size is $n = 300$. For ease of computations, Minitab software was used and the results summarized in table 2

Table 3 : Summary of Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test of Normality for the transformed series (For specified values of σ)

| Σ | D^+ | D^- | D | Approx p-value | α | Decision |
|----------|-------|-------|-------|----------------|----------|------------------|
| 0.001 | 0.043 | 0.033 | 0.043 | 0.072 | 0.05 | Accept normality |
| 0.005 | 0.031 | 0.037 | 0.037 | 0.15 | „ | Accept normality |
| 0.01 | 0.30 | 0.035 | 0.035 | 0.15 | „ | Accept normality |
| 0.05 | 0.023 | 0.033 | 0.033 | 0.15 | „ | Accept normality |
| 0.10 | 0.020 | 0.031 | 0.031 | 0.15 | „ | Accept normality |
| 0.15 | 0.023 | 0.033 | 0.033 | 0.15 | „ | Accept normality |
| 0.20 | 0.017 | 0.031 | 0.031 | 0.15 | „ | Accept normality |
| 0.21 | 0.018 | 0.031 | 0.031 | 0.15 | „ | Accept normality |
| 0.22 | 0.250 | 0.037 | 0.037 | 0.15 | „ | Accept normality |
| 0.23 | 0.028 | 0.054 | 0.054 | <0.01 | „ | Reject normality |
| 0.24 | 0.022 | 0.060 | 0.060 | <0.01 | „ | Reject normality |
| 0.25 | 0.027 | 0.049 | 0.049 | <0.028 | „ | Reject normality |

From the summary of test of normality of the transformed series, we observe that the cube root transformed series is normal $0 < \sigma \leq 0.22$

III. SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings of the research work are summarised, conclusions were also drawn and suggestion for further research and recommendation using the n^{th} root transformation and to establish the cube root transformation.

a) Summary

The finding of the research are summarised as follows

- (a) The probability density function of the cube root transformation derived from n^{th} root transformed error component of multiplicative time series model Dike et al (2016) and is given by

$$f(y) = \frac{\frac{1}{|3|} \cdot y^{\frac{1}{|3|}-1} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{y^{\frac{1}{|3|}-1}}{\sigma} \right)^2}}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi} \left[1 - \Phi \left(\frac{-1}{\sigma} \right) \right]}$$

The work went further by establishing the moments (mean and variance) of the cube root transformation .

- (b) The graph forms of the probability density function were shown to be bell-shaped and symmetric for some values of σ .
- (c) The mean and variance of the cube root transformation are in terms of the cumulative density function and the chi-square distribution with 1 degree of freedom (df). The mean given by

$$E(Y) = 1 + \frac{41\sigma}{16\sqrt{2\pi} \left[1 - \Phi \left(\frac{-1}{\sigma} \right) \right]} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}} - \frac{\sigma^2}{18 \left[1 - \Phi \left(\frac{-1}{\sigma} \right) \right]} \left(1 + P_r \left(\chi_{(1)}^2 \leq \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \right) \right) + \frac{10\sigma^3}{81\sqrt{2\pi} \left[1 - \Phi \left(\frac{-1}{\sigma} \right) \right]} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}}$$

also the variance is given by

$$(d) \text{Var}(Y) = \left[\frac{\sigma^2}{18 \left[1 - \Phi \left(\frac{-1}{\sigma} \right) \right]} \left(1 + P_r \left(\chi_{(1)}^2 \leq \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \right) \right) \right]^2 - \left[\frac{\sigma^2}{18 \left[1 - \Phi \left(\frac{-1}{\sigma} \right) \right]} \left(1 + P_r \left(\chi_{(1)}^2 \leq \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \right) \right) \right]^2 \text{ Using}$$

simulated values it was found that the condition under which the mean and variance are equal as shown in table 4

Table 4 : Conditions for Successful transformation

| S/No | Decimal Places | E(x) = E(y) | Var(x) = 9*Var(y) |
|------|----------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1 | 4 | $0 \leq \sigma \leq 0.022$ | $0 \leq \sigma \leq 0.007$ |
| 2 | 3 | $0 \leq \sigma \leq 0.067$ | $0 \leq \sigma \leq 0.021$ |
| 3 | 2 | $0 \leq \sigma \leq 0.212$ | $0 \leq \sigma \leq 0.070$ |
| 4 | 1 | $0 \leq \sigma \leq 0.567$ | $0 \leq \sigma \leq 0.221$ |

- (e) From the result in table 4 it was shown that the means of the error component of the original and the cube root transformed series is 1 and the variance of the original series is 9 times that of the transformed series for $0 < \sigma \leq 0.22$ depending on the decimal places desired.
- (f) The test of normality using the Kolomogorov-Simirnov test shows in table 4.16 showed that the cube root transformed series is normal for $0 < \sigma \leq 0.22$

IV. CONCLUSION

In situation where the cube root is to be applied the following steps should be adopted for it to be successful and serve the need for which it was adopted. This would be achieved by ensuring that

- (i) The model used to analyse the error component is multiplicative
- (ii) It fits the transformation to be adopted
- (iii) The untransformed and the transformed meet the conditions for normality. These measures will guarantee that data satisfy the assumption inherent in the statistical inference to be applied and ensure improved interpretation as expressed by Osborne(2002); who expressed that caution should be exercised on the choice of transformation to be used so that the fundamental structure of the series is not altered

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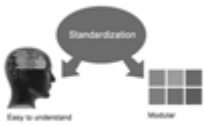
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3. Submission of Manuscripts,
4. Manuscript's Category,
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- Very for a short time explain the tentative propose and how it skilled the declared objectives.

Approach:

- Use past tense except for when referring to recognized facts. After all, the manuscript will be submitted after the entire job is done.
- Sort out your thoughts; manufacture one key point with every section. If you make the four points listed above, you will need a least of four paragraphs.



- Present surroundings information only as desirable in order hold up a situation. The reviewer does not desire to read the whole thing you know about a topic.
- Shape the theory/purpose specifically - do not take a broad view.
- As always, give awareness to spelling, simplicity and correctness of sentences and phrases.

Procedures (Methods and Materials):

This part is supposed to be the easiest to carve if you have good skills. A sound written Procedures segment allows a capable scientist to replacement your results. Present precise information about your supplies. The suppliers and clarity of reagents can be helpful bits of information. Present methods in sequential order but linked methodologies can be grouped as a segment. Be concise when relating the protocols. Attempt for the least amount of information that would permit another capable scientist to spare your outcome but be cautious that vital information is integrated. The use of subheadings is suggested and ought to be synchronized with the results section. When a technique is used that has been well described in another object, mention the specific item describing a way but draw the basic principle while stating the situation. The purpose is to text all particular resources and broad procedures, so that another person may use some or all of the methods in one more study or referee the scientific value of your work. It is not to be a step by step report of the whole thing you did, nor is a methods section a set of orders.

Materials:

- Explain materials individually only if the study is so complex that it saves liberty this way.
- Embrace particular materials, and any tools or provisions that are not frequently found in laboratories.
- Do not take in frequently found.
- If use of a definite type of tools.
- Materials may be reported in a part section or else they may be recognized along with your measures.

Methods:

- Report the method (not particulars of each process that engaged the same methodology)
- Describe the method entirely
- To be succinct, present methods under headings dedicated to specific dealings or groups of measures
- Simplify - details how procedures were completed not how they were exclusively performed on a particular day.
- If well known procedures were used, account the procedure by name, possibly with reference, and that's all.

Approach:

- It is embarrassed or not possible to use vigorous voice when documenting methods with no using first person, which would focus the reviewer's interest on the researcher rather than the job. As a result when script up the methods most authors use third person passive voice.
- Use standard style in this and in every other part of the paper - avoid familiar lists, and use full sentences.

What to keep away from

- Resources and methods are not a set of information.
- Skip all descriptive information and surroundings - save it for the argument.
- Leave out information that is immaterial to a third party.

Results:

The principle of a results segment is to present and demonstrate your conclusion. Create this part a entirely objective details of the outcome, and save all understanding for the discussion.

The page length of this segment is set by the sum and types of data to be reported. Carry on to be to the point, by means of statistics and tables, if suitable, to present consequences most efficiently. You must obviously differentiate material that would usually be incorporated in a study editorial from any unprocessed data or additional appendix matter that would not be available. In fact, such matter should not be submitted at all except requested by the instructor.



Content

- Sum up your conclusion in text and demonstrate them, if suitable, with figures and tables.
- In manuscript, explain each of your consequences, point the reader to remarks that are most appropriate.
- Present a background, such as by describing the question that was addressed by creation an exacting study.
- Explain results of control experiments and comprise remarks that are not accessible in a prescribed figure or table, if appropriate.
- Examine your data, then prepare the analyzed (transformed) data in the form of a figure (graph), table, or in manuscript form.

What to stay away from

- Do not discuss or infer your outcome, report surroundings information, or try to explain anything.
- Not at all, take in raw data or intermediate calculations in a research manuscript.
- Do not present the similar data more than once.
- Manuscript should complement any figures or tables, not duplicate the identical information.
- Never confuse figures with tables - there is a difference.

Approach

- As forever, use past tense when you submit to your results, and put the whole thing in a reasonable order.
- Put figures and tables, appropriately numbered, in order at the end of the report
- If you desire, you may place your figures and tables properly within the text of your results part.

Figures and tables

- If you put figures and tables at the end of the details, make certain that they are visibly distinguished from any attach appendix materials, such as raw facts
- Despite of position, each figure must be numbered one after the other and complete with subtitle
- In spite of position, each table must be titled, numbered one after the other and complete with heading
- All figure and table must be adequately complete that it could situate on its own, divide from text

Discussion:

The Discussion is expected the trickiest segment to write and describe. A lot of papers submitted for journal are discarded based on problems with the Discussion. There is no head of state for how long a argument should be. Position your understanding of the outcome visibly to lead the reviewer through your conclusions, and then finish the paper with a summing up of the implication of the study. The purpose here is to offer an understanding of your results and hold up for all of your conclusions, using facts from your research and generally accepted information, if suitable. The implication of result should be visibly described. Infer your data in the conversation in suitable depth. This means that when you clarify an observable fact you must explain mechanisms that may account for the observation. If your results vary from your prospect, make clear why that may have happened. If your results agree, then explain the theory that the proof supported. It is never suitable to just state that the data approved with prospect, and let it drop at that.

- Make a decision if each premise is supported, discarded, or if you cannot make a conclusion with assurance. Do not just dismiss a study or part of a study as "uncertain."
- Research papers are not acknowledged if the work is imperfect. Draw what conclusions you can based upon the results that you have, and take care of the study as a finished work
- You may propose future guidelines, such as how the experiment might be personalized to accomplish a new idea.
- Give details all of your remarks as much as possible, focus on mechanisms.
- Make a decision if the tentative design sufficiently addressed the theory, and whether or not it was correctly restricted.
- Try to present substitute explanations if sensible alternatives be present.
- One research will not counter an overall question, so maintain the large picture in mind, where do you go next? The best studies unlock new avenues of study. What questions remain?
- Recommendations for detailed papers will offer supplementary suggestions.

Approach:

- When you refer to information, differentiate data generated by your own studies from available information
- Submit to work done by specific persons (including you) in past tense.
- Submit to generally acknowledged facts and main beliefs in present tense.



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INDEX

D

Devastatingly · 5
Dubious · 8

G

Grievous · VII

J

Jeopardize · 8

M

Muons · 17

R

Retarded · 19, II, III

T

Teukolsky · 1
Truncated · XII, XIII, XIX, XX, XXIII
Truncating · XIII



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