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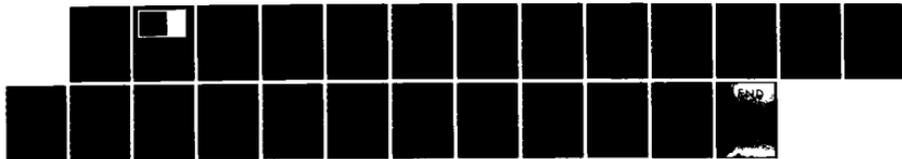
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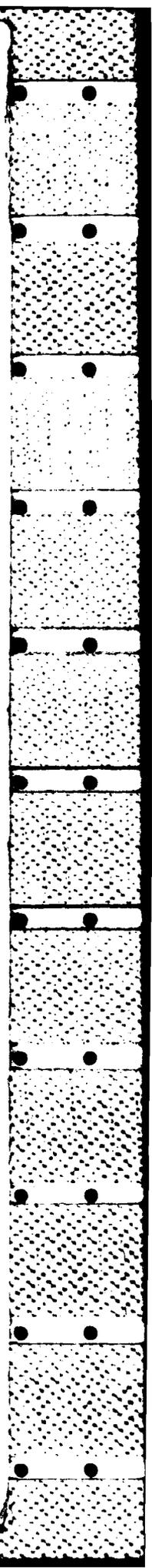
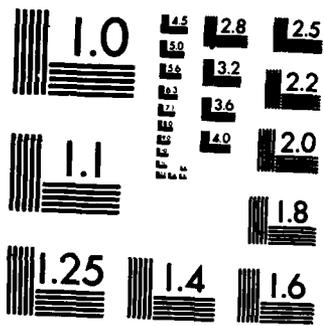
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THE THEORY OF OPTIMAL CONFIDENCE LIMITS
FOR SYSTEMS RELIABILITY WITH
COUNTEREXAMPLES FOR RESULTS ON
OPTIMAL CONFIDENCE LIMITS
FOR SERIES SYSTEMS

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and
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ABSTRACT

← This

The paper gives the general theory of optimal confidence limits for systems reliability introduced by Buehler (1957). This is specialized to series systems. It is noted that some results previously given are false. In particular, counterexamples for results of Sudakov (1974), Winterbottom (1974) and Harris and Soms (1980, 1981) are given. Numerical examples are provided, which suggest that despite the theoretical problems of the results, they are nevertheless valid for significance levels likely to be used in practice. *Originator supplied keywords include:*

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SIGNIFICANCE AND EXPLANATION

Systems with independent components arise naturally in engineering practice. Therefore it is of importance to efficiently utilize data obtained on individual components to obtain an assessment of the reliability of the system.

This paper presents a unified theory for doing so and points out errors in previous results on series systems.

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THE THEORY OF OPTIMAL CONFIDENCE LIMITS FOR SYSTEMS
RELIABILITY WITH COUNTEREXAMPLES FOR RESULTS ON
OPTIMAL CONFIDENCE LIMITS FOR SERIES SYSTEMS

Bernard Harris* and Andrew P. Soms**

1. Introduction and Summary

A problem of substantial importance to practitioners in reliability is the statistical estimation of the reliability of a system of stochastically independent components using experimental data collected on the individual components. In the situations discussed in this paper, the component data consist of a sequence of Bernoulli trials. Thus, for component i , $i=1,2,\dots,k$, the data is the pair (n_i, Y_i) , where n_i is the number of trials and Y_i is the number of observations for which the component functions. Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_k are assumed to be mutually independent random variables.

This problem was treated in Sudakov (1974), Winterbottom (1974), and Harris and Soms (1980, 1981); one purpose of the present paper is to exhibit counterexamples to theorems in the above papers.

In Section 2 we discuss the general theory of optimal confidence limits for system reliability so that the notation and definitions to be employed in the balance of the paper have been prescribed.

In Section 3 the counterexamples previously mentioned are exhibited and the specific errors in the proofs of the theorems are indicated.

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Section 4 presents the proof of a special case of the key test theorem (Winterbottom (1974)), the general form of which was invalidated by a counterexample in Section 3.

The consequences for reliability applications are discussed in Section 5.

2. Buehler's Method for Optimal Lower Confidence Limits for System Reliability

We now introduce the notation, definitions, and assumptions that will be used throughout the balance of this paper.

1. Let p_i , $i=1,2,\dots,k$ denote the probability that the i^{th} component functions. The components will be assumed to be stochastically independent. The reliability of the system will be denoted by $h(\vec{p})$, where $\vec{p} = (p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k)$, $0 \leq p_i \leq 1$. It is assumed that $h(0,0,\dots,0) = 0$, $h(1,1,\dots,1) = 1$, and that $h(\vec{p})$ is non-decreasing in each p_i , $i=1,2,\dots,k$. Further, $h(\vec{p})$ is continuous on $\{\vec{p} | 0 \leq p_i \leq 1\}$, which follows readily from the assumption of independence. These properties hold for coherent systems (see Barlow and Proschan (1975)).
2. Let $S = \{\vec{x} | x_i = 0, 1, \dots, n_i, i=1,2,\dots,k\}$ be the failure set. $g(\vec{x})$ is said to be an ordering function if for $x_1 \leq z_1$, $x_2 \leq z_2, \dots, x_k \leq z_k$, $\vec{x}, \vec{z} \in S$, $g(\vec{x}) \geq g(\vec{z})$. (It is often convenient to normalize $g(\vec{x})$ by letting $g(\vec{0}) = 1$ and $g(\vec{n}) = 0$. With such a normalization, $g(\vec{x})$ is often selected to be a point estimator of $h(\vec{p})$.)
3. Let $R = \{r_1, r_2, \dots, r_s, s \geq 2\}$ be the range set of $g(\vec{x})$. With no loss of generality we order R so that $r_1 > r_2 > \dots > r_s$.

4. Let $A_i = \{\tilde{x} | g(\tilde{x}) = r_i, \tilde{x} \in S, i=1,2,\dots,s\}$. The sets A_i constitute a partition of S induced by $g(\tilde{x})$.

5. We assume throughout that the data is distributed by

$$f(\tilde{x}; \tilde{p}) = P_{\tilde{p}}(\tilde{X}=\tilde{x}) = \prod_{i=1}^k \binom{n_i}{x_i} p_i^{x_i} q_i^{n_i-x_i} = \prod_{i=1}^k \binom{n_i}{y_i} p_i^{y_i} q_i^{n_i-y_i}, \quad (2.1)$$

where $q_i = 1-p_i$, $x_i = n_i - y_i$, $i=1,2,\dots,k$. With no loss of generality, we assume $n_1 \leq n_2 \leq \dots \leq n_k$.

From these definitions, it follows that

$$P_{\tilde{p}}\left\{X \in \bigcup_{i=1}^j A_i\right\} = P_{\tilde{p}}\left\{g(\tilde{X}) \geq r_j\right\}. \quad (2.2)$$

From (2.1) and (2.2), we have

$$P_{\tilde{p}}\left\{g(\tilde{X}) \geq r_j\right\} = \sum_{i_1=0}^{u_1} \sum_{i_2=0}^{u_2} \dots \sum_{i_k=0}^{u_k} f(\tilde{i}; \tilde{p}), \quad (2.3)$$

where $\tilde{i} = (i_1, i_2, \dots, i_k)$ and $u_2 = u_2(i_1), \dots, u_k = u_k(i_1, i_2, \dots, i_{k-1})$ are integers determined by r_j .

6. Subsequently we will need to extend the definitions of S and $g(\tilde{x})$ to real values. We denote this as follows. Let

$$S^* = \left\{ \tilde{x} | 0 \leq x_i \leq n_i, i=1,2,\dots,k \right\}.$$

We assume that $g(\tilde{x})$ is nonincreasing on S^* . This requirement is satisfied by all ordering functions used in practice.

Then

$$P_{\tilde{p}}\left\{g(\tilde{X}) \geq r_j\right\} = \sum_{i_1=0}^{[t_1]} \sum_{i_2=0}^{[t_2]} \dots \sum_{i_k=0}^{[t_k]} f(\tilde{i}; \tilde{p}), \quad (2.4)$$

where $t_2 = t_2(i_1), \dots, t_k = t_k(i_1, i_2, \dots, i_{k-1})$, with $t_1 = \sup\{t | t \in S^* \text{ and } g(t, 0, 0, \dots, 0) \geq r_j\}$ and $t_l(i_1, i_2, \dots, i_{l-1}) = \sup\{t | t \in S^* \text{ and } g(i_1, i_2, \dots, i_{l-1}, t, 0, \dots, 0) \geq r_j\}$, $l=2,3,\dots,k$.

We now introduce the notion of Buehler optimal confidence limits. Let $g(x) = r_j$. Then define

$$a_{g(\tilde{x})} = \inf \left\{ h(\tilde{p}) \mid P_{\tilde{p}} \left\{ \tilde{i} \mid g(\tilde{i}) \geq g(\tilde{x}) \right\} \geq \alpha \right\}. \quad (2.5)$$

Equivalently, by (2.2), we can also write

$$a_{g(\tilde{x})} = \inf \left\{ h(\tilde{p}) \mid P_{\tilde{p}} \left\{ X \in \bigcup_{i=1}^j A_i \right\} \geq \alpha \right\}. \quad (2.6)$$

We now establish the following theorem.

Theorem 2.1. Let assumptions 1-5 be satisfied. Then, for $\tilde{x} \in S$, $a_{g(\tilde{x})}$ is a $1-\alpha$ lower confidence limit for $h(\tilde{p})$. If $b_{g(\tilde{x})}$ is any other $1-\alpha$ lower confidence limit for $h(\tilde{p})$ with $b_{r_1} \geq b_{r_2} \geq \dots \geq b_{r_j}$, then $b_{g(\tilde{x})} \leq a_{g(\tilde{x})}$ for all $\tilde{x} \in S$.

Proof. Fix \tilde{p} and let $m(\tilde{p})$ be the smallest integer such that

$$P_{\tilde{p}} \left\{ \tilde{X} \in \bigcup_{i=1}^{m(\tilde{p})} A_i \right\} \geq \alpha.$$

Then

$$P_{\tilde{p}} \left\{ \tilde{X} \in \bigcup_{i=m(\tilde{p})}^s A_i \right\} \geq 1-\alpha.$$

Let

$$D_{r_m} = \left\{ \tilde{p} \mid P_{\tilde{p}} \left\{ \tilde{X} \in \bigcup_{i=1}^m A_i \right\} \geq \alpha \right\}.$$

Then $D_{g(\tilde{x})}$ is a $1-\alpha$ confidence set for \tilde{p} , since

$$P_{\tilde{p}} \left\{ \tilde{p} \in D_{g(\tilde{x})} \right\} = P_{\tilde{p}} \left\{ g(\tilde{X}) \leq r_{m(\tilde{p})} \right\} \geq 1-\alpha.$$

By assumption 1, $h(\tilde{p})$ is continuous and the set of parameter points satisfying (2.5) is compact; therefore the infimum in (2.5) and (2.6) is attained.

Assume that there is an integer j , $1 \leq j \leq s-1$, such that $b_{r_j} > a_{r_j}$. Then there exists a \tilde{p}_0 such that

$$b_{r_j} > a_{r_j} = \inf \left\{ h(\tilde{p}) \mid P_{\tilde{p}} \left\{ \tilde{X} \in \bigcup_{i=1}^j A_i \right\} \geq \alpha \right\} = h(\tilde{p}_0). \quad (2.7)$$

In addition, there exists a \tilde{p}_1 such that

$$P_{\tilde{p}_1} \left\{ \tilde{X} \in \bigcup_{i=1}^j A_i \right\} > \alpha, \quad h(\tilde{p}_1) < b_{r_j}. \quad (2.8)$$

Since $b_{r_1} \geq b_{r_2} \geq \dots \geq b_{r_s}$, from (2.7) we have

$$h(\tilde{p}_1) < b_{r_l}, \quad l = 1, 2, \dots, j. \quad (2.9)$$

Therefore

$$\alpha < P_{\tilde{p}_1} \left\{ \tilde{X} \in \bigcup_{i=1}^j A_i \right\} \leq P_{\tilde{p}_1} \left\{ h(\tilde{p}_1) < b_g(\tilde{X}) \right\}, \quad (2.10)$$

which is a contradiction. Consequently, there is no integer j , $1 \leq j \leq s-1$, for which $b_{r_j} > a_{r_j}$.

From (2.6), it follows that $a_{r_s} = 0$ and b_{r_s} is also necessarily zero. Note further that in (2.7) it is possible that the infimum is attained at a point for which $P_{\tilde{p}} \left\{ \tilde{X} \in \bigcup_{i=1}^j A_i \right\} > \alpha$. To see this consider the following example.

Let $k = 2$, $n_1 = 5$, $n_2 = 10,000$, $x_1 = 0$, $x_2 = 5$, $g(\tilde{x}) = n_1 + n_2 - x_1 - x_2$, $h(\tilde{p}) = p_1 p_2$. It is easily seen that the hypotheses of Theorem 2.1 are satisfied. Thus, for the data

given, $g(\tilde{x}) = 10,000 = r_6$. The set $\bigcup_{i=1}^6 A_i$ consists of all points (x_1, x_2) for which $x_1 + x_2 \leq 5$, that is, $A_1 = \{(0,0)\}$, $A_2 = \{(1,0), (0,1)\}$, and so on. Consequently,

$$D_{r_6} = \left\{ \tilde{p} \mid P_{\tilde{p}} \left\{ \tilde{X} \in \bigcup_{i=1}^6 A_i \right\} \geq \alpha \right\}$$

includes the parameter points $(0, p_{2\alpha})$ where $p_{2\alpha}$ satisfies $P_{p_{2\alpha}} \{X_2=0\} \geq \alpha$, since $P_{\tilde{p}} \{X_1 \leq 5\} = 1$ when $p_1 = 0$. Thus $\inf h(\tilde{p}) = 0$ for all $0 < \alpha < 1$.

We note that the monotonicity of $h(\tilde{p})$ is not utilized in the proof, which is valid whenever $h(\tilde{p})$ is continuous.

It is easy to see that $a_{g(\tilde{x})}$ is monotone, i.e., $a_{r_1} \geq a_{r_2} \geq \dots \geq a_{r_s}$. This follows from (2.7) upon noting that as j increases, the set of \tilde{p} satisfying (2.7) increases and the infimum is taken over a larger set.

Corollary. For a series system $h(\tilde{p}) = \prod_{i=1}^k p_i$. Then if $g(\tilde{x}) = \prod_{i=1}^k (n_i - x_i)/n_i = \prod_{i=1}^k y_i/n_i$, the hypotheses of Theorem 2.1 are satisfied and the conclusion follows.

Note that $g(\tilde{x}) = \prod_{i=1}^k (n_i - x_i)/n_i$ is the maximum likelihood estimator as well as the minimum variance unbiased estimator of $\prod_{i=1}^k p_i$ and is therefore a reasonable choice of an ordering function.

We now establish the following theorem.

Theorem 2.2. Let $g(\tilde{x}) = r_j$ and let

$$f^*(x; a) = \sup_{h(\tilde{p})=a} P_{\tilde{p}} \left\{ g(\tilde{X}) \geq r_j \right\}, \quad 0 < a < 1. \quad (2.10)$$

Then

$$\sup_{0 < a < 1} f^*(\tilde{x}; a) = 1$$

and $f^*(\tilde{x}; a)$ is non-decreasing in a .

Proof. Since $h(\tilde{p})$ is continuous and $h(\tilde{1}) = 1$,

$$\lim_{a \rightarrow 1} \sup_{h(\tilde{p})=a} P_{\tilde{p}} \{g(\tilde{X}) \geq r_j\} = 1.$$

Now choose a and b such that $0 < a < b < 1$,

$$P_{\tilde{p}_a} \{g(\tilde{X}) \geq r_j\} = f^*(\tilde{x}; a)$$

and

$$P_{\tilde{p}_b} \{g(\tilde{X}) \geq r_j\} = f^*(\tilde{x}; b).$$

Let I_a be the set of indices i such that $p_{ia} < 1$. Then it is possible to replace p_{ia} by p'_{ib} , $i \in I_a$, where $p_{ia} < p'_{ib} < 1$, so that $h(\tilde{p}'_b) = b$, where $p'_{ib} = p_{ia}$, $i \in I_a^c$. This follows since $h(\tilde{1}) = 1 > a$ and $h(\tilde{p})$ is continuous. The conclusion follows from the monotone likelihood ratio property of the binomial distribution.

Note again that only the continuity of $h(\tilde{p})$ was used in the proof of Theorem 2.2.

For the case of series systems, it is possible to strengthen Theorem 2.2 and to exhibit the above construction. This is done below.

Corollary. Let $g(\tilde{x}) = r_j$. If $h(\tilde{p}) = \prod_{i=1}^k p_i$, then $\inf_{0 < a < 1} f^*(\tilde{x}; a) = 0$ and $f^*(\tilde{x}; a)$ is strictly increasing in a whenever all $u_j < n_j$ (see (2.3) for the definition of u_j), $j=1, 2, \dots, k$.

Proof. From the hypotheses,

$$P_{\tilde{p}} \left\{ g(\tilde{X}) \geq r_j \right\} \leq 1 - q_i^{n_i}, \quad i=1,2,\dots,k,$$

and since $\prod_{i=1}^k p_i \rightarrow 0$ implies at least one $p_i \rightarrow 0$, this gives

$$\inf_{0 < a < 1} f^*(\tilde{x}; a) = 0.$$

To show that $f^*(\tilde{x}; a)$ is strictly increasing in a , consider $0 < a < b < 1$ and let $\tilde{p}_a = (p_{a1}, \dots, p_{ak})$ satisfy $f^*(\tilde{x}; a) = P_{\tilde{p}_a} \left\{ g(\tilde{X}) \geq r_j \right\}$. Similarly, let \tilde{p}_b satisfy $f^*(\tilde{x}; b) = P_{\tilde{p}_b} \left\{ g(\tilde{X}) \geq r_j \right\}$. Let $I_a = \{i_1, i_2, \dots, i_r\}$ be any non-empty set of indices such that $P_{a i_j} \left(\frac{b}{a}\right)^{1/r} < 1$ (non-empty because otherwise multiplying the components would give $b > 1$, a contradiction) and let I_a^c be the remaining indices. Then

$$\left(\prod_{j \in I_a} p_{a i_j} \left(\frac{b}{a}\right)^{1/r} \right) \prod_{j \in I_a^c} p_{a i_j} = b. \quad (2.11)$$

From the monotone likelihood ratio property of the binomial distribution,

$$P_{\tilde{p}_a} \left\{ g(\tilde{X}) \geq r_j \right\} < P_{\tilde{p}^*} \left\{ g(\tilde{X}) \geq r_j \right\},$$

where the components of \tilde{p}^* are given by (2.11). This gives

$$f^*(\tilde{x}; a) < f^*(\tilde{x}; b),$$

which is the desired conclusion.

Note that if at least one $u_j = n_j$, it follows immediately from (2.5) that $a_{g(\tilde{x})} = 0$. For $g(\tilde{x}) = \prod_{i=1}^k (n_i - x_i) / n_i$ the condition $u_j < n_j$ is equivalent to $x_j < n_j$, $j=1,2,\dots,k$.

We now establish a result which will prove useful in some of the subsequent material.

Theorem 2.3. If $f^*(\tilde{x}; a) = \alpha$, $0 < \alpha < 1$, has at least one solution in a , then

$$a_g(\tilde{x}) = \inf \{ a \mid f^*(\tilde{x}; a) = \alpha \}. \quad (2.12)$$

If $f^*(\tilde{x}; a) > \alpha$ for all a , then $a_g(\tilde{x}) = 0$.

Proof. Let

$$c = \inf \{ a \mid f^*(\tilde{x}; a) \geq \alpha \}. \quad (2.13)$$

The infimum in (2.13) is attained. Thus, there exists a \tilde{p}_0 such that $c = h(\tilde{p}_0)$. If $f^*(\tilde{x}; a) > \alpha$ for all a , let $p_i \rightarrow 0$, $i=1,2,\dots,k$. Then $h(\tilde{p}) \rightarrow 0$, since $h(\tilde{0}) = 0$ and $h(\tilde{p})$ is continuous, and $a_g(\tilde{x}) = 0$.

Now assume there is at least one a with $f^*(\tilde{x}; a) = \alpha$. Then $f^*(\tilde{x}; a_g(\tilde{x})) \geq \alpha$ and therefore $c \leq a_g(\tilde{x})$. If $c < a_g(\tilde{x})$, then $c = h(\tilde{p}_0)$ and $f^*(\tilde{x}; c) = \alpha$, which is a contradiction.

Again, only the continuity of $h(\tilde{p})$ was used in the proof of Theorem 2.3. Under the hypotheses of the Corollary to Theorem 2.2, for a series system, $a_g(\tilde{x})$ is the solution in a of

$$f^*(\tilde{x}; a) = \alpha. \quad (2.14)$$

The general theory described in this section applies as well to what is known as systems with repeated components (see, e.g., Harris and Soms (1973)). For such systems, there are $1 \leq m \leq k$ unknown parameters p_1, p_2, \dots, p_m , since the "repeated components"

are assumed to have identical failure probabilities. This assumption permits the experimenter to regard the data as (n_i, Y_i) , $i=1,2,\dots,m$, and employ the previous results.

For example, if a series system of k components has α_1 of one type, α_2 of a second, \dots , α_m of an m^{th} type, then

$$h(\tilde{p}) = p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_m^{\alpha_m}, \quad \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i = k.$$

3. Counterexamples

In this section we restrict attention to series systems and employ the ordering function

$$g(\tilde{x}) = \prod_{i=1}^k (n_i - x_i) / n_i,$$

introduced following Theorem 2.1. As noted previously, in this case the reliability function $h(\tilde{p}) = \prod_{i=1}^k p_i$. With this specialization we have for (2.4)

$$t_1 = n_1(1-r_m) \quad (3.1)$$

and for each fixed $0 \leq i_1 \leq t_1, 0 \leq i_2 \leq t_2, \dots, 0 \leq i_{j-1} \leq t_{j-1}$,

$$t_j = n_j(1-r_m / [\prod_{l=1}^{j-1} (n_l - i_l) / n_l]), \quad 2 \leq j \leq k, \quad (3.2)$$

whenever $g(\tilde{x}) = r_m$, $1 \leq m < s$. If $m = s$, then $r_s = 0$ and $a_0 = 0$.

For $\kappa > 0$, $\lambda > 0$, let

$$I_p(\kappa, \lambda) = \frac{1}{\beta(\kappa, \lambda)} \int_0^p t^{\kappa-1} (1-t)^{\lambda-1} dt, \quad 0 \leq p \leq 1, \quad (3.3)$$

the incomplete beta function.

It is well-known that if t is an integer, $t < n$, we have

$$\sum_{i=0}^t \binom{n}{i} p^{n-i} q^i = I_p(n-t, t+1) . \quad (3.4)$$

Sudakov (1974) published the inequality

$$P_{\tilde{p}}\{g(\tilde{X}) \geq r_j\} \leq I_k \prod_{i=1}^k p_i (n_1-t_1, t_1+1) . \quad (3.5)$$

This inequality and generalizations of it were further studied in Harris and Soms (1980,1981). (3.5) implies

$$f^*(\tilde{x}; a) \leq I_a(n_1-t_1, t_1+1) ,$$

hence its usefulness. However, as we now establish, (3.5) is not universally valid, as was claimed in Sudakov (1974).

Let $(x_1, x_2) = (x_1, 0)$ and let $(n_1, n_2) = (n_1, 2n_1)$. Then $g(\tilde{x}) = (n_1 - x_1)/n_1$ and $t_1 = x_1$. Consider $P_{\tilde{p}}\{g(\tilde{X}) \geq r_m\}$. If $\tilde{p} = (1, a)$, $0 < a < 1$, we have

$$P_{\tilde{p}}\{g(\tilde{X}) \geq r_m\} = P_a\{(n_2 - X_2)/n_2 \geq r_m\} .$$

since $P\{X_1=0\} = 1$, by (2.1). Consequently,

$$\begin{aligned} P_{\tilde{p}}\{g(\tilde{X}) \geq r_m\} &= P_a\{X_2 \leq n_2(1-r_m)\} \\ &= P_a\{X_2 \leq 2n_1(1-r_m)\} . \end{aligned}$$

Since $r_m = (n_1 - x_1)/n_1$,

$$P_{\tilde{p}}\{g(\tilde{X}) \geq r_m\} = P_a\{X_2 \leq 2x_1\} .$$

Thus from (3.4),

$$P_{\tilde{p}}\{g(\tilde{X}) \geq r_m\} = I_a(2(n_1-x_1), 2x_1+1) .$$

The Sudakov inequality implies that

$$I_a(2(n_1-x_1), 2x_1+1) \leq I_a(n_1-x_1, x_1+1)$$

or

$$I_a(2n_1r_m, 2n_1(1-r_m)+1) \leq I_a(n_1r_m, n_1(1-r_m)+1) . \quad (3.6)$$

Let $h_2(t; n_2, r_m)$ and $h_1(t; n_1, r_m)$ denote the beta density functions corresponding to the left and right hand side of (3.6), respectively. Then, provided $n_1r_m > 1$, there is an $\epsilon > 0$ such that

$$h_2(t; n_2, r_m) < h_1(t; n_1, r_m) \quad 0 < t < \epsilon, 1-\epsilon < t < 1 .$$

This implies that $h_1(t; n_2, r_m)$ and $h_2(t; n_2, r_m)$ intersect in at least two points. If t^* is such an intersection, setting

$h_1(t; n_1, r_m)/h_2(t; n_2, r_m) = 1$ gives

$$t^{n_1r_m}(1-t)^{n_1(1-r_m)} = c(n_1, r_m) > 0 .$$

Thus, for $1 \leq m < s$, there are exactly two such intersections.

Therefore there is a z_0 such that

$$I_{z_0}(n_1r_m, n_1(1-r_m)+1) = I_{z_0}(n_2r_m, n_2(1-r_m)+1) ,$$

for $z > z_0$,

$$I_z(n_1r_m, n_1(1-r_m)+1) < I_z(n_2r_m, n_2(1-r_m)+1)$$

and for $z < z_0$,

$$I_z(n_1r_m, n_1(1-r_m)+1) > I_z(n_2r_m, n_2(1-r_m)+1) .$$

Thus for $z > z_0$, (3.6) is violated. (3.6) was used as a lemma by Sudakov (1974) to prove the inequality (3.5). This lemma was also employed in Harris and Soms (1980, 1981). It is the falsity of this lemma which invalidates (3.5).

Table 1 provides some illustrations of the violation of (3.5) for $k = 2$ and selected values of (n_1, n_2) , (x_1, x_2) . The smallest value of $p_1 p_2$ for which this violation occurs is also given in the table, where it is denoted by a^* . In addition, $f^*(\tilde{x}; a^*)$ is tabulated. Thus for $\alpha < f^*(\tilde{x}; a^*)$, (3.5) is valid. The calculations were made by means of a FORTRAN program. Note the for $(n_1, n_2) = (5, 5)$ and $(x_1, x_2) = (1, 1)$ the inequality was not violated.

Table 1. The Smallest a , a^* , and $f^*(\tilde{x}; a^*)$

(n_1, n_2)	(x_1, x_2)	a^*	$f^*(\tilde{x}; a^*)$
(5, 5)	(1, 1)	1.0000	1.0000
(5, 5)	(3, 3)	.7454	.9998
(5, 10)	(1, 0)	.8798	.8909
(5, 15)	(0, 3)	.8698	.8791
(5, 30)	(1, 0)	.8498	.8467

4. The Theory of Key Test Results

If for $n_1 \leq n_2 \leq \dots \leq n_k$, $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k) = (x_1, 0, \dots, 0)$, $k \geq 2$, then \tilde{x} is called a key test result. Winterbottom (1974) asserted that subject to $x_1 < f(k, n_1)$, where $f(k, n_1)$ is the solution in f of

$$n_1^{k-f-1} = k[(n_1 - f)n_1^{k-1}]^{1/k}, \quad (4.1)$$

we have $a_{g(\vec{x})}$ is the solution in a of

$$I_a(n_1 - x_1, x_1 + 1) = \alpha, \quad 0 < \alpha < 1. \quad (4.2)$$

This would imply the inequality (3.5), which we have disproved in Section 3.

As we subsequently establish, the error in Winterbottom's (1974) result is a consequence of falsely concluding that $f(k, n_1)$ depends only on n_1 . It is easy to be led to this conclusion on intuitive grounds, since $(n_1 - x_1, n_1, \dots, n_1)$ would seem to be a less favorable experimental result than $(n_1 - x_1, n_2, \dots, n_k)$, whenever $n_i > n_1$ for at least one index i , $2 \leq i \leq k$. We now establish a modified key test result that holds for $x_1 < f(k, \vec{n})$, where $f(k, \vec{n})$ is the smallest solution in f of

$$\sum_{i=1}^k n_i - f - 1 = k[(n_1 - f) \prod_{i=2}^k n_i]^{1/k}. \quad (4.3)$$

Theorem 4.1. If $n_1 \leq n_2 \leq \dots \leq n_k$ and $\vec{x} = (x_1, 0, \dots, 0)$, with $x_1 < f(k, \vec{n})$ where $f(k, \vec{n})$ is given by (4.3), then

$$P_{\vec{p}}\{g(\vec{X}) \geq r_j\} \leq I_k \prod_{i=1}^k p_i (n_1 - x_1, x_1 + 1), \quad (4.4)$$

where $g(x_1, 0, \dots, 0) = r_j$.

Proof. The proof consists of finding a necessary and sufficient condition under which

$$\left\{ \tilde{z} \mid \prod_{i=1}^k (n_i - z_i) \geq \prod_{i=1}^k (n_i - x_i) \right\} = \left\{ \tilde{z} \mid \sum_{i=1}^k (n_i - z_i) \geq \sum_{i=1}^k (n_i - x_i) \right\}, \quad (4.5)$$

and then applying the results of Pledger and Proschan (1971) to

find the supremum of the right hand side of (4.5) subject to

$\prod_{i=1}^k p_i = a$. Clearly, we must have $\sum_{i=1}^k x_i < n_1$. For fixed

$\sum_{i=1}^k x_i = f$, or equivalently, for fixed $\sum_{i=1}^k (n_i - x_i) = \sum_{i=1}^k n_i - f$,

$\prod_{i=1}^k (n_i - x_i)$ is minimized by $(n_1 - f) \prod_{i=2}^k n_i$. This follows from the

strict Schur-concavity of $\prod_{i=1}^k x_i$, $x_i > 0$, $1 \leq i \leq k$ (see, e.g.,

Marshall and Olkin (1979, p. 78)). Therefore we must have

$\tilde{x} = (f, 0, \dots, 0)$. Then a necessary and sufficient condition for

(4.5) to hold is that $\tilde{x} = (x, 0, \dots, 0)$, where $x < f'(k, n)$ and

$f'(k, n)$ is the first positive integer f for which

$$(n_1 - f) \prod_{i=2}^k n_i \leq \max_{\sum_{i=1}^k x_i = f+1} \prod_{i=1}^k (n_i - x_i). \quad (4.6)$$

The Schur-concavity of $\prod_{i=1}^k x_i$ then gives (4.3) as a sufficient

condition and the subsequent corollary gives a simple method of

calculating f' exactly.

We now assume that (4.5) is satisfied and hence that

$$f^*(x; a) = \sup_{\substack{\prod_{i=1}^k p_i = a \\ \sum_{i=1}^k y_i \geq n_1 - x_1 + \sum_{i=2}^k n_i}} p \quad (4.7)$$

Writing (4.7) as an iterated sum and noting that

$I_c(n-x, x+1)$ is a decreasing function of n for fixed x , we have

$$\sup_{\substack{k \\ \prod_{i=1}^k p_i = a}} P\left\{\sum_{i=1}^k Y_i \geq n_1 - x_1 + \sum_{i=2}^k n_i\right\} \leq \sup_{\substack{k \\ \prod_{i=1}^k p_i = a}} P\left\{Y_1 + \sum_{i=2}^k U_i \geq n_1 - x_1 + (k-1)n_1\right\},$$

where the U_i are independent binomial random variables with parameters (n_1, p_i) , $i=2, \dots, k$. Writing

$$Y_1 + \sum_{i=2}^k U_i = \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{j=1}^{n_1} Y_{ij},$$

where the Y_{ij} are independent Bernoulli random variables with parameter p_i , a result of Pledger and Proschan (1971) may be employed to show that the upper tail of $\sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{j=1}^{n_1} Y_{ij}$ is a Schur-convex function of $(-\ln p_1, -\ln p_1, \dots, -\ln p_1, -\ln p_2, \dots, -\ln p_2, \dots, -\ln p_k, \dots, -\ln p_k)$ and therefore $f^*(\bar{x}; a) = I_a(n_1 - x_1, x_1 + 1)$, as required.

Corollary. For each f , form the vector $\bar{z} = (z_1, z_2, \dots, z_k)$ from $\bar{n} = (n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k)$ by continually reducing the maximum (s) until the subtractions total $f+1$, $f \geq 0$. Denote by $f'(k, n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k)$ the first f for which

$$\prod_{i=1}^k z_i \geq (n_1 - f) \prod_{i=2}^k n_i.$$

Then a necessary and sufficient condition for (4.5) to hold is that $x_1 < f'(k, \bar{n})$.

Proof. The proof proceeds exactly as for Theorem 4.1' by noting that \bar{z} maximizes $\prod_{i=1}^k r_i$ subject to $0 < r_i \leq n_i$ and $\sum_{i=1}^k r_i = \sum_{i=1}^k n_i - f - 1$. This follows since \bar{z} is majorized by \bar{r} and the product is strictly Schur-concave.

If $n_1 = n_2 = \dots = n_k$, (4.3) reduces to (4.1) which is Winterbottom's (1974) condition. However, s should be replaced by $s+1$ in his formula, which also has a sign error. As an example, for $k = 2$, $n_1 = n_2 = 50$, from Winterbottom (1974), (4.4) is stated to hold for $x_1 \leq 17$ or $n_1 - x_1 \geq 33$. However, $33 \cdot 50 < 41 \cdot 41$, and therefore (4.4) only holds for $x_1 \leq 13$ or $n_1 - x_1 \geq 37$, as the Corollary to Theorem 4.1 shows, or the solution of (4.3), which gives $f(2, 50, 50) = 13.14$.

The dependence of f on \bar{n} may be seen by considering an example. Let $k = 2$, $n_1 = 5$, $n_2 = 10$. Then from the Corollary following Theorem 4.1, (4.4) only holds for $x_1 = 0$, whereas for $n_1 = n_2 = 5$, it holds for $x_1 = 0, 1, 2$, and 3. Thus the case of equal n_i , $i=1, 2, \dots, k$, does not give the minimal f . In fact, it may be seen that if $n_k \geq 2n_1$, then (4.4) holds only for $x_1 = 0$.

5. Concluding Remarks

From Table 1, it seems reasonable to conjecture that (3.5) is valid for those values of α, k, \bar{n} likely to arise in practice. The authors are continuing to investigate the problem and hope to report more precise conditions for the validity of (3.5) in subsequent work.

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