

NEW SPECIAL FUNCTIONS IN GAMS

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ABSTRACT. This document describes the new gamma and beta functions in GAMS.

1. INTRODUCTION

In response to requests by users we have added a number of special functions to GAMS. This document describes their use and their implementation.

function	(D)NLP	description	domain
gamma(x)	DNLP	gamma function $\Gamma(x)$	$x \neq 0, -1, -2, \dots$
loggamma(x)	NLP	$\ln \Gamma(x)$	$x > 0$
gammareg(x, a)	NLP	incomplete gamma function $\gamma(x, a)$	$x \geq 0, a > 0$ $x > 0$ for derivatives
beta(x, y)	DNLP	beta function $B(x, y)$	$x, y, x + y \neq 0, -1, -2, \dots$
logbeta(x, y)	NLP	$\ln B(x, y)$	$x, y > 0$
betareg(x, a, b)	NLP	incomplete beta function $I_x(a, b)$	$0 \leq x \leq 1, a, b > 0$ $0 < x < 1$ for derivatives
binomial(x, y)	NLP	generalized binomial coefficient $\binom{x}{y}$	$x, y \neq -1, -2, \dots$

TABLE 1. Special functions

GAMS	Mathematica	Matlab	Numerical Recipes
gamma(x)	Gamma[x]	gamma(a)	exp(gammln(x))
loggamma(x)	LogGamma[x]	gammln(x)	gammln(x)
gammareg(x, a)	GammaRegularized[a, 0, x]	gammainc(x, a)	gammp(a, x)
beta(x, y)	Beta[x, y]	beta(x, y)	beta(x, y)
logbeta(x, y)	Log[Beta[x, y]]	betaln(x, y)	log(beta(x, y))
betareg(x, a, b)	BetaRegularized[x, a, b]	betainc(x, a, b)	betai(a, b, x)
binomial(x, y)	Binomial[x, y]	nchoosek(n, k)	bico(n, k)

TABLE 2. Comparison of special functions

Table 1 summarizes the new special functions available in GAMS. We mention the equivalent routines in Mathematica, Matlab and Numerical Recipes, Chapter 6[34] in table 2. Note that we only consider real arguments and results, while the Mathematica functions are defined in terms of the Complex plane.

Date: April, 2004, updated July, 2004; Nov, 2004; March, 2005; October, 2006.

It is noted that we don't provide the inverse forms of these functions. If you need to find say x with

$$(1) \quad x = \Gamma^{-1} \left(\sum_i y_i \right)$$

then we can formulate the equation

$$(2) \quad \sum_i y_i = \Gamma(x)$$

or

```
x.lo = 0.001; x.up = 50;
gammadef.. sum(i, y(i)) =e= gamma(x);
```

which lets the NLP solver solve this equation for x .

2. OLD STUFF: THE ERROR FUNCTION

The error function is often defined by [2, 45, 42]:

$$(3) \quad \operatorname{erf}(x) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^x e^{-t^2} dt$$

The name “error function” is coined by [21] to indicate its connection with probability theory. Originally the notation $\operatorname{Erf}(\cdot)$ was used, which later became $\operatorname{erf}(\cdot)$ [29].

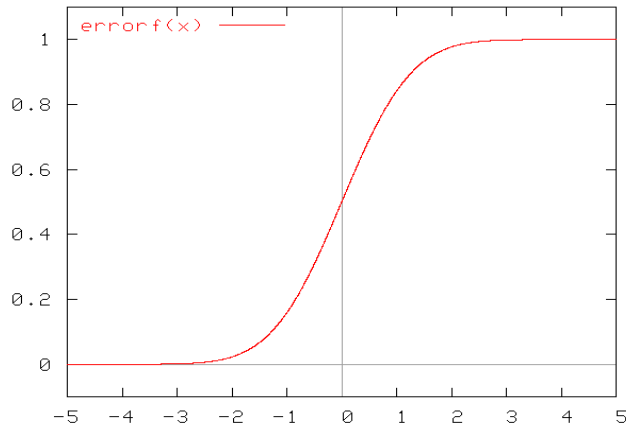


FIGURE 1. The $\operatorname{errorf}(x)$ function

The function $\operatorname{errorf}(\cdot)$ in GAMS implements a variant on this:

$$(4) \quad \begin{aligned} \operatorname{errorf}(x) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^x e^{-\frac{1}{2}t^2} dt \\ &= \frac{1 + \operatorname{erf}(x/\sqrt{2})}{2} \end{aligned}$$

which is the cumulative distribution function of the standard normal distribution $N(0, 1)$. See figure 1 for a graph of this function. Some relevant values are:

$$(5) \quad \begin{aligned} \operatorname{erf}(0) &= \frac{1}{2} \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \operatorname{erf}(x) &= 0 \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \operatorname{erf}(x) &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

It is known from statistics that if $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ then

$$(6) \quad \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} \sim N(0, 1)$$

I.e. we can use $\operatorname{erf}((X-\mu)/\sigma)$ to express a Normal distribution function with mean μ and variance σ^2 .

A related distribution is the lognormal distribution. A stochastic variable $X > 0$ has a lognormal distribution if $Y = \ln(X)$ is normally distributed. More precisely, when we introduce a location parameter μ and a scale parameter $\sigma > 0$ then the distribution function is

$$(7) \quad \operatorname{erf}\left(\frac{\ln(X) - \mu}{\sigma}\right)$$

3. THE GAMMA FUNCTION

The gamma function [2, 24, 46, 42, 47] is defined by Euler's integral

$$(8) \quad \Gamma(x) = \int_0^{\infty} t^{x-1} e^{-t} dt$$

The function is related to the factorial function as follows:

$$(9) \quad \Gamma(n) = (n-1)!$$

for integer arguments n .

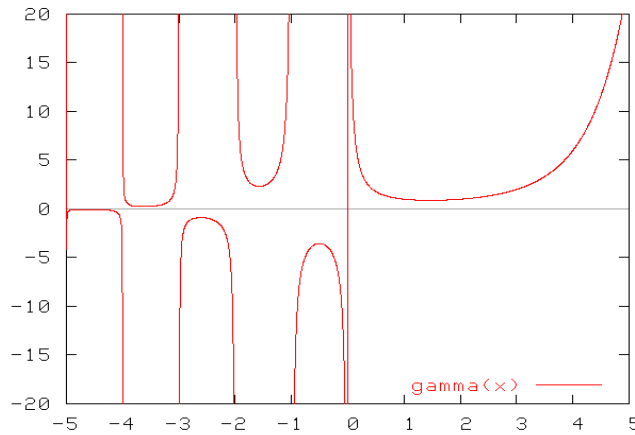


FIGURE 2. The $\gamma(x)$ function

The gamma function is available under GAMS as `gamma(.)`. It is based on an implementation of Cody[10] available from Netlib[9].

The gamma function becomes large very quickly: $\Gamma(15) > 10^{10}$, $\Gamma(72) > 10^{100}$ and $\Gamma(451) > 10^{1000}$. GAMS will trigger a domain error as soon as $x > 70$. The gamma function is not defined for the integer values $x = 0, -1, -2, \dots$. For these values also a domain error is triggered. Safe bounds for being able to call `gamma(x)` (and its derivatives) are `x.lo=1.0e-5` and `x.up=69.0`.

For larger arguments, we supply the `loggamma(x)` function, which requires an argument $x > 0$. It returns the (natural) logarithm of the gamma function $\ln \Gamma(x)$. Note that it is not advised to form the equation

```
x.lo = 0.001;
eq.. y =e= exp(loggamma(x));
```

but rather

```
x.lo = 0.001;
y.lo = 0.001;
eq.. ln(y) =e= loggamma(x);
```

which can be considered as applying a non-linear scaling on $y = \Gamma(x)$.

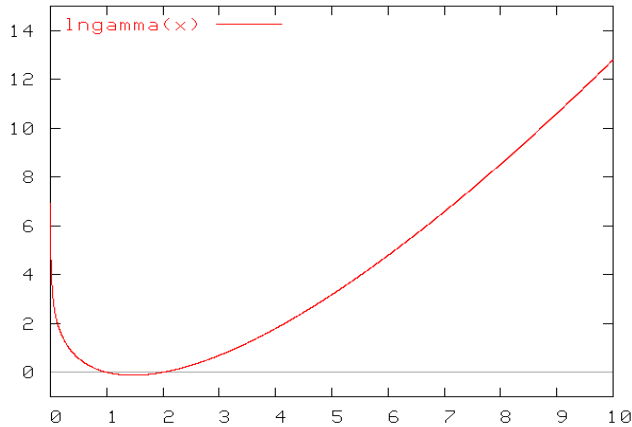


FIGURE 3. The `loggamma(x)` function

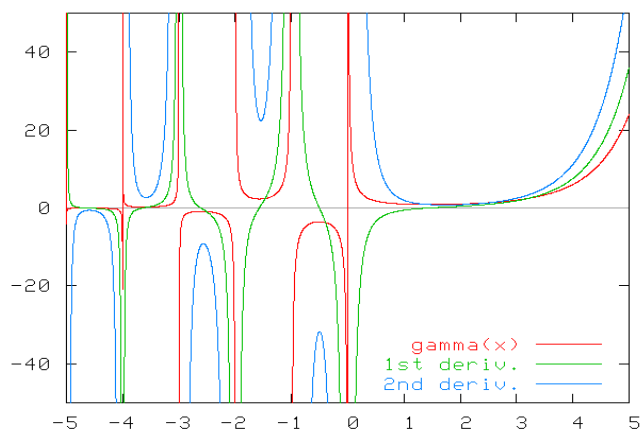
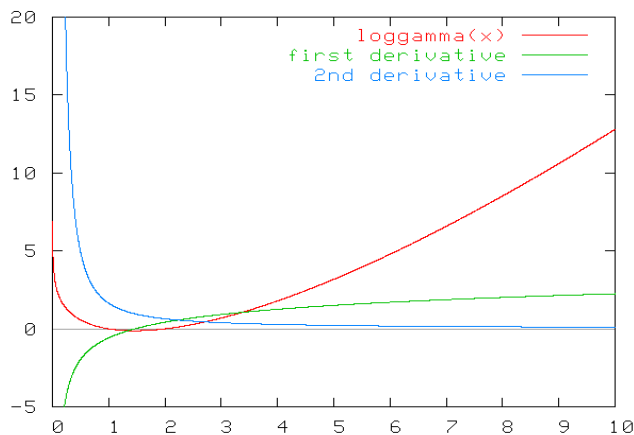
Both the `gamma(.)` and `loggamma(.)` can be used inside model equations. When called by an NLP solver both first and second derivatives can be provided.

The derivative of the gamma function is implemented by evaluating the expression

$$(10) \quad \frac{d\Gamma(x)}{dx} = \Gamma(x)\Psi(x)$$

where $\Psi(x)$ is the Psi-function (also known as the digamma function). $\Psi(x)$ is evaluated using function `psi` from [9]. The second derivative is evaluated as:

$$(11) \quad \frac{d^2\Gamma(x)}{dx^2} = \Gamma(x)\Psi_1(x)$$

FIGURE 4. The $\text{gamma}(x)$ function and its derivativesFIGURE 5. The $\text{loggamma}(x)$ function and its derivatives

where $\Psi_1(x)$ is the trigamma function. $\Psi_1(x)$ is implemented using [36, 20]. For negative values $x < 0$ we use the identity¹

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma(x)\Gamma(-x) &= \frac{\pi}{x \sin(\pi x)} \Rightarrow \\ (12) \quad \ln \Gamma(x) + \ln \Gamma(-x) &= \ln \pi - \ln x - \ln \sin(\pi x) \Rightarrow \\ \Psi_1(x) + \Psi_1(-x) &= \frac{1}{x^2} + \pi^2 \csc^2(\pi x) \end{aligned}$$

¹Thanks to Herman Rubin, Department of Statistics, Purdue University for pointing this out to me

The derivatives of the `loggamma(.)` function are calculated directly as:

$$(13) \quad \begin{aligned} \frac{d \ln \Gamma(x)}{dx} &= \Psi(x) \\ \frac{d^2 \ln \Gamma(x)}{dx^2} &= \Psi_1(x) \end{aligned}$$

The `gamma(x)` function is considered to be non-smooth and therefore has to be called using a DNLP solver instead of an NLP solver. The `loggamma(x)` function is smooth and can be called either by a DNLP or NLP solver.

4. THE INCOMPLETE GAMMA FUNCTION

The incomplete gamma function is a generalization of the gamma function [2, 42, 7]:

$$(14) \quad \gamma(x, a) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(a)} \int_0^x t^{a-1} e^{-t} dt$$

It is noted that the complement

$$(15) \quad \Gamma(x, a) = 1 - \gamma(x, a) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(a)} \int_x^\infty t^{a-1} e^{-t} dt$$

is also often referred to as the incomplete gamma function. Other definitions drop the constant $1/\Gamma(a)$. You will need to check carefully what definition is used.

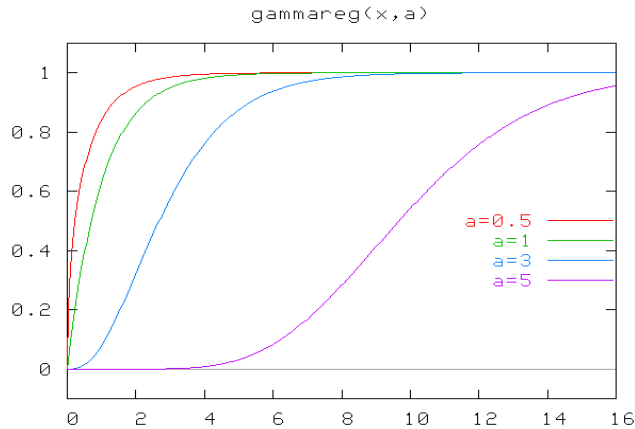


FIGURE 6. The incomplete gamma function

The implemented function for the incomplete gamma function `gammareg(x,a)` allows for a domain of $x > 0$ and $a > 0^2$. Both derivatives with respect to x and to a are implemented. This means that both x and a can be variables when the function is used inside a model equation.

The implementation of the incomplete gamma function is based on [37]. The first and second derivatives are based on an algorithm from [31].

²To be precise: the function can be evaluated for $x = 0$ but the gradients require $x > 0$.

5. DISTRIBUTIONS BASED ON THE GAMMA FUNCTION

5.1. **The Gamma distribution.** The Gamma distribution [19, 25] has a distribution function:

$$(16) \quad F(x) = \gamma(x/\theta, k), x > 0$$

with *shape parameter* k and *scale parameter* θ . We have $E(X) = k\theta$ and $Var(X) = k\theta^2$. The incomplete gamma function `gammapreg(.)` can be used directly to evaluate the cdf (cumulative distribution function) of the Gamma distribution. As a result the plots in figure 6 can be interpreted directly as graphs of the gamma cdf.

Special cases of the Gamma distribution include the Exponential distribution (by choosing $k = 1$), the Erlang distribution (if k is an integer) and the Chi-square distribution (see below).

As an aside, the Excel function `GAMMADIST` is not always reliable. For instance a formula like `=GAMMADIST(0.1,0.1,1,TRUE)` will return `#NUM!`. This is a known bug [12]. The accuracy of Excel's statistical functions has been discussed in several papers [27, 30, 11, 28].

Section 11.2 shows an example of maximum likelihood estimation of shape and location parameters of the Gamma distribution.

5.2. **The Chi-square distribution.** If $X_i \sim N(0, 1)$ and independent of each other, then

$$(17) \quad Y = \sum_{i=1}^{\nu} X_i^2 \sim \chi_{\nu}^2$$

has a Chi-square distribution with ν degrees of freedom.

The density function is:

$$(18) \quad f(x) = \frac{x^{\nu/2-1} e^{-x/2}}{\Gamma(\nu/2) 2^{\nu/2}}$$

The distribution function of the χ_{ν}^2 distribution is:

$$(19) \quad F(x) = \gamma(x/2, \nu/2), x > 0$$

The mean and variance are given by $E(X) = \nu$ and $Var(X) = 2\nu$.

6. THE BETA FUNCTION

The beta function is defined by [2, 44, 42]:

$$(20) \quad \begin{aligned} B(x, y) &= \int_0^1 t^{x-1} (1-t)^{y-1} dt \\ &= \frac{\Gamma(x)\Gamma(y)}{\Gamma(x+y)} \\ &= B(y, x) \end{aligned}$$

The expression $\Gamma(x)\Gamma(y)/\Gamma(x+y)$ can be used directly in your model. GAMS will calculate the first and second derivatives using the chain rule for an expression like this. For convenience we have also implemented the beta function directly, which is called `beta(x, y)`. This function requires a DNL model due to discontinuities when x or y are non-positive integers. For $x, y > 0$ the function is smooth.

In most cases you will use $x > 0$ and $y > 0$. For this case the function `logbeta(x,y)` may be more appropriate. This function implements

$$(21) \quad \ln B(x, y) = \ln \Gamma(x) + \ln \Gamma(y) - \ln \Gamma(x + y)$$

which does not use the quickly growing $\Gamma(\cdot)$ function directly. The actual algorithm used to calculate `logbeta(x,y)` is taken from [16]. The derivatives are based on the identity 21.

7. THE INCOMPLETE BETA FUNCTION

The Incomplete Beta function defined by[2, 42]:

$$(22) \quad I_x(a, b) = \frac{1}{B(a, b)} \int_0^x t^{a-1}(1-t)^{b-1} dt$$

is implemented as the `betareg(x,a,b)` function in GAMS.

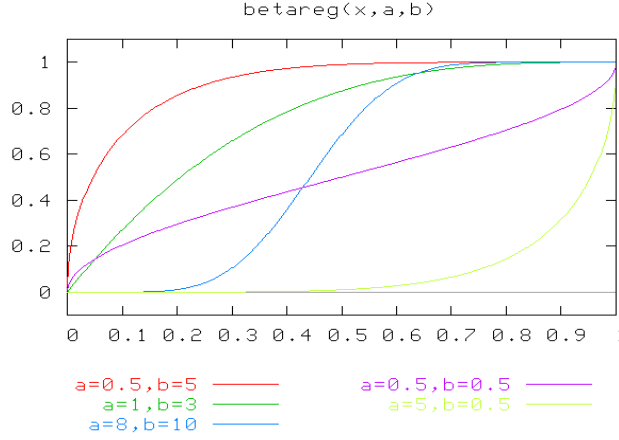


FIGURE 7. The incomplete beta function

We have:

$$(23) \quad \begin{aligned} I_0(a, b) &= 0 \\ I_1(a, b) &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

The function evaluator is based on [16, 4]. The derivatives $\partial I_x(a, b)/\partial a$, $\partial I_x(a, b)/\partial b$, $\partial^2 I_x(a, b)/\partial a^2$, $\partial^2 I_x(a, b)/\partial b^2$, $\partial^2 I_x(a, b)/\partial a \partial b$ are based on code from [3]. The other derivatives are evaluated as:

$$(24) \quad \begin{aligned} \frac{\partial I_x(a, b)}{\partial x} &= \frac{x^{a-1}(1-x)^{b-1}}{B(a, b)} \\ \frac{\partial^2 I_x(a, b)}{\partial x^2} &= \frac{(a-1)x^{a-2}(1-x)^{b-1} - (b-1)x^{a-1}(1-x)^{b-2}}{B(a, b)} \\ \frac{\partial^2 I_x(a, b)}{\partial x \partial a} &= x^{a-1}(1-x)^{b-1} \frac{\ln(x) - (\Psi(a) - \Psi(a+b))}{B(a, b)} \\ \frac{\partial^2 I_x(a, b)}{\partial x \partial b} &= x^{a-1}(1-x)^{b-1} \frac{\ln(1-x) - (\Psi(b) - \Psi(a+b))}{B(a, b)} \end{aligned}$$

These formulas have been verified with the Maxima CAS (Computer Algebra System) as follows:

```
[erwin@localhost erwin]$ maxima
GCL (GNU Common Lisp) Version(2.5.0) Thu Dec 5 08:07:35 EST 2002
Licensed under GNU Library General Public License
Contains Enhancements by W. Schelter
Maxima 5.9.0 http://maxima.sourceforge.net
Distributed under the GNU Public License. See the file COPYING.
Dedicated to the memory of William Schelter.
This is a development version of Maxima. The function bug_report()
provides bug reporting information.
(C1) incbeta(x,a,b):= (1/beta(a,b))*integrate(t**(a-1)*(1-t)**(b-1),t,0,x);

(D1) incbeta(x, a, b) := ----- INTEGRATE(t      a - 1      b - 1
      BETA(a, b)      (1 - t)      , t, 0, x)
(C2) diff(diff(incbeta(x,a,b),x),x);

Is x positive, negative, or zero?

positive;

      b - 1 a - 2      b - 2 a - 1
      (a - 1) (1 - x) x      (b - 1) (1 - x) x
(D2) -----
      BETA(a, b)      BETA(a, b)
(C3) diff(diff(incbeta(x,a,b),x),a);

Is x positive, negative, or zero?

positive;

      b - 1 a - 1      (PSI (b + a) - PSI (a)) (1 - x)      b - 1 a - 1
      (1 - x) x      LOG(x)      0      0      x
(D3) ----- + -----
      BETA(a, b)      BETA(a, b)
(C4) diff(diff(incbeta(x,a,b),x),b);

Is x positive, negative, or zero?

positive;

      LOG(1 - x) (1 - x)      b - 1 a - 1
      (1 - x) x      x
(D4) -----
      BETA(a, b)

      (PSI (b + a) - PSI (b)) (1 - x)      b - 1 a - 1
      0      0      x
      + -----
      BETA(a, b)

(C5) quit();

[erwin@localhost erwin]$
```

The derivatives can only be calculated for $x > 0$ and $x < 1$.

8. DISTRIBUTIONS BASED ON THE BETA FUNCTION

8.1. The beta distribution. The Beta distribution has the incomplete beta function as distribution function:

$$(25) \quad F(x) = I_x(p, q), \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1$$

where $p > 0$ and $q > 0$ are *shape parameters*. The mean and variance are given by

$$(26) \quad \begin{aligned} E(X) &= \frac{p}{p+q} \\ \text{Var}(X) &= \frac{pq}{(p+q)^2(p+q+1)} \end{aligned}$$

The beta distribution is often used in measuring income distributions and poverty [15, 14].

8.2. The generalized beta distribution. The generalized beta distribution is defined over the interval $[a, b]$. The distribution function $F(x, a, b)$ can be written in terms of the distribution function of the *standard* beta distribution $F(x)$ as follows:

$$(27) \quad F(x, a, b) = F\left(\frac{x-a}{b-a}\right)$$

The cdf of the standard beta distribution $F(x)$ can be calculated directly using the incomplete beta function (see the previous paragraph). I.e.

$$(28) \quad F(x, a, b) = I_{(x-a)/(b-a)}(p, q), \quad a \leq x \leq b$$

8.3. The F distribution. The F distribution is formed by the ratio of two chi-square distributions with degrees of freedom ν_1 and ν_2 . The cdf is:

$$(29) \quad \begin{aligned} F(x) &= I_y\left(\frac{\nu_1}{2}, \frac{\nu_2}{2}\right) \\ y &= \frac{\nu_1 x}{\nu_2 + \nu_1 x} \end{aligned}$$

or

$$(30) \quad \begin{aligned} F(x) &= 1 - I_z\left(\frac{\nu_1}{2}, \frac{\nu_2}{2}\right) \\ z &= \frac{\nu_2}{\nu_2 + \nu_1 x} \end{aligned}$$

The mean and variance are given by:

$$(31) \quad \begin{aligned} E(X) &= \frac{\nu_2}{\nu_2 - 1} \\ \text{Var}(X) &= \frac{\nu_2(\nu_1 - 1)}{\nu_1(\nu_2 + 1)} \end{aligned}$$

8.4. Student's t distribution. If X_1, \dots, X_n are independent normally distributed random variables $X_i \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, then the quantity

$$(32) \quad T = \frac{\bar{X}_n - \mu}{S_n/\sqrt{n}}$$

has a t distribution with $\nu = n - 1$ degrees of freedom, where

$$(33) \quad \bar{X}_n = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i}{n}$$

is the sample mean and

$$(34) \quad S_n^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X}_n)^2$$

is the sample variance.

The Student's t distribution has a cdf given by:

$$(35) \quad \int_{-\infty}^t f(u)du = \begin{cases} 1 - \frac{1}{2}I_x(\nu/2, 1/2) & \text{if } t > 0 \\ \frac{1}{2}I_x(\nu/2, 1/2) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where

$$(36) \quad x = \frac{\nu}{\nu + t^2}$$

For an example see section 11.8.

9. THE BINOMIAL FUNCTION

The binomial function for integer arguments calculates *binomial coefficients* and is defined by

$$(37) \quad \binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} \quad 0 \leq k \leq n$$

and gives the number of ways one can select k objects from a collection of n objects (the order in which objects are drawn is ignored). Often $\binom{n}{k}$ is pronounced as “*n choose k*”. This function can be generalized for real arguments using:

$$(38) \quad \binom{x}{y} = \frac{\Gamma(x+1)}{\Gamma(y+1)\Gamma(x-y+1)}$$

where $\Gamma(\cdot)$ is the *Gamma* function. This generalized binomial function is implemented in GAMS as the function `binomial(x,y)`.

10. THE BINOMIAL DISTRIBUTION

The binomial distribution describes the probability of k successes out of n Bernoulli trials, i.e.:

$$(39) \quad P(X = k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}.$$

The cdf of the binomial distribution is given by:

$$(40) \quad P(X \leq k) = \sum_{j=0}^k \binom{n}{j} p^j (1-p)^{n-j}$$

which can be evaluated conveniently using the *incomplete Beta* function:

$$(41) \quad P(X \leq k) = I_{1-p}(n-k, k+1).$$

For n large a binomial distribution can be approximated by a normal distribution $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ with $\mu = np$ and $\sigma^2 = np(1-p)$. Using a normal approximation and a continuity correction we have:

$$(42) \quad P(X \leq k) \approx \text{errorf}\left(\frac{k - np + 0.5}{\sqrt{np(1-p)}}\right).$$

See also section 11.5.

11. SOME EXAMPLES

11.1. Find minimum of gamma function. The minimum of the gamma function $\Gamma(x)$ for $x > 0$ is attained for $x^* = 1.46163\dots$ [40]. This can be verified using a simple NLP. We also check whether minimizing `loggamma(x)` gives the same result.

```

$ontext
  Find minimum of y=gamma(x) and y=loggamma(x) for x>0

  Reference:

  Sloane, N. J. A., The On-Line Encyclopedia of Integer Sequences;
  Sequence A030169, http://www.research.att.com/projects/OEIS?Anum=A030169

$offtext

variables y1,y2,x1,x2;
equations y1def,y2def;

x1.lo = 0.1;
x1.l = 1;
x1.up = 5;

x2.lo = 0.1;
x2.l = 1;
x2.up = 5;

y1def.. y1 =e= gamma(x1);
y2def.. y2 =e= loggamma(x2);

model m1 /y1def/;
model m2 /y2def/;

solve m1 minimizing y1 using dnlp;
solve m2 minimizing y2 using nlp;

option decimals=8;
display x1.l,x2.l,y1.l,y2.l;

abort$(abs(x1.l-x2.l)>0.00001 or abs(log(y1.l)-y2.l)>0.00001) "inconsistent results";

```

The results are:

```

---- 29 VARIABLE x1.L          = 1.46163119
      VARIABLE x2.L          = 1.46163174
      VARIABLE y1.L          = 0.88560319
      VARIABLE y2.L          = -0.12148629

```

11.2. Maximum likelihood estimation of the Gamma distribution. Consider data collected on times between failures of air conditioning units in different aircraft[13]. We assume the times between failures are independent random variables with a Gamma distribution. Given a mean time between failures μ and a shape parameter β , the density function of the gamma distribution is[43]:

$$(43) \quad f(x) = \frac{(\beta/\mu)(\beta x/\mu)^{\beta-1} e^{-\beta x/\mu}}{\Gamma(\beta)}$$

The log likelihood function can now be written as:

$$(44) \quad L(\mu, \beta) = n [\ln \beta - \ln \mu - \ln \Gamma(\beta)] + \sum_{i=1}^n (\beta - 1) \ln \left(\frac{\beta x_i}{\mu} \right) - \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\beta x_i}{\mu}$$

We can maximize this function using the `loggamma(.)` function.

The method of moments estimator of β is

$$(45) \quad \hat{\beta} = \left(\frac{\hat{\mu}}{\hat{\sigma}} \right)^2$$

which can be used as an (excellent) initial point for the optimization problem.

```

$ontext
Maximum Likelihood estimation of parameters of the gamma distribution

Erwin Kalvelagen, april 2004.

Data from:
COX, D. R. AND SNELL, E. J., (1981)
Applied Statistics: Principles and Examples,
London: Chapman and Hall.
Example from:
Luke Tierney, July 1989
XLISP-STAT, A Statistical Environment Based on the XLISP Language (Version 2.0)
Technical Report Number 528, University of Minnesota, School of Statistics

$offtext

set i 'observations' /i1*i29/

parameter x(i) 'times (in operating hours) between failures of airco units on several aircraft'
/
  i1 90, i2 10, i3 60, i4 186, i5 61
  i6 49, i7 14, i8 24, i9 56, i10 20
  i11 79, i12 84, i13 44, i14 59, i15 29
  i16 118, i17 25, i18 156, i19 310, i20 76
  i21 26, i22 44, i23 23, i24 62, i25 130
  i26 208, i27 70, i28 101, i29 208
/;

scalar n;
n = card(i);

scalar average;
average = sum(i, x(i))/n;

scalar stdev 'standard deviation';
stdev = sqrt(sum(i, sqr(x(i)-average))/(n-1));

display average,stdev;

variables beta,mu,like;
equations loglike;

loglike.. like =e= n*[log(beta)-log(mu)-loggamma(beta)] +
              sum(i, (beta-1)*log(beta*x(i)/mu)) -
              sum(i, beta*x(i)/mu);

*
* lowerbounds so log() and lngamma() are safe
*
beta.lo = 0.0001;
mu.lo = 0.0001;

*
* initial values using moments estimates
*
mu.l = average;

```

```
beta.l = sqr(average/stdev);

model m /loglike/;
solve m using nlp maximizing like;
```

The resulting estimates for the parameters μ and β are:

	LOWER	LEVEL	UPPER	MARGINAL
---- VAR beta	0.0001	1.6710	+INF	1.004352E-11
---- VAR mu	0.0001	83.5172	+INF	1.944001E-13
---- VAR like	-INF	-155.3468	+INF	.

11.3. Maximum likelihood estimation of the Beta distribution. The log likelihood function of the beta distribution with parameters α and β is:

(46)

$$\ln L = n [\ln \Gamma(\alpha + \beta) - \ln \Gamma(\alpha) - \ln \Gamma(\beta)] + \sum_{i=1}^n (\alpha - 1) \ln(x_i) + \sum_{i=1}^n (\beta - 1) \ln(1 - x_i)$$

This function can be implemented straightforwardly using the `loggamma` function.

The first two moments of the beta distribution, lead to two equations in two variables defining the method of moments estimator of α and β :

$$E(X) = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta}$$

$$Var(X) = \frac{\alpha\beta}{(\alpha + \beta)^2(\alpha + \beta + 1)}$$

or

$$\hat{\alpha} = \left[\frac{\hat{\mu}(1 - \hat{\mu})}{\hat{\sigma}^2} - 1 \right] \hat{\mu}$$

$$\hat{\beta} = \left[\frac{\hat{\mu}(1 - \hat{\mu})}{\hat{\sigma}^2} - 1 \right] (1 - \hat{\mu})$$

```
$ontext
Fitting of beta distribution through maximum likelihood
Erwin Kalvelagen, april 2004

Reference:
Johnson, Kotz, and Balakrishnan, (1994),
Continuous Univariate Distributions, Volumes I and II,
2nd. Ed., John Wiley and Sons.

$offtext

set i 'cases' /i1*i75/;
parameter x(i) /

i1 4.973016e-01, i2 3.558841e-01, i3 2.419578e-02, i4 1.913753e-01, i5 4.919495e-01
i6 9.790016e-01, i7 3.856570e-01, i8 1.568263e-01, i9 8.040481e-01, i10 8.108720e-01
i11 6.016693e-01, i12 3.691279e-02, i13 9.454942e-01, i14 1.853702e-01, i15 3.496894e-01
i16 4.249933e-01, i17 9.900851e-01, i18 6.308701e-01, i19 4.474022e-02, i20 4.408432e-03
i21 3.718974e-03, i22 1.066217e-01, i23 5.304127e-01, i24 6.781648e-01, i25 6.206926e-02
i26 4.048511e-01, i27 4.941163e-01, i28 1.644695e-01, i29 2.285463e-02, i30 5.654344e-05
i31 2.657641e-01, i32 7.316988e-01, i33 6.789551e-01, i34 3.624824e-01, i35 7.429815e-03
i36 1.503384e-01, i37 7.314336e-01, i38 4.586442e-02, i39 4.060616e-02, i40 3.395101e-01
i41 9.269645e-01, i42 2.192909e-03, i43 2.511850e-02, i44 4.152490e-01, i45 1.612197e-01
i46 1.512879e-02, i47 1.381864e-01, i48 5.730967e-03, i49 1.185086e-01, i50 7.411310e-01
```

```

i51 1.564168e-02, i52 2.206906e-01, i53 9.836009e-01, i54 4.632388e-01, i55 9.968135e-01
i56 8.792355e-04, i57 9.692757e-01, i58 9.823214e-01, i59 1.248862e-01, i60 1.598848e-01
i61 9.561613e-02, i62 2.513807e-01, i63 4.435097e-01, i64 8.852468e-01, i65 1.149253e-02
i66 6.575999e-01, i67 8.236305e-01, i68 7.388426e-01, i69 6.382491e-01, i70 3.426699e-01
i71 1.244351e-01, i72 2.753017e-05, i73 1.625740e-01, i74 2.953334e-02, i75 8.739085e-02

/;

scalar n;
n = card(i);

scalar average;
average = sum(i, x(i))/n;

scalar stdev 'standard deviation';
stdev = sqrt(sum(i, sqr(x(i)-average))/(n-1));

variables alpha,beta,like;
equations loglike;

loglike.. like =e= n*[loggamma(alpha+beta)-loggamma(alpha)-loggamma(beta)] +
               sum(i, (alpha-1)*log(x(i))) +
               sum(i, (beta-1)*log(1-x(i)));

*
* lowerbounds so log() is safe
*
alpha.lo = 0.0001;
beta.lo = 0.0001;

*
* initial values using matching moments estimates
*
scalar tmp;
tmp = average*(1-average)/sqr(stdev) - 1;
alpha.l = tmp*average;
beta.l = tmp*(1-average);

display alpha.l,beta.l;

model m /loglike/;
solve m using nlp maximizing like;

display alpha.l,beta.l;

```

11.4. Plotting the incomplete gamma function. This model was used to create figure 6 which reproduces figure 6.2.1 in [34] using calls to `gammareg(x,a)`. We use GNUPLLOT [1] to produce the graph.

```

$ontext

Create a plot of the incomplete gamma function, for parameters
a = 0.5, 1, 3, and 10. This should reproduce figure 6.2.1 in
the reference.

Erwin Kalvelagen, april 2004

References:
William H. Press and Brian P. Flannery and Saul A. Teukolsky and
William T. Vetterling, "Numerical Recipes in Fortran",
Cambridge University Press, 2nd edition, 1992.

$offtext

set k /k1*k500/;
set a /a1*a4/;
parameter aval(a) /a1 0.5, a2 1, a3 3, a4 10/;
scalar xlo /0.0001/;

```

```

scalar xup /16/;
scalar n;    n = card(k);
scalar step; step = (xup-xlo)/n;
parameter xpoint(k);    xpoint(k) = xlo + step*(ord(k)-1);
parameter ypoint(k,a);    ypoint(k,a) = gammareg(xpoint(k),aval(a));
display xpoint,ypoint;

file datafile /incgamma.dat/;
put datafile;
loop(k,
  put xpoint(k):17:9;
  loop(a,
    put ' ',ypoint(k,a):17:9
  );
  put /;
);
putclose;

file pltfile /incgamma.plt/;
put pltfile;
putclose
'set yrange [-0.1:1.1]'/
'set data style lines'/
'set zeroaxis'/
'set key 14,0.5'/
'set title "gammareg(x,a)"/
'set term png medium color'/
'set output "incgamma.png"'/
'plot "incgamma.dat" using 1:2 title "a=0.5",'
  "incgamma.dat" using 1:3 title "a=1",'
  "incgamma.dat" using 1:4 title "a=3",'
  "incgamma.dat" using 1:5 title "a=5"

;

*
* linux, use Gnome image viewer to inspect the result
*
$if %system.platform% == WIN $goto windows
execute 'gnuplot incgamma.plt';
execute '=eog incgamma.png'
$exit

*
* windows, use registered viewer
*
$label windows
execute '=e:\applications\gnuplot\bin\wgnuplot.exe incgamma.plt';
execute '=ShellExecute incgamma.png'

```

11.5. Evaluation of the binomial distribution. This GAMS fragment will evaluate the cumulative distribution function of the binomial distribution in different ways:

- direct evaluation of the sum $P(X \leq k) = \sum_{j=0}^k \binom{n}{j} p^j (1-p)^{n-j}$
- using the incomplete beta function $P(X \leq k) = I_{1-p}(n-k, k+1)$
- using a normal approximation $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ with $\mu = np$ and $\sigma^2 = np(1-p)$, with additionally a continuity correction

```

$ontext
evaluation of binomial distribution function
three alternatives:
1. direct summation using binomial function
2. equivalent: use regularized incomplete beta function

```



```

3. normal approximation (with continuity correction)

Erwin Kalvelagen, oct. 2006

$offtext

scalar n 'number of trials' /100/;
scalar p 'success probability' /0.3/;

set k 'number of successes' /k1*k5/;
parameter kval(k) /k1 20, k2 30, k3 40, k4 50, k5 60/;

set j /j0*j100/;
parameter jval(j) 'holds 0,1,2,..';
jval(j) = ord(j)-1;

parameter pr(k,*);
option pr:6:1:1;
pr(k,'k') = kval(k);
pr(k,'sum') = sum(j$(jval(j)<=kval(k)),
    binomial(n,jval(j))*power[p,jval(j)]*power[1-p,n-jval(j)]);
pr(k,'beta') = betareg(1-p,n-kval(k),kval(k)+1);
pr(k,'norm.app.') = errorf([kval(k)-n*p+0.5]/sqrt[n*p*(1-p)]);
display n,p,pr;

```

The result is:

```

----      31 PARAMETER n                =      100.000  number of trials
           PARAMETER p                =           0.300  success probability

----      31 PARAMETER pr

           k          sum          beta  norm.app.
k1  20.000000    0.016463    0.016463    0.019083
k2  30.000000    0.549124    0.549124    0.543442
k3  40.000000    0.987502    0.987502    0.989027
k4  50.000000    0.999991    0.999991    0.999996
k5  60.000000    1.000000    1.000000    1.000000

```

11.6. Economic selection of process mean. A fairly complicated cost function is to be minimized here. In this problem [8, 33] from industrial engineering we seek a optimum process mean. The distribution of the product quality is often assumed to be normal, but there are arguments for choosing a beta distribution instead. In [33] a quadratic loss function is used, while in the model below we follow [8] with a linear loss function:

$$(49) \quad L(x) = \begin{cases} k_1(T - x) & x \leq T \\ k_2(x - T) & x > T \end{cases}$$

where T is the ideal target value from the customer's point of view. The cost function will now be:

$$(50) \quad TC = \int_{a+\delta}^T k_1(T-x)f(x)dx + \int_T^{b+\delta} k_2(x-T)f(x)dx$$

where a and b are the minimum and maximum of the quality characteristic. The variable δ and the process mean μ are related as:

$$(51) \quad \mu = \delta + a + (b-a) \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta}$$

Some tedious transformations lead to

$$\begin{aligned}
 (52) \quad TC = & k_1 T I_y(\alpha, \beta) \\
 & - k_1 \{(\delta + a) I_y(\alpha, \beta) + (b - a) I_y(\alpha + 1, \beta) \Upsilon\} \\
 & + k_2 \{(\delta + a) [1 - I_y(\alpha, \beta)] + (b - a) [1 - I_y(\alpha + 1, \beta) \Upsilon]\} \\
 & - k_2 T [1 - I_y(\alpha, \beta)]
 \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}
 (53) \quad y = & \frac{T - \delta - a}{b - a} \\
 \Upsilon = & \frac{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} \cdot \frac{\Gamma(\alpha + 1)\Gamma(\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta + 1)}
 \end{aligned}$$

It is noted that we can use a parameter called **beta**. This parameter will hide the function **beta(.)**.

```

$ontext

Find the optimal process mean when the quality characteristic
follows a Beta distribution and using a linear quality loss.

Erwin Kalvelagen, april 2004

References:
Chung-Ho Chen, Chao-Yu Chou,
"Determining the Optimum Process Mean under a Beta Distribution",
Journal of the Chinese Institute of Industrial Engineers,
Vol. 18, No.3, pp. 27-32, 2003

M.D. Phillips and B.-R. Cho,
"A Nonlinear model for determining the most economic process mean
under a beta distribution", International Journal of Reliability,
quality and Safety Engineering, vol.7, pp. 61-74, 2000

$offtext

scalars
a 'minimum value of quality characteristic' /113/
b 'maximum value of quality characteristic' /119/
alpha 'shape parameter' /2/
beta 'shape parameter' /4/
T 'target value' /115/
k1 'quality loss coefficient when x<T' /2/
k2 'quality loss coefficient when x>T' /3/
;

scalars g1,g2,g3;

g1 = gamma(alpha+beta)/(gamma(alpha)*gamma(beta));
g2 = gamma(alpha+1)*gamma(beta)/gamma(alpha+beta+1);
g3 = g1*g2;

variables
TC 'Total expected cost per unit'
delta 'location parameter'
y 'transformation'
;

equations
tcdef 'cost model'
ydef
;

tcdef.. tc =e= k1*T*betareg(y,alpha,beta)
- k1*{(delta+a)*betareg(y,alpha,beta)

```

```

      +(b-a)*betareg(y,alpha+1,beta)*g3}
+ k2*{(delta+a)*[1-betareg(y,alpha,beta)]
      +(b-a)*[1-betareg(y,alpha+1,beta)*g3]}
- k2*T*[1-betareg(y,alpha,beta)];

ydef..  y =e= (T-delta-a)/(b-a);

y.lo = 0.0001;
y.up = 0.9999;

y.l = 0.5;

model m /all/;
solve m using nlp minimizing tc;

```

The optimal solution is:

	LOWER	LEVEL	UPPER	MARGINAL
---- VAR TC	-INF	14.1661	+INF	.
---- VAR delta	-INF	-0.1899	+INF	.
---- VAR y	0.0001	0.3650	0.9999	-3.33415E-10

which is actually slightly better than reported in [8].

11.7. Quantum mechanics. In this application of quantum mechanics we try to find the ground state or minimum energy state by minimizing the expectation of the hamiltonian[32]:

$$\begin{aligned}
 (54) \quad I^{(0)}(\alpha, n) &\equiv \langle \psi^{(0)}(n, \alpha) | H | \psi^{(0)}(n, \alpha) \rangle \\
 &= \frac{n^2}{2} \frac{\Gamma(2 - \frac{1}{2n})}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2n})} \alpha^{1/n} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\Gamma(\frac{3}{2n})}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2n})} \alpha^{-1/n} + g \frac{\Gamma(\frac{5}{2n})}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2n})} \alpha^{-2/n}
 \end{aligned}$$

where g is a constant. When $n = 1$ we have the standard Gaussian trial function. The model below calculates both the optimal values of α and n for the Gaussian and post-Gaussian case.

```

$ontext

An application from quantum mechanics:
Find energy eigenvalues of the anharmonic oscillator with g=1
in the Gaussian and Post-Gaussian variational methods.

Erwin Kalvelagen, May 2004

Reference:
Akihiro Ogura, "Post-Gaussian variational method for quantum
anharmonic oscillator", Laboratory of Physics, College of Science
and Technology, Nihon University, 1999.
arXiv:physics/9905056 v1 28 May 1999

$offtext

variables
  ham 'expected value of hamiltonian'
  alpha 'variational parameter'
  n 'variational parameter (n=1: Gaussian trial function)'
;

equation
  hamiltonian
;

scalar g /1/;

hamiltonian..

  ham =e= (sqr(n)/2)*(gamma(2-1/(2*n))/gamma(1/(2*n)))*(alpha**(1/n))

```

```

+(1/2)*(gamma(3/(2*n))/gamma(1/(2*n)))*(alpha**(-1/n))
+g*(gamma(5/(2*n))/gamma(1/(2*n)))*(alpha**(-2/n));

alpha.lo = 0.0001; alpha.up = 10; alpha.l=1;

*
* gaussian variational method
*

n.fx = 1;

model m /hamiltonian/;
solve m minimizing ham using dnlp;

parameter results(*,*);
results('Gaussian','Ground') = ham.l;
results('Gaussian','alpha') = alpha.l;
results('Gaussian','n') = n.l;

*
* post-gaussian variational method
*

n.lo = 0.001; n.up = 10;
solve m minimizing ham using dnlp;

results('Post-Gaussian','Ground') = ham.l;
results('Post-Gaussian','alpha') = alpha.l;
results('Post-Gaussian','n') = n.l;

option decimals = 6;
display results;

```

The result is:

```

----      62 PARAMETER results

```

	Ground	alpha	n
Gaussian	0.812500	2.000000	1.000000
Post-Gaussian	0.804903	1.866470	1.134934

11.8. **Linear Regression.** Linear regression estimators for the statistical model

$$(55) \quad y = X\beta + \epsilon$$

are given by:

$$(56) \quad \hat{\beta} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T y$$

Statistical packages often provide additional information on these estimates, such as standard errors and t -values. Such statistics can be calculated from:

$$(57) \quad \hat{\sigma} = \sqrt{\frac{\text{SSR}}{n-p}} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{\epsilon}_i^2}{n-p}}$$

where n is the number of observations and p is the number of parameters to estimate (i.e. the number of elements in β). Furthermore the standard errors are given by:

$$(58) \quad \text{Var} = \hat{\sigma}^2 \text{diag}(X^T X)^{-1} \\ \text{SE}_i = \sqrt{\text{Var}_i}$$

and the t values by:

$$(59) \quad t_i = \frac{\hat{\beta}_i}{SE_i}$$

food	income	food	income
9.46	25.83	17.77	71.98
10.56	34.31	22.44	72.00
14.81	42.50	22.87	72.23
21.71	46.75	26.52	72.23
22.79	48.29	21.00	73.44
18.19	48.77	37.52	74.25
22.00	49.65	21.69	74.77
18.12	51.94	27.40	76.33
23.13	54.33	30.69	81.02
19.00	54.87	19.56	81.85
19.46	56.46	30.58	82.56
17.83	58.83	41.12	83.33
32.81	59.13	15.38	83.40
22.13	60.73	17.87	91.81
23.46	61.12	25.54	91.81
16.81	63.10	39.00	92.96
21.35	65.96	20.44	95.17
14.87	66.40	30.10	101.40
33.00	70.42	20.90	114.13
25.19	70.48	48.71	115.46

TABLE 3. A household food expenditure data set

The following example is using a dataset from [23] which is reproduced in table 3. When we run a linear regression through the statistical system R [35] we get:

```
[erwin@fedora specfun]$ R
R : Copyright 2004, The R Foundation for Statistical Computing
Version 1.9.1 (2004-06-21), ISBN 3-900051-00-3

R is free software and comes with ABSOLUTELY NO WARRANTY.
You are welcome to redistribute it under certain conditions.
Type 'license()' or 'licence()' for distribution details.

R is a collaborative project with many contributors.
Type 'contributors()' for more information and
'citation()' on how to cite R in publications.

Type 'demo()' for some demos, 'help()' for on-line help, or
'help.start()' for a HTML browser interface to help.
Type 'q()' to quit R.

> expenditure <- c(9.46, 10.56, 14.81, 21.71, 22.79, 18.19, 22.00, 18.12, 23.13,
+ 19.00, 19.46, 17.83, 32.81, 22.13, 23.46, 16.81, 21.35, 14.87, 33.00,
+ 25.19, 17.77, 22.44, 22.87, 26.52, 21.00, 37.52, 21.69, 27.40, 30.69,
+ 19.56, 30.58, 41.12, 15.38, 17.87, 25.54, 39.00, 20.44, 30.10, 20.90,
+ 48.71)
> income <- c(25.83, 34.31, 42.50, 46.75, 48.29, 48.77, 49.65, 51.94, 54.33,
+ 54.87, 56.46, 58.83, 59.13, 60.73, 61.12, 63.10, 65.96, 66.40, 70.42,
+ 70.48, 71.98, 72.00, 72.23, 72.23, 73.44, 74.25, 74.77, 76.33, 81.02,
+ 81.85, 82.56, 83.33, 83.40, 91.81, 91.81, 92.96, 95.17, 101.40, 114.13,
```

```

+          115.46)
> fm <- lm(expenditure ~ income)
> summary(fm)

Call:
lm(formula = expenditure ~ income)

Residuals:
    Min       1Q   Median       3Q      Max
-12.990  -3.561  -1.082   3.214  14.511

Coefficients:
              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)  7.38322    4.00836   1.842 0.073296 .
income       0.23225    0.05529   4.200 0.000155 ***
---
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 6.845 on 38 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-Squared: 0.3171,    Adjusted R-squared: 0.2991
F-statistic: 17.64 on 1 and 38 DF,  p-value: 0.0001551

> quit()
Save workspace image? [y/n/c]: n
[erwin@fedora specfun]$

```

The column $\text{Pr}(>|t|)$ gives the probability of getting a t value larger than the one obtained if the value of the regression coefficient would be zero. This is also known as the p -value. If this value is below 0.05 then the null hypothesis “the coefficient is zero” is rejected at the 5% level. The two-tailed test is defined by

$$(60) \quad p = 2P(t_i > |t_{\text{stat}}|)$$

where $|t_{\text{stat}}|$ is the absolute value of the calculated test statistic. The cdf of the t distribution is used to calculate this quantity. This distribution is also called Student’s t distribution, after the pseudonym used by William Sealey Gosset[22]. The cdf is given by:

$$(61) \quad P(X \leq t) = 1 - \frac{1}{2}I_x(\nu/2, 1/2) \text{ for } 0 \leq t < \infty$$

where ν is the number of degrees of freedom and

$$(62) \quad x = \frac{\nu}{\nu + t^2}$$

and $I_x(a, b)$ is the incomplete beta function.

The following GAMS model will print similar results as the R run:

```

---- 145 PARAMETER results

              Estimate Std. Error    t value    Pr(>|t|)
constant      7.383      4.008      1.842      0.073
income        0.232      0.055      4.200 1.551364E-4

```

It is noted that when we form $(X^T X)$ and calculate $(X^T X)^{-1}$ using a small LP numerical problems can occur. More stable methods will not form $(X^T X)$ explicitly.

```

$ontext

  Linear Regression Statistics

  Erwin Kalvelagen, 2004

$offtext

set i 'observations' /i1*i40/;

```

```
set j 'explanatory variables' /constant,income/;
```

```
* cross-section data: weekly household expenditure on food and
* weekly household income from Griffiths, Hill and Judge,
* 1993, Table 5.2, p. 182.
```

```
table data(i, *)
      expenditure income
i1      9.46      25.83
i2     10.56     34.31
i3     14.81     42.50
i4     21.71     46.75
i5     22.79     48.29
i6     18.19     48.77
i7     22.00     49.65
i8     18.12     51.94
i9     23.13     54.33
i10    19.00     54.87
i11    19.46     56.46
i12    17.83     58.83
i13    32.81     59.13
i14    22.13     60.73
i15    23.46     61.12
i16    16.81     63.10
i17    21.35     65.96
i18    14.87     66.40
i19    33.00     70.42
i20    25.19     70.48
i21    17.77     71.98
i22    22.44     72.00
i23    22.87     72.23
i24    26.52     72.23
i25    21.00     73.44
i26    37.52     74.25
i27    21.69     74.77
i28    27.40     76.33
i29    30.69     81.02
i30    19.56     81.85
i31    30.58     82.56
i32    41.12     83.33
i33    15.38     83.40
i34    17.87     91.81
i35    25.54     91.81
i36    39.00     92.96
i37    20.44     95.17
i38    30.10    101.40
i39    20.90    114.13
i40    48.71    115.46
;
```

```
alias (j,jj,k);
```

```
*
* form X and y
*
parameter x(i,j), y(i);
x(i,'constant') = 1;
x(i,'income') = data(i,'income');
y(i) = data(i,'expenditure');

*
* form X'X and X'y
*
parameter xx(j,jj), xy(j);
xx(j,jj) = sum(i, x(i,j)*x(i,jj));
xy(j) = sum(i, x(i,j)*y(i));

*
* calculate inv(X'X)
*
variable
```

```

dummy          'dummy objective variable'
invxx(j,jj)    'inverse of xx'
;
equation
  edummy          'dummy objective function'
  invert(j,jj)    'calculate inverse matrix'
;
parameter identity(j,jj);
identity(j,j) = 1;

edummy..        dummy =e= 0;
invert(j,jj)..  sum(k, xx(j,k)*invxx(k,jj)) =e= identity(j,jj);

model inv /edummy,invert/;
solve inv using lp minimizing dummy;

*
* calculate estimates b = inv(X'X) X'y
*
parameter b(j);
b(j) = sum(k, invxx.l(j,k)*xy(k));

*
* calculate residuals
*
parameter res(i);
res(i) = sum(j, x(i,j)*b(j)) - y(i);
scalar rss 'residual sum of squares';
rss = sum(i, sqr(res(i)));

*
* calculate standard errors
*
scalar df;
df = card(i)-card(j);
scalar sigma;
sigma = sqrt(rss/df);
parameter se(j);
se(j) = sigma*sqr(invxx.l(j,j));

*
* calculate t values
*
parameter tval(j);
tval(j) = b(j)/se(j);

*
* calculate p values
*
parameter pt(j);
pt(j) = 0.5*betareg(df/(df+sqr(tval(j))),df/2,0.5);
parameter pval(j);
pval(j) = 2*pt(j);

*
* prepare results table
*
parameter results(j,*);
results(j,'Estimate') = b(j);
results(j,'Std. Error') = se(j);
results(j,'t value') = tval(j);
results(j,'Pr(>|t|)') = pval(j);
display results;

```

11.9. **Stirling's formula.** The gamma function can be approximated by

$$(63) \quad \Gamma(z) \sim e^{-z} z^{z-1/2} \sqrt{2\pi} \left(1 + \frac{1}{12z} + \frac{1}{288z^2} - \frac{139}{51840z^3} - \frac{571}{2488320z^4} + \dots \right)$$

This series is known as Stirling's formula[2]. For a large number of coefficients see [41]. This can be used inside a GAMS model, e.g.:

```

calc_beta.. beta =e=
  [exp(-a)*(a**(a-0.5))*sqrt(2*pi)*(1+1/(12*a)+1/(288*sqr(a))-139/(51840*power(a,3))
    -571/(2488320*power(a,4))+163879/(209018880*power(a,5)))]
  * [exp(-b)*(b**(b-0.5))*sqrt(2*pi)*(1+1/(12*b)+1/(288*sqr(b))-139/(51840*power(b,3))
    -571/(2488320*power(b,4))+163879/(209018880*power(b,5)))]
  / [exp(-a-b)*((a+b)**(a+b-0.5))*sqrt(2*pi)*(1+1/(12*(a+b))+1/(288*sqr(a+b))
    -139/(51840*power(a+b,3))-571/(2488320*power(a+b,4))
    +163879/(209018880*power(a+b,5)))]];

```

11.10. Generating random chi-square numbers. In some cases the nonlinear solver capabilities of GAMS can be used to write quick-and-dirty random number generators. Consider the chi-square distribution. The cumulative distribution function of the chi-square distribution with ν degrees of freedom is given by

$$(64) \quad F(x) = \gamma\left(\frac{x}{2}, \frac{\nu}{2}\right)$$

where $\gamma(\cdot)$ is the incomplete gamma function. The algorithm

- (1) Generate a uniform variate $U \sim U(0, 1)$
- (2) Solve $F(x) = U$ for x

is readily implemented in GAMS:

```

$ontext
  Random number generation from Chi-Square distribution.
  Erwin Kalvelagen, march 2005
  Algorithm:
  1. generate u from U(0,1)
  2. solve F(x) = u where F(x) is the
     cdf of the chi-square distribution.
  Note: cdf of chi-square distribution with v degrees of freedom is:
     F(x) = gammareg(x/2,v/2)
$offtext

scalar nu 'degrees of freedom' /5/;

set i /i1*i10/;
parameter chisquare(i) 'chi square variates';

parameter u(i);
u(i) = uniform(0,1);

variable x(i);
equation f(i);

f(i).. gammareg(x(i)/2,nu/2) =e= u(i);

model m /f/;
x.lo(i) = 0;
x.l(i) = 1;
x.up(i) = 100;
solve m using cns;

chisquare(i) = x.l(i);

display u,chisquare;

```

11.11. **Generating random numbers from the beta distribution.** The approach of the previous section can be applied to the beta distribution, with density function

$$(65) \quad f(x) = \frac{x^{\alpha-1}(1-x)^{\beta-1}}{B(\alpha, \beta)}$$

where $B(\alpha, \beta)$ is the beta function:

$$(66) \quad B(\alpha, \beta) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta)}$$

The distribution function is equal to the (regularized) incomplete beta function:

$$(67) \quad F(x) = I_x(\alpha, \beta)$$

The resulting generator can look like:

```

$ontext
    Random number generation from the beta distribution.
    Erwin Kalvelagen, april 2005

    Algorithm:
    1. generate u from U(0,1)
    2. solve F(x) = u where F(x) is the
       cdf of the beta distribution.

    Note: the cdf of the beta distribution with parameters a,b is:

           F(x) = betareg(x,a,b)

$offtext

scalar a /1/;
scalar b /3/;

set i /i1*i10/;
parameter beta(i) 'beta variates';

parameter u(i);
u(i) = uniform(0,1);

variable x(i);
equation f(i);

f(i).. betareg(x(i),a,b) =e= u(i);

model m /f/;
x.lo(i) = 1.0e-6;
x.l(i) = 0.5;
x.up(i) = 1-1.0e-6;
solve m using cns;

beta(i) = x.l(i);

display u,beta;

```

11.12. **DEA bootstrapping.** The model below implements a bootstrapping algorithm for the Data Envelopment Analysis Problem. DEA is a methodology to estimate efficient frontiers [5, 6, 18].

Bootstrapping[17, 39] is used to provide additional information for statistical inference. The following model from [48] implements a resampling strategy from [38]. Two thousand bootstrap samples are formed, each resulting in a DEA model of 100 small LP's. In this example we batch the DEA models together in a single large

LP, so that we only have to solve 2,000 models instead of 200,000. The formulation trick is explained in [26].

```

$ontext
  DEA bootstrapping example

  Erwin Kalvelagen, october 2004

  References:

  Mei Xue, Patrick T. Harker
  "Overcoming the Inherent Dependency of DEA Efficiency Scores:
  A Bootstrap Approach", Tech. Report, Department of Operations and
  Information Management, The Wharton School, University of Pennsylvania,
  April 1999

  http://opim.wharton.upenn.edu/~harker/DEAboot.pdf

$offtext

sets
  i 'hospital (DMU)' /h1*h100/
  j 'inputs and outputs' /
  FTE   'The number of full time employees in the hospital in FY 1994-95'
  Costs 'The expenses of the hospital ($million) in FY 1994-95'
  PTDAYS 'The number of the patient days produced by the hospital in FY 1994-95'
  DISCH  'The number of patient discharges produced by the hospital in FY 1994-95'
  BEDS   'The number of patient beds in the hospital in FY 1994-95'
  FORPROF 'Dummy variable, one if it is for-profit hospital, zero otherwise'
  TEACH  'Dummy variable, one if it is teaching hospital, zero otherwise'
  RES    'The number of the residents in the hospital in FY 1994-95'
  CONST  'Constant term in regression model'
/
  inp(j) 'inputs' /FTE,Costs/
  outp(j) 'outputs' /PTDAYS,DISCH/
;

table data(i,j)
      FTE      Costs      PTDAYS  DISCH  BEDS  FORPROF  TEACH  RES
h1    1571.86    174        71986  12665  365
h2     816.54    69.9        53081  5861  224
h3     533.74    61.7        25030  4951  286    1
h4     805.2     75.4        34163  11877  256
h5    3908.1     396        187462  42735  829    1  136.8
h6     727.72    63.9        31330  8402  194
h7    2571.75    220        130077  26877  620    1  42.81
h8     521       89.1        43390  8598  290    1
h9     718       50         27896  6113  150    1  23.21
h10   1504.85    121        75941  16427  393
h11   1234.49    84.6        57080  14180  317
h12    873       68.8        48932  12060  281
h13   1067.17    85.8        50436  11317  278
h14    668       47.5        67909  6235  244
h15   452.35    36.4        25200  6860  155    1  13.31
h16   1523      97.4        59809  13180  394
h17   3152      198        108631  22071  578    1  195.67
h18    871.96    30.7        17925  4605  160
h19   2901.86    290        130004  24133  549    1  126.89
h20    902.4     78.2        35743  8664  236    1  12.08
h21    194.69    10.9        15555  1530  132
h22    713.51    62.6        32558  8966  138
h23   557.36    23.8        12728  2291  276    1
h24   2259.2     120        74061  12942  348    1  14.52
h25   462.22    32.4        28886  6101  134
h26   1212.1     97.3        74194  12681  342
h27   2391.94    192        89843  18396  336    1  229.19
h28   1637      162        80468  21345  415
h29    501       37.9        26813  4594  166    1

```

h30	412.1	40.2	23217	6044	160	1	
h31	738.56	27	11514	3052	144	1	
h32	414.1	35.7	55611	4354	200		
h33	1097	105	59443	13101	242	1	26.32
h34	742	62.8	42542	8739	172		
h35	1010	97.1	47246	12073	269	1	1.1
h36	440.6	34.2	30773	4305	201		
h37	1203.3	85.4	50710	11470	247	1	13.82
h38	2558.01	195	128450	20441	571	1	5.42
h39	215.45	8.409936	65743	578	238		
h40	599.3	30.4	23299	5338	173		
h41	480.55	29.5	34279	6560	169	1	
h42	634.51	29.9	27157	5198	141		
h43	1211.9	91.4	90008	17666	320	1	6.25
h44	285.5	23.9	16473	2873	135		
h45	1030.36	67.1	43486	9467	235	1	6.44
h46	1374.81	95.5	74279	11862	284		
h47	953.56	49.8	47934	10553	207		
h48	561.11	41.7	24800	5498	132		
h49	644	57.1	39663	8604	260		
h50	376.55	19.6	22003	4759	143		
h51	404.79	32.8	27566	7871	190	1	
h52	397.9	29.4	26072	4248	170		
h53	374.2	3.944649	4179	819	156		
h54	1702	100	114603	17235	438	1	11.81
h55	148.09	5.013379	51660	771	172		
h56	253.48	16.9	17599	4044	178		
h57	1445.68	99.3	81041	12912	475	1	17.53
h58	414.1	26.5	20432	4068	129		
h59	642.58	48.5	42733	5983	181	1	
h60	203.75	13	16923	3467	146	1	
h61	421.8	18.3	16179	2840	160		
h62	320.62	17.3	18882	3370	160		
h63	679.79	25.6	27561	4447	308	1	11.33
h64	2382	226	166559	26019	787	1	7.08
h65	559.29	58.1	40534	8806	342	1	
h66	568.15	35	37120	7242	158		
h67	2408.04	155	70392	9538	266	1	111.33
h68	632.34	54.6	37228	6359	175		
h69	917.22	55.2	42135	7294	215		
h70	554.34	56.9	32352	3320	205	1	1
h71	780	75.9	39213	7154	172		
h72	663.82	56.9	34180	5284	200		
h73	1424	146	107457	18198	432	1	2.75
h74	313	20.7	20110	5967	165	1	
h75	778	78.4	51496	12302	390		
h76	863.37	62	50957	10557	228		
h77	3509.12	290	109673	19213	469	1	290.53
h78	1593.82	152	82400	17707	474	1	11.64
h79	466	40.1	30647	7265	164	1	
h80	666.38	48.2	28048	5182	153		
h81	998.8	121	45513	6855	238	1	88.86
h82	1018	98.2	61176	11386	350		
h83	3238.28	326	122118	19068	514	1	146.33
h84	1431.1	107	48900	10623	208		
h85	1735.99	273	84118	16458	278	1	158.4
h86	1769	190	105741	19256	478	1	0.93
h87	484.56	36.2	24070	6464	125		
h88	204.7	13.9	28137	1615	135	1	
h89	1706.58	287	75153	13465	367	1	91.56
h90	1029.11	71.9	49993	6690	252	1	4
h91	1167.2	111	75004	21334	350		
h92	1657.58	116	77753	17528	413		
h93	1017.16	88.5	64147	11135	316		
h94	1532.7	153	99998	17391	395	1	4.8
h95	1462	113	119107	16053	484	1	0.5
h96	1133.8	109	55540	15566	355	1	8.51
h97	609	48.2	71817	5639	376	1	1
h98	301.31	20.2	43214	2153	141		
h99	1930.08	201	87197	19315	418		
h100	1573.3	177	88124	19661	458	1	69.71

```

data(i,'CONST') = 1;

*-----
* PHASE 1: Estimation of b(j)
*
* Run standard Constant Returns to Scale (CCR) Input-oriented DEA model
* followed by linear regression OLS estimation
*-----

*
* this is the standard DEA model
* instead of 100 small models we solve one big model, see
* http://www.gams.com/~erwin/dea/dea.pdf
*
parameter
  x(inp,i)  'inputs of DMU i'
  y(outp,i) 'outputs of DMU i'
;

alias(i,j0);
positive variables
  v(inp,j0)  'input weights'
  u(outp,j0) 'output weights'
;
variable
  eff(j0) 'efficiency'
  z 'objective variable'
;

equations
  objective(j0) 'objective function: maximize efficiency'
  normalize(j0) 'normalize input weights'
  limit(i,j0)  "limit other DMU's efficiency"
  totalobj
;

totalobj..      z =e= sum(j0, eff(j0));
objective(j0).. eff(j0) =e= sum(outp, u(outp,j0)*y(outp,j0));
normalize(j0).. sum(inp, v(inp,j0)*x(inp,j0)) =e= 1;
limit(i,j0)..  sum(outp, u(outp,j0)*y(outp,i)) =l= sum(inp, v(inp,j0)*x(inp,i));

model dea /totalobj,objective, normalize, limit/;

alias (i,iter);

x(inp,i) = data(i,inp);
y(outp,i) = data(i,outp);

option limrow=0;
option limcol=0;
dea.solprint=2;
dea.solvelink=2;

solve dea using lp maximizing z;
abort$(dea.modelstat<>1) "LP was not optimal";

display
  "----- DEA MODEL -----",
  eff.l;

*
* now solve the regression problem
* efficiency = b0 + b1*BEDS + b2*FORPROF + b3*TEACH + b4*RES
* Use b = inv(X^TX) X^Ty
* Standard errors are sigma^2 inv(X^TX)
* See http://www.gams.com/~erwin/stats/ols.pdf
*
set e(j) 'explanatory variables' /BEDS,FORPROF,TEACH,RES,CONST/;

```

```

*
* calculate inv(X^TX)
*
alias(e,ee,eee);
parameter XX(e,ee) 'matrix (X^TX)';
XX(e,ee) = sum(i,data(i,e)*data(i,ee));
parameter Xy(e) 'X^Ty';
Xy(e) = sum(i, data(i,e)*eff.l(i));
parameter ident(e,ee) 'Identity matrix';
ident(e,e)=1;

variable
  invXX(e,ee) 'matrix inv(X^TX)'
  dummy
;

equation
  invert(e,ee)
  edummy
;

invert(e,ee).. sum(eee, XX(e,eee)*invXX(eee,ee)) =e= ident(e,ee);
edummy.. dummy=e=0;
model matinv /invert,edummy/;
matinv.solprint=2;
matinv.solverlink=2;
solve matinv using lp minimizing dummy;

*
* calculate estimates and standard errors
*

parameter b(e);
b(e) = sum(ee, invXX.l(e,ee)*Xy(ee));

parameter resid(i) 'residuals';
resid(i) = eff.l(i) - sum(e,b(e)*data(i,e));
scalar rss 'residual sum of squares';
rss = sum(i, sqr(resid(i)));

*
* calculate standard errors
*

scalar df 'degrees of freedom';
df = card(i)-card(e);
scalar sigma_squared 'variance of estimate';
sigma_squared = rss/df;
parameter variance(e,ee);
variance(e,ee) = sigma_squared*invXX.l(e,ee);
parameter se(e) 'standard error';
se(e) = sqrt(variance(e,e));

parameter tval(e) "t statistic";
tval(e) = b(e)/se(e);

parameter pval(e) "p-values";

*
* pvalue = 2 * pt( abs(tvalue), df)
*          = 2 * 0.5 * pbeta( df / (df + sqrt(abs(tvalue))), df/2, 0.5)
*          = betareg( df / (df+sqrt(tvalue)), df/2, 0.5)
*
pval(e) = betareg( df / (df+sqrt(tval(e))), df/2, 0.5);

parameter ols(e,*);
ols(e,'estimates') = b(e);
ols(e,'std.error') = se(e);
ols(e,'t value') = tval(e);
ols(e,'p value') = pval(e);

```

```

display
  "----- OLS MODEL -----",
  ols;

*-----
* PHASE 2: BOOTSTRAP algorithm
*-----

set s 'sample' /sample1*sample2000/;

parameter bs(s,i) 'bootstrap sample';
bs(s,i) = trunc( uniform(1,card(i)+0.99999999) );
*display bs;
* sanity check:
loop(s,i),
  abort$(bs(s,i)<1) "Check bs for entries < 1";
  abort$(bs(s,i)>card(i)) "Check bs for entries > card(i)";
);

alias(i,ii);
set mapbs(s,i,ii);
mapbs(s,i,ii)$ (bs(s,i) = ord(ii)) = yes;
* this mapping says the i'th sample data record is the ii'th record
* in the original data (for sample s)

loop((s,i),
  abort$(sum(mapbs(s,i,ii),1)<>1) "mapbs is not unique";
);

parameter data_sample(i,j);

parameter sb(s,e) 'b(e) for each sample s';

loop(s,

*
* solve dea model
*

  data_sample(i,j) = sum(mapbs(s,i,ii),data(ii,j));
  x(inp,i) = data_sample(i,inp);
  y(outp,i) = data_sample(i,outp);

  solve dea using lp maximizing z;
  abort$(dea.modelstat<>1) "LP was not optimal";

*
* solve OLS model
*

  XX(e,ee) = sum(i,data_sample(i,e)*data_sample(i,ee));
  Xy(e) = sum(i, data_sample(i,e)*eff.l(i));
  solve matinv using lp minimizing dummy;
  sb(s,e) = sum(ee, invXX.l(e,ee)*Xy(ee));

);

*
* get statistics
*
parameter bbar(e) "Averaged estimates";
bbar(e) = sum(s, sb(s,e)) / card(s);

parameter sehat(e) "Standard errors of bootstrap algorithm";
sehat(e) = sqrt(sum(s, sqr(sb(s,e)-bbar(e)))/(card(s)-1));

```

```

parameter tbootstrap(e) "t statistic for bootstrap";
tbootstrap(e) = b(e)/sehat(e);

scalar dfbootstrap 'degrees of freedom';
dfbootstrap = card(i) - (card(e) - 1) - 1;
parameter pbootstrap(e) "p-values for bootstrap";

*
* pvalue = 2 * pt( abs(tvalue), df)
*          = 2 * 0.5 * pbeta( df / (df + sqrt(abs(tvalue))), df/2, 0.5)
*          = betareg( df / (df+sqrt(tvalue)), df/2, 0.5)
*
pbootstrap(e) = betareg( dfbootstrap / (dfbootstrap+sqrt(tbootstrap(e))), dfbootstrap/2, 0.5);

parameter bootstrap(e,*);
bootstrap(e,'estimates') = b(e);
bootstrap(e,'std.error') = sehat(e);
bootstrap(e,'t value') = tbootstrap(e);
bootstrap(e,'p value') = pbootstrap(e);

display
"----- BOOTSTRAP MODEL -----",
bootstrap;

```

The idea of this model is to build a regression equation:

$$(68) \quad \theta_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{BEDS}_i + \beta_2 \text{FORPROF}_i + \beta_3 \text{TEACH}_i + \beta_4 \text{RES}_i + \varepsilon_i$$

where θ_i are the DEA efficiency scores. From the results

```

---- 290 ----- OLS MODEL -----
---- 290 PARAMETER ols

```

	estimates	std.error	t value	p value
BEDS	1.040019E-4	1.244050E-4	0.836	0.405
FORPROF	0.099	0.042	2.390	0.019
TEACH	-0.057	0.039	-1.451	0.150
RES	-0.001	3.303407E-4	-3.133	0.002
CONST	0.607	0.035	17.330	3.59753E-31

we see that FORPROF is significant at $\alpha = 0.05$ (the corresponding p value is smaller than 0.05). However when we apply the resampling technique from the bootstrap algorithm, the results indicate a different interpretation:

```

---- 380 ----- BOOTSTRAP MODEL -----
---- 380 PARAMETER bootstrap

```

	estimates	std.error	t value	p value
BEDS	1.040019E-4	1.107967E-4	0.939	0.350
FORPROF	0.099	0.060	1.651	0.102
TEACH	-0.057	0.036	-1.584	0.116
RES	-0.001	2.442416E-4	-4.237	5.234667E-5
CONST	0.607	0.042	14.417	1.18732E-25

Here the p -value for FORPROF is indicating this parameter is *not* significant at the 0.05 level. The p -values are calculated using the incomplete beta function.

It is noted that the option `m.solveLink=2;` is quite effective for this model. Timings that illustrate this are reported in table 4.

A further small performance improvement can be achieved to augment the model equations for the DEA model by the equations that calculate $(X^T X)^{-1}$. This will

default		solvelink=2	
real	27m12.745s	real	14m29.518s
user	20m58.595s	user	12m58.734s
sys	5m30.054s	sys	1m3.559s

TABLE 4. Solvelink results

combine the DEA and OLS model into one model. After this has been done there is only one solve for each bootstrap sample.

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