

A General Approximation for the Distribution of Count Data

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Abstract

Under mild assumptions about the interarrival distribution, we derive a modified version of the Birnbaum-Saunders distribution, which we call the tBISA, as an approximation for the true distribution of count data. The free parameters of the tBISA are the first two moments of the underlying interarrival distribution. We show that the density for the sum of tBISA variables is available in closed form. This density is determined using the tBISA's moment generating function, which we introduce to the literature. The tBISA's moment generating function additionally reveals a new mixture interrelation that is based on the inverse Gaussian and gamma distributions. We then show that the tBISA can fit count data better than the distributions commonly used to model demand in economics and business. In numerical experiments and empirical applications, we demonstrate that modeling demand with the tBISA can lead to better economic decisions.

Keywords: Birnbaum-Saunders; inverse Gaussian; gamma; confluent hypergeometric functions; inventory model.

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can still be obtained from interarrival data. We demonstrate both estimation approaches.

Because many applications require that counts be summed, we investigate the additive properties of the tBIS \mathbb{V} . For example, the interarrival distribution may change (e.g., by time-of-day, day-of-the-week or season), thereby violating the assumption that arrival times are identically distributed. Another example involves dynamic inventory models. Determining the optimal policy parameters in some dynamic inventory models requires aggregating demand over the number of periods in the delivery lag.

Determining the sum of tBIS \mathbb{V} random variables requires that we derive the BIS \mathbb{V} 's moment generating function (mgf), which appears to have been previously undiscovered (interestingly, the mgf of the log-BIS \mathbb{V} , also called the sinh-normal, is known, albeit in terms of modified Bessel functions of the third kind [15]). The BIS \mathbb{V} mgf reveals that the distribution can be represented as a mixture, in equal proportions, of (i) an inverse Gaussian and (ii) the same inverse Gaussian plus an independent gamma distribution with shape $93 - 1.4d4[(is)-477(kno)27(n,)-5$

central limit theorem, the probability of the count C being n or less is

$$\Pr(C \leq n) = \Pr \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n+1} X_i > T \right) = \Pr \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n+1} X_i - (n+1)\mu}{\sqrt{(n+1)\sigma^2}} > \frac{T - (n+1)\mu}{\sqrt{(n+1)\sigma^2}} \right) \approx 1 - \Phi \left(\frac{T - (n+1)\mu}{\sqrt{(n+1)\sigma^2}} \right) \quad (2)$$

here $\Phi(\cdot)$ is the cumulative distribution function for the standard normal. Approximating the discrete count n with a continuous variable $x \geq 0$, we obtain the density

$$\frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}} \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{T - (x+1)\mu}{\sqrt{(x+1)\sigma^2}} \right)^2 \right] \cdot \frac{T + (x+1)\mu}{(x+1)^{3/2}} \quad (3)$$

By comparison, Birnbaum and Saunders [2] use n instead of $(n+1)$ when modeling the number of cycles until failure (this is because $n = 0$ is not a possibility in their model; it is in ours), so their density is

$$\frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}} \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{T - x\mu}{\sqrt{x\sigma^2}} \right)^2 \right] \quad \text{ET q 1 0 0 1 290. 474 549. 08 8. 546 To}$$

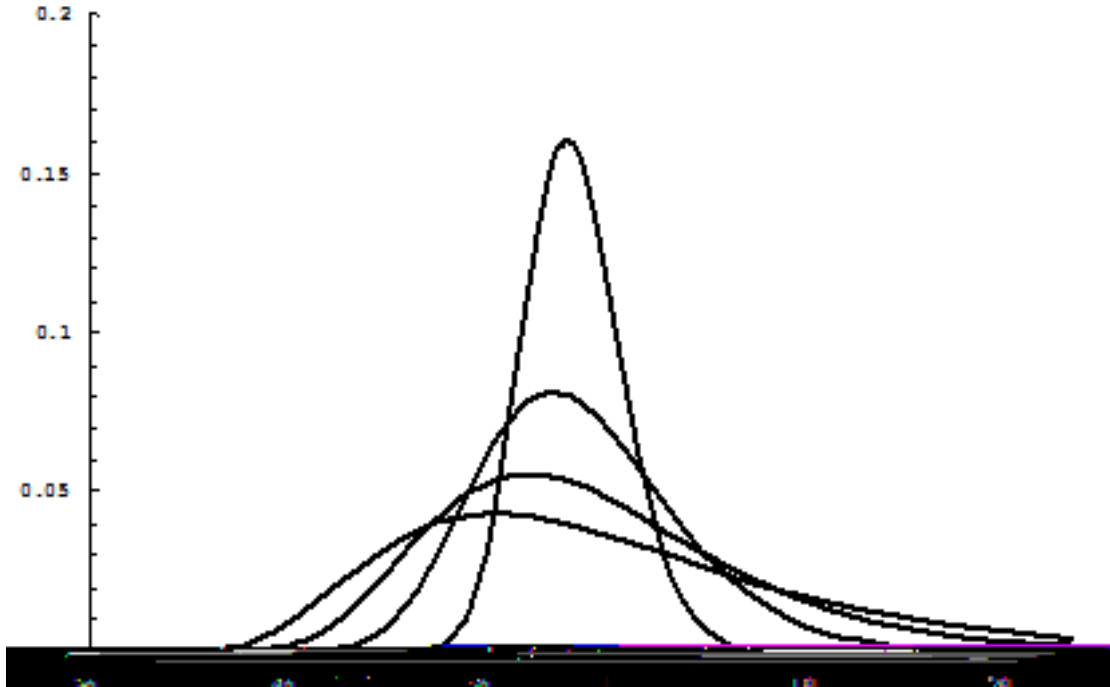


Figure 1: tBIS density for $T = 500$, $\alpha = 10, 20, 30, 40$

this approximation is very good. Thus, while the next proposition states approximate results, the results are nearly exact for practical purposes.

Proposition 1. *Let the mean and standard deviation of the stationary interarrival distribution be μ and σ , respectively. Then the first three moments about the mean for the count distribution (5) are*

$$\begin{aligned}
 (i) \quad E(C) &\cong \mu - \sigma^2 + \frac{\sigma^2}{2} \\
 (ii) \quad E(C - E(C))^2 &\cong \frac{5}{4} \sigma^4 + \mu \cdot \frac{\sigma^2}{2} \\
 (iii) \quad E(C - E(C))^3 &\cong \frac{11}{2} \frac{\sigma^6}{6} + \mu \cdot \frac{\sigma^4}{4}
 \end{aligned}$$

Not surprisingly, result (i) is $\frac{1}{2}$ unit less than the corresponding result in [2] while result (ii) is identical. Result (iii) can be obtained from [9] after a little algebra. We note that the moment formulas in Proposition 1 are all functions of just two fundamental quantities, the coefficient of variation of the interarrival distribution, $c_v = \frac{\sigma}{\mu}$, and the ratio $T = \frac{\mu}{\sigma}$. Moreover, the moments are all increasing functions of these two terms. In particular, the third moment about the mean is always positive so the count distribution is always positively skewed.

Proposition 2. *The density (5) is unimodal, and its mode is less than its median which is less than its mean.*

When a tBIS random variable (5) is log-transformed, it produces a symmetric, unimodal distribution that resembles a normal distribution. This result is analogous to that obtained in [1] for the BIS distribution (4).

Proposition 3. *Suppose that the count C has the density (5). Then $Y = \ln(C + 1)$ has a unimodal distribution that is symmetric about $\ln(T)$.*

The proof of Proposition 3 is straightforward, and the proposition provides a theoretical basis for modeling the logarithm of count data, as is customarily done in many applications in economics and business. It is worth noting, however, that the tBIS distribution retains an important advantage over logarithmic distributions—it is derived directly from the interarrival distribution whose moments define its free parameters.

3. SOME COMPARISONS WITH EXACT COUNT DISTRIBUTIONS

We now assess the accuracy of the tBIS approximation. Under certain assumptions, the probability that the count C equals n can be computed exactly so a comparison between the tBIS distribution (5) and a known count distribution is possible. The primary requirements for the interarrival distribution are that (i) the interarrival distribution has nonnegative support and (ii) the distribution for the sum can be determined in a convenient numerical form. We consider two such cases here. The first is a gamma interarrival process, which nests the exponential, Erlang, and chi-square as special cases. The second is a uniform interarrival process. For comparing fits, we report the mean and variance of each distribution (exact count distribution vs. tBIS) as well as the maximum absolute value of the difference, D_{max} , between the cdf of the exact count distribution and the cdf of the tBIS.

3.1 Gamma Interarrival

We follow the development of Winkelmann [19]. The time between arrivals is gamma distributed with shape parameter $k > 0$ and scale parameter $\lambda > 0$. The time interval is $[0, T]$. The mean and variance are k/λ and k/λ^2 , respectively. The interarrival time has probability density

$$f(t; k, \lambda) = \frac{\lambda^k}{\Gamma(k)} t^{k-1} \exp(-\lambda t) \quad \text{for } t > 0 \text{ and } k \in \mathbf{R}^+ \quad (6)$$

Define

$$G(nk; T) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(k)} \int_0^T u^{nk-1} \exp(-u) du \quad (7)$$

The count distribution on the interval $[0, T]$ is

$$P(C = n) = G(nk; T) - G((n+1)k; T) \quad (8)$$

for $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

Figure 2 illustrates the exact count distribution for $k = 1/2$

	Gamma Interarrivals			Uniform Interarrivals	
	$k = 1, \lambda = 40$	$k = 1, \lambda = 20$	$k = 2, \lambda = 10$	$T = 5$	$T = 10$
<i>count</i>	25.5	25	24.75	9.7	19.0
<i>tBISA</i>	25.5	25	24.75	9.7	19.7
<i>count</i>	7.05338	5	3.54431	1.88	2.02
<i>tBISA</i>	7.41198	5.123475	3.579455	1.8339	2.0875
D_{max}	.0372	.020	.01881	.0029	.0015

Table 1: tBISA approximation compared to exact count distributions

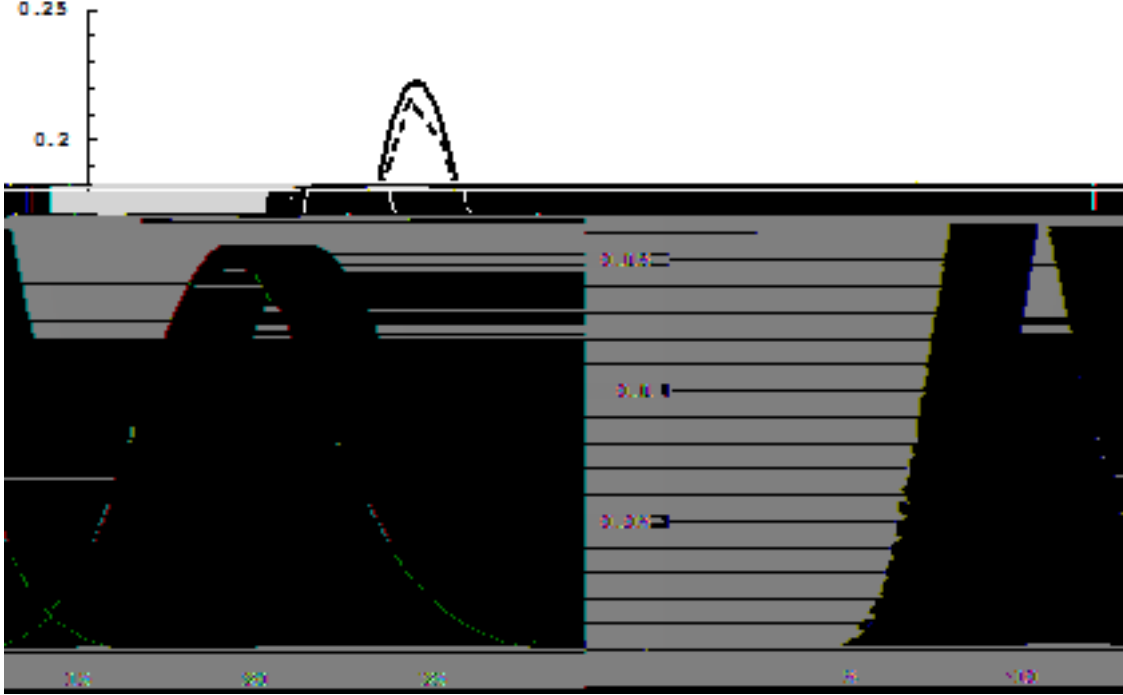


Figure 3: tBIS distribution (solid line) vs. exact count distribution (dashed line) assuming uniform interarrivals.

2 Uniform Interarrivals

Assume interarrival times are uniform $U[0,1]$. The mean and variance are $1/2$ and $1/12$, respectively. Then the density for $S_n = U_1 + U_2 + \dots + U_n$ is

$$f_n(x) = \frac{1}{2 \cdot (n-1)!} \sum_{k=0}^{\lfloor x \rfloor} (-1)^k \binom{n}{k} (x-k)^{n-1} \text{sgn}(x-k) \quad 0 \leq x \leq n; \quad (9)$$

which can be obtained after some algebra from Theorem 1 in [3]. From (9) one can compute the exact probability of the count equaling n for the time interval $[0, T]$

$$P(C = n) = P(S_{n+1} \geq T) - P(S_n \geq T) = \int_T^{n+1} [f_{n+1}(x) - f_n(x)] dx; \quad (T \leq n+1) \quad (10)$$

Comparisons of the tBIS density and $f_n(x)$ for $T=5, 10$ are shown in Figure 3 and their fits are compared in Table 1. In both cases, the tBIS approximates the exact count distribution extremely well.

4. ADDITIVE PROPERTIES

In many applications, summing random counts is important. In economics and business applications, for example, the demand distribution may vary over time (e.g., by time-of-day or day-of-the-week) so demand over the specified period can be represented as the sum of demands over disjoint subintervals. Also, many inventory problems require determining the distribution of demands

$$= \exp\left\{\frac{T}{2}\left[1 - \frac{1}{1 - 2t\frac{\sigma^2}{2}}\right]\right\} \quad \text{for } |t| < \frac{2}{\sigma^2} \quad (13)$$

The mgf of the BIS distribution, $M_{BS}(t)$, can be expressed in terms of the mgf of the inverse Gaussian

$$\begin{aligned} M_{BS}(t) &= \int_0^\infty \exp(tx) \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} \frac{T-x}{\sqrt{x}}\right]^2 \cdot \frac{T+x}{x^{3/2}} dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\infty \exp(tx) \frac{T}{\sqrt{2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} \frac{T-x}{\sqrt{x}}\right]^2 \frac{1}{x^{3/2}} dx \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2T} \int_0^\infty \exp(tx) \frac{T}{\sqrt{2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} \frac{T-x}{\sqrt{x}}\right]^2 \frac{1}{x^{1/2}} dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} M_{IG}(t) + \frac{1}{2T} M'_{IG}(t) \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

(Differentiation of $M_{IG}(t)$ in equation (14) can be justified for an $|t| < \frac{2}{\sigma^2}$ by applying Lebesgue's Dominated Convergence Theorem to the difference quotients.)

$$\begin{aligned} &= \frac{1}{2} \exp\left\{\frac{T}{2}\left[1 - \frac{1}{1 - 2t\frac{\sigma^2}{2}}\right]\right\} + \frac{1}{2T} \exp\left\{\frac{T}{2}\left[1 - \frac{1}{1 - 2t\frac{\sigma^2}{2}}\right]\right\} \frac{4T}{1 - 2t\frac{\sigma^2}{2}} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \exp\left\{\frac{T}{2}\left[1 - \frac{1}{1 - 2t\frac{\sigma^2}{2}}\right]\right\} \left[1 + \frac{4}{1 - 2t\frac{\sigma^2}{2}}\right] \quad \text{for } |t| < \frac{2}{\sigma^2} \end{aligned} \quad (15)$$

This establishes part (a). For part (b), the mgf in (a) can be written as

$$\frac{1}{2} \exp\left\{\frac{T}{2}\left[1 - \frac{1}{1 - 2t\frac{\sigma^2}{2}}\right]\right\}$$

which characterized the $\text{BIS}_{\alpha}^{\beta}$ distribution as a mixture, in equal proportions, of an inverse Gaussian and a reciprocal inverse Gaussian (the distribution of $1/X$ where $X \sim$ inverse Gaussian). Moreover, our mixture interpretation allows us to analyze sums of independent $\text{BIS}_{\alpha}^{\beta}$ random variables having different parameters T_i , α_i , and β_i , something Desmond's interpretation does not facilitate. Finally, our mixture result implies that the reciprocal inverse Gaussian is equivalent to the sum of an inverse Gaussian and a gamma; this will be revisited after Theorem 2.

Our discussion now turns to summing $\text{BIS}_{\alpha}^{\beta}$ random variables. The summation requires the use of *confluent hypergeometric functions*, which are general solutions of the differential equation

$$z \frac{d^2 w}{dz^2} + (b - z) \frac{dw}{dz} - aw = 0$$

introduced and analyzed by Kummer [12]. One solution is the

$$f_G(x) = \frac{1}{(k-2)! 2^{k-2}} x^{k-1} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2}\right) \quad (20)$$

Therefore, the sum of the random variables has a density given by the convolution $f_{I_{G+G}}(s) =$
 $\int_0^s f(x) f(s-x) dx$
 0

$$g_k(s) = \int_0^{\infty} \exp\left(-\frac{T^2}{2} u\right) u^{k-1} \frac{1}{us+1} du = s^{-k} \int_0^{\infty} \exp\left(-\frac{T^2}{2} \frac{v}{s}\right) v^{k-1} (v+1)^{1=2-k} dv; \quad (2)$$

For $z > 0$,

$$(a) U(a; b; z) = \int_0^{\infty} \exp(-zt) \cdot t^{a-1} (1+t)^{b-a-1} dt; \quad (27)$$

(Formula 13.2.5 of [1], pg 505), which for $a=2$

Theorem . Let X_j be random variable with BISA density (4) and parameters T_i, μ_i and σ_i . Assume μ_i and σ_i adhere to property 1 and the X_j are independent. Then $\sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ has mixture distribution whose density is given by $f(s) = (1=2)^n f_0(s) + \sum_{j=1}^n (1=2)^n \binom{n}{j} f_j(s)$ where

$$f_j(s) = \frac{T^j}{\sqrt{2} \cdot 2^{j-2} \Gamma(j+1)} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} \frac{T-s}{\sqrt{s}}\right] \cdot s^{j-2-3=2} U(j=2; =2; T^2=2^{-2}s)$$

$$nd = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{s}{\mu_i^2} =$$

Observe that the new parameters satisfy $\mu = \nu$ due to property 1. Then each term in the summation of (33) (ignoring the mixture weights) takes the general form

$$\exp\left\{-\frac{T}{2} \left(1 - \frac{\rho}{1 - 2t\nu^2}\right) \cdot (1 - 2t\nu^2)^{-j/2}\right\}; \quad (35)$$

which is the mgf for the sum of (i) an inverse Gaussian with parameters $\mu = T^2 = \nu^2$ and $\lambda = T = \nu$ for T, ν and ρ as defined in (34) and (ii) an independent gamma with shape parameter $j/2$ and scale parameter $\nu^2 = 2^2 = 2\nu^2$. By Theorem 2, each of these has a density f_j involving the confluent hypergeometric function of the second kind,

$$\begin{aligned} f_0(s) &= \frac{T}{\sqrt{2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{T-s}{\sqrt{s}}\right)^2\right\} \cdot s^{-3/2} \quad \text{for } j = 0 \\ f_j(s) &= \frac{T^j}{\sqrt{2} \cdot \Gamma(j+1) \cdot 2^{j/2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{T-s}{\sqrt{s}}\right)^2\right\} \cdot s^{j/2-3/2} U(j/2; 3/2; T^2/2s) \quad \text{for } j = 1; 2; 3; \dots \end{aligned} \quad (36)$$

The density for the sum of independent BIS random variables whose interarrival distributions have the same coefficient of variation is therefore the mixture

$$f(x) = (1/2)^n f_0(s) + \sum_{j=1}^n (1/2)^n \binom{n}{j} f_j(s); \quad (37)$$

This is a closed form representation involving confluent hypergeometric functions. □

Clearly, the shape of the final density in Theorem 3 is determined by the shape of the individual densities $f_j(x)$. To understand how T, ν , and ρ affect the overall shape, we graphed the individual densities $j = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5$ for two numerical cases: when $T = 500, \nu = 20$, and $\rho = 10$ (Figure 4); and when $T = 500, \nu = 20$, and $\rho = 40$ (Figure 5). Mixing the two leftmost densities in equal proportions (.5, .5) corresponds to the BIS distribution. Mixing the three leftmost densities in proportions (.25, .50, .25) corresponds to adding two BIS distributions. Mixing the four leftmost densities in proportions (.125, .375, .375, .125) corresponds to adding three BIS distributions, etc. As one might expect, the individual densities exhibit greater spread as the coefficient of variation increases from $\nu = .5$ (Figure 4) to $\nu = 2$ (Figure 5). Moreover, the expected values for the $f_j(s)$ increase with ν as well. This result could be obtained directly by considering the expected value formula for a single BIS random variable (see Proposition 1).

Recall that the mgf for the tBIS introduces a factor e^{-t^2} into the expression of Theorem 1, so the mgf for the sum of m such tBISs includes an additional factor e^{-mt^2} . This amounts to shifting all of the mixture densities in Theorem 3 to the left by $m/2$ units. We also note that the parameters μ, λ , and T defined in Theorem 3 are not the only possible choices. These were chosen because they are easy to interpret. The proof of Theorem 3 goes through for other choices provided (i) $(\mu/\lambda) = \nu$ and (ii) $T = \sum_{i=1}^m T_i = \nu$. This implies that the density in Theorem 3 is governed by two unknown parameters provided the number of terms in the sum, n , is known. Alternatively, one

could think of the parameter n as a third unknown parameter in a generalized tBIS distribution.

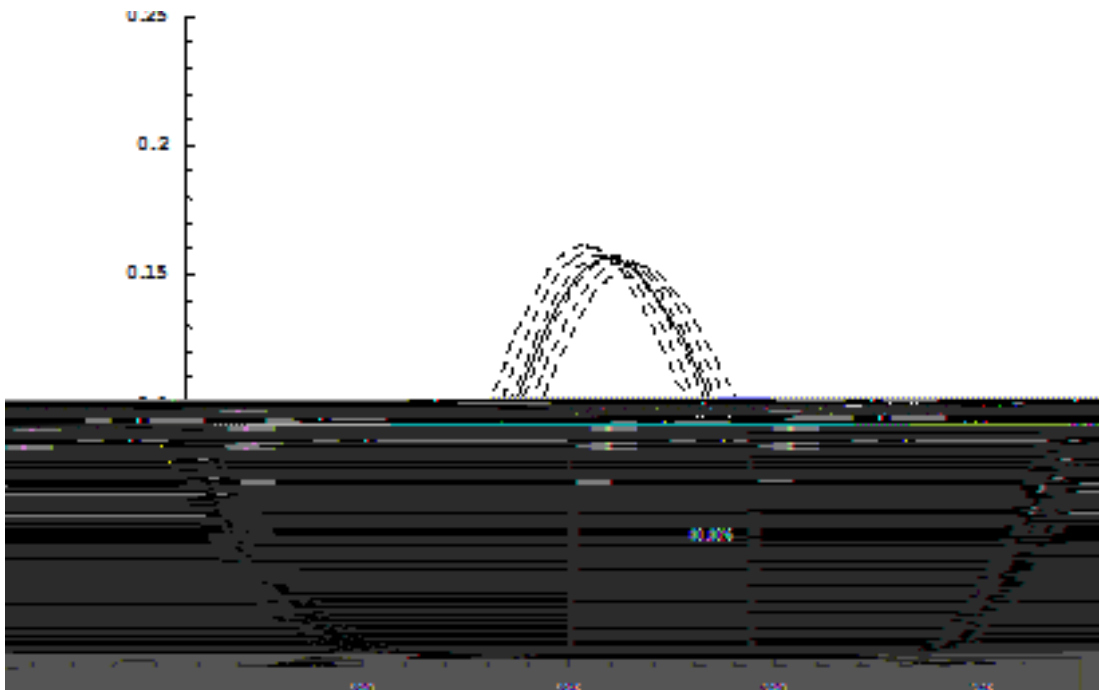


Figure 4: Mixture densities $f_j(s), j = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5$ (dashed lines); density of sum $f(x)$ (solid line) for $T = 500, \alpha = 20, \beta = 10$.

5. APPLICATIONS

5.1 An Empirical Test: Fitting the tBISA to Demand Data

Additional tests are required to determine the suitability of the tBISA as an approximation to the distribution of count data. Our testing will focus on demand, the count of individual purchases, which is commonly analyzed in economics and business problems. Accordingly, we use the term “interpurchase” as a more descriptive synonym for “interarrival” throughout this discussion. Our first test involved fitting the tBISA to actual demand data. We obtained demand data for the best-selling carbonated beverage at a local convenience store. Three hundred and eighty-five days of data were available. We estimated the demand distribution using daily sales counts so that the input data was consistent across the candidate distributions we considered. It is interesting to note that the interpurchase distribution was not stationary over the entire day, so the assumptions under which we derived the tBISA were not, strictly speaking, met. This means the conditions for fitting the tBISA were less than ideal.

The normal and lognormal distributions are most commonly used to fit demand data in practice. We therefore fit these two distributions plus the Poisson and tBISA. All but the tBISA are easily fit using closed-form maximum likelihood estimates. The tBISA does not have closed form maximum likelihood estimates (these can be found via numerical optimization) but does have closed form

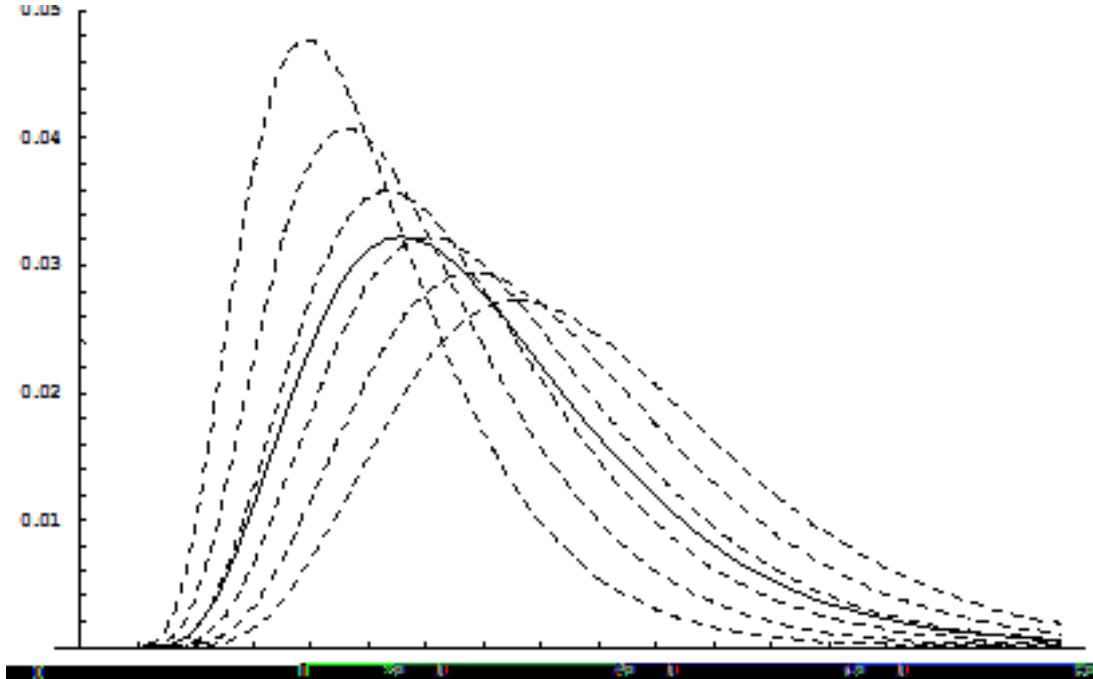


Figure 5: Mixture densities $f_j(s)$, $j = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5$ (dashed lines); density of sum $f(x)$ (solid line) for $T = 500$, $\alpha = 20$, $\beta = 40$.

method of moments estimates which we use instead (see appendix). We computed D_{max} for each distribution as compared to the empirical demand distribution. We also computed D_{max} restricted to the top decile of the empirical distribution because the upper tail of the demand distribution is typically most critical in business and economics applications. The results are summarized in Table 2, which clearly shows that the tBIS distribution fits the carbonated beverage data better than the commonly used distributions. This is evident both for the entire distribution and for the upper tail.

	Normal	Lognormal	tBIS	Poisson
D_{max}	.075	.052	.042	.087
$D_{max-topdecile}$.025	.019	.012	.018

Table 2: Goodness-of-fit for carbonated beverage demand data.

5.2 A Newsvendor Problem

We now consider a newsvendor application where the lognormal has been shown to fit the demand data well [5]. We first formalize how the tBIS distribution applies to the newsvendor model.

Let the unit cost of overage be h (the per unit cost of holding excess inventory), the unit cost of shortage be s (the cost of losing a sale), and define $c = s/(s+h)$. If demand follows a tBIS distribution, the optimal newsvendor quantity Q satisfies the equation $F_{tBIS}(Q) = c$ or

here T is the time period, μ is the mean interpurchase time, σ is the standard deviation of the interpurchase time, and Φ is the cdf for the standard normal distribution. The optimal Q therefore satisfies

$$[T - (Q + 1/2) \mu] \sigma = \Phi^{-1} \left(\frac{h}{h + s} \right) \sigma \quad (39)$$

here $z = \Phi^{-1}(\cdot)$. Using a little algebra and the fact that $z_{1-\alpha} = -z_\alpha$, we determine that the optimal Q is

$$Q^* = T - \mu - 1/2 + z^2 \left(\frac{\sigma}{\mu} \right)^2 + 1/2 \sqrt{z^4 \left(\frac{\sigma}{\mu} \right)^4 + 4z^2 T - \mu} \quad (40)$$

Observe that this quantity depends only on parameters of the interpurchase distribution ($T = \mu$, $\sigma = \mu$) and the same critical value one could use if the distribution of demand was assumed to be normal.

We applied the tBIS to the semiconductor demand data used by Gallego [5]. Sample statistics for weekly demand are $x_D = 207$ and $s_D^2 = 210681$. Assuming an overage cost of $h = \$2$ and a shortage cost of $s = \$5$, the optimal order quantity based on the empirical distribution of demand is approximately 100 units, which leads to an optimal profit of \$9. In contrast, the optimal order quantity based on a normal distribution leads to a loss of \$291. Gallego found the lognormal distribution as a much better alternative. Using the method of moments to fit a lognormal distribution to the demand data, he determined the optimal order quantity to be 181 with a corresponding profit of \$29—a vast improvement over the normal distribution.

Distribution	Optimal Q	Optimal Profit
normal	47	-\$291
Lognormal	181	\$29
tBIS	137	$\geq \$50.72$
Empirical	100	\$9

Table 3: Comparison of optimal inventory levels and profits

Using the same data and cost assumptions, we found the tBIS distribution produced materially better results. As Gallego did for the lognormal distribution, we used the method of moments (see appendix) to fit the tBIS. This results in estimates of $T = \mu = 2.78525$ and $\sigma^2 = \frac{2}{\mu} = 409.42949$ (note that these values are calculated from the demand data, not from interpurchase times). The optimal order quantity using these estimates is $Q^* = 137$ and the optimal profit is at least \$50.72 (this follows from concavity of the profit function; we cannot be more precise without the full dataset which is no longer available). The results are summarized in Table 3.

5. Application to Dynamic Inventory Models

The distribution of demand also plays an essential role in more complicated models of inventory/production. In practice, the true distribution is typically unknown (see [1]) so selecting a robust approximation is important. In some inventory/production applications, one must deter-

mine aggregate demand over multiple periods and so distributions that have additive properties are preferred. To determine if the tBIS holds promise in such settings, we conduct a simulation experiment using demand generated from a gamma interpurchase distribution. This interpurchase distribution was selected because it allows for over-, under-, and equi-dispersion in the corresponding count (demand) distribution and because one can compute probabilities for the exact count distribution using the incomplete gamma (see equations 7 and 8).

The distribution of aggregate demand is a fundamental concern in dynamic inventory models. In these models, one considers the short and long term costs of inventory over a multi-period horizon. Typical inventory costs include (i) the cost of ordering/purchasing inventory, (ii) the cost of holding excess inventory, and (iii) the cost of either backlogging an item (if excess demand is backordered) or losing a sale (if excess demand is lost). In some dynamic models, it is possible to describe in compact form the optimal order/purchase decision—otherwise termed the *optimal policy*

a single integral.

We considered three possible parameter combinations for gamma distributed interurchases:
 $(k; \theta) = (.5, 40)$, $(1, 20)$, and $(2, 10)$. Each combination implies a mean interarrival of 20; stan-

n	k		Normal	Lognormal	tBISA-C	tBISA-I
10	0.5	40	4.02	4.74	4.1	2.4
10	1	20	1.88	2.1		

N	k		Normal	Lognormal	tBISA-C	tBISA-I
10	0.5	40	5.9		5.88	4.92
10	1	20	3.4	3.4	3.	3.34
10	2	10	2.82	2.7	2. 2	2. 8
25	0.5	40	4.14	3.94	4.72	3.54
25	1	20	1.8	1.82	2.02	1.88
25	2	10	2.3	2.2	2.04	1.94
50	0.5	40	2.9	2.9	3.8	2.38
50	1	20	1.44	1.44	1.54	1.42
50	2	10	1.94	1.88	1.44	1.32
100	0.5	40	2.04	1.92	2.72	1.78
100	1	20	0.88	0.92	1.24	1.04
100	2	10	1.	1.5	1.3	0.92
200	0.5	40	1.72	1.	2.4	1.3
200	1	20	0.82	0.84	0.9	0.9
200	2	10	1.	1.54	0.9	0.5

third extension, to address nonstationarity in the interarrival distribution, could be to partition the interarrivals into distinct groups or segments. For example, interarrival times during different parts of the day (e.g., daytime versus nighttime), different days-of-the-week (e.g., weekday versus weekend), or different seasons of the year could be partitioned and their respective count distributions fit separately. Alternatively, interarrival times could be separated based on a criterion that does not depend on time, e.g., cash customers versus credit customers (here we could measure the time between cash purchases and the time between credit purchases). In each case, the total demand could be the sum of counts for the different groups or segments. In other applications, the number of segments might not be known, in which case n , the number of segments, becomes a free parameter in Theorem 3.

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$$\frac{T}{l} = \frac{(x_D + 1) \circ s}{3} \frac{1}{1 + 3 \frac{s_D^2}{(x_D + 1)^2}} \quad (44)$$

A limitation of this method is that it fails if $s_D^2 = (x_D + 1)^2 \geq 5$, thus a different estimation method (e.g., maximum likelihood) could be required. Fortunately, this violation rarely occurs in practice, and so the method of moments should be broadly applicable.