Minimum Risk Equivariant Estimation of the Parameters of the General Half-Normal Distribution by Means of a Monte Carlo Method to Approximate Conditional Expectations

A.G. Nogales, P. Pérez and P. Monfort

Dpto. de Matemáticas, Universidad de Extremadura
Avda. de Elvas, s/n, 06071–Badajoz, SPAIN.
e-mail: nogales@unex.es

Abstract. This work addresses the problem of estimating the parameters of the general half-normal distribution. Namely, the problem of determining the minimum risk equivariant (MRE) estimators of the parameters is explored. Simulation studies are realized to compare the behavior of these estimators with maximum likelihood and unbiased estimators. A natural Monte Carlo method to compute conditional expectations is used to approximate the MRE estimation of the location parameter because its expression involves two conditional expectations not easily computables. The used Monte Carlo method is justified by a theorem of Besicovitch on differentiation of measures, and has been slightly modified to solve a sort of “curse of dimensionality” problem appearing in the estimation of this parameter. This method has been implicitly used in the last years in the context of ABC (approximate Bayesian computation) methods.

AMS Subject Class. (2010): Primary 62B05 Secondary 62F10.

Key words and phrases: General half-normal distribution, equivariance, Monte Carlo approximation of conditional expectations.
1 Introduction

Let $Z$ be a $N(0,1)$ random variable. The distribution of $X := |Z|$ is the so-called half-normal distribution. It will be denoted $HN(0,1)$ and its density function is

$$f_X(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \exp\left\{ -\frac{1}{2} x^2 \right\} I_{[0,+\infty]}(x).$$

A general half-normal distribution $HN(\xi, \eta)$ is obtained from $HN(0, 1)$ by a location-scale transformation: $HN(\xi, \eta)$ is the distribution of $Y = \xi + \eta X$.

The classical paper Daniel (1959) introduces half-normal plots and the half-normal distribution, a special case of the folded and truncated normal distributions (see Johnson, Kotz and Balakrishnan (1994)). Bland and Altman (1999) and Bland (2005) propose a so-called half-normal method to deal with relationships between measurement error and magnitude, with applications in medicine. Pewsey (2002) uses the maximum likelihood principle to estimate the parameters, and presents a brief survey on the general half-normal distribution, its relations with other well-known distributions and its usefulness in the analysis of highly skew data. Pewsey (2004) proposes bias-corrected versions of the maximum likelihood estimators. Nogales and Pérez (2011) deals with the problem of unbiased estimation for the general half-normal distribution.

Here we consider the problem of equivariant estimation of the location and scale parameters, $\xi$ and $\eta$, but first we provide a brief review of results for unbiased and maximum likelihood estimation appearing in the literature.

The density function of $HN(\xi, \eta)$ is

$$f_Y(y) = \frac{1}{\eta} f_X\left( \frac{y - \xi}{\eta} \right) = \frac{1}{\eta} \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \exp\left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{y - \xi}{\eta} \right)^2 \right\} I_{[\xi, +\infty]}(y).$$

It is readily shown that

$$E(Y) = \xi + \eta \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \quad \text{and} \quad \text{Var}(Y) = \frac{\pi - 2}{\pi} \eta^2.$$  

Let us recall a lemma from (Nogales and Pérez (2011)). We write $\Phi$ for the standard normal cumulative distribution function.

**Lemma 1.** Let $X_i = |Z_i|$, $1 \leq i \leq n$, where $Z_1, \ldots, Z_n$ is a sample of the standard normal distribution $N(0,1)$. Let $c_n := E(X_{1:n})$, where $X_{1:n}$ denotes the minimum of $X_1, \ldots, X_n$.

(i) $c_n = \int_0^\infty (2 - 2\Phi(t))^n dt$.

(ii) For $n \geq 1$, $c_n \leq \frac{1}{n} \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2}} \leq \Phi^{-1}\left( \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2n} \right)$.

Let $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n$ be a sample of size $n$ from a general half-normal distribution with unknown parameters, $\xi$ and $\eta$. $Y_{1:n}$ denotes the minimum of $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n$. From the factorization criterion, we obtain that $(\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i^2, \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i, Y_{1:n})$ is a sufficient statistic. Indeed, it is minimal sufficient, although not complete. With the notations of the lemma, we write $Y_i = \xi + \eta X_i$. Notice that $Y_{1:n} = \min_i Y_i = \xi + \eta X_{1:n}$ and $E(Y_{1:n}) = \xi + \eta c_n$.

The next proposition (Nogales and Pérez (2011)) yields unbiased estimators of the location and scale parameters, $\xi$ and $\eta$. Both estimators are $L$-statistics and functions of the cited minimal sufficient statistic.

**Proposition 1.** Let $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n$ be a sample of size $n$ from a general half-normal distribution with unknown parameters, $\xi$ and $\eta$.

(i) $\tilde{\xi} := \frac{\sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} Y_{1:n} - c_n}{\sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} - c_n}$ is an unbiased estimator of the location parameter $\xi$.

(ii) $\tilde{\eta} := \frac{Y_{1:n} - \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} c_n}{\sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} - c_n}$ is an unbiased estimator of the scale parameter $\eta$ whose distribution does not depend on $\xi$. 

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Remark. We also have that the sample mean $\bar{Y}$ is an unbiased estimator of the mean $\xi + \eta \sqrt{\frac{2}{n}}$. Moreover, an unbiased estimator of $\eta^2$ is

$$\frac{\pi}{\pi - 2} S^2,$$

where $S^2 := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2$ is the sample variance; notice that its distribution does not depend on $\xi$. $\bar{Y}$ and $S^2$ also are functions of the sufficient statistic given above. The reader is referred to Nogales and Pérez (2011) for these and other results about unbiased estimation of the parameters of the general half-normal distribution. □

Remark. Pewsey (2002) provides maximum likelihood estimates for each of the parameters $\xi$ and $\eta$:

$$\hat{\xi} := Y_{1:n}, \quad \hat{\eta} := \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - Y_{1:n})^2 \right)^{1/2}$$

A large sample based bias-correction is used in Pewsey (2004) to improve the performance of the maximum likelihood estimators $\hat{\xi}$ and $\hat{\eta}$. □

2 A Monte Carlo method to approximate conditional expectations

In this section, we describe a natural Monte Carlo method to compute conditional expectations based on a theorem of Besicovitch on differentiation of measures. It will be used in the next section to approximate the minimum risk equivariant (MRE) estimator of the location parameter $\lambda$ on a theorem of Besicovitch (1945, 1946) for differentiation of measures (see, for instance, Corollary 2.14 of Mattila (1995)). This theorem extend to Radon measures the classical Lebesgue Differentiation Theorem.

Theorem 1 (Besicovitch (1945, 1946)). Let $\lambda$ be a Radon measure on $\mathbb{R}^n$, and $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ a locally $\lambda$-integrable function. Then

$$\lim_{r \downarrow 0} \frac{1}{\lambda(B_r(x))} \int_{B_r(x)} f \, d\lambda = f(x)$$

for $\lambda$-almost all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, where $B_r(x)$ denotes the ball of center $x$ and radius $r > 0$ for the norm $\| \cdot \|_\infty$ on $\mathbb{R}^n$.

Now let $(\Omega, A, P)$ be a probability space, $X : (\Omega, A, P) \to \mathbb{R}^n$ be an $n$-dimensional random variable and $Y : (\Omega, A, P) \to \mathbb{R}$ be a real random variable with finite mean. The conditional expectation $E(Y|X)$ is defined as a random variable on $\mathbb{R}^n$ such that $\int_{X^{-1}(B)} Y \, dP = \int_B E(Y|X) \, dP^X$ for any Borel set $B$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$, where $P^X$ denotes the probability distribution of $X$.

Although the existence of the conditional expectation is guaranteed via the Radon-Nikodym theorem, its computation is, generally, involved. Nevertheless, according to the previous result, for $P^X$-almost every $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$\lim_{r \downarrow 0} \frac{1}{P^X(B_r(x))} \int_{X^{-1}(B_r(x))} Y(\omega) \, dP^X(\omega) = \lim_{r \downarrow 0} \frac{1}{P^X(B_r(x))} \int_{B_r(x)} E(Y|X = x') \, dP^X(x') = E(Y|X = x)$$

By the Strong Law of Large Numbers, for almost every sequence $(\omega_i)$ in $\Omega$, we have

$$P^X(B_r(x)) = \lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k} I_{B_r(x)}(X(\omega_i))$$

and

$$\int_{B_r(x)} E(Y|X = x') \, dP^X(x') = \lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k} I_{B_r(x)}(X(\omega_i)) Y(\omega_i)$$
where $I_A$ denotes the indicator function of $A$. Observe that, for every $\epsilon > 0$, the rate of convergence is $1/\sqrt{n}$.

Hence, we have proved the following result:

**Theorem 2.** Let $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P)$ be a probability space, $X : (\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P) \to \mathbb{R}^n$ be an $n$-dimensional random variable and $Y : (\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P) \to \mathbb{R}$ be a real random variable with finite mean. Then, for $P^X$-almost every $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and almost every sequence $(\omega_i)$ in $\Omega$, we have

$$E(Y|X = x) = \lim_{\epsilon \downarrow 0} \lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{k} I_{B_\epsilon(x)}(x) Y(\omega_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^{k} I_{B_\epsilon(x)}(x)}.$$

This theorem yields a means of approximating the conditional expectation of $Y$ given $X$. The following simple example illustrates the method.

**Example 1.** Let $(X, Y)$ be a bivariate normal random variable with null mean such that $\text{Var}(X) = \text{Var}(Y) = 1$ and $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = 0.5$. In this case, there is no need for an approximation to the conditional expectation of $Y$ given $X$ because it is $x/2$. The conditional distribution of $Y$ given $X = x$ is $N\left(\frac{x}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{3}\right)$. Applying the proposed method to evaluate $E(Y|X = 1)$, given a small $\epsilon > 0$, we may choose a sample $(x_i, y_i)_{1 \leq i \leq k}$ from the joint distribution of $X$ and $Y$ and approximate $E(Y|X = 1)$ by

$$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{k} I_{[1-\epsilon,1+\epsilon]}(x_i)y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{k} I_{[1-\epsilon,1+\epsilon]}(x_i)}.$$

Taking $\epsilon = 0.1, 0.01$ and samples from the joint distribution of $X$ and $Y$ with sample sizes $k$ large enough to obtain $m = m(k) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} I_{[1-\epsilon,1+\epsilon]}(x_i) = 100, 1000, 5000$, we obtained the approximations for $E(Y|X = 1)$ summarized in Table 1 and Figure 1: 100 replications of each simulation have been conducted to obtain the table and the figure. Namely, taking $m = 1000$, for instance, the value 0.493947 appearing in the table as an approximation of $E(Y|X = 1)$ when $\epsilon = 0.1$ is the mean of the 100 values of the quotient (1) obtained after 100 replications of the experiment of choosing a $k$-sized sample $(x_i, y_i)_{1 \leq i \leq k}$ of the joint distribution of $(X, Y)$, $k$ being large enough to get $m = m(k) = 1000$. Table 1 also includes the “mean squared error” (MSE) calculated from these 100 values: the format used for a typical entry in the table is $E(Y|X = 1) \pm \text{MSE}$. The box-plot of the figure describes the distribution of these 100 values (a dotted red line represents the mean).

| $m$ | 100         | 1000        | 5000        |
|-----|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| $\epsilon = 0.1$ | 0.505885 & 0.006395 | 0.493947 & 0.000815 | 0.497892 & 0.000128 |
| $\epsilon = 0.01$ | 0.503655 & 0.007165 | 0.499826 & 0.000716 | 0.499471 & 0.000150 |

Table 1. Approximation of $E(Y|X = 1)$ & MSE as a function of the number of simulations, $m$, for $\epsilon = 0.1, 0.01$.

![Figure 1. Box plots of the approximations of $E(Y|X = 1)$ as a function of the number of simulations, $m$, for $\epsilon = 0.1$ and $\epsilon = 0.01$.](image-url)
Remark. The described method of Monte Carlo approximation to the conditional expectation $E(Y|X = x)$ is based on the naive idea that one can approximate it from a sample $(x_i, y_i)_{1 \leq i \leq n}$ by the mean of the $y_i$ corresponding to points $x_i$ lying in a narrow neighborhood of $x$. From a probabilistic point of view, the method has been justified by the mentioned theorem of Besicovitch on differentiation of measures. When the joint density of $X$ and $Y$ is known, $E(Y|X = x)$ is the mean of the conditional distribution of $Y$ given $X = x$, and the problem of computing a conditional expectation is reduced to the problem of computing a mean. Notice that the existence of a joint density is not required by the method and it could be especially useful when densities are not available or are not easy to compute (see the next example).

Example 2. (Example 1, continuation) A similar simulation study has been performed to approximate the conditional expectation $E(V|U = 0.5)$, where $V = \sin(X \cdot Y)$ and $U = \cos(X^2 + Y^2)$; the obtained results are:

| $m$ | 100 | 1000 | 5000 |
|-----|-----|------|------|
| $\epsilon = 0.1$ | 0.127650 & 0.001890 | 0.127280 & 0.000202 | 0.124169 & 0.000025 |
| $\epsilon = 0.01$ | 0.123063 & 0.001620 | 0.125869 & 0.000153 | 0.1252856 & 0.000031 |

Table 2. Approximation of $E(V|U = 0.5)$ & $S^2$ ($S^2$ is the sample variance) as a function of the number of simulations, $m$, for $\epsilon = 0.1, 0.01$.

Figure 2. Box plots of the approximations of $E(V|U = 0.5)$ as a function of the number of simulations, $m$, for $\epsilon = 0.1$ and $\epsilon = 0.01$.

Remark. In a classical statistical framework, we can provide additional guarantees on the method, since the obtained Monte Carlo approximation to the conditional expectation $E(Y|X = x)$ coincides with the value at the point $x$ of the kernel estimator (the Nadaraya-Watson estimator) of the regression curve $y = E(Y|X = x)$ for the kernel $K(x) = I_{[-1,1]}(x)$ (see Nadaraya (1989), p. 115). From this point of view, $\epsilon$ plays the role of the bandwidth parameter. We refer to Härdle (1992, Ch. 5) for a detailed discussion on the important problem of the choice of the bandwidth.

Remark. As it is pointed out to us by the referees, in a Bayesian setting a similar idea has been in use in recent years to generate an approximate sample from the posterior distribution given $x$ assuming that the likelihood function is easy to sample. This proceeds by sampling values $\theta_i$ from the prior distribution and $x_i$ from the distribution of the data given $\theta_i$, and accepting those parameters $\theta_i$ such that $x_i$ is in the ball $B_\epsilon(x)$ centered at $x$ of radius $\epsilon > 0$. In fact, from a sample of size $k$ we can approximate the posterior probability given $x$ of a subset $T$ of the parameter space by

$$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{k} I_{B_\epsilon(x)}(x_i) I_T(\theta_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^{k} I_{B_\epsilon(x)}(x_i)}.$$  

We also can approximate the posterior mean given $x$ of a function $f$ of the parameter by

$$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{k} I_{B_\epsilon(x)}(x_i) f(\theta_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^{k} I_{B_\epsilon(x)}(x_i)}.$$

□
Recall that an estimator result, a direct consequence of classical equivariant estimation theory (see Lehmann (1983)). First, where

\[ g \in \mathcal{G} \]

This family remains invariant under transformations of the form

\[ g_{a,b}(x_1,...,x_n) = (a+bx_1,...,a+bx_n), \quad a \in \mathbb{R}, b > 0. \]

To estimate the location parameter \( \xi \) when the scale parameter \( \eta \) is unknown, we have the next result, a direct consequence of classical equivariant estimation theory (see Lehmann (1983)). First, recall that an estimator \( T \) of the location parameter is equivariant if \( T(a + bx_1,...,a + bx_n) = a + bT(x_1,...,x_n) \), for all \( a \in \mathbb{R} \) and all \( b > 0 \).

**Proposition 2.** When the loss function \( W_2(x; \xi, \eta) = \eta^{-2}(x-\xi)^2 \) is considered, the MRE estimator \( \hat{\xi} \) of \( \xi \) is

\[ \hat{\xi} = T_0^* - (\rho \circ U)T_1^* \]

where

\[ T_0^* = \bar{Y}, \quad T_1^* = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} |Y_i - \bar{Y}| \]

\[ U = \left( \frac{Y_1 - Y_n}{Y_n - Y_1}, ..., \frac{Y_{n-2} - Y_n}{Y_{n-2} - Y_n}, \frac{Y_{n-1} - Y_n}{Y_{n-1} - Y_n} \right) \]

\[ \rho = \frac{E_{\xi=a,\eta=1}(T_0^*T_1^*|U)}{E_{\xi=a,\eta=1}(T_1^2|U)} \]

**Remark.** \( T_0^* \) can be replaced by any other equivariant estimator of \( \xi \) (i.e., satisfying \( T_0^*(a+by_1,...,a+by_n) = a + bT_0^*(y_1,...,y_n) \) for every \( a \in \mathbb{R}, b > 0 \)), and \( T_1^* \) can be replaced by any positive estimator of \( \eta \) satisfying \( T_1^*(a+by_1,...,a+by_n) = bT_1^*(y_1,...,y_n) \) for every \( a \in \mathbb{R}, b > 0 \). □
A simulation study has been performed to investigate the behavior of the minimum risk equivariant estimator \( \hat{\xi} \). In it, we used 100 simulations with sample sizes \( n = 100, 1000, 5000 \) from the \( H_N(10, 4) \) distribution, obtaining the results summarized in Table 3 and Figure 3 (see below how we have made use of the method of approximation of conditional expectations to obtain the values of the Tables 3 and 4).

| \( m \) | \( \epsilon = 0.1 \) | \( \epsilon = 0.01 \) |
|--------|-----------------|-----------------|
| 100    | 9.412753 & 2.307873 | 9.603969 & 0.687243 |
| 1000   | 9.517691 & 1.881063 | 9.274164 & 3.501158 |
| 5000   | 9.732626 & 0.158635 | 9.867600 & 0.027826 |

Table 3. Approximations of \( \hat{\xi} \) & MSE as a function of the number of simulations, \( m \), for \( \epsilon = 0.1, 0.01 \).

![Box plots of the approximations of \( \hat{\xi} \) & MSE as a function of the number of simulations, \( m \), for \( \epsilon = 0.1 \) and \( \epsilon = 0.01 \).](image)

To compare the behavior of the unbiased estimator \( \tilde{\xi} \), the maximum likelihood estimator \( \hat{\xi} \) and the minimum risk equivariant estimator \( \hat{\xi} \), we used 100 simulations with sample sizes \( n = 100, 1000, 5000 \) from the \( H_N(10, 4) \) distribution, obtaining the results summarized in Table 4 and Figure 4:

| \( m \) | \( \epsilon = 0.1 \) | \( \epsilon = 0.01 \) |
|--------|-----------------|-----------------|
| 100    | 9.997350 & 0.003289 | 9.999662 & 0.003443 |
| 1000   | 9.999356 & 0.000020 | 9.999989 & 0.000025 |
| 5000   | 10.000823 & 0.000001 | 10.001050 & 0.000002 |
| 100    | 10.047256 & 0.005455 | 10.049128 & 0.005752 |
| 1000   | 10.004383 & 0.000039 | 10.005005 & 0.000050 |
| 5000   | 10.000823 & 0.000001 | 10.001050 & 0.000002 |
| 100    | 9.412753 & 2.307873 | 9.603969 & 0.687243 |
| 1000   | 9.517691 & 1.881063 | 9.274164 & 3.501158 |
| 5000   | 9.732626 & 0.158635 | 9.867600 & 0.027826 |

Table 4. Approximations of \( \tilde{\xi} \) & MSE, \( \hat{\xi} \) & MSE and \( \hat{\xi} \) & MSE as a function of the number of simulations, \( m \), for \( \epsilon = 0.1, 0.01 \).

Table 4 and Figure 4 illustrate the biased character of the maximum likelihood estimator \( \hat{\xi} \) and the minimum risk equivariant estimator \( \hat{\xi} \).

Let us describe in more details the ideas used in these simulations. For a sample \( y = (y_1, \ldots, y_n) \), \( n = 100, 1000, 5000 \), of the distribution \( H_N(10, 4) \), we have

\[
\rho(U(y)) = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{N_\epsilon}{D_\epsilon}
\]
Figure 4. Box plots of the approximations of $\hat{\xi}$, $\xi$ and $\hat{\xi}$ as a function of the number of simulations, $m = 100, 1000, 5000$, for $\epsilon = 0.1$ and $\epsilon = 0.01$. 
where

\[ N_\epsilon = \int_{A_\epsilon(y)} f(y') dy', \quad D_\epsilon = \int_{A_\epsilon(y)} g(y') dy', \]

\[ f(y') = T_0^a(y') T_1^a(y') \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \| y' \|_2^2 \right\}, \quad g(y') = T_1^a(y')^2 \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \| y' \|_2^2 \right\}, \]

\[ A_\epsilon(y) = \{ y' \in [0,10]^n : \max_{1 \leq i \leq n-1} |U_i(y') - U_i(y)| \leq \epsilon \}. \]

Now, take a sample \( S \) of \( A_\epsilon(y) \) and approximate \( N_\epsilon \) and \( D_\epsilon \) by

\[ \frac{1}{\text{card}(S)} \sum_{y' \in S} f(y') \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{1}{\text{card}(S)} \sum_{y' \in S} g(y'), \]

respectively. So, \( \rho(U(y)) \) can be approximated by

\[ C(y) := \frac{\sum_{y' \in S} f(y')}{\sum_{y' \in S} g(y')} \]

and \( \hat{\xi}(y) \) is approximated by \( D(y) := T_0^a(y) - C(y) T_1^a(y) \).

To approximate \( C(y) \), a first idea would be to divide the interval \([0,10]\) in multiple subintervals of small length \( \epsilon > 0 \) and consider the grid in the interval \([0,10]^n\) formed by the \( n \)-power set of the ends of these subintervals (we have restricted ourselves to the interval \([0,10]\) because the functions \( f(y) \) and \( g(y) \) are almost null when one of the coordinates of the vector \( y \) is greater than 10). The sample \( S \) would then be formed by the grid nodes that are in \( A_\epsilon \). The main problem with this approach is that the size \( m \) of the sample \( S \) is very small: it becomes smaller as \( n \) increases, because of the so-called “curse of dimensionality” problem. In order to avoid this problem and obtain a sample size \( m \) large enough for \( S \) (given \( n \), we take \( m = 100n \)), we have used the following algorithm, a modification of the described Monte Carlo method to approximate conditional expectations that hinges on the use of the invariance of \( U \) under scale and location transformations. Namely:

**Step A.** Let \( n \in \mathbb{N} \) and be \( y = (y_1, \ldots, y_n) \) a \( n \)-sized sample of the distribution \( HN(10,4) \). For \( 1 \leq i \leq n - 2 \), let \( a_i := \frac{y_{i+1} - y_{i-1}}{y_n - y_1} \) and take \( 0 < \epsilon < \min\{0.1, \min_{1 \leq i \leq n-2} |a_i| \} \).

**Step A.1.** At this stage we choose coordinatewise at random 100 \( \cdot n \) vectors \( v^{(j)} = (v_1^{(j)}, \ldots, v_n^{(j)}) \), \( 1 \leq j \leq 100n \), in \( \mathbb{R}^n \) such that \( \max_{1 \leq i \leq n-1} |U_i(v^{(j)}) - U_i(y)| \leq \epsilon \) as follows:

A.1.1. Make \( j = 1 \).

A.1.2. Take \( v_{n-1}^{(j)} \), \( v_n^{(j)} \) at random in \([0,10]\) such that \( v_{n-1}^{(j)} - v_n^{(j)} \) has the same sign as \( y_{n-1} - y_n \). (So, the last coordinates of \( U(v^{(j)}) \) and \( U(y) \) are the same).

A.1.3. For \( 1 \leq i \leq n-2 \) take \( v_i^{(j)} \) at random on the interval determined by \( v_n^{(j)} + (v_{n-1}^{(j)} - v_n^{(j)})(a_i - \epsilon) \) and \( v_n^{(j)} + (v_{n-1}^{(j)} - v_n^{(j)})(a_i + \epsilon) \). (So \( |U_i(v^{(j)}) - U_i(y)| \leq \epsilon \)).

A.1.4. Make \( j = j + 1 \) and go back to Step A.1 until 100n vectors \( v^{(j)} = (v_1^{(j)}, \ldots, v_n^{(j)}) \), \( 1 \leq j \leq 100n \) are obtained.

**Step A.2.** Since the vectors \( v^{(j)} = (v_1^{(j)}, \ldots, v_n^{(j)}) \), \( 1 \leq j \leq 100n \), do not lie necessarily in \([0,10]^n\) (so neither in \( A_\epsilon(y) \)), we can make some random location-scale transformations to put them into \([0,10]^n\). These transformations do not modify the required fact that \( \max_{1 \leq i \leq n-1} |U_i(v^{(j)}) - U_i(y)| \leq \epsilon \).

A.2.1. If \( u_i^{(j)} < 0 \) for some \( i_0, j_0 \), we define \( u_i^{(j)} = v + v_i^{(j)} \), \( 1 \leq i \leq n \), \( 1 \leq j \leq 100n \), where \( v \) is chosen at random between \(-\min_{1 \leq i \leq n, 1 \leq j \leq 100n} u_i^{(j)} \) and \( 1 - \min_{1 \leq i \leq n, 1 \leq j \leq 100n} u_i^{(j)} \). Otherwise, \( u_i^{(j)} = v_i^{(j)} \), \( 1 \leq i \leq n \), \( 1 \leq j \leq 100n \).

A.2.2. Each vector \( v^{(j)} \) is divided by \( \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} u_i^{(j)} \) and multiplied by a random number chosen in \([0,10]\) to obtain the vector \( w^{(j)} \).
A.2.3. Take $S = \{w^{(j)}: 1 \leq j \leq 100n\}$ and approximate $C(y)$ by

$$\frac{\sum_{j=1}^{100n} f(w^{(j)})}{\sum_{j=1}^{100n} g(w^{(j)})}$$

and $D(y)$ by $T_0^*(y) - C(y)T_1^*(y)$.

Step B. Finally, following the process designed in Step A, we choose $k := 100$ random samples $y^{(i)}$ of size $n$ from the $HN(10,4)$ distribution and approximate the mean and the mean squared error of $\hat{\xi}$ by

$$\frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k} D(y^{(i)})$$

and

$$\frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k} (D(y^{(i)}) - 10)^2,$$

respectively, and we construct a box-plot with the values $D(y^{(i)})$.

**Remark.** Notice that both $\hat{\xi}$ and $\tilde{\xi}$ are equivariant estimators of the location parameter $\xi$. So they have greater risk for the loss function $W_2$ than $\hat{\xi}$. Hence, in the previous simulation study, the MSE of $\hat{\xi}$ should have been smaller than the MSE of $\tilde{\xi}$ and $\tilde{\xi}$. That has not been the case, because, for the MRE estimator, we have not real estimates of $\xi$, but approximations of these estimates obtained by a modification of the Monte Carlo method of computing the conditional expectations appearing as the numerator and denominator of a quotient. But this is a possible issue to approximate minimum risk estimations of a location parameter, and a possible way to avoid the “curse of dimensionality problem”. ∎

**Remark.** Although less interesting from the perspective of real applications, for completeness we now consider the problem of estimating the scale parameter $\eta$ when the location parameter $\eta$ is known, say $\eta = \eta_0$. In this case, the joint density of $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n$ is

$$f_\eta(y_1, \ldots, y_n) = \frac{1}{\eta_0^n \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \left\{-\frac{1}{2\eta_0^2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \eta)^2 \right\} I_{[-\eta, +\eta]}(y_1: n),$$

where $y_{1:n} := \min\{y_1, \ldots, y_n\}$. This family remains invariant under translations of the form $g_\eta(y_1, \ldots, y_n) = (y_1 - \eta, \ldots, y_n - \eta)$.

The equivariant estimator of minimum mean squared error of the location parameter $\xi$ is

$$T_1 = \bar{Y} - \frac{\eta_0}{\sqrt{2\pi n}} \exp \left\{-\frac{n}{2\eta_0^2} \left(\frac{Y_{1:n} - \bar{Y}}{\eta_0}\right)^2 \right\} \Phi \left[ \frac{\sqrt{n}}{\eta_0} (Y_{1:n} - \bar{Y}) \right].$$

In fact, for the loss function $W^2_2(\xi, x) = (x - \xi)^2$, the MRE estimator of the location parameter $\xi$ is the Pitman estimator

$$T_1(y_1, \ldots, y_n) = \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} u f_0(y_1 - u, \ldots, y_n - u) du}{\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f_0(y_1 - u, \ldots, y_n - u) du}.$$

For $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we write $\bar{y}$ for the mean of $y_1, \ldots, y_n$. After some algebraic manipulations, we obtain:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} u f_0(y_1 - u, \ldots, y_n - u) du = \left(\frac{\sqrt{2}}{\eta_0 \sqrt{\pi}}\right)^n \exp \left\{-\frac{1}{2\eta_0^2} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i^2 - n \bar{y}^2\right)\right\} \frac{\eta_0}{\sqrt{n}} \times \left[-\frac{\eta_0}{\sqrt{n}} \exp \left\{-\frac{n}{2\eta_0^2} (y_{1:n} - \bar{y})^2\right\} + \bar{y} \sqrt{2\pi} \Phi \left(\frac{\sqrt{n}}{\eta_0} (y_{1:n} - \bar{y})\right)\right].$$
and
\[
\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f_0(y_1 - u, \ldots, y_n - u) du = \\
\left( \frac{\sqrt{2}}{\eta_0 \sqrt{\pi}} \right)^n \exp \left\{ - \frac{1}{2\eta_0^2} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i^2 - ny^2 \right) \right\} \frac{\eta_0}{\sqrt{n}} \sqrt{2\pi} \Phi \left[ \frac{\sqrt{n}}{\eta_0} (y_{1:n} - \bar{y}) \right]
\]

and the statement follows easily from these expressions. □

4 Equivariant estimation of the scale parameter of the general half-normal distribution

Unlike what happens with the location parameter \( \xi \), for the scale parameter \( \eta \) an explicit expression for the MRE estimator is obtained.

Recall that an estimator \( T \) of the scale parameter \( \eta \) is equivariant if \( T(a + bx_1, \ldots, a + bx_n) = bT(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \), for all \( a \in \mathbb{R} \) and all \( b > 0 \).

Proposition 3. When using the loss function \( W_1(x; \xi, \eta) = \eta^{-2}(x - \eta)^2 \), the MRE estimator \( \hat{\eta} \) of \( \eta \) is
\[
\hat{\eta} = \sqrt{n - 1} \frac{\Gamma \left( \frac{n+1}{2} \right)}{2 \Gamma \left( \frac{n+2}{2} \right)} \left( \frac{\sqrt{n(n+1)}}{n-1} \right) \frac{\eta_0}{\sqrt{n}} \sqrt{2\pi} \Phi \left[ \frac{\sqrt{n}}{\eta_0} (y_{1:n} - \bar{y}) \right]
\]

where \( t_n \) denotes the Student’s \( t \)-distribution with \( n \) degrees of freedom, \( S^2 \) is the sample variance and \( \Gamma \) denotes Euler’s gamma function.

Proof. The MRE estimator of the scale parameter \( \eta \), when using the loss function \( W_1 \), is
\[
\hat{\eta}(y) = \frac{\int_{0}^{+\infty} v^n f'(vy_1', \ldots, vy_{n-1}') dv}{\int_{0}^{+\infty} v^{n+1} f'(vy_1', \ldots, vy_{n-1}') dv},
\]
where \( f' \) is the joint density when \( \eta = 1 \) of \( Y_i' := Y_i - Y_n \), \( 1 \leq i \leq n-1 \), and \( y_i' := y_i - y_n \), \( 1 \leq i \leq n-1 \).

Notice that
\[
f'(y_1', \ldots, y_{n-1}') = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(y_1 + t, \ldots, y_n + t) dt \]
\[
= \left( \frac{2}{\pi} \right)^\frac{\eta}{2} \exp \left\{ - \frac{1}{2} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i^2 + ny^2 \right) \right\} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp \left\{ - \frac{n}{2} (y + \bar{y})^2 \right\} dt \]
\[
= \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \left( \frac{2}{\pi} \right)^\frac{\eta}{2} \exp \left\{ - \frac{1}{2} (n-1)S^2(y) \right\} \int_{\sqrt{n}(\bar{y} - y_{1:n})}^{\infty} \exp \left\{ - \frac{1}{2} u^2 \right\} du.
\]

Hence, for \( k \in \mathbb{N} \), applying Fubini’s Theorem after a suitable change of variables in the inner integral,
\[
I_k(y) := \int_{0}^{+\infty} v^k f'(vy_1', \ldots, vy_{n-1}') dv \]
\[
= \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \left( \frac{2}{\pi} \right)^\frac{\eta}{2} \int_{0}^{+\infty} v^k \exp \left\{ - \frac{1}{2} (n-1)S^2(y) \right\} \int_{\sqrt{n}(\bar{y} - y_{1:n})}^{\infty} \exp \left\{ - \frac{1}{2} u^2 \right\} du dv \]
\[
= \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \left( \frac{2}{\pi} \right)^\frac{\eta}{2} \int_{\sqrt{n}(\bar{y} - y_{1:n})}^{\infty} J_k(t, y) dt.
\]
where
\[ J_k(t,y) := \int_0^\infty v^{k+1} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} v^2 (t^2 + (n-1)S^2(y)) \right\} \, dv = \frac{2^{k/2} \Gamma \left( \frac{k+2}{2} \right)}{(t^2 + (n-1)S^2(y))^{k/2}}. \]

where, for \( t \geq \sqrt{n(y - y_{1:n})} \), we have made the change of variables \( w = \frac{1}{2} v^2 (t^2 + (n-1)S^2(y)) \).

So,
\[
I_k(y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \left( \frac{2}{\pi} \right)^{\frac{n}{2}} 2^{k/2} \Gamma \left( \frac{k+2}{2} \right) \int_0^\infty \frac{dt}{\sqrt{n(y - y_{1:n})}} (t^2 + (n-1)S^2(y))^{k/2} \left[ t_{k+1} \left( \sqrt{\frac{n(k+1)}{n-1} \frac{y - y_{1:n}}{S(y)}}, \infty \right) \right].
\]

Finally
\[
\hat{\eta}(y) = \frac{I_n(y)}{I_{n+1}(y)} = \sqrt{\frac{n-1}{2}} \Gamma \left( \frac{n+1}{2} \right) t_{n+1} \left( \sqrt{\frac{n(n+1)}{n-1} \frac{y - y_{1:n}}{S(y)}}, \infty \right) \frac{S(y)}{2}. \]

**Remark.** A simulation study has been performed to compare the behavior of the unbiased estimator \( \tilde{\eta} \), the maximum likelihood estimator \( \hat{\eta} \) and the MRE estimator \( \hat{\eta} \) using 1000 simulated random samples of size \( n = 10, 20, 30 \) from the \( HN(10,4) \) distribution. The results obtained for the means and the mean squared errors of the three estimators are presented in Table 5 and Figure 5 (as before, a dotted red line represents the mean).

| \( n \) | \( \tilde{\eta} \) | \( \hat{\eta} \) | \( \hat{\eta} \) |
|------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| 10   | 3.996009 & 1.052443 | 3.520680 & 0.952987 | 3.568520 & 0.929288 |
| 20   | 3.996575 & 0.526328  | 3.760888 & 0.458780  | 3.795590 & 0.450882  |
| 30   | 4.015727 & 0.324161  | 3.845478 & 0.294937  | 3.871677 & 0.291209  |

Table 5. Sample mean and MSE of the estimators calculated using 1000 random samples of size \( n \) from the \( HN(10,4) \) distribution.
Notice that both $\hat{\eta}$ and $\tilde{\eta}$ are equivariant estimators of the scale parameter $\eta$. So they have greater risk for the loss function $W_1$ than $\bar{\eta}$. Hence (see Table 5 and Figure 5), in the previous simulation study, the MSE of $\bar{\eta}$ is smaller than the MSE of $\hat{\eta}$ and $\tilde{\eta}$.

**Remark.** Although less interesting from the perspective of real applications, for completeness we now consider the problem of estimating the scale parameter $\eta$ when the location parameter $\xi$ is known, say $\xi = \xi_0$. After the shift $\textbf{y} \mapsto \textbf{y} - \xi_0$, the statistical model remains invariant under the transformations (dilations) of the form $\textbf{y} \mapsto (a\textbf{y}, \ldots, a\textbf{y})$, for $a > 0$. For the loss function $W'_1(\eta, x) = (x - \eta)^2 / \eta^2$, the MRE estimator of the scale parameter $\eta$ is

$$T_2 = \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{n+1}{2}\right)}{\sqrt{2\Gamma\left(\frac{n+2}{2}\right)}} \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \xi_0)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \xi_0)^2}} \cdot \frac{B\left(\frac{n+1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right)}{\sqrt{2\pi}},$$

where $B$ denotes Euler’s beta function. In fact, for the loss function $W'_1$, the MRE estimator of $\eta$ is

$$T_2(y_1, \ldots, y_n) = \int_0^\infty v^n h_1(v, y_1, \ldots, y_n) dv,$$

where

$$h_1(y_1, \ldots, y_n) = \left(\frac{2}{\pi}\right)^{\frac{n}{2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i^2\right\} I_{[0, +\infty]}(y_1:n).$$

To simplify the notation, we assume without loss of generality that $\xi_0 = 0$. The change of variable $t = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i^2 v^2$ leads to, for $k = n, n + 1,$

$$\int_0^\infty v^k h_1(v y_1, \ldots, v y_n) dv = 2^{\frac{n+k-1}{2}} \pi^{-\frac{n}{2}} \Gamma\left(\frac{k+1}{2}\right) I_{[0, +\infty]}(y_1:n),$$

and the assertion then follows easily.

Note also that, when $\xi = \xi_0$,

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \xi_0)^2$$

is the minimum variance unbiased estimator of $\eta^2$. This is a consequence of the Lehmann-Scheffé Theorem and the facts that $\sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \xi_0)^2$ is a sufficient and complete statistic and $\eta^{-2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \xi_0)^2$
has a $\chi^2(n)$ distribution. A little more work shows that

$$\frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)}{\sqrt{2\Gamma\left(\frac{n+1}{2}\right)}} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \xi_0)^2} = \frac{B\left(\frac{n}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right)}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \xi_0)^2}$$

is the minimum variance unbiased estimator of $\eta$. □

Acknowledgements. This work was supported by the Spanish Ministerio de Ciencia y Tecnología under the project MTM2010-16845 and the Junta de Extremadura under the GR10064 grant.

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