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Estimating Distributions using the Theory of Relative Increment Functions

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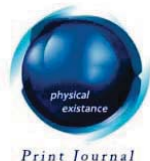
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Abstract- Bounded growth processes can be modelled, approximately by different mathematical models. The challenge for statisticians and mathematicians is finding suitable models for these processes. In this paper we illustrate a non-parametric method, using the the theory of relative increment functions, of estimating density functions of these processes. For a long time, mathematicians attempted to describe the cumulative prevalence of caries with the assumption that there is a mathematical model that would describe the caries prevalence and may be used for predicting caries incidences. In 1960 Porter and Dudman [12] introduced The relative increment function and called it the relative increment of decay as they designed it to compare dental caries increments among children. Further studies of this led to the motivation that the best suitable model for describing the cumulative prevalence of caries should be chosen from a set of distributions that have relative increment functions with the same monotonic behaviour as the relative increment of decay [1]. We illustrate how relative increment functions may be used to estimate the unknown indefinitely smooth probability density function of unimodal populations.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Density estimation using non-parametric methods was first proposed by Fix and Hodges in 1951 as a way of moving away from distributional assumptions which at times restrict estimation. The methods proposed by Fix and Hodges were the Histograms, Naive estimator, Kernel estimator, Nearest neighbour estimator, Variable Kernel estimator and many others. [14].

In 1989 [16] proposed the use of relative increment functions for density estimation.

The relative increment function, h , of a distribution function, F , is defined as

$$h_{F(x)}(x) = \frac{F(x+a) - F(x)}{1 - F(x)} \text{ where } a = x_{k+1} - x_k.$$

He defined the function

$$\Psi(x) = \frac{(F(x) - 1) \cdot f'(x)}{f^2(x)}$$

and used the fact that if $\Psi < 1$ ($\Psi > 1$), then the function h strictly increases (strictly decreases) to classify some well known distribution functions according to their monotonic behaviour. Szabo [20] developed an algorithm for finding the distributions of unknown unimodal population by eliminating a large class of continuous distributions whose behaviour of relative increments do not match the behaviour

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of the empirical relative increment functions of the population being investigated. We illustrate this method by two numerical examples that showed that when the distribution relative increments behaves the same way as the empirical relative increments, the fit is superior to the ones with different monotonic behaviour of relative increments.

In this section we explain how we use relative increment functions to estimate density. Assume we have a large sample of a continuous random variable. We form the empirical cumulative distribution function F_{emp} at equidistant points x_k . Our aim is to find the smooth unimodal distribution which our sample belongs to. We assume that the distribution is a indefinitely smooth unimodal distribution whose probability density function has at most two points of inflection.

Suppose all the intervals $I_k = [x_{k-1}, x_k]$ have the same length a , for $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$. Let v_k be the frequency distribution defined as the number of sample values in I_k , then we have relative frequency $r_k = \frac{v_k}{N}$ and the cumulative relative frequency as $y_k = \sum_{j \leq k} r_j$, for all k .

The empirical cumulative distribution function F_{emp} whose points of discontinuity are at equidistant points, x_k , is therefore given by y_k , so

$$F_{emp}(x_k) = y_k \text{ for } k = 0, 1, \dots, n$$

Define the relative increment function, h , for a distribution with cumulative distribution function $F(x)$ as

$$h_F(x) = \frac{F(x+a) - F(x)}{1 - F(x)} \text{ where } a = x_{k+1} - x_k$$

and define the empirical relative increment function, h_{emp} , for our population as

$$h_{emp}(x_k) = \frac{y_{k+1} - y_k}{1 - y_k} \text{ for } k = 0, 1, \dots, n-1$$

Assume we have a large sample of a continuous random variable. We form the empirical cumulative distribution function F_{emp} at equidistant points x_k . Our aim is to find the smooth unimodal distribution which our sample belongs to. We assume that the distribution is a indefinitely smooth unimodal distribution whose probability density function has at most two points of inflection.

From this sample we calculate the empirical relative increment function $h_{emp}(x_k)$. If the monotonic behaviour of the empirical relative increment function $h_{emp}(x_k)$ is different from the monotonic behaviour of the theoretical relative increment function $h(x_k)$ of the cumulative distribution function $F(x)$, then we drop the corresponding smooth distribution $F(x)$. If $h(x_k)$ and $h_{emp}(x_k)$ have the same monotonic behaviour, we keep the corresponding cumulative distribution function $F(x)$ and put them in a class of possibilities, S .

From the set S a best fitting function is found by using the method of least squares. A distribution function $F(x) \in S$ providing the best fit to the cumulative relative frequency y_k such that $\sum_{k=1}^n [F(x_k) - y_k]^2$ is minimal

is selected or a distribution whose probability density function $f(x)$ provides the best fit to the relative frequencies r_k such that $\sum_{k=1}^n [f(x_k) - r_k]^2$ is minimal is selected.

This method can also be used to model bounded growth processes. Let g_k be a sequence of values measured at some equidistant points x_k . An upper bound B for g_k has to be determined such that B is greater than any value of g_k . To model the growth process of (x_k, g_k) we consider the transformed data

$$y_k = \frac{g_k}{B} (< 1)$$

as the values of the empirical cumulative distribution function F_{emp} at the points x_k . The upper bound B is determined by building a parameter, B , into the distribution functions we want to fit, so instead of fitting $F(x)$, we fit $B * F(x)$. The estimated value of B gives the upper bound.

To use this method, we need to know the monotonic behaviour of relative increment functions h of distributions. A great number of classical smooth unimodal distributions has been investigated and classified according to the behaviour of their relative increments. These are listed in the following section.

II. SUMMARY OF INVESTIGATED DISTRIBUTIONS

Here is a summary of distributions grouped according to the monotonic behaviour of their relative increment functions investigated by Szabo Z.[20] and myself.

2.1. The following probability distributions have increasing RIFs:

1. $F(x) = 1 - (-x)^k$ where $I = (-1, 0), k \in \mathbb{N}$
2. $F(x) = \sin x$ where $I = (0, \frac{\pi}{2})$
3. $F(x) = 1 + \tan x$ where $I = (-\frac{\pi}{4}, 0)$
4. $F(x) = 1 + \sinh x$ where $I = (\ln(\sqrt{2} - 1), 0)$
5. $F(x) = 2 - \cosh x$ where $I = (\ln(2 - \sqrt{3}), 0)$
6. $F(x) = 1 - x^2$ where $I = (-1, 0)$
7. $F(x) = \ln x$ where $I = (1, e)$
8. Uniform Distribution
9. $F(x) = (1 - \exp(-\lambda x))^k$ where $I = (0, \infty), \lambda > 0, k > 1$
10. $F(x) = 1 - \exp(-\lambda.e^x)$ where $I = (-\infty, \infty), \lambda > 0$
11. $F(x) = (1 + e^{-x})^{-k}$ where $I = (-\infty, \infty), k > 0$
12. $F(x) = 2^{-k} \cdot (1 - \tanh(x))^k$ where $I = (-\infty, \infty), k > 0$
13. Logistic Distribution

$$F(x) = (1 + e^{-\lambda x})^{-1} \text{ where } I = (-\infty, \infty), \lambda > 0$$

14. Fisher Distribution (or z-distribution)

$$F(x) = C \cdot \int_{-\infty}^x e^{nt} \cdot (1 + k \cdot e^{2t})^{-\alpha} dt, \text{ where } I = (-\infty, \infty), n, n' \in \mathbb{N} \quad k = \frac{n}{n'},$$

$$\alpha = \frac{n+n'}{2}, \quad C = 2 \cdot k^{\frac{n}{2}} \cdot \Gamma(\alpha) \cdot \left[\Gamma(\frac{n}{2}) \cdot \Gamma(\frac{n'}{2}) \right]^{-1}$$

15. Weibull Distribution when $\alpha > 1$

$$F(x) = 1 - \exp(-\lambda x^\alpha) \text{ where } I = (0, \infty), \lambda > 0$$

16. Extreme value Distribution

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x \exp(-t - e^{-t}) dt \text{ where } I = (-\infty, \infty)$$

$$17. F(x) = 1 - 2[c.(1 + e^x)^k - c + 2]^{-1} \text{ where } I = (-\infty, \infty), c > 0, k = 1, 2$$

18. Normal Distribution

$$F(x) = K. \int_{-\infty}^x \exp(-\frac{1}{2} \cdot \sigma^{-2} \cdot (t - m)^2) dt, \text{ where } I = (-\infty, \infty), \sigma > 0, K = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}$$

19. Special Gamma Distribution

$$F(x) = K. \int_0^x t^{\alpha-1} \exp(-\lambda t) dt \text{ where } I = (0, \infty), \alpha > 1, \lambda > 0, K = \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)}$$

20. Beta Distribution of the first kind

$$F(x) = C. \int_0^x t^\alpha (1-t)^\beta dt \text{ where } I = (0, 1), \alpha, \beta > -1, C = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta+2)}{\Gamma(\alpha+1)\Gamma(\beta+1)}$$

$$21. F(x) = C. \int_{-s}^x (1 - \frac{t^2}{s^2})^n dt \text{ where } I = (-s, s), s > 0, C = [s \cdot \beta(\frac{1}{2}, n+1)]^{-1}$$

where n is a positive integer.

22. Maxwell Boltzmann distribution

$$f(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \frac{1}{\sigma^3} x^2 \exp\left(\frac{-x^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \text{ where } I = (0, \infty), \sigma > 0$$

$$23. f(x) = 2\lambda e^{-\lambda x(1-e^{-\lambda x})} \text{ where } I = (0, \infty)$$

$$24. f(x) = c(1 - \frac{x^2}{a^2})^n \text{ where } I = (-a, a), a > 0, n \in \mathbb{N} \text{ and } c = \frac{1}{a \cdot B(\frac{1}{2}, n+1)}$$

$$25. \text{Rayleigh Distribution } f(x) = \frac{x}{\sigma^2} \exp\left(\frac{-x^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \text{ where } I = (0, \infty), \sigma > 0$$

$$26. f(x) = \frac{x}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \text{ where } I = (0, 1)$$

$$27. f(x) = kx^{c-1} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} \text{ where } I = (0, \infty), c > 1, \text{ and } k > 0$$

28. Reciprocal distribution

$$f(x) = \frac{\ln x - \ln a}{\ln b - \ln a} \text{ where } I = [a, b], a, b \in \mathbb{R}, 0 < a < b, \text{ and } \frac{a}{b} < e$$

$$29. f(x) = c. \exp(\arctan(x)) \text{ where } c = \frac{1}{\int_0^a \exp(\arctan x) dx}, \text{ and } I = (0, a), a > 0$$

$$30. F(x) = 1 - x^2 \text{ where } I = (-1, 0)$$

$$312. F(x) = \ln x \text{ where } I = (1, e)$$

32. Nakagami distribution

$$f(x) = \frac{2n^n}{\Gamma(n)\Omega^n} x^{2n-1} \exp\left(\frac{-n}{\Omega} x^2\right) \text{ where } I = (0, \infty) n > \frac{1}{2}, \text{ and } \Omega > 0$$

2.2. The following probability distributions have decreasing RIFs:

1. $F(x) = 1 - x^{-\lambda}$, where $I = (1, \infty)$, and $\lambda > 0$
2. $F(x) = 1 - (\ln x)^{-\lambda}$, where $I = (e, \infty)$, and $\lambda > 0$
3. $F(x) = 1 - (\ln(\ln x))^{-\lambda}$, where $I = (e^e, \infty)$, and $\lambda > 0$
4. Weibull Distribution when $0 < \alpha < 1$

$$F(x) = 1 - \exp(-\lambda.x^\alpha), \text{ where } I = (0, \infty), \text{ and } \lambda > 0$$

$$5. F(x) = 1 - \frac{a}{N} \exp(-b.x) - \frac{c}{N} \exp(-d.x), \text{ where } I = (0, \infty), \text{ and } a, b, c, d > 0, a + c = 1$$

$$6. F(x) = 1 - \sum_{j=1}^N a_j \exp(-b_j.x), \text{ where } I = (0, \infty), \text{ and } a_j, b_j > 0, \sum_{j=1}^N a_j = 1$$

7. Pareto Distribution of the third kind

$$F(x) = 1 - k.\exp(-b.x).x^{-a}, \text{ where } I = (k, \infty), \text{ and } a, b, k > 0$$

8. Special Chi-Square Distribution

$$F(x) = K. \int_0^x t^{\frac{-1}{2}} . \exp(\frac{-t}{2}) dt, \text{ where } I = (0, \infty), \text{ and } K = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}\Gamma(\frac{1}{2})}$$

9. Pareto Distribution of the second kind

$$F(x) = 1 - x^{-k}, \text{ where } I = (1, \infty), \text{ and } k > 0$$

10. Special Gamma Distribution

$$F(x) = K. \int_0^x t^{\alpha-1} . \exp(-\lambda t) dt, \text{ where } I = (0, \infty), K = \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)}, \lambda > 0, \alpha < 1$$

$$11. f(x) = \lambda x^{-1} (\ln x)^{-\lambda-1} \text{ where } I = (\exp, \infty), \text{ and } \lambda > 0$$

2.3. The Exponential Distribution Function

$$F(x) = 1 - \exp[-\lambda(x - a)], \text{ where } I = (a, \infty), \text{ and } \lambda > 0$$

has a constant relative increment function.

2.4. The following probability distributions have RIFs that increase first and, having culminated, they decrease:

1. Cauchy Distribution

$$F(x) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{\pi} \tan^{-1} x, \text{ where } I = (-\infty, \infty)$$

2. Inverse Gaussian Distribution

$$F(x) = \int_0^x \left(\frac{2\pi t^3}{\lambda} \right)^{\frac{-1}{2}} . \exp(-\lambda. \frac{(t-m)^2}{(2m^2.t)}) dt, \text{ where } I = (0, \infty), \lambda > 0, m > 0$$

3. Lognormal Distribution

$$F(x) = \int_0^x \frac{1}{t\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left\{-\frac{(\ln \frac{t-\mu}{2\sigma^2})^2}{2\sigma^2}\right\} dt, \text{ where } I = (0, \infty), \sigma > 0, -\infty <$$

$$\mu < \infty$$

4. Beta type II distribution

$$f(x) = C \frac{x^p}{(1+x)^{p+q}} \text{ where } I = (0, \infty), p, q > 0, \text{ and } C > 0$$

5. Burr type XII distribution

$$f(x) = ck \frac{x^{c-1}}{(1+x^c)^{k+1}} \text{ where } I = (0, \infty) c > 0, \text{ and } k > 0$$

$$6. f(x) = \frac{k}{1+x^4} \text{ where } I = \mathbb{R} \text{ and } k > 0$$

$$7. f(x) = cx^{-n} \exp\left(\frac{-k}{x}\right) \text{ where } I = (0, \infty) \text{ and } c, k > 0$$

$$8. \text{Frechet Distribution } F(x) = \exp\left(-\left(\frac{x-n}{t}\right)^{-a}\right) \text{ where } I = (n, \infty), a, t \in (0, \infty), \text{ and } n = t\left(\frac{a}{a+1}\right)^{\frac{1}{a}}.$$

$$9. \text{Gumbel Distribution } F(x) = e^{-bx^{-a}} \text{ where } I = (0, \infty) \text{ and } a, b \in \mathbb{R}^+ \text{ and } m = \sqrt{\frac{ab}{a+1}}$$

2.5. The following probability distributions have RIFs that decrease first and, having reached their minima, they increase:

$$1. F(x) = 1 + \frac{2}{\pi} \arcsin x, \text{ where } I = (-1, 0)$$

$$2. F(x) = \sqrt{x}, \text{ where } I = (0, 1)$$

$$3. F(x) = (1 - x^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} \text{ where } I = (-1, 0)$$

4. Reciprocal distribution

$$f(x) = \frac{\ln x - \ln a}{\ln b - \ln a} \text{ where } I = [a, b], a, b > 0, \text{ and } \frac{a}{b} > e$$

III. NUMERICAL EXAMPLES

In this section, we illustrate the method described in section 2 by two examples.

1. The distribution of the the population of Botswana.
2. The distribution of people living with HIV globally.

Numerical Example 1: Botswana Population Growth. Below is a table of the population of Botswana from 1960 to 2012 in 5 year periods. This data was obtained from the World data bank.

Table 6.1: Botswana Population

$x_k(\text{Time})$	$g_k(\text{Population})$
5	579729
10	671416
15	793164
20	960807
25	1146205
30	1343440
35	1544865
40	1724924
45	1854739
50	1951715

We wish to find the probability distribution function of this sample.



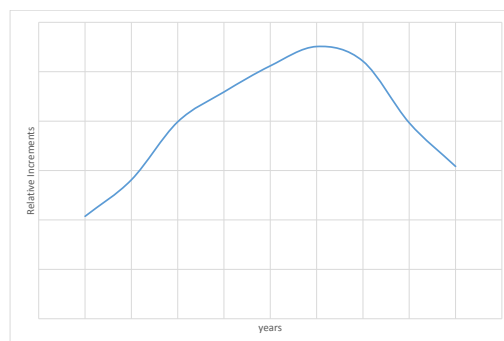


Figure 6.1: Graph of empirical relative increments

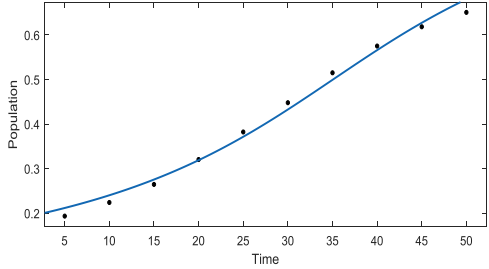
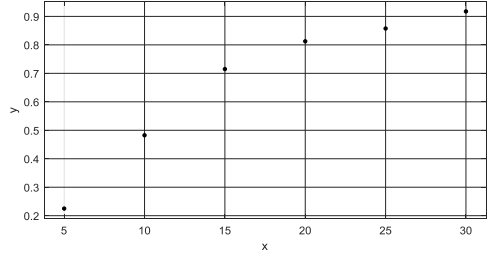
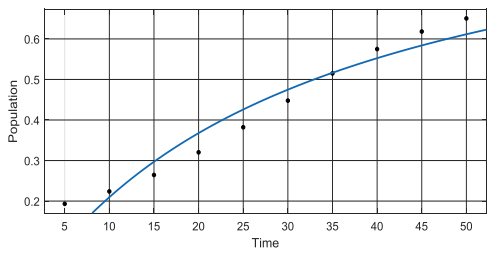
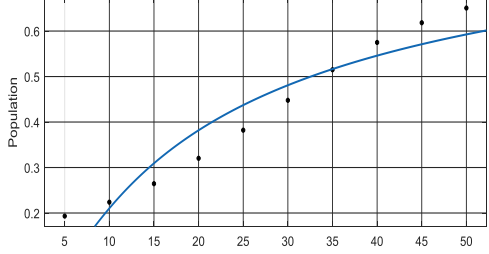
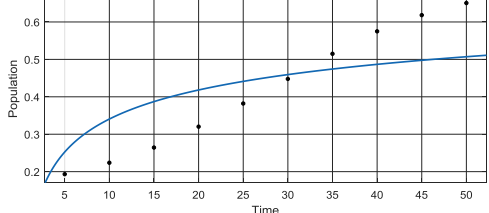
Figure 6.1 shows the empirical relative increment function of the distribution of the population. We see that the relative increments increase and then decrease. The distribution functions of section 2.4 display the same monotonic behaviour of first increasing and then decreasing. For these models, the values of B ranged between 24,900,000 and 28,600,000. We therefore picked 3,000,000 as a reasonable estimate of the upper bound for all the models. Below is the table of time in years and the adjusted values of the population.

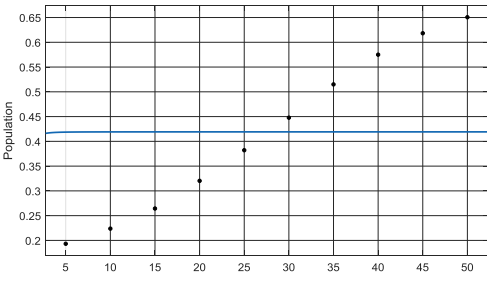
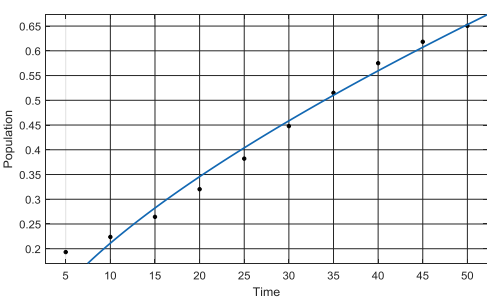
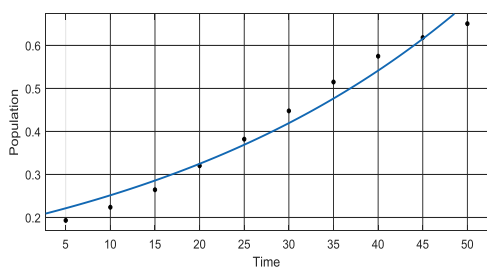
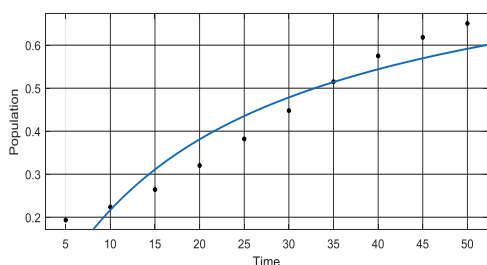
Table 6.2: Adjusted Population

$x_k(\text{Time})$	$y_k(\text{Adjusted Population})$
5	0.193243
10	0.223805
15	0.264388
20	0.320269
25	0.382068
30	0.447813
35	0.514955
40	0.574975
45	0.618246
50	0.650572

The adjusted population values were fitted to the distributions in section 6.3.4 as they exhibit the same monotonic behaviour of relative increment functions as that of our data. Table 6.2 shows the fitted values of the distributions.

Table 6.3: Fitted Models (Botswana Population)

Distribution function	Fit Results	Fitted Curve
Cauchy Distribution $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{\pi} * \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{x - \alpha}{\beta} \right)$	Coefficients (with 95% confidence bounds): $p1 = 35.06$ $p2 = 23.53$ Goodness of fit: SSE: 0.002344	
Inverse Gaussian Distribution General model: $\frac{1}{2} (1 + \operatorname{erf}(\sqrt{\lambda/2x} (x/\mu - 1))) + \frac{1}{2} e^{-(2\lambda/\mu)} (1 - \operatorname{erf}(\sqrt{\lambda/2x} (x/\mu - 1)))$	Coefficients (with 95% confidence bounds): $a = 0.3371$ $b = 0.1622$ Goodness of fit: SSE: 1.012	
Lognormal Distribution $\frac{1}{2} * \operatorname{erfc} \left(-\frac{\ln(x) - \mu}{\sigma\sqrt{2}} \right)$ Where erfc is the complementary error function.	Coefficients (with 95% confidence bounds): $\sigma = 2.95$ $\mu = 3.494$ Goodness of fit: SSE: 0.01796	
Beta type II Distribution $\frac{I_x(\alpha, \beta)}{1+x}$ Where $I_x(\alpha, \beta)$ is the incomplete beta function.	Coefficients (with 95% confidence bounds): $\alpha = 9.512$ $\beta = 0.5614$ Goodness of fit: SSE: 0.02997	
Burr type XII Distribution $1 - (1 + x^c)^{-k}$ Where $c, k > 0$	Coefficients (with 95% confidence bounds): $c = 7.823$ $k = 0.02311$ Goodness of fit: SSE: 0.09004	

Number 6 $\frac{1}{8}k\sqrt{2}\left(\ln -\frac{x^2+x}{-x^2+x\sqrt{2}-1}\sqrt{2+1}\right)$ $+2\tan^{-1}(x\sqrt{2}+1)$ $+2\tan^{-1}(x\sqrt{2}-1))$	Coefficients (with 95% confidence bounds): $k = 0.6022$ Goodness of fit: SSE: 0.3504	
Number 7 $cx^{-n}x\left(-\frac{k\operatorname{Ei}\left(1,\frac{k}{x}\right)}{x}+e^{-\frac{k}{x}}\right)$ Where Ei is the exponential Integral	Coefficients (with 95% confidence bounds): $c = 0.03116$ $k = -3.3$ $n = 0.1954$ Goodness of fit: SSE: 0.006749	
Frechet $e^{-\left(\frac{x-m}{s}\right)^{-a}}$ Where a is the shape parameter s is the scale parameter m is the location parameter	Coefficients (with 95% confidence bounds): $a = 2.002$ $s = 78.36$ Goodness of fit: SSE: 0.007987	
Gumbel $e^{-bx^{-a}}$ where a is real and b is the shape parameter	Coefficients (with 95% confidence bounds): $a = 0.6644$ $b = 7.06$ Goodness of fit: SSE: 0.02744	

Amongst these, the Cauchy distribution function,

$$F(x) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{\pi} \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{x-35.06959}{23.5291} \right)$$

provided the best least squares fit

$$\sum_{k=1}^{10} [F(x_k - y_k)]^2 \approx 0.002341.$$

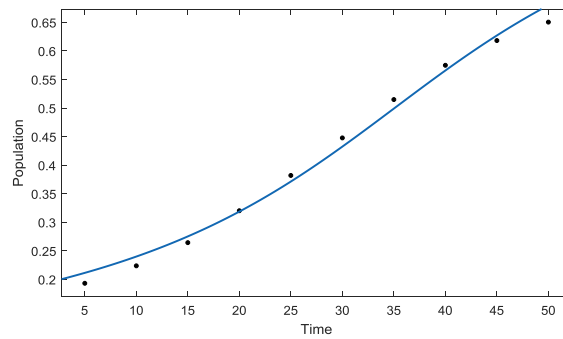


Figure 6.2: Graph of F and (x_k, y_k)

Figure 6.2 shows the fitted curve of the Cauchy model.

Numerical Example 2: Number of people living with HIV/AIDS (1990 to 2015): In the 1990s almost 3.5 million people were diagnosed with HIV every year. In 1997 the number declined and was reduced to 2.1 million in 2015. This table, obtained from UNAIDS data, shows the number of people living with HIV/AIDS from 1990 to 2015 in millions. The estimated value of B , which we adjust g_k by, gives the upper bound. For our models in section 2.4 the estimated values of B ranged between 36.82 and 39.77, we therefore picked 40 as a reasonable estimate of the upper bound for all the models.

Table 6.4

x_k (Time)	g_k (in Millions)(People living with HIV)
5	9
10	19.3
15	28.6
20	32.5
25	34.4
30	36.7

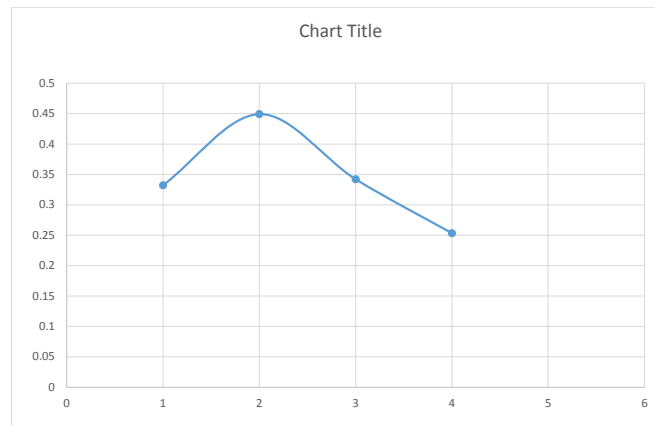
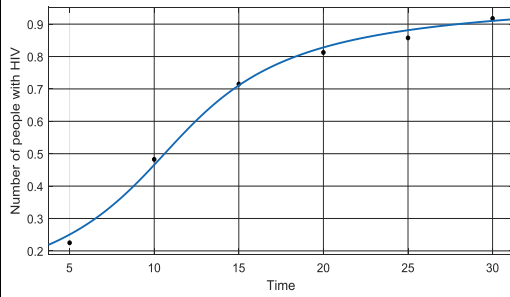
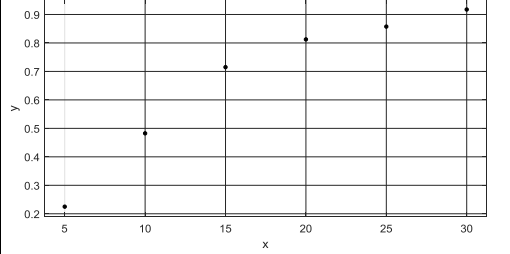
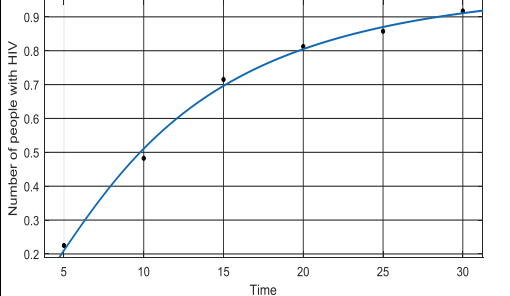
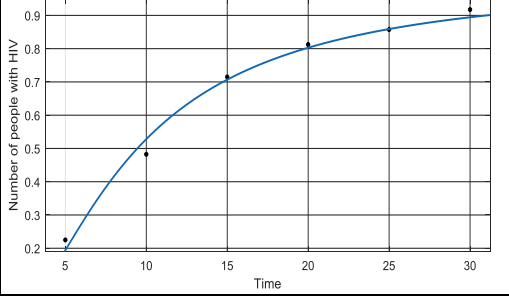


Figure 6.3: Graph of empirical relative increments

As we can see, the empirical relative increments increase up to a certain point and then decrease. Below is the table of distributions with the same behavior of relative Increments, the distributions in section 6.3.4. The table shows the fitted values of the distributions.

Table 6.5

x_k (Time)	g_k (in Millions)(People living with HIV)	y_k (Adjusted g_k)
5	9	0.225
10	19.3	0.4825
15	28.6	0.715
20	32.5	0.8125
25	34.4	0.86
30	36.7	0.9175

Distribution function	Fit Results	Fitted Curve
Cauchy Distribution $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{\pi} * \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{x - \alpha}{\beta} \right)$	Coefficients (with 95% confidence bounds): $\alpha = 10.61$ $\beta = 5.623$ Goodness of fit: SSE: 0.001816	
Inverse Gaussian Distribution General model: $\frac{1}{2} (1 + \operatorname{erf}(\sqrt{\lambda/2x} (x/\mu - 1))) + \frac{1}{2} e^{(2\lambda/\mu)} (1 - \operatorname{erf}(\sqrt{\lambda/2x} (x/\mu + 1)))$	Coefficients (with 95% confidence bounds): $a = 0.3371$ $b = 0.1622$ Goodness of fit: SSE: 1.012	
Lognormal Distribution $\frac{1}{2} * \operatorname{erfc} \left(-\frac{\ln(x) - \mu}{\sigma\sqrt{2}} \right)$ Where erfc is the complementary error function.	Coefficients (with 95% confidence bounds): $\sigma = 1.667$ $\mu = 2.28$ Goodness of fit: SSE: 0.001625	
Beta type II Distribution $\frac{I_x(\alpha, \beta)}{1+x}$ Where $I_x(\alpha, \beta)$ is the incomplete beta function.	Coefficients (with 95% confidence bounds): $\alpha = 16.06$ $\beta = 1.986$ Goodness of fit: SSE: 0.003733	

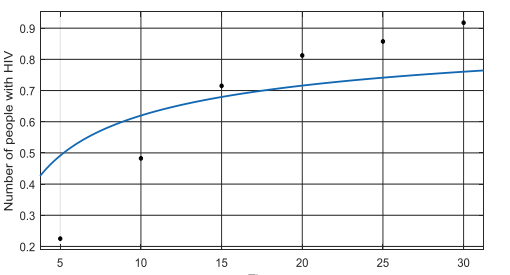
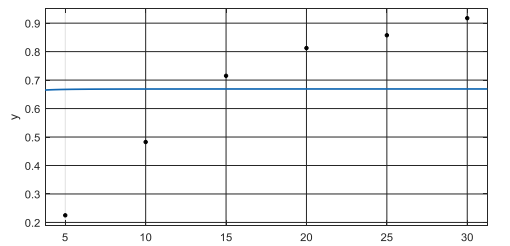
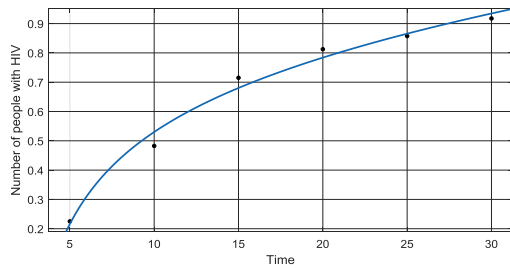
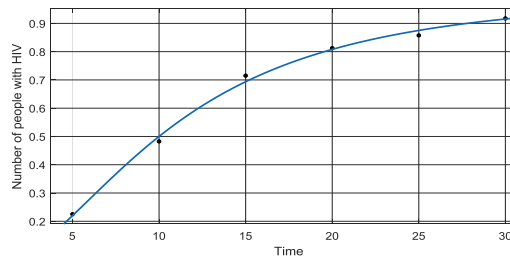
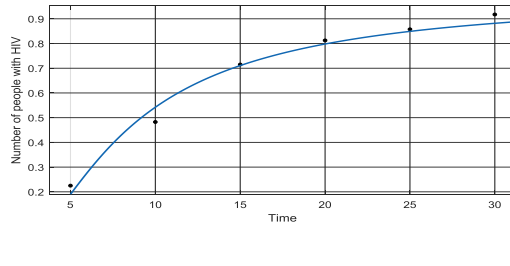
<p>Burr type XII Distribution</p> <p>Where</p> $1 - (1 + x^c)^{-k}$ <p>$c, k > 0$</p>	<p>Coefficients (with 95% confidence bounds):</p> <p>$c = 7.078$ $k = 0.05934$</p> <p>Goodness of fit: $SSE: 0.1386$</p>	
<p>Number 6</p> $\frac{1}{8}k\sqrt{2} \left(\ln - \frac{x^2 + x\sqrt{2} + 1}{-x^2 + x\sqrt{2} - 1} \right) + 2 \tan^{-1}(x\sqrt{2} + 1) + 2 \tan^{-1}(x\sqrt{2} - 1)$	<p>Coefficients (with 95% confidence bounds):</p> <p>$k = 0.6022$</p> <p>Goodness of fit: $SSE: 0.3504$</p>	
<p>Number 7</p> $cx^{-n}x \left(-\frac{k \text{Ei} \left(1, \frac{k}{x} \right)}{x} + e^{-\frac{k}{x}} \right)$ <p>Where Ei is the exponential Integral</p>	<p>Coefficients (with 95% confidence bounds):</p> <p>$a = 0.218$ $k = 2.24$ $n = 0.5929$</p> <p>Goodness of fit: $SSE: 0.00472$</p>	
<p>Frechet</p> $e^{-\left(\frac{x-m}{s}\right)^{-a}}$ <p>Where a is the shape parameter s is the scale parameter m is the location parameter</p>	<p>Coefficients (with 95% confidence bounds):</p> <p>$a = 3.506$ $m = -15.01$ $s = 22.53$</p> <p>Goodness of fit: $SSE: 0.001123$</p>	
<p>Gumbel</p> $e^{-bx^{-a}}$ <p>where a is real and b is the shape parameter</p>	<p>Coefficients (with 95% confidence bounds):</p> <p>$a = 1.44$ $b = 16.85$</p> <p>Goodness of fit: $SSE: 0.006365$</p>	

Figure 6.4: Graph of F and (x_k, y_k)

Amongst these distributions, the Lognormal distribution function,

$$F(x) = K \cdot \int_0^x \exp \frac{(-\frac{1}{2} \cdot \sigma^2 \cdot (\ln t)^2)}{t} dt$$

provided the best least squares fit

$$\sum_{k=1}^6 [F(x_k - y_k)]^2 \approx 0.001625$$

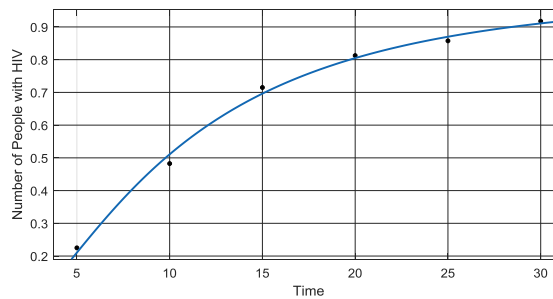


Figure 6.4: Graph of F and (x_k, y_k)

According to our model, the number of people with HIV/AIDS will not reach 40,000,000.

IV. DISCUSSIONS

This method is different from the classical methods of density estimation and kernel estimation because some of these methods do not provide indefinitely smooth models and some provide some twice differentiable models with much more than two points of inflection. In addition our model will give us tools to estimate the behaviour of the considered (natural, social and others) phenomena in the future if the environment and other conditions or circumstances do not change. This method can only be used for relative increment functions with at most two phases. Further analysis of the algorithm to accommodate sample whose relative increment functions are more than two phased may prove useful to our work of finding continuous distributions. Results from this study sheds light on the use of relative increment functions in determining distributions which would be very helpful in forecasting and estimating percentiles of growth processes. By using indefinitely smooth model of growth processes, one can predict how the process in question will behave in the future.

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