

CHARACTERIZATIONS OF LIFE DISTRIBUTIONS FROM PERCENTILE RESIDUAL LIFETIMES

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Summary

An α -percentile residual life function does not uniquely determine a life distribution; however, a continuous life distribution can be uniquely determined by its α -percentile and β -percentile residual life functions if α and β satisfy a certain condition. Two characterizations in terms of percentile residual lifetimes are given for the Beta $(1, \theta, K)$, Exponential (λ) and Pareto (θ, K) family of distributions.

1. Introduction

Let $F(t)$ be a life distribution. The mean and α -percentile residual life functions at time t are respectively the mean and 100α percentile residual life given survival up to time t (mathematical definitions are given in Section 2). It is well-known that if F has finite mean, then it is uniquely determined by its mean residual life function $m_F(t)$ —see, for example, Meilijson [6], Swartz [9], Laurent [5], Galambos and Kotz [2], and Hall and Wellner [3]. In contrast, it is shown in Arnold and Brockett [1] and Joe and Proschan [4] that there can be infinitely many life distributions with the same α -percentile residual life function $q_{\alpha, F}(t)$. Hence it is impossible to characterize life distributions in terms of a single percentile residual life function. In this paper, we show that a continuous life distribution F is uniquely determined by $q_{\alpha, F}$ and $q_{\beta, F}$ if α and β satisfy a certain condition. The Beta $(1, \theta, K)$, Exponential (λ) and Pareto (θ, K) (of the second kind) distributions are characterized as the only absolutely continuous distributions with (i) linear α -percentile residual lifetimes for an interval of α 's and (ii) the mean residual life function equivalent to an α -percentile residual life function for some $0 < \alpha < 1$. Characterizations in terms of linear mean residual life are given in Hall and Wellner [3] and Morrison [7].

Key words and phrases: Residual life, percentile, beta, exponential, Pareto.

2. Definitions

Let F be a life distribution, that is, a distribution such that $F(0^-) = 0$, and let \bar{F} be the survival function: $\bar{F}(t) = 1 - F(t)$, $t > 0$. Let F^{-1} be the left continuous inverse of F defined by

$$F^{-1}(u) = \inf \{x: F(x) \geq u\}, \quad 0 \leq u \leq 1.$$

Then $\bar{F}^{-1}(u) = F^{-1}(1 - u)$ is the right continuous inverse of \bar{F} . Let $T_F = \sup \{x: F(x) < 1\} = F^{-1}(1)$ be the right-hand endpoint of support and for $0 \leq t \leq T_F$, let

$$r_F(t) = f(t)/\bar{F}(t),$$

$$\bar{F}_t(x) = 1 - F_t(x) = \bar{F}(t+x)/\bar{F}(t),$$

$$m_F(t) = \int_0^\infty \bar{F}_t(x) dx = \int_t^\infty \bar{F}(x) dx / \bar{F}(t), \quad \text{and}$$

$$q_{\alpha, F}(t) = F_t^{-1}(\alpha) = F^{-1}(1 - \alpha \bar{F}(t)) - t = \bar{F}^{-1}(\alpha \bar{F}(t)) - t,$$

be the failure rate, the conditional survival function, the mean residual life function and the α -percentile residual life function, respectively. Whenever possible, we will suppress the subscript F and use T , r , m , q_α in place of T_F , r_F , m_F , $q_{\alpha, F}$ respectively.

3. Uniqueness in terms of two percentile residual lifetimes

In Theorem 1 below, a functional relationship is obtained for two continuous life distributions F and G with the same α -percentile residual life function. Using this result, it is shown that a continuous life distribution is uniquely determined by its α - and β -percentile residual life functions if α and β satisfy the condition in Theorem 2.

THEOREM 1. *Let F and G be continuous life distributions and let $0 < \alpha < 1$. Then $q_{\alpha, F} \equiv q_{\alpha, G}$ if and only if there exists a periodic function $A(x)$ with period $-\log(1 - \alpha)$, such that*

$$(1) \quad \bar{F}(x) = A(-\log \bar{G}(x)) \cdot \bar{G}(x), \quad x \geq 0.$$

PROOF. (Necessity). Suppose that $q_{\alpha, F} \equiv q_{\alpha, G}$. Then $\bar{F}^{-1}(\alpha \bar{F}(t)) = \bar{G}^{-1}(\alpha \bar{G}(t))$, $t \geq 0$, which implies

$$(2) \quad \alpha \bar{F}(t) = \bar{F} \bar{G}^{-1}(\alpha \bar{G}(t)), \quad t \geq 0$$

since F and G are continuous. The hypotheses imply that F is constant on any interval where G is constant and vice-versa so that (2)

implies

$$(3) \quad \bar{\alpha}\bar{F}\bar{G}^{-1}(u) = \bar{F}\bar{G}^{-1}(\bar{\alpha}u), \quad 0 < u < 1.$$

The function

$$(4) \quad \Delta(x) = \bar{F}\bar{G}(e^{-x})e^x, \quad x \geq 0$$

satisfies (1), and $\Delta(x) = \Delta(x - \log \bar{\alpha})$, $x \geq 0$, if and only if

$$\bar{F}\bar{G}^{-1}(e^{-x}) = \bar{F}\bar{G}^{-1}(\bar{\alpha}e^{-x})/\bar{\alpha}, \quad x \geq 0$$

which is equivalent to (3).

(Sufficiency). Suppose that (1) holds for a periodic function with period $-\log(1-\alpha)$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{F}\bar{G}^{-1}(\bar{\alpha}\bar{G}(t)) &= \Delta(-\log \bar{\alpha}\bar{G}(t)) \cdot \bar{\alpha}\bar{G}(t) \\ &= \Delta(-\log \bar{G}(t)) \cdot \bar{\alpha}\bar{G}(t) = \bar{\alpha}\bar{F}(t), \quad t \geq 0, \end{aligned}$$

and equation (2) holds. For fixed $t \geq 0$, $\bar{F}^{-1}(\bar{\alpha}\bar{F}(t)) = \bar{F}^{-1}(\bar{F}(y))$, where $y = \bar{G}^{-1}(\bar{\alpha}\bar{G}(t))$. Let $I = [t_1, t_2]$ be the interval of u 's for which $\bar{F}(u) = \bar{F}(y)$. Then $\bar{F}^{-1}(\bar{F}(y)) = F^{-1}(F(y)) = t_1$. (2) implies that $\bar{F}(x)$ is constant on an interval $I \iff \bar{G}^{-1}(\bar{\alpha}\bar{G}(x))$ is constant on $I \iff \bar{G}(x)$ is constant on I . Therefore, $\bar{G}(t_1) = \bar{G}(y) = \bar{G}(t_2) = \bar{\alpha}\bar{G}(t)$ and $\bar{G}^{-1}(\bar{\alpha}\bar{G}(t)) = t_1 = y$. Hence $\bar{F}^{-1}(\bar{\alpha}\bar{F}(t)) = \bar{G}^{-1}(\bar{\alpha}\bar{G}(t))$ and $q_{\alpha, \bar{F}}(t) = q_{\alpha, \bar{G}}(t)$.

THEOREM 2. *Let F and G be continuous life distributions. If $q_{\alpha, F} \equiv q_{\alpha, G}$ and $q_{\beta, F} \equiv q_{\beta, G}$ for α and β in $(0, 1)$ such that $\log(1-\alpha)/\log(1-\beta)$ is irrational, then $F \equiv G$.*

PROOF. Let $\Delta(x)$ be defined as in (4). By Theorem 1, Δ is periodic with periods $-\log(1-\alpha)$ and $-\log(1-\beta)$. Since $\log(1-\alpha)/\log(1-\beta)$ is irrational, Δ is periodic with a dense set of periods and hence is constant (Semadeni [8]). The hypotheses of the theorem imply that $F(0) = G(0) = 0$ and therefore, from (1) of Theorem 1, $F \equiv G$.

Remarks. 1. Arnold and Brockett [1] have a proof of Theorem 2 assuming that F and G are strictly increasing.

2. A corollary of Theorem 2 is: If F and G are continuous life distributions such that $q_{\beta, F} \equiv q_{\beta, G}$ for all $\beta \in I$, where I is a subinterval of $(0, 1)$, then $F \equiv G$. This generalizes Theorem 13 of Joe and Proschan [4].

3. Theorem 2 generalizes the following result in Joe and Proschan [4]: If $q_{\alpha, F}$ and $q_{\beta, F}$ are constant functions and $\log(1-\alpha)/\log(1-\beta)$ is irrational, then F is an exponential distribution.

4. Characterization for Beta, Exponential and Pareto distributions

In Remark 3 following Theorem 2, a characterization is given in terms of 2 constant percentile residual lifetimes. The next simplest form of a percentile residual lifetime is a linear one, and for a characterization we will need to consider a continuum of α 's. The characterization is for the Beta $(1, \theta, K)$, Exponential (λ) and Pareto (θ, K) (of the second kind) distributions. The survival functions for these 3 families together with the corresponding failure rate, mean residual life and α -percentile residual life functions are stated next before the characterization result. Note that a Beta $(1, \theta, K)$ distribution is the distribution of K times a Beta $(1, \theta)$ random variable.

(i) Beta $(1, \theta, K)$, $0 \leq t \leq K$, $\theta > 0$, $K > 0$:

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{F}(t) &= (1 - t/K)^\theta, & r(t) &= \theta/(K - t), \\ m(t) &= (K - t)/(\theta + 1), & \text{and } q_\alpha(t) &= (1 - \bar{\alpha}^{1/\theta})(K - t).\end{aligned}$$

(ii) Exponential (λ) , $t \geq 0$, $\lambda > 0$:

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{F}(t) &= e^{-\lambda t}, & r(t) &= \lambda, \\ m(t) &= 1/\lambda, & \text{and } q_\alpha(t) &= (-\log \bar{\alpha})/\lambda.\end{aligned}$$

(iii) Pareto (θ, K) , $t \geq 0$, $\theta > 0$, $K > 0$:

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{F}(t) &= (1 + t/K)^{-\theta}, & r(t) &= \theta/(K + t), \\ m(t) &= (K + t)/(\theta - 1), & (\theta > 1), & \text{and } q_\alpha(t) = (\bar{\alpha}^{-1/\theta} - 1)/(K + t), \\ m(t) & \text{ does not exist for } 0 < \theta \leq 1.\end{aligned}$$

THEOREM 3. *Suppose that F is absolutely continuous and that $q_\alpha(t)$ is linear in t for all $\alpha \in I$ for some subinterval I of $(0, 1)$. Then F is either a Beta $(1, \theta, K)$, Exponential (λ) or Pareto (θ, K) distribution.*

PROOF. Suppose that for $\alpha \in I$, $q_\alpha(t) = a_\alpha + b_\alpha t$, $0 \leq t < T$, where $a_\alpha > 0$ and $b_\alpha > -1$. Note that $q_\alpha(t) + t = \bar{F}^{-1}(\bar{\alpha}\bar{F}(t))$ is increasing in t . Since F is continuous, then

$$(5) \quad \bar{\alpha}\bar{F}(t) = \bar{F}(q_\alpha(t) + t) = \bar{F}(a_\alpha + (b_\alpha + 1)t), \quad 0 \leq t < T.$$

It follows that a_α and b_α are differentiable in α . Let the two derivatives be denoted by a'_α and b'_α . Differentiation of (5) with respect to α and with respect to t yield

$$\bar{F}(t) = f(a_\alpha + (b_\alpha + 1)t) \cdot (a'_\alpha + b'_\alpha t) \quad \text{and} \quad \bar{\alpha}f(t) = f(a_\alpha + (b_\alpha + 1)t) \cdot (b_\alpha + 1).$$

The ratio of these two equations leads to

$$1/r(t) = \bar{\alpha}(a'_\alpha + b'_\alpha t)/(b_\alpha + 1), \quad 0 \leq t < T, \quad \alpha \in I.$$

Thus $\bar{\alpha}a'_\alpha/(b_\alpha + 1)$ and $\bar{\alpha}b'_\alpha/(b_\alpha + 1)$ are constants, say, c_1 and c_2 , with $c_1 > 0$. Since a failure rate function uniquely determines a survival function, the only possibilities for F are:

- (i) F is Beta $(1, \theta, K)$ if $c_1 = K/\theta, c_2 = -1/\theta$,
- (ii) F is Exponential (λ) if $c_1 = 1/\lambda, c_2 = 0$, and
- (iii) F is Pareto (θ, K) if $c_1 = K/\theta, c_2 = 1/\theta$.

Remark. We conjecture that the conclusion of Theorem 3 is still valid if the hypothesis of absolute continuity is replaced by $F(0) = 0$, F is nondegenerate and F has no mass at $T = F^{-1}(1)$.

Finally, we characterize all absolutely continuous distributions for which $m(t)$ is equivalent to $q_\alpha(t)$ for some $0 < \alpha < 1$. We first note the following.

- (i) Within the Beta $(1, \theta, K)$ family, $m(t) \equiv q_\alpha(t)$ if $\alpha = 1 - (1 + 1/\theta)^{-\theta} = \alpha_1(\theta)$. $\alpha_1(\theta)$ is strictly increasing in $\theta > 0$ with $\lim_{\theta \rightarrow 0} \alpha_1(\theta) = 0$ and $\lim_{\theta \rightarrow \infty} \alpha_1(\theta) = 1 - e^{-1}$.
- (ii) Within the Exponential (λ) family, $m(t) \equiv q_\alpha(t)$ if $\alpha = 1 - e^{-1}$.
- (iii) Within the Pareto (θ, K) family, $m(t) \equiv q_\alpha(t)$ if $\alpha = 1 - (1 - 1/\theta)^\theta = \alpha_2(\theta)$. $\alpha_2(\theta)$ is strictly decreasing in $\theta > 1$ with $\lim_{\theta \rightarrow \infty} \alpha_2(\theta) = 1 - e^{-1}$ and $\lim_{\theta \rightarrow 1} \alpha_2(\theta) = 1$.

THEOREM 4. *Suppose that $m(t) \equiv q_\alpha(t)$ for some $\alpha \in (0, 1)$. If F is absolutely continuous, then there is a $\mu \geq 0$ ($\mu = F^{-1}(0)$) such that $G(t) = F(t - \mu)$ is either a Beta $(1, \theta, K)$ or an Exponential (λ) or a Pareto (θ, K) distribution.*

Remark. A Pareto (θ, K) distribution shifted by $\mu = K$ is a Pareto distribution of the first kind with $\bar{F}(t) = (K/t)^\theta, t \geq K$.

PROOF. If F is absolutely continuous, then from the definition of $m(t)$ and the equation

$$\bar{F}(t) = \exp \left\{ - \int_0^t r(y) dy \right\} = [m(0)/m(t)] \bar{F}(0) \exp \left\{ - \int_0^t [m(y)]^{-1} dy \right\},$$

$m'(t)$ exists and

$$(6) \quad r(t) = (1 + m'(t))/m(t), \quad 0 \leq t < T.$$

From the hypotheses of the theorem,

$$\bar{\alpha}\bar{F}(t) = \bar{F}(q_\alpha(t) + t) = \bar{F}(m(t) + t).$$

Differentiation with respect to t leads to

$$(7) \quad r(t) = r(t + m(t)) \cdot (1 + m'(t)), \quad 0 \leq t < T.$$

Let $t_1 = \sup \{t : 1 + m'(t) = 0, 0 \leq t < T\}$. This is well-defined since the continuity of $m(t)$ implies that $\bar{F}^{-1}(\bar{\alpha}\bar{F}(t))$ is continuous which in turn implies that $F^{-1}(u)$ is continuous for $u \geq \alpha$ or $1 + m'(t) > 0$ for $t > F^{-1}(\alpha)$. Equating (6) and (7) yields

$$(8) \quad r(t + m(t)) = 1/m(t), \quad t_1 < t < T.$$

Substitution of (6) on the left-hand side of (8) results in

$$(9) \quad m'(t + m(t)) = [m(t + m(t)) - m(t)]/m(t), \quad t_1 < t < T.$$

Since $m(t)$ is differentiable, then by (8), $r(y)$ is continuous and differentiable for $y > t_2 = t_1 + m(t_1)$. By (6), $m'(y)$ is continuous and differentiable for $y > t_2$. Hence both sides of (9) are differentiable,

$$(10) \quad m''(t + m(t))(1 + m'(t)) = [m'(t + m(t)) - m'(t)]/m(t)$$

for $t_1 < t < T$, and $m''(y)$ is continuous for $y < t_2$. By Taylor's theorem, for $t < t_2$,

$$(11) \quad \frac{m(t + m(t)) - m(t)}{m(t)} = m'(t + m(t)) - \frac{1}{2} m''(s(t))m(t),$$

where $s(t)$ is between t and $t + m(t)$ and can be assumed continuous. Equations (9) and (11) together imply that $m''(s(t)) = 0$, $t > t_2$, so that $m''(y) = 0$ for $y > t_2 + m(t_2)$. Hence there is a constant $b > -1$ such that $m'(y) = b$ for $y > t_2 + m(t_2)$. By (10), $m'(y) = b$ for $y > t_2$. Substitution into (9) yields

$$(12) \quad bm(t) = m(t + m(t)) - m(t), \quad t_1 < t < T.$$

Differentiation of (12) results in $m'(t) = b$, $t_1 < t < T$. There is a constant a such that

$$(13) \quad m(t) = a + bt, \quad t_1 < t < T.$$

We now prove by contradiction that $F(t_1) = 0$. If $F(t_1) > 0$, then there are constants $s_1 < s_2 < t_1$ such that

$$(14) \quad 1 + m'(t) = 0 \quad \text{for } s_2 < t < t_1,$$

and $F(s) > 0$, $1 + m'(s) > 0$ and $s + m(s) > t_1$ for $s_1 < s < s_2$. By (6) and (7),

$$r(s+m(s))=(1+b)/(a+b[s+m(s)])=1/m(s), \quad s_1 < s < s_2$$

or

$$(15) \quad m(s)=a+bs, \quad s_1 < s < s_2.$$

(13), (14), (15) together contradict the fact that $m(t)$ is continuous, and therefore $F(t_1)=0$ and $t_1=F^{-1}(0)$.

COROLLARY. *If F is absolutely continuous and $F_t(x)$ is a symmetric distribution for all $0 \leq t < T$, then F is a Uniform $[\mu, \mu+K]$ distribution for some $\mu > 0, K > 0$.*

PROOF. By Theorem 4, $m(t)=q_{0.5}(t)$ if and only if $F(t-\mu)$ is a Beta $(1, 1, K)$ or Uniform $[0, K]$ distribution. Therefore F is a Uniform $[\mu, \mu+K]$ distribution; the conditional distribution F_t is Uniform $[\max(0, \mu-t), \mu+K-t)$.

Remark. If the assumption of absolute continuity in Theorem 4 is replaced by $F(0)=0$ and F is nondegenerate, then the condition $m(t) \equiv q_\alpha(t)$ for some α is also satisfied by a subclass of the Geometric family of distributions. If F is Geometric with parameter $0 < p < 1$, that is, $\bar{F}(j)=(1-p)^j, j=0, 1, \dots$, then $m(t)=q_\alpha(t)=p^{-1}-t+[t], t \geq 0$, provided $p^{-1}=n$ is a positive integer and $1-(1-p)^{n-1} < \alpha \leq 1-(1-p)^n$. Except for scale and location modifications of these Geometric distributions, we conjecture that there are no other distributions satisfying $m(t) \equiv q_\alpha(t)$ for some α under the weakened hypothesis.

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