

## On the number of maxima in a discrete sample

***Citation for published version (APA):***

Brands, J. J. A. M., Steutel, F. W., & Wilms, R. J. G. (1992). *On the number of maxima in a discrete sample*. (Memorandum COSOR; Vol. 9216). Technische Universiteit Eindhoven.

***Document status and date:***

Published: 01/01/1992

***Document Version:***

Publisher's PDF, also known as Version of Record (includes final page, issue and volume numbers)

***Please check the document version of this publication:***

- A submitted manuscript is the version of the article upon submission and before peer-review. There can be important differences between the submitted version and the official published version of record. People interested in the research are advised to contact the author for the final version of the publication, or visit the DOI to the publisher's website.
- The final author version and the galley proof are versions of the publication after peer review.
- The final published version features the final layout of the paper including the volume, issue and page numbers.

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Memorandum COSOR 92-16

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ISSN 0926 4493

# On the number of maxima in a discrete sample

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**Abstract:** Let  $M_n = \max(N_1, N_2, \dots, N_n)$ , where  $N_1, N_2, \dots$  are i.i.d., positive, integer-valued rv's. We are interested in  $K_n$ , the number of values of  $j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  for which  $N_j = M_n$ .

It turns out that  $K_n \xrightarrow{d} 1$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  in many cases, but not always; the case where  $N_1$  has a geometric distribution is an example of special interest. There is an application of results on  $K_n$  to the behaviour of the fractional parts of sample maxima from non-integer populations.

## 1. Introduction and summary

Lennart Råde (1991) proposes the following problem. Toss  $n$  coins, probability  $p$  for heads, as follows. First toss all coins, then toss the ones that did not fall heads, again, and so on, until all coins show heads. The, at first rather confusing, question is: What can be said about the behaviour of the number  $K_n$  of coins involved in the final toss. A little thought learns that  $K_n$  is equal to the number of coins that need the maximum number of tosses to produce heads.

In this paper we consider the following generalization of this problem. Let  $N_1, N_2, \dots$  be i.i.d., positive, integer-valued rv's, and let

$$M_n = \max(N_1, N_2, \dots, N_n).$$

We shall be interested in the rv  $K_n$  defined by

$$(1.1) \quad K_n = \#\{j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\} : N_j = M_n\},$$

the number of sample elements equal to the sample maximum. We shall use the following notation:

$$(1.2) \quad p_j = P(N_1 = j), \quad P_0 = 0, \quad P_j = \sum_{k=1}^j p_k, \quad \bar{P}_j = 1 - P_{j-1} \quad (j = 1, 2, \dots).$$

The distribution function of a rv  $X$  will be denoted by  $F_X$ , its density by  $f_X$ . We shall write  $\{a\}$  for the fractional part of  $a$ , i.e.,  $\{a\} = a - [a]$  with  $[a]$  the largest integer not exceeding  $a$ . Our main interest is the behaviour of  $K_n$  for large  $n$ . In Section 2 we consider the general case, in Section 3 the rather delicate case of the geometric distribution (equivalent to Råde's problem), and in Section 4 we give an application to the behaviour of  $\{\max(X_1, \dots, X_n)\}$ , the fractional part of the sample maximum from a non-integer population. Some technical details are collected in an Appendix.

## 2. A general result

Though the question by Råde, how many coins are in the final toss is at first rather puzzling, the equivalent question, how many of the  $n$  coins need the maximal number of tosses, is quite easily answered. In the notation of (1.2) we have the following result.

### Lemma 2.1

$$(2.1) \quad P(K_n = k) = \binom{n}{k} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} p_j^k P_{j-1}^{n-k} \quad (k = 1, 2, \dots, n; n = 1, 2, \dots).$$

**Proof** By symmetry and independence we have (using  $0^0 = 1$ )

$$\begin{aligned}
P(K_n = k) &= \binom{n}{k} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} P(N_1 = \dots = N_k = j, N_{k+1} \leq j-1, \dots, N_n \leq j-1) \\
&= \binom{n}{k} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} p_j^k P_{j-1}^{n-k}.
\end{aligned}$$

□

By a simple calculation we obtain  $EK_n$  from (2.1).

**Corollary 2.2**

$$(2.2) \quad EK_n = n \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} p_j P_j^{n-1},$$

possibly infinite.

The case  $k = 1$  of (2.1) is of special interest.

$$(2.3) \quad P(K_n = 1) = n \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} p_j P_{j-1}^{n-1}.$$

From (2.2) and (2.3) it follows that  $EK_n$  is bounded if  $p_j/p_{j+1}$  is bounded. Clearly, this is not so if  $N_1$  is bounded, i.e., if  $p_m > 0$  for some  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ , and  $p_j = 0$  for  $j \geq m + 1$ . In that case we have  $P(M_n \rightarrow m) = 1$  and  $P(K_n \rightarrow \infty) = 1$ , in agreement with the fact that then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(K_n = k) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \binom{n}{k} \sum_{j=1}^m p_j^k P_{j-1}^{n-k} = 0$$

for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ .

In what follows we shall assume that  $N_1$  is *unbounded*, i.e., that  $P_j < 1$  for all  $j$ . Clearly, in this case  $K_n$  will take the value 1 infinitely often (i.o.): there will be new records no matter how large the present record is. This is not necessarily true for values larger than 1. As an example we prove

**Theorem 2.3** If  $p_j = cj^{-a}$  ( $j = 1, 2, \dots$ ) with  $1 < a < 2$ , then

$$P(K_n = 2 \text{ i.o.}) = 0.$$

**Proof** By the Borel-Cantelli lemma it is sufficient to prove that  $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} P(K_n = 2) < \infty$ . We have (cf. (2.1), and Section 1 for notation),

$$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} P(K_n = 2) = \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \binom{n}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} p_j^2 P_{j-1}^{n-2} = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} p_j^2 / \bar{P}_j^3.$$

Now, since  $p_j = cj^{-a}$ , we have  $\bar{P}_j \sim \frac{c}{a-1}j^{1-a}$  and so  $p_j^2/\bar{P}_j^3 \sim \text{const. } j^{a-3}$ , which means that the sum above converges if  $a - 3 < -1$ , i.e.,  $a < 2$ . The condition that  $a > 1$  is, of course, necessary for the convergence of  $\Sigma p_j$ .  $\square$

Similarly it can be proved that  $P(K_n = k \text{ i.o.}) = 0$  if  $1 < a < k$ . It is not hard to see that under the conditions of Theorem 2.3 we have  $P(K_n = 1) \rightarrow 1$  and even  $P(K_n \rightarrow 1) = 1$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . We now come to the main result of this section.

**Theorem 2.4** If  $(p_j)_1^\infty$  is such that

$$(2.4) \quad \liminf_{j \rightarrow \infty} (p_j/p_{j-1}) = 1 ,$$

then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(K_n = 1) = 1 .$$

**Proof** We have

$$P_j^n - P_{j-1}^n = p_j(P_j^{n-1} + P_{j-1}P_j^{n-2} + \dots + P_{j-1}^{n-1}) ,$$

so

$$(2.5) \quad np_j P_j^{n-1} \leq P_j^n - P_{j-1}^n \leq np_j P_j^{n-1} .$$

From (2.2) and (2.5) we obtain, for every  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &\geq P(K_n = 1) = n \sum_1^\infty p_j P_j^{n-1} \geq n \sum_{j=m+1}^\infty p_j P_j^{n-1} = n \sum_{j=m+1}^\infty \frac{p_j}{p_{j-1}} p_{j-1} P_{j-1}^{n-1} \\ &\geq n(1 - \varepsilon(m)) \sum_{j=m}^\infty p_j P_j^{n-1} \geq (1 - \varepsilon(m)) \sum_{j=m}^\infty (P_j^n - P_{j-1}^n) \\ &= (1 - \varepsilon(m))(1 - P_{m-1}^n) , \end{aligned}$$

where  $1 - \varepsilon(m) = \inf_{j>m} \frac{p_j}{p_{j-1}}$ . By (2.4) we know that  $\varepsilon(m) < \varepsilon$  for  $m$  sufficiently large, whereas  $1 - P_{m-1}^n \rightarrow 1$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  for each fixed  $m$ .  $\square$

From (2.5), by writing (2.4) as  $\limsup_{j \rightarrow \infty} \frac{p_j}{p_{j+1}} = 1$ , in a similar way (cf. (2.2)) the following corollary is obtained.

**Corollary 2.5** Under the conditions of Theorem 2.4

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} EK_n = 1 .$$

Since in a large number of practical cases  $p_j/p_{j+1} \rightarrow 1$  as  $j \rightarrow \infty$ , in many cases we will have  $P(K_n = 1) \rightarrow 1$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . We found no examples where  $K_n$  has a nondegenerate limit distribution; in some cases  $K_n \rightarrow \infty$ , and in some cases there is no convergence. In the next section we discuss an important example of the latter type.

### 3. The geometric distribution

Here we have (see Section 1 for notation),

$$(3.1) \quad p_j = p(1-p)^{j-1}, \bar{P}_j = (1-p)^{j-1}, P_{j-1} = 1 - \bar{P}_j \quad (j = 1, 2, \dots).$$

Now  $K_n$  can be interpreted as the number of coins in the final toss. Intuitively, it makes little difference whether one starts with about 10 coins or with a thousand; after six or seven tosses one is left with about 10 coins again. In a way, this may explain why in this case  $K_n$  does not converge in distribution as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , but converges 'almost', as we will see. We first state and prove a formal theorem.

**Theorem 3.1** If  $p_j$  and  $P_{j-1}$  are given by (3.1), then

$$(3.2) \quad P(K_n = 1) = p \sum_{l=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda(l-\theta_n)} e^{-e^{-\lambda(l-\theta_n)}} + o(1),$$

as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , where  $\lambda = -\log(1-p)$  and  $\theta_n = \{\lambda^{-1} \log n\}$  with  $\{a\}$  denoting the fractional part of  $a$ .

**Proof** (sketch) Using (3.1), replacing  $j-1$  by  $j$  and putting  $1-p = e^{-\lambda}$ , we obtain (cf. (2.3))

$$\begin{aligned} P(K_n = 1) &= np \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda j} (1 - e^{-\lambda j})^{n-1} = p \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda j + \log n} (1 - \frac{1}{n} e^{-\lambda j + \log n})^{n-1} \\ &= p \sum_{l=-m}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda(l-\theta_n)} (1 - \frac{1}{n} e^{-\lambda(l-\theta_n)})^{n-1}, \end{aligned}$$

where  $m = \lceil \log n \rceil$ .

It is now not very surprising that for  $n \rightarrow \infty$  we have (3.1); for a more detailed result and proof we refer to Lemma A.2 in the Appendix.  $\square$

Since the function in the right-hand side of (3.2) is periodic, and  $(\theta_n)$  is dense in  $(0,1)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , Theorem 3.1 yields an example where  $K_n$  does not converge:

**Corollary 3.2** For the geometric distribution, with  $p_j$  as in (3.1), the sequence  $K_n$  does



not converge in distribution, as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

**Remark 1** Expressions similar to (3.2) can be obtained for  $P(K_n = k)$  with  $k \geq 2$ . One finds (cf. Lemma A.1)

$$P(K_n = k) = \frac{p^k}{k!} \sum_{l=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-k\lambda(l-\theta_n)} e^{-e^{-\lambda(l-\theta_n)}} + o(1),$$

as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . For  $EK_n$  from (2.2), (2.3) and (3.2) we obtain

$$EK_n = \frac{p}{1-p} \sum_{l=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda(l-\theta_n)} e^{-e^{-\lambda(l-\theta_n)}} + o(1).$$

**Remark 2** It turns out that the (periodic) functions

$$F_k(\theta; \lambda) := \sum_{l=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-k\lambda(l-\theta)} e^{-e^{-\lambda(l-\theta)}}$$

are almost constant in  $\theta$  for moderate values of  $\lambda$ ; for  $k = \lambda = 1$ , i.e.,  $p = 1 - e^{-1}$  direct computation yields

$$|F_1(\theta; 1) - 1| < 6.5 \cdot 10^{-4};$$

see Appendix for more information.

By (3.2) this means that  $P(K_n = 1)$  is close to  $p$  in this special case, and close to  $-p/\log(1-p)$  for more general  $p$ . Similarly, one finds  $EK_n \approx -p/((1-p)\log(1-p))$ , and

$$(3.3) \quad P(K_n = k) \approx \frac{-p^k}{k \log(1-p)} \quad (k = 1, 2, \dots),$$

i.e., the distribution of  $K_n$  'almost converges' to the logarithmic distribution. We return to this in the next section.

**Remark 3** Things change when  $p$  is allowed to depend on  $n$ . If we take  $p = 1 - \mu/n$ , i.e.,  $\lambda = \log(n/\mu)$ , then for any fixed  $k \in \mathbb{N}$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(K_n = k) = e^{-\mu} \frac{\mu^k}{k!},$$

and

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(K_n = n) = e^{-\mu}.$$

So  $K_n$  has a defective, Poisson limit distribution on  $\mathbb{N}$ , with mass  $e^{-\mu}$  at infinity.

#### 4. Connection with fractional part of maximum

Several papers have been devoted to the study of  $\{S_n\}$ , where

$$(4.1) \quad S_n = X_1 + \dots + X_n ,$$

with  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  i.i.d. and non-lattice, and  $\{a\}$  denoting the fractional part of  $a$  (see e.g. Schatte (1983)). As is well known,  $\{S_n\} \xrightarrow{d} U$ , where  $U$  is uniformly distributed on  $[0, 1)$ . In Brands and Wilms (1991) the analogue of (4.1) is considered for maxima, i.e. they consider the behaviour of  $\{Z_n\}$ , with

$$(4.2) \quad Z_n = \max(X_1, \dots, X_n) ,$$

for i.i.d. non-lattice  $X_j$ . They show that in many cases  $\{Z_n\} \xrightarrow{d} U$ . It is known that for exponentially distributed  $X_j$  the sequence  $(\{Z_n\})_1^\infty$  does not converge (cf. Jagers and Steutel (1990)). This phenomenon is closely connected with the results of Section 3, as we shall see.

It is rather difficult to find examples where  $\{Z_n\} \xrightarrow{d} V \neq U$ . We now use Theorem 2.4 to construct an example of this kind:  $\{Z_n\}$  does converge, but not to  $U$ .

**Theorem 4.1** Let the rv  $N$  be such that the  $p_j := P(N = j), j = 1, 2, \dots$  satisfy the conditions of Theorem 2.4. Further let  $V$  be a rv independent of  $N$  and such that  $P(0 \leq V < 1) = 1$ . Finally, let  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  be i.i.d. and such that  $X_1 \stackrel{d}{=} N + V$ . Then for  $Z_n$  as defined by (4.2) one has

$$\{Z_n\} \xrightarrow{d} V \quad (n \rightarrow \infty) .$$

**Proof** We have

$$Z_n = \max(X_1, \dots, X_n) \stackrel{d}{=} \max(N_1, \dots, N_n) + \max(V_1, \dots, V_{K_n}) ,$$

where  $N_j = [X_j]$  and  $K_n$  is independent of  $V_1, V_2, \dots$ , which are independent copies of  $V$ . It follows that

$$P(\{Z_n\} \leq x) = \sum_{k=1}^n P(K_n = k) F_V^k(x) = P_{K_n}(F_V(x)) ,$$

where  $F_V$  denotes the distribution function of  $V$  and  $P_{K_n}$  the probability generating function of  $K_n$ . So we may write

$$(4.3) \quad F_{\{Z_n\}}(x) = P_{K_n}(F_V(x)) .$$

Now if  $K_n \xrightarrow{d} K$ , then  $F_{\{Z_n\}}(x) \rightarrow P_K(F_V(x))$ , and in the special case that  $K_n \xrightarrow{d} 1$  we have

$$F_{\{Z_n\}}(x) \rightarrow F_V(x),$$

i.e.,  $\{Z_n\} \xrightarrow{d} V$ . □

This shows that any distribution on  $[0, 1)$  can occur as a limit distribution of  $\{Z_n\}$ .

We now return to the geometric distribution. We shall need the following lemma (see Kopocinsky (1988) or Steutel and Thiemann (1989)).

**Lemma 4.2** Let  $Y$  be exponentially distributed with  $EY = \lambda^{-1}$ , and let  $X = Y + 1$ . Then

$$X = N + V,$$

with  $N$  and  $V$  independent,

$$P(N = j) = p(1 - p)^{j-1} \quad (j = 1, 2, \dots),$$

with  $p = 1 - e^{-\lambda}$ , and

$$(4.4) \quad F_V(v) = \frac{1 - e^{-\lambda v}}{1 - e^{-\lambda}} \quad (0 \leq v < 1).$$

From (4.3) and the fact, established in Corollary 3.2, that for this  $N$  the sequence  $K_n$  does not converge in distribution, it follows that  $\{Z_n\}$  does not converge in distribution. On the other hand, (4.3) can be used to obtain information about  $K_n$ . Combining (4.3) and (4.4) we get

$$P_{K_n}(z) = F_{\{Z_n\}}\left(\frac{\log(1 - pz)}{\log(1 - p)}\right).$$

Now, although  $\{Z_n\}$  does not converge in distribution, it is not very far from being uniform for large  $n$ . Since

$$(4.5) \quad F_{\{Z_n\}}(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} ((1 - e^{-\lambda(j+x)})^n - (1 - e^{-\lambda j})^n),$$

Corollary A.4 yields the following theorem ( $p = 1 - e^{-\lambda}$ ).

**Theorem 4.3** For  $0 < \lambda < 2\pi^2$ , i.e., for  $0 < p < 1 - 2.6 \cdot 10^{-9}$ , and for  $n \geq 7$

$$\left| P_{K_n}(z) - \frac{\log(1-pz)}{\log(1-p)} \right| \leq 70\lambda^{-1/2} e^{-\pi^2/\lambda} + (3+2\lambda)n^{-1}.$$

This means that for large  $n$  and moderate values of  $p = 1 - e^{-\lambda}$ , the random variable  $K_n$  is close to having a logarithmic distribution; this result agrees with formula (3.3). Though the bound above is fairly small, it is rather crude; compare the pictures of  $T_n(x; \lambda) = F_{\{Z_n\}}(x)$  in the Appendix.

## Acknowledgement

The authors wish to thank Herman Willemssen for doing the programming necessary for the numerical results and for producing the pictures.

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## Appendix

Here we give some of the details that were omitted in sections 3 and 4. We shall use the following notation. For  $k, n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $x \in [0, 1)$  and  $\lambda > 0$  we define

$$(A.1) \quad F_k(x; \lambda) = \sum_{l=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda k(l-x)} \exp(-e^{-\lambda(l-x)}),$$

$$(A.2) \quad S_{n,k}(x; \lambda) = \binom{n}{k} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda k(j+x)} (1 - e^{-\lambda(j+x)})^{n-k}.$$

**Lemma A.1** For  $n \geq 2k$  the following inequalities hold:

$$(A.3) \quad 0 \leq (n-k)^{-k} \binom{n}{k} F_k(\theta - x; \lambda) - S_{n,k}(x; \lambda) \leq R(n, k, \lambda),$$

where  $\theta = \{\lambda^{-1} \log(n-k)\}$ , and

$$(A.4) \quad R(n, k, \lambda) = (n-k)^{-k} \binom{n}{k} \left[ (n-k)^{-1} (\lambda^{-1}(k+1)! + (k+2)^{k+2} e^{-k-2}) + (n-k)^k (1 + \lambda^{-1}) e^{-n+k} \right].$$

**Proof.** Substitution in (A.2) of  $j = m + l$  with  $m = \lceil \lambda^{-1} \log(n-k) \rceil$  gives

$$S_{n,k}(x; \lambda) = (n-k)^{-k} \binom{n}{k} \sum_{l=-m}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda k(l+x-\theta)} (1 - (n-k)^{-1} e^{-\lambda(l+x-\theta)})^{n-k}.$$

Putting  $u_k(t) = e^{-kt} \exp(-e^{-t})$  and using the inequalities

$$0 \leq e^{-ns} - (1-s)^n \leq ns^2 e^{-ns} \quad (0 \leq s \leq 1, n \in \mathbb{N}),$$

leads to

$$\begin{aligned} & 0 \leq (n-k)^{-k} \binom{n}{k} F_k(\theta - x; \lambda) - S_{n,k}(x, \lambda) \\ & \leq (n-k)^{-k} \binom{n}{k} \left\{ (n-k)^{-1} \sum_{l=-m}^{\infty} u_{k+2}(\lambda(l+x-\theta)) + \sum_{l=-\infty}^{-m-1} u_k(\lambda(l+x-\theta)) \right\}. \end{aligned}$$

Now,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{l=-m}^{\infty} u_{k+2}(\lambda(l+x-\theta)) & < F_{k+2}(\theta - x; \lambda) \leq \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} u_{k+2}(\lambda t) dt + \max_{t \in \mathbb{R}} u_{k+2}(t) \\ & = \lambda^{-1}(k+1)! + e^{-k-2}(k+2)^{k+2}. \end{aligned}$$

and, for  $n \geq 2k$ , (use  $\int_a^b s^b e^{-s} ds \leq a^{b+1} e^{-a}$  for  $2 \leq b+1 \leq a$ )

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{l=-\infty}^{-m-1} u_k(\lambda(l+x-\theta)) & \leq \int_{-\infty}^{-m-1} u_k(\lambda(y+x-\theta)) dy + u_k(\lambda(-m-1+x-\theta)) \\ & \leq (1 + \lambda^{-1})(n-k)^k e^{-n+k}. \end{aligned}$$

Combination of the inequalities above proves Lemma A.1. □

For the important case  $k = 1$  we have

**Lemma A.2.** For  $n \geq 2$

$$(A.5) \quad |S_{n,1}(x, \lambda) - F_1(\theta - x; \lambda)| \leq R(n, 1, \lambda),$$

where  $\theta = \{\lambda^{-1} \log(n-1)\}$ , and

$$(A.6) \quad R(n, 1, \lambda) = n(n-1)^{-2}(2\lambda^{-1} + 27e^{-3} + (1 + \lambda^{-1})(n-1)^2 e^{-n+1}).$$

**Proof.** From the general case in Lemma A.1 we have

$$|S_{n,1}(x; \lambda) - F_1(\theta - x; \lambda)| \leq \max\{R(n, 1, \lambda), (n-1)^{-1} F_1(\theta - x; \lambda)\},$$

and the result follows from

$$0 < F_1(\theta - x; \lambda) \leq \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} u_1(\lambda t) dt + \max_{t \in \mathbb{R}} u_1(t) = 2\lambda^{-1} + 27e^{-3} \leq (n-1)R(n, 1, \lambda). \quad \square$$

The functions  $F_k(x, \lambda)$  are almost constant in  $x$ . For  $k = 1$  we have the following result.

**Lemma A.3.** For  $0 < \lambda < 2\pi^2$

$$(A.7) \quad |F_1(x; \lambda) - \lambda^{-1}| \leq \delta_1(\lambda)$$

where

$$(A.8) \quad \delta_1(\lambda) = 4\pi(1 - e^{-4\pi^2/\lambda})^{-1/2}(1 + \lambda/\pi^2 + \lambda^2/(2\pi^4))\lambda^{-3/2}e^{-\pi^2/\lambda}.$$

**Proof** For the Fourier coefficients  $C_m(k, \lambda)$  of the functions  $F_k(\cdot; \lambda)$ , which are periodic with period 1, we have

$$C_m(k, \lambda) = \int_0^1 F_k(x; \lambda) e^{-2\pi i m x} dx = \lambda^{-1} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} u_k(t) e^{2\pi i \lambda^{-1} m t} dt = \lambda^{-1} \Gamma(k - 2\pi i \lambda^{-1} m).$$

From

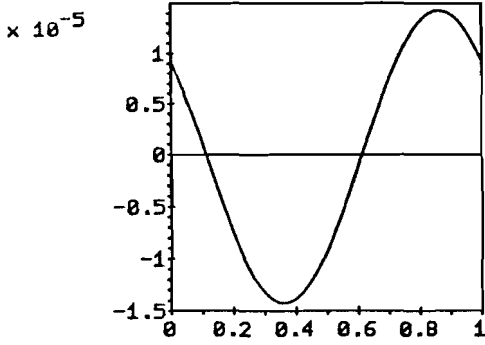
$$|\Gamma(1 \pm iy)|^2 = \Gamma(1 + iy)\Gamma(1 - iy) = \pi y (\sinh \pi y)^{-1} \text{ and } \Gamma(k + iy) = (1 + iy) \dots (k - 1 + iy) \Gamma(1 + iy)$$

it follows that  $|\Gamma(k + iy)| = (\pi y q_k(y) (\sinh \pi y)^{-1})^{1/2}$ , where  $q_k(y) = \prod_{n=1}^{k-1} (n^2 + y^2)$  ( $k \geq 2$ ),  $q_1(y) = 1$ . For  $k = 1$  we have

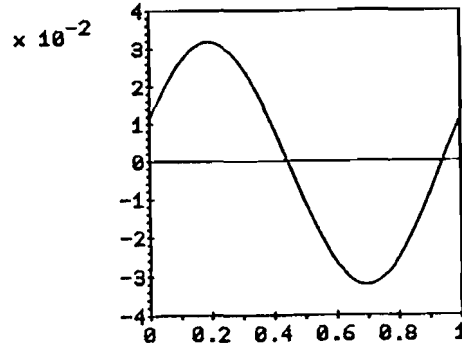
$$|F_1(x; \lambda) - \lambda^{-1}| \leq 2 \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} |C_m(1, \lambda)| = \pi(2/\lambda)^{3/2} \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} (m^{1/2} \sinh 2\pi^2 \lambda^{-1} m)^{-1/2}.$$

After some fairly straightforward estimations we arrive at the desired result.  $\square$

Below pictures of  $F_1(x; \lambda) - \lambda^{-1}$  are shown for  $\lambda = \log 2$ , and  $\lambda = 2$  (i.e.,  $p = \frac{1}{2}$  and  $p = 0.865$ ); the amplitude is increasing in  $\lambda$ .



$F_1(x; \log 2)$



$F_1(x; 2)$

**Remark.** From the foregoing it easily follows that

$$F_k(x; \lambda) = (k-1)! \lambda^{-1} + O(\lambda^{-k-1/2} e^{-\pi^2/\lambda}) \quad (\lambda \downarrow 0).$$

**Corollary A.4.** Let

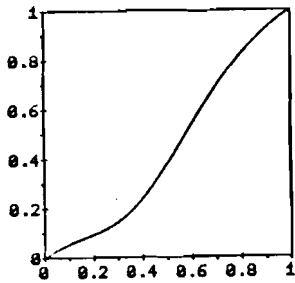
$$T_n(x; \lambda) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} ((1 - e^{-\lambda(j+x)})^n - (1 - e^{-\lambda j})^n).$$

Then for  $n \geq 2$  and  $0 < \lambda < 2\pi^2$ ,

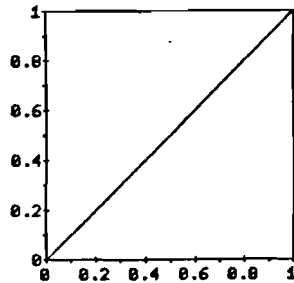
$$(A.9) \quad |T_n(x; \lambda) - x| \leq 70 \lambda^{-1/2} e^{-\pi^2/\lambda} + \frac{n}{(n-1)^2} (2 + 27e^{-3} \lambda + (\lambda+1)(n-1)^2 e^{-n+1}).$$

**Proof.** Clearly  $T_n(x; \lambda) = \lambda \int_0^x S_{n,1}(t; \lambda) dt$ . Applying Lemmas A.2 and A.3, and using the fact that  $4\pi(1 - e^{-4\pi^2/\lambda})^{-1/2} (1 + \pi^{-2}\lambda + \frac{1}{2}\pi^{-4}\lambda^2) < 70$  for  $0 < \lambda < 2\pi^2$ , we obtain (A.9).  $\square$

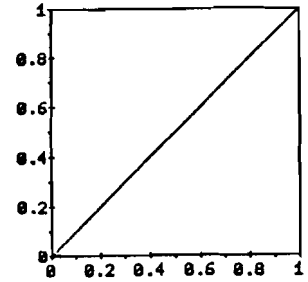
The bound in the right-hand side of (A.9) is rather conservative. For moderate values of  $\lambda$ , and  $n$  not very small  $T_n(x; \lambda) = F_{\{z_n\}}(x)$  (cf. (4.5)) can hardly be distinguished from  $x$ , as is shown in the pictures below.



$n = 10; \lambda = 4$   
( $p = 0,98$ )



$n = 10; \lambda = 1$   
( $p = 0,37$ )



$n = 25; \lambda = \log 2$   
( $p = 0,50$ )

Pictures of  $T_n(x; \lambda) = F_{\{z_n\}}(x)$



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92-04	February	H.J.C. Huijberts H. Nijmeijer	Strong dynamic input-output decoupling: from linearity to nonlinearity
92-05	March	S.J.L. v. Eijndhoven J.M. Soethoudt	Introduction to a behavioral approach of continuous-time systems
92-06	April	P.J. Zwietering E.H.L. Aarts J. Wessels	The minimal number of layers of a perceptron that sorts
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92-09	May	I.J.B.F. Adan G.J.J.A.N. v. Houtum J. v.d. Wal	Upper and lower bounds for the waiting time in the symmetric shortest queue system
92-10	May	P. v.d. Laan	Subset Selection: Robustness and Imprecise Selection
92-11	May	R.J.M. Vaessens E.H.L. Aarts J.K. Lenstra	A Local Search Template (Extended Abstract)
92-12	May	F.P.A. Coolen	Elicitation of Expert Knowledge and Assessment of Im- precise Prior Densities for Lifetime Distributions
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92-15	June	P. van der Laan	Experiments: Design, Parametric and Nonparametric Analysis, and Selection
92-16	June	J.J.A.M. Brands F.W. Steutel R.J.G. Wilms	On the number of maxima in a discrete sample