

THE GAMMA DISTRIBUTION
PROPERTIES, PROOFS AND APPLICATIONS

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Table of Contents

Table of Contents	1
1 Historical Context	3
2 Distribution, Variables Defined	4
2.1 Probability density function INTRODUCE PDF	5
2.1.1 Discovery source	7
2.2 Cumulative distribution function	10
3 Properties	12
3.1 Memoryless Property	12
3.2 Moment Generating Function	14
3.3 Expected Value	15
3.3.1 Finding the Equation	15
3.3.2 Special Case	17
3.4 Variance	19
3.5 Quantiles	22
3.6 Mode	23
3.6.1 Special Cases	24
3.7 Median	26
4 The Gamma Function	29
4.1 Definition	29
4.1.1 Special case of $\Gamma(1/2)$	30
4.1.2 Negative values of α	33
4.2 Relationship to Factorial Notation	34
4.3 Conclusion	35
5 Special Cases of the Gamma Distribution	36
5.1 The Erlang Distribution	36
5.2 The Exponential Distribution X+Y	37
5.3 The Chi-Squared Distribution	39
5.4 The Normal Distribution	42
5.5 The Beta Distribution X/(X+Y)	44
5.6 The Wishart Distribution	46
6 Advanced Properties	47
6.1 Skewness	47
6.2 Information Entropy	47
6.3 Characteristic function	48
6.4 Methods of Moments	48
6.4.1 Higher Moments	49
6.5 Excess kurtosis	49

7	General Applications and Family	50
7.1	Insurance Companies	50
7.2	Natural Events Prediction	50
7.3	Customer Satisfaction	50
7.4	Call Centers	51
7.5	Retail	51
7.6	Oncology	51
A	Graphs - Python Code	54
A.1	Probability Density Function	54
A.2	Cumulative Distribution Function	55
A.3	Central Limit Theorem	56
B	Simulations - Python Code	57
B.1	Simulation 1: $X + Y$	57
B.2	Simulation 2: $\frac{X}{X+Y}$	58
	List of Figures	59
	References	60

1 Historical Context

The gamma distribution is a distribution of continuous random variables X with two non-negative parameters α and λ . A gamma distributed random variable X is represented as

$$X \sim \mathcal{G}\text{amma}(\alpha, \lambda) \quad (1)$$

or, alternatively, as

$$X \sim \Gamma(\alpha, \lambda) \quad (2)$$

Its probability density function corresponds to

$$f(x) = \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\lambda x} \text{ for } x \in (0, \infty) \quad (3)$$

The gamma probability distribution gave rise to many other functions and distributions, such as the gamma function, the exponential distribution, the erlang distribution or the chi-square distribution. Originally, it was first presented by Leon Hard Euler, a Swiss mathematician and physician. As Euler gained popularity, the gamma distribution was further researched by important figures in the domain of mathematics such as Karl Weierstrass, Carl Friedrich Gauss, Charles Hermite, and many more. ^{[1], [2], [3]}

2 Distribution, Variables Defined

The gamma distribution is part of the two-parameters family of continuous probability distributions. Indeed, it may be parameterized with two different parameterizations:^[2]

Parameterization 1:

$$\text{Shape: } \alpha > 0 \qquad \text{Rate: } \lambda > 0 \qquad (4)$$

Parameterization 2:

$$\text{Shape: } k > 0 \qquad \text{Scale: } \theta > 0 \qquad (5)$$

In the second parameterization, the scale parameter θ corresponds to the inverse of the rate parameter λ , allowing flexibility in the modelization of the distribution. Indeed, the application of the scale parameter is pertinent when one wants to use the value of the mean time between events in a Poisson process, as opposed to the mean rate of occurrence during one unit of time.

That being said, in this document, as the two parameterizations only exist for the sake of convenience and are identical in their results, only the parameterization 1 presented in Equation 4 will be considered and used for proofs.

2.1 Probability density function **INTRODUCE PDF**

The probability density function of a gamma distributed random variable X corresponds to

$$f(x) = \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\lambda x} \text{ for } x \in (0, \infty) \quad (6)$$

In statistics, it is often used to model the time between independent events that occur at a constant average rate in a Poisson process. Indeed, the parameter α indicates the number of events that are modeled, and the parameter λ specifies the average rate at which they occur. Here is a graph of the probability density function of a gamma distribution with parameters $\alpha = 4$ and $\lambda = 3$. As an example, this probability density could be used to evaluate the time until four events that occur at a rate of three events per unit time take place:

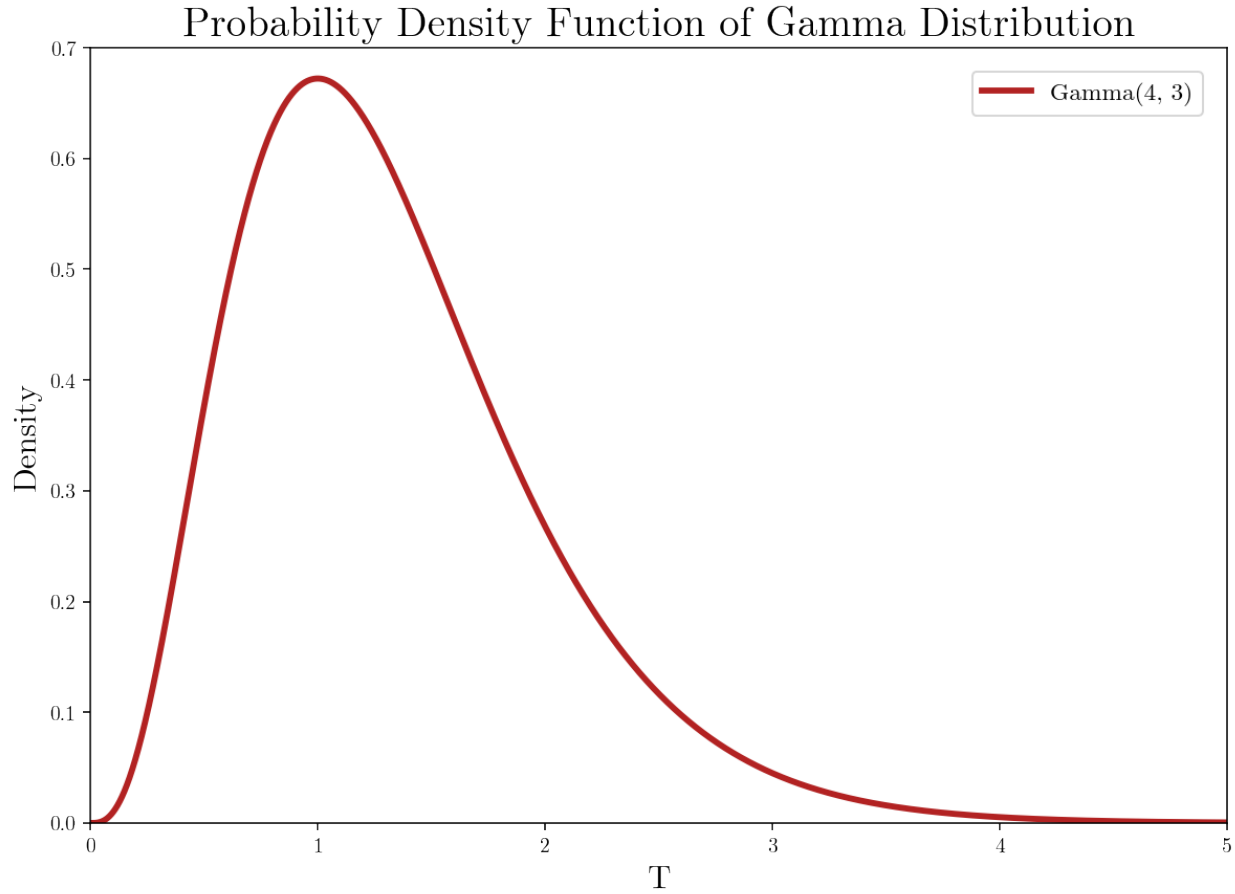


FIGURE 1: Graph featuring the plot of the probability density function of a gamma distribution.

Let's now prove that this equation is a probability density function. That is, let's show that:

$$\int_{D_X} f(x) \, dx = 1 \quad (7)$$

Proof. Let's use the following substitution to solve the integral:

$u = \lambda x$	$du = \lambda \, dx$
-----------------	----------------------

$$\begin{aligned}
\int_{D_X} f(x) \, dx &= \int_0^\infty \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\lambda x} \, dx \\
&= \frac{1}{\lambda} \int_0^\infty \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \left(\frac{u}{\lambda}\right)^{\alpha-1} e^{-u} \, du \\
&= \frac{1}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \int_0^\infty u^{\alpha-1} e^{-u} \, du \\
&= 1
\end{aligned} \tag{8}$$

QED

It is now clear that Equation 6 is a probability density function.

2.1.1 Discovery **source**

A question may now be formulated: how could someone have come up with such an equation? Here, we propose that the PDF of the gamma distribution was found by adding multiple i.i.d random variables following an exponential distribution $\mathcal{Exp}(\lambda)$. Here is a proof by induction demonstrating this supposition:

Proof. First, let us find the sum of two exponential random variables, which we will denote S_2 :

$$\begin{aligned}
f_{S_2} &= f_{X_1+X_2}(t) \\
&= \int_0^t \lambda e^{-\lambda(t-s)} \lambda e^{-\lambda s} \, ds \\
&= \lambda^2 e^{-\lambda t} \int_0^t 1 \, ds \\
&= \lambda^2 t e^{-\lambda t} \\
&= \frac{\lambda^2 t^{2-1} e^{-\lambda t}}{(2-1)!}
\end{aligned} \tag{9}$$

With this result, we can now determine the probability distribution function of the sum of three, as well as four exponential random variables. Let's start with the sum of three

variables:

$$\begin{aligned}
 f_{X_1+X_2+X_3}(t) &= f_{S_2+X_3}(t) \\
 &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{S_2}(t-s)f_{X_3}(s) \, ds \\
 &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{X_3}(t-s)f_{S_2}(s) \, ds \\
 &= \int_0^t \lambda e^{-\lambda(t-s)} \lambda^2 s e^{-\lambda s} \, ds \\
 &= \lambda^3 e^{-\lambda t} \int_0^t s \, ds \\
 &= \frac{\lambda^3 t^2 e^{-\lambda t}}{2!} \\
 &= \frac{\lambda^3 t^{3-1} e^{-\lambda t}}{(3-1)!}
 \end{aligned} \tag{10}$$

Then, let's sum four variables:

$$\begin{aligned}
 f_{X_1+X_2+X_3+X_4}(t) &= f_{S_3+X_4}(t) \\
 &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{S_3}(t-s)f_{X_4}(s) \, ds \\
 &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{X_4}(t-s)f_{S_3}(s) \, ds \\
 &= \int_0^t \lambda e^{-\lambda(t-s)} \frac{\lambda^3 s^2 e^{-\lambda s}}{2!} \, ds \\
 &= \frac{\lambda^4 e^{-\lambda t}}{2!} \int_0^t s^2 \, ds \\
 &= \frac{\lambda^4 t^3 e^{-\lambda t}}{3!} \\
 &= \frac{\lambda^4 t^{4-1} e^{-\lambda t}}{(4-1)!}
 \end{aligned} \tag{11}$$

A pattern can clearly be seen emerging from those results. Hence, we make the claim that:

$$f_{S_n}(t) = f_{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i}(t) = \frac{\lambda^n t^{n-1} e^{-\lambda t}}{(n-1)!} \tag{12}$$

To prove this claim, let us assume that:

$$\begin{aligned} f_{S_{n-1}}(t) &= f_{\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} X_i}(t) \\ &= \frac{\lambda^{n-1} t^{n-2} e^{-\lambda t}}{(n-2)!} \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

By convolution, the probability distribution function of an infinite sum of exponential random variables can now be found.

$$\begin{aligned} f_{S_n}(t) &= f_{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i}(t) \\ &= f_{\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} [X_i] + X_n}(t) \\ &= f_{S_{n-1} + X_n}(t) \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{S_{n-1}}(t-s) f_{X_n}(s) \, ds \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{X_n}(t-s) f_{S_{n-1}}(s) \, ds \\ &= \int_0^t \lambda e^{-\lambda(t-s)} \frac{\lambda^{n-1} s^{n-2} e^{-\lambda s}}{(n-2)!} \, ds \\ &= \frac{\lambda^n e^{-\lambda t}}{(n-2)!} \int_0^t s^{n-2} \, ds \\ &= \frac{\lambda^n t^{n-1} e^{-\lambda t}}{(n-1)!} \\ &= \frac{\lambda^n t^{n-1} e^{-\lambda t}}{\Gamma(n)} \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

This corresponds, obviously, to the probability distribution function of a gamma distribution.

Therefore:

$$S_n \sim \text{Gamma}(n, \lambda) \quad (15)$$

Hence, we get a density function whose parameter n can correspond to all real values instead of being limited to natural numbers. QED

2.2 Cumulative distribution function

The cumulative distribution function (CDF) of the gamma distribution is defined as

$$F(x) = \int_0^x \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} u^{\alpha-1} e^{-\lambda u} du \quad (16)$$

However, this integral has no definite form, that is, the integrand has no antiderivative. Hence, this CDF is often represented in its simplified form using the lower incomplete gamma function:^[4]

$$\gamma(\alpha, \lambda x) \equiv \int_0^x u^{\alpha-1} e^{-u} du \quad (17)$$

such that

$$F(x) = \frac{\gamma(\alpha, \lambda x)}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \quad (18)$$

Interestingly, there exists a special case of the CDF: when α is a positive integer, that is, when the distribution is an erlang distribution (see subsection 5.1), the CDF follows the following series expansion:^[2]

$$F(x) = 1 - \sum_{i=0}^{\alpha-1} \frac{(\lambda x)^i}{i!} e^{-\lambda x} = e^{-\lambda x} \sum_{i=\alpha}^{\infty} \frac{(\lambda x)^i}{i!} \quad (19)$$

That being said, generally, although lacking a closed form, the cumulative distribution function of the gamma distribution may be graphed using software:

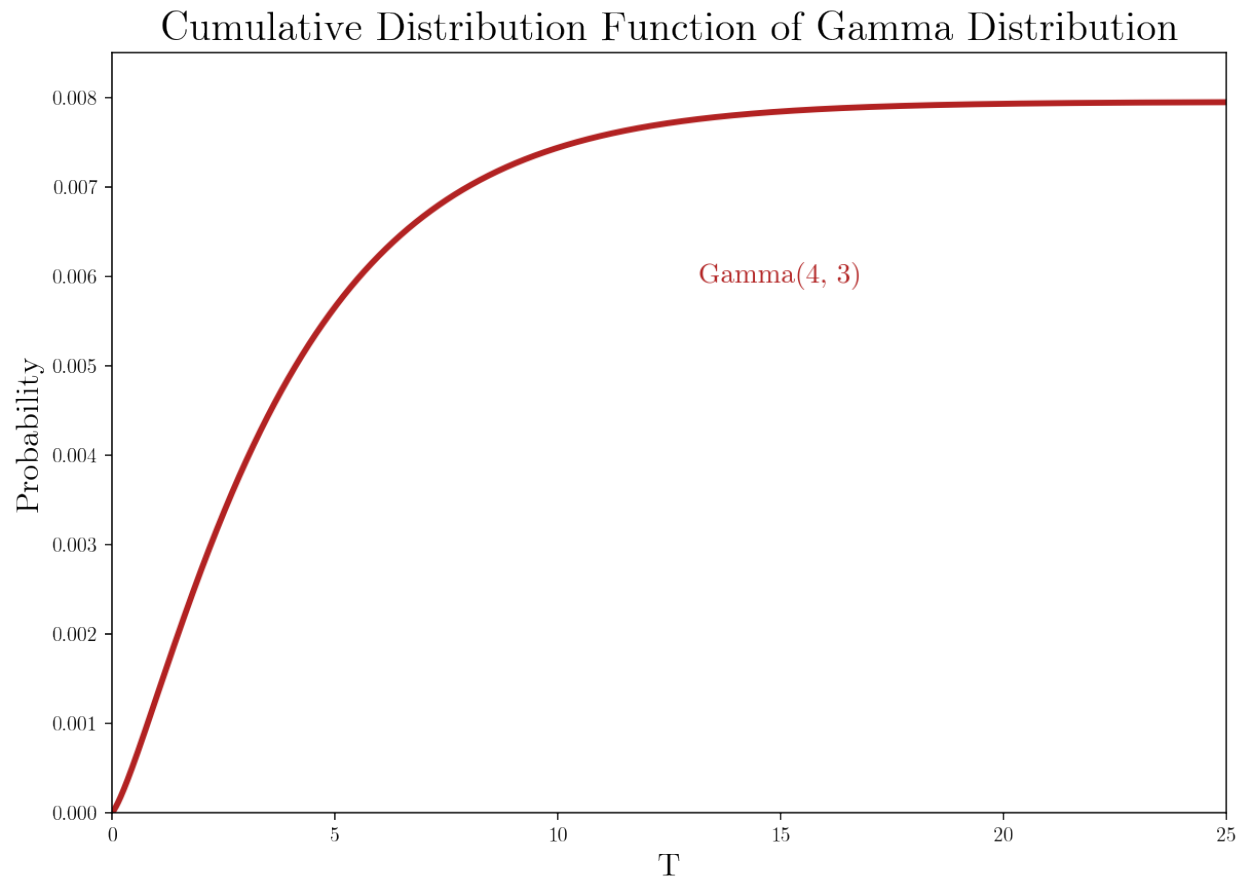


FIGURE 2: Graph featuring the plot of the cumulative distribution function of a gamma distribution.

3 Properties

Now that the fundamentals of the gamma distribution are set, a few properties stemming from the probability density function and the cumulative distribution function will be presented and proved. These properties, along with being extremely intriguing, are essential to multiple computations and statistical analyses.

3.1 Memoryless Property

The memoryless property indicates that a given probability distribution is independent of its history: the likelihood of something happening in the future has no relation to past events. In statistics, a continuous random variable X satisfies the memoryless property if:

$$P(X > x + a \mid X > a) = P(X > x) \text{ for } a, x \geq 0 \quad (20)$$

It is easy to show that the exponential distribution displays the memoryless property.

$$\begin{aligned} P(X > x + a \mid X > a) &= \frac{P(X > x + a, X > a)}{P(X > a)} \\ &= \frac{P(X > x + a)}{P(X > a)} \\ &= \frac{1 - F_X(x + a)}{1 - F_X(a)} \\ &= \frac{e^{-\lambda(x+a)}}{e^{-\lambda a}} \\ &= e^{-\lambda x} \\ &= P(X > x) \end{aligned} \quad (21)$$

As a consequence, in a sequence of exponentially distributed events, the expected time until the next event always corresponds to $\frac{1}{\lambda}$, no matter how much time has passed since the last event.

However, it is interesting to note that when $\alpha > 1$, the future behavior of the probabil-

ity distribution is not independent of its past. Therefore, in general, the gamma distribution does not possess the memoryless property. This can be understood intuitively when looking at a case involving $\mathcal{G}\text{amma}(100, 1)$, which models the total time until 100 events separated by an average waiting time of 1 minute occur. It can be shown by brute force that if one has already waited $x = 110$ minutes, the probability of having to wait at least another ten minutes for the hundredth event to occur is much lower than the probability of having to wait more than ten minutes in total. ^{[5],[6]}

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(X > 110 + 10 \mid X > 110) &= \frac{P(X > 110 \mid X > 120) \cdot P(X > 120)}{P(X > 110)} \\
 &\approx 0.1760
 \end{aligned} \tag{22}$$

$$P(X > 10) \approx 1$$

$$P(X > 110 + 10 \mid X > 110) \neq P(X > 10)$$

Clearly, the memoryless property is not satisfied.

3.2 Moment Generating Function

The moment generating function (MGF) of a real number, vector or matrix random variable X is used to compute a distribution's moment. It provides an extremely useful tool for distribution analysis and proofs related to many other properties. Unlike the characteristic function, which will be briefly explored in subsection 6.3, the MGF does not always exist for real values of a distribution.^[7] Here is the MGF of the gamma distribution:

$$M(t) = \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda - t} \right)^\alpha \quad \text{for } t < \lambda \quad (23)$$

This function may be found using the fact that $M(t) = E(e^{tx})$. Hence:

$$\begin{aligned} M(t) &= E(e^{tx}) \\ &= \int_0^\infty e^{tx} f(x) \, dx \\ &= \int_0^\infty e^{tx} \frac{\lambda^\alpha x^{\alpha-1}}{\Gamma(\alpha)} e^{-\lambda x} \, dx \\ &= \int_0^\infty \frac{\lambda^\alpha x^{\alpha-1}}{\Gamma(\alpha)} e^{-(\lambda-t)x} \, dx \\ &= \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{(\lambda-t)^\alpha} \int_0^\infty \frac{(\lambda-t)^\alpha x^{\alpha-1}}{\Gamma(\alpha)} e^{-(\lambda-t)x} \, dx \\ &= \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{(\lambda-t)^\alpha} (1) \\ &= \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda-t} \right)^\alpha \end{aligned} \quad (24)$$

3.3 Expected Value

3.3.1 Finding the Equation

The expected value, also known as the theoretical mean, may be found for the gamma distribution using the following formula::

$$\mu = E(X) = \frac{\alpha}{\lambda} \quad (25)$$

Interestingly, there are multiple ways to prove this result. Three different proofs will be explored in this paper.

Proof 1

The first technique uses the gamma distribution probability density function presented in subsection 2.1 as a means to get the expected value. In fact:

$$E(X) = \int_0^{\infty} x f(x) dx = \frac{\alpha}{\lambda} \quad (26)$$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} E(X) &= \int_0^{\infty} x f(x) dx \\ &= \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^{\alpha}}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha} e^{-\lambda x} dx \\ &= \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^{\alpha}}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^{(\alpha+1)-1} e^{-\lambda x} dx \\ &= \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+1)}{\lambda \Gamma(\alpha)} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^{\alpha+1}}{\Gamma(\alpha+1)} x^{(\alpha+1)-1} e^{-\lambda x} dx \\ &= \frac{\alpha \Gamma(\alpha)}{\lambda \Gamma(\alpha)} (1) \\ &= \frac{\alpha}{\lambda} \end{aligned} \quad (27)$$

QED

Proof 2

Using the moment generating function obtained in subsection 2.1, the expected value of a gamma distribution may be found. That is:

$$E(X) = M'(0) = \frac{\alpha}{\lambda} \quad (28)$$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} M'(t) &= \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda - t} \right)^\alpha \\ &= \lambda \alpha \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda - t} \right)^{\alpha-1} \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{1}{\lambda - t} \right) \\ &= \frac{\lambda \alpha}{(\lambda - t)^2} \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda - t} \right)^{\alpha-1} \end{aligned} \quad (29)$$

$$\begin{aligned} M'(0) &= \frac{\lambda \alpha}{\lambda^2} \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda} \right)^{\alpha-1} \\ &= \frac{\alpha}{\lambda} \end{aligned} \quad (30)$$

QED

Proof 3

A third way to demonstrate that $E(X) = \frac{\alpha}{\lambda}$, is by performing the following integral:

$$\int_0^\infty 1 - F(x) \, dx \quad (31)$$

However, this technique is not possible in the case of the gamma distribution, as there is no explicit formula for $F(x)$ as seen in subsection 2.2.

3.3.2 Special Case

The expected value may be used to derive several other properties. For example, consider i.i.d random variable $X \sim \mathcal{G}\text{amma}(\alpha, \lambda)$ such that $f(x) = \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\lambda x}$. Then:

$$\begin{aligned}
 E(X^\beta) &= \int_0^\infty x^\beta f(x) \, dx \\
 &= \int_0^\infty x^\beta \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\lambda x} \, dx \\
 &= \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \int_0^\infty x^{(\alpha+\beta)-1} e^{-\lambda x} \, dx \\
 &= \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\lambda^{\alpha+\beta}} \int_0^\infty \frac{\lambda^{\alpha+\beta}}{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)} x^{(\alpha+\beta)} \, dx \\
 &= \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\lambda^\beta \Gamma(\alpha)} \text{ for } \beta \in (-\alpha, \infty)
 \end{aligned} \tag{32}$$

The expected value and the variance can be determined using the provided formula above:

Expected Value

If $E(X^\beta) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\lambda^\beta \Gamma(\alpha)}$, then:

$$\begin{aligned}
 E(X^1) &= \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+1)}{\lambda^1 \Gamma(\alpha)} \\
 E(X^1) &= \frac{\alpha \Gamma(\alpha)}{\lambda \Gamma(\alpha)} \\
 &= \frac{\alpha}{\lambda}
 \end{aligned} \tag{33}$$

Variance

In order to find the variance, $E(X^2)$ will need to be found using the same technique used to determine the formula for $E(X)$. If $E(X^\beta) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}{\lambda^\beta \Gamma(\alpha)}$, then:

$$\begin{aligned} E(X^2) &= \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+2)}{\lambda^2 \Gamma(\alpha)} \\ &= \frac{\alpha(\alpha+1)\Gamma(\alpha)}{\lambda^2 \Gamma(\alpha)} \\ &= \frac{\alpha^2 + \alpha}{\lambda^2} \end{aligned} \tag{34}$$

The variance can now be found with this technique:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(X) &= E(X^2) - [E(X)]^2 \\ &= \frac{\alpha^2 + \alpha}{\lambda^2} - \left[\frac{\alpha}{\lambda}\right]^2 \\ &= \frac{\alpha^2 + \alpha}{\lambda^2} - \frac{\alpha^2}{\lambda^2} \\ &= \frac{\alpha}{\lambda^2} \end{aligned} \tag{35}$$

In the next section, we will examine other techniques that may be used to get the variance of the gamma distribution.

3.4 Variance

The variance is a measure of how "spread out" the data is. Indeed, the lower the variance is, the sharper the probability density function graph will be. More specifically, the variance is the expected value of the square standard deviation of the random variable examined from the expected value described in subsection 3.3.^[8]

This property may be calculated using the following equation:

$$\text{Var}(x) = \frac{\alpha}{\lambda^2} \quad (36)$$

and this last equation may be proven in two different ways using either the moment generating function or an integral.

Proof 1

This first proof, featuring the moment generating function obtained in subsection 3.2, will prove the following relationship.

$$\text{Var}(x) = M''(0) - [M'(0)]^2 = \frac{\alpha}{\lambda^2} \quad (37)$$

Proof. Consider the following result from Equation 29 in subsection 3.3:

$$M'(t) = \frac{\lambda\alpha}{(\lambda - t)^2} \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda - t} \right)^{\alpha-1} \quad (38)$$

Then $M''(t)$ is derived to be:

$$\begin{aligned}
M''(t) &= \frac{d}{dt} M'(t) \\
&= \frac{d}{dt} \left[\frac{\lambda\alpha}{(\lambda-t)^2} \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda-t} \right)^{\alpha-1} \right] \\
&= \lambda\alpha \left(\frac{d}{dt} \left[\frac{1}{(\lambda-t)^2} \right] \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda-t} \right)^{\alpha-1} + \left(\frac{1}{(\lambda-t)^2} \right) \frac{d}{dt} \left[\left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda-t} \right)^{\alpha-1} \right] \right) \\
&= \lambda\alpha \left(\left(\frac{2}{(\lambda-t)^3} \right) \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda-t} \right)^{\alpha-1} + \left(\frac{\lambda(\alpha-1)}{(\lambda-t)^2} \right) \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda-t} \right)^{\alpha-2} \frac{d}{dt} \left[\frac{1}{\lambda-t} \right] \right) \\
&= \lambda\alpha \left(\left(\frac{2}{(\lambda-t)^3} \right) \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda-t} \right)^{\alpha-1} + \left(\frac{\lambda(\alpha-1)}{(\lambda-t)^2} \right) \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda-t} \right)^{\alpha-2} \left(\frac{1}{(\lambda-t)^2} \right) \right) \\
&= \lambda\alpha \left(\left(\frac{2}{(\lambda-t)^3} \right) \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda-t} \right)^{\alpha-1} + \left(\frac{\lambda(\alpha-1)}{(\lambda-t)^4} \right) \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda-t} \right)^{\alpha-2} \right)
\end{aligned} \tag{39}$$

Let's not even try to simplify further and directly substitute $t = 0$:

$$\begin{aligned}
M''(0) &= \lambda\alpha \left(\left(\frac{2}{(\lambda-0)^3} \right) \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda-0} \right)^{\alpha-1} + \left(\frac{\lambda(\alpha-1)}{(\lambda-0)^4} \right) \left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda-0} \right)^{\alpha-2} \right) \\
&= \lambda\alpha \left(\frac{2}{\lambda^3}(1) + \frac{\lambda(\alpha-1)}{\lambda^4}(1) \right) \\
&= \lambda\alpha \left(\frac{2}{\lambda^3} + \frac{\alpha-1}{\lambda^3} \right) \\
&= \lambda\alpha \left(\frac{\alpha+1}{\lambda^3} \right) \\
&= \frac{\alpha^2 + \alpha}{\lambda^2}
\end{aligned} \tag{40}$$

Finally:

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Var}(x) &= M''(0) - [M'(0)]^2 \\
&= \frac{\alpha(\alpha+1)}{\lambda^2} - \left(\frac{\alpha}{\lambda} \right)^2 \\
&= \frac{\alpha^2 + \alpha}{\lambda^2} - \frac{\alpha^2}{\lambda^2} \\
&= \frac{\alpha^2 + \alpha - \alpha^2}{\lambda^2} \\
&= \frac{\alpha}{\lambda^2}
\end{aligned} \tag{41}$$

QED

Proof 2

This time, the proof features an integral to obtain the variance. That is:

$$\text{Var}(x) = E(X^2) - [E(X)]^2 = \frac{\alpha}{\lambda^2} \quad (42)$$

Proof. In the following equations, $E(X)$ is the expected value obtained in subsection 3.3 and $E(X^2)$ is obtained using a process similar to Equation 26 of Proof 1 in subsection 3.3. That is:

$$\begin{aligned} E(X^2) &= \int_0^\infty x^2 f(x) \, dx \\ &= \int_0^\infty \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha+1} e^{-\lambda x} \, dx \\ &= \int_0^\infty \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^{(\alpha+2)-1} e^{-\lambda x} \, dx \\ &= \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+2)}{\lambda^2 \Gamma(\alpha)} \int_0^\infty \frac{\lambda^{\alpha+2}}{\Gamma(\alpha+2)} x^{(\alpha+2)-1} e^{-\lambda x} \, dx \\ &= \frac{\alpha(\alpha+1)\Gamma(\alpha)}{\lambda^2 \Gamma(\alpha)} (1) \\ &= \frac{\alpha(\alpha+1)}{\lambda^2} \end{aligned} \quad (43)$$

Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(x) &= E(X^2) - [E(X)]^2 \\ &= \frac{\alpha(\alpha+1)}{\lambda^2} - \left(\frac{\alpha}{\lambda}\right)^2 \\ &= \frac{\alpha^2 + \alpha}{\lambda^2} - \frac{\alpha^2}{\lambda^2} \\ &= \frac{\alpha^2 + \alpha - \alpha^2}{\lambda^2} \\ &= \frac{\alpha}{\lambda^2} \end{aligned} \quad (44)$$

QED

Conclusively, Equation 36 is confirmed.

3.5 Quantiles

Usually, the quantile function is defined as the inverse of the cumulative distribution function. Since the gamma distribution has no closed form for its CDF (see subsection 2.2) and, therefore, the latter cannot be inverted, it has no quantile function. In other words, there is no explicit form for the quantile function: $q(p) = F^{-1}(p)$, but $F^{-1}(x)$ is not defined, since $F(x)$ is an integral with no antiderivative.

Visually, quantiles may be represented as equal subdivisions of a probability density function graph starting from the median. That is, in the following figure, the first quantile is represented by the section weighing 34% of the whole PDF, the second one represents the section weighing 13.5% and the last one represents the section weighing 2%. As may be noticed, these subdivisions are equally divided both sides of the median.

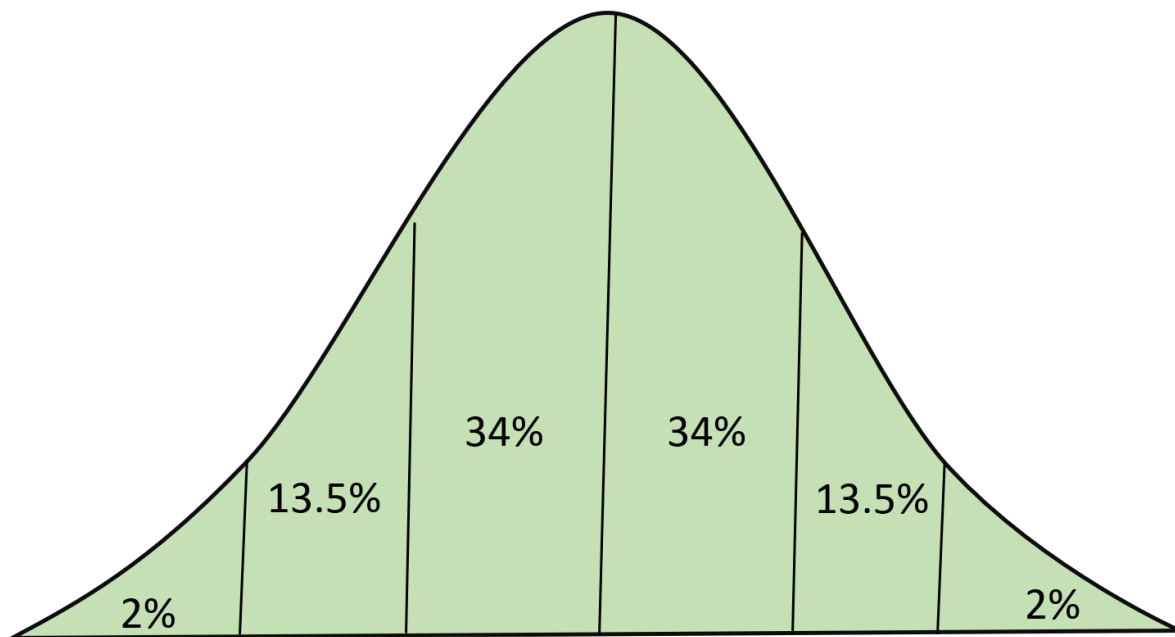


FIGURE 3: Visual representation of quantiles in a probability density distribution. Provided by GeeksforGeeks^[9]

3.6 Mode

The mode is defined as the value appearing the most through a certain set of data values, that is, the location of the highest peak on a probability density function plot. On Figure 4, the mode represents the value of T where the density is at its peak.

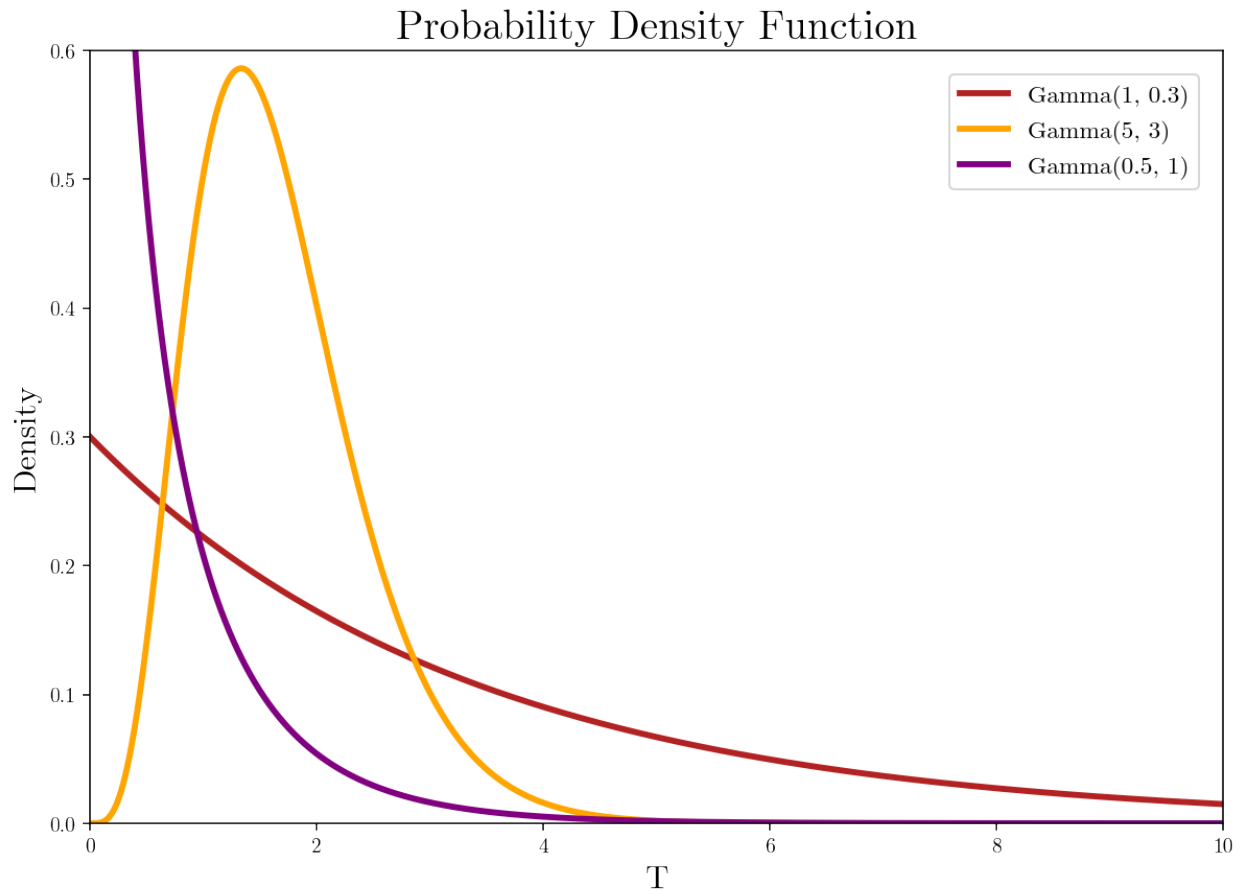


FIGURE 4: Graph featuring the probability density function of two distinct gamma distributions.

As may be observed in the red plot ($\mathcal{G}\text{amma}(1, 0.3)$), the highest value of the density on the curve is 0.3 at $T = 0$ which corresponds to the mode of this specific parameterization of the distribution. The mode of the density function $\mathcal{G}\text{amma}(1, 0.3)$ is thus 0.3. To be more precise and avoid the need for a graph, the following equation may be used to calculate the

mode of a gamma distribution:

$$\text{Mode} = \frac{(\alpha - 1)}{\lambda} \text{ for } \alpha \geq 1 \quad (45)$$

Ergo, for the orange plot ($\mathcal{G}\text{amma}(5, 3)$), the mode can be determined to be:

$$T = \frac{(5 - 1)}{3} = \frac{4}{3} \quad (46)$$

Accordingly, on Figure 4, the highest peak of the plot $\mathcal{G}\text{amma}(5, 3)$ is at $\frac{4}{3}$.

3.6.1 Special Cases

There are two special cases concerning the mode of the gamma distribution: when the density of the PDF goes to infinity (the graph has a vertical asymptote) and when the parameter $\alpha = 1$.

Case 1:

The first special case is when the mode of the PDF never reaches its maximum value, that is, when there is a vertical asymptote on its plot. The purple plot ($\mathcal{G}\text{amma}(0.5, 1)$) on Figure 4 features this case. Indeed, if $f(x)$ is the probability density function, then:

$$\lim_{T \rightarrow 0^+} f(x) = \infty \quad (47)$$

Notice how this case arises when the condition stated in Equation 45 is broken, that is, that $\alpha \geq 1$. In fact, in the case of the purple plot, $\alpha = 0.5 < 1$

Case 2:

In a gamma distribution $\mathcal{G}\text{amma}(1, \lambda) \equiv \mathcal{E}\text{xp}(\lambda)$, the highest point of the plot of the PDF will be located at $T = 0$ and will correspond to a density value of λ . In Figure 4, the red plot

$(\mathcal{G}\text{amma}(1, 0.3))$ is an example of this special case as it has $\alpha = 1$ as a parameter. Hence, the mode of this latter parameterization of the gamma distribution is of $\lambda = 0.3$ at $T = 0$.

3.7 Median

The median of a probability distribution is the value that separates the area under the curve of its distribution function in two equal parts. It follows that, in the case of the gamma distribution, the median is defined as the value m for which:

$$\frac{1}{2} = \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \int_0^m x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\lambda x} dx \quad (48)$$

However, it is interesting to note that the median of the gamma distribution has no simple closed form : due to its highly varying shape, it cannot be represented in an equation as a function of its parameters. Interestingly, some have noticed that an approximations of the median can be performed in cases where the parameter $\lambda = 1$:^[2]

$$m = \alpha \left(1 - \frac{1}{9\alpha}\right) \quad (49)$$

Let's take the case of a distribution $\mathcal{G}\text{amma}(5, 1)$ to examine this claim. The approximation of the median using Equation 49 is as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} m &= \alpha \left(1 - \frac{1}{9\alpha}\right) \\ &= 5 \left(1 - \frac{1}{9 \cdot 5}\right) \\ &= \frac{44}{9} \\ &= 4.\bar{8} \end{aligned} \quad (50)$$

Let's confirm the validity of the answer using the graph of the probability density function of the distribution $\mathcal{G}\text{amma}(5, 1)$.

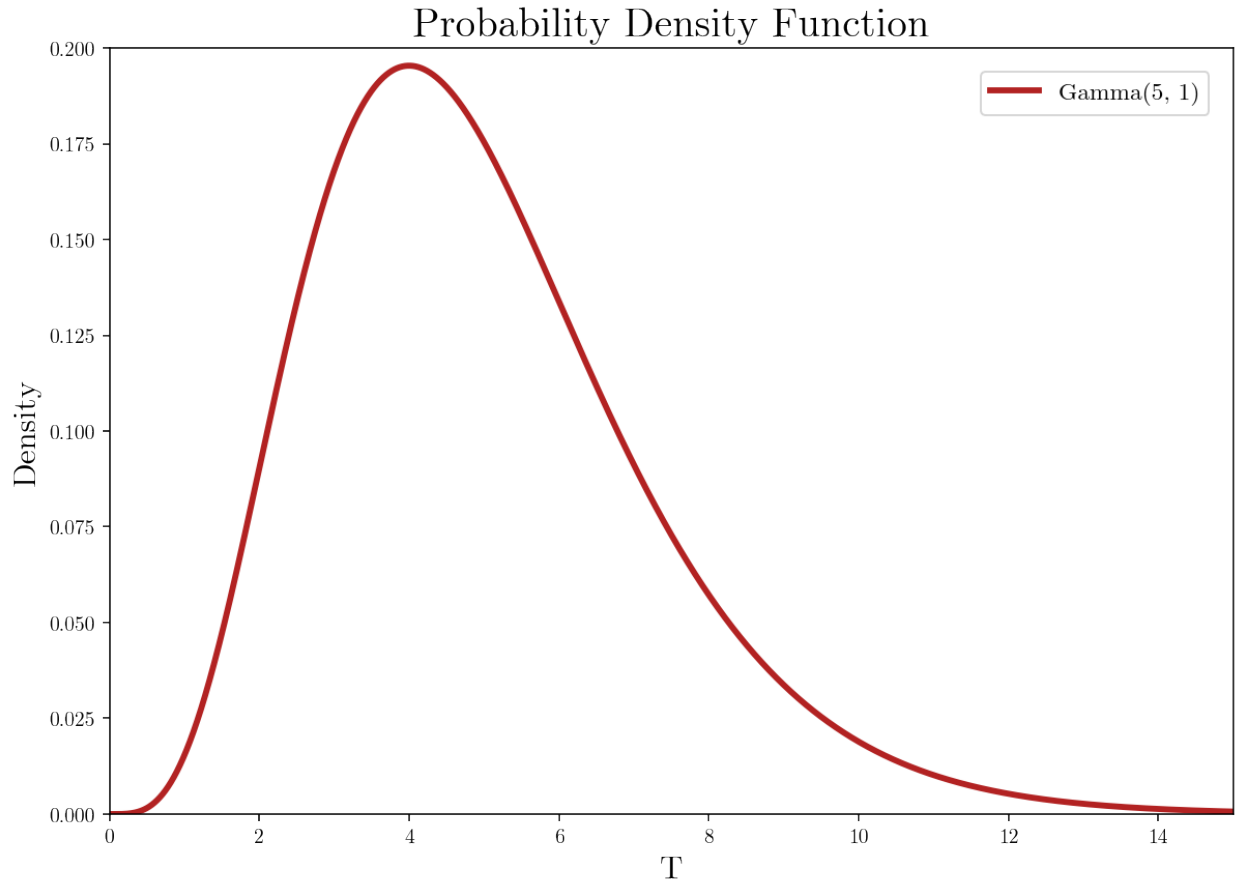


FIGURE 5: Graph featuring the probability density function of a gamma distribution with parameters $\alpha = 5$ and $\lambda = 1$.

The approximation seems to, in fact, be valid as the PDF is "weighted" more towards the right and its median seems to be between 4.5 and 5.

Still, there is comfort in the fact that some special cases of the gamma distribution do have a median, such as the exponential distribution. Indeed, the median of a continuous random variable following the gamma distribution such that $X \sim \mathcal{Gamma}(1, \lambda) \equiv \mathcal{Exp}(\lambda)$

may be obtained through a simple integration process:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{1}{2} &= \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \int_0^m x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\lambda x} dx \\ \Rightarrow \frac{1}{2} &= -e^{-\lambda m} + 1 \\ \Rightarrow \frac{1}{2} &= e^{-\lambda m} \\ \Rightarrow \ln\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) &= -\lambda m \\ \Rightarrow -\ln(2) &= -\lambda m \\ \Rightarrow m &= \frac{\ln(2)}{\lambda}\end{aligned}\tag{51}$$

Hence, the median of an exponential distribution is defined as $\frac{\ln(2)}{\lambda}$.

4 The Gamma Function

Studied by Leonhard Euler (1707-1783), the gamma function is related to the gamma distribution. This extremely handy function allows the generalization of the factorial notation. As a matter of fact, while the factorial $\alpha!$ is restricted to $\alpha \in \mathbb{N}$, the gamma function $\Gamma(\alpha)$ allows the computation of fractional and negative numbers such that $\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}$. By abusing the notation, the gamma function may even be used to compute $\Gamma(\alpha)$ such that $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$. The relationship between the gamma function and the factorial notation is as follows:

$$\Gamma(\alpha) = (\alpha - 1)! \text{ for } \alpha \in \mathbb{N} \quad (52)$$

4.1 Definition

First of all, the gamma function is defined as

$$\Gamma(\alpha) = \int_0^\infty x^{\alpha-1} e^{-x} dx \text{ for } \alpha \in \mathbb{R}^+ \quad (53)$$

Assuming that $\alpha > 1$, the closed form of the gamma function may be found with integration by parts:

$u = x^{\alpha-1}$	$dv = e^{-x} dx$
$du = (\alpha - 1)x^{\alpha-2} dx$	$v = -e^{-x}$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Gamma(\alpha) &= \int_0^\infty x^{\alpha-1} e^{-x} dx \\
 &= - \left[x^{\alpha-1} e^{-x} \right]_0^\infty + (\alpha - 1) \int_0^\infty x^{\alpha-2} e^{-x} dx \\
 &= 0 + (\alpha - 1) \Gamma(\alpha - 1) \\
 &= (\alpha - 1) \Gamma(\alpha - 1)
 \end{aligned} \quad (54)$$

Therefore,

$$\Gamma(\alpha) = (\alpha - 1) \Gamma(\alpha - 1) \text{ for } \alpha \in (1, \infty) \quad (55)$$

Furthermore, $\Gamma(1)$ is defined separately as being:

$$\Gamma(1) = \int_0^\infty e^{-x} dx = \left[-e^{-x} \right]_0^\infty = 1 \quad (56)$$

4.1.1 Special case of $\Gamma(1/2)$

An extremely interesting case of the gamma function is $\Gamma(1/2)$. In fact, this result allows the computation of fractional values of α such that $\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}$. This special case is as follows:

Claim 4.1.1.

$$\Gamma(1/2) = \sqrt{\pi}$$

Initial Setup

First, to prove Claim 4.1.1, let's start by setting up some equations in preparation for the proof.

$$I = \int_0^\infty e^{-x^2} dx \tag{57}$$

From this result, one obtains that:

$$\begin{aligned} I^2 &= \left(\int_0^\infty e^{-x^2} dx \right) \left(\int_0^\infty e^{-y^2} dy \right) \\ &= \int_0^\infty \int_0^\infty e^{-(x^2+y^2)} dx dy \end{aligned} \tag{58}$$

To solve this integral easily, one may use the following change of variables:

$$x = r \cos \theta \qquad y = r \sin \theta$$

This change of variable requires the Jacobian of the transformation to be computed:

$$\mathcal{J} = \det \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial \theta} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial \theta} \end{bmatrix} = \det \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -r \sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & r \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} = r(\cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta) = r \tag{59}$$

Using the result obtained in Equation 59, the integral in Equation 58 may be computed using polar coordinates:

$$\begin{aligned}
 I^2 &= \int_0^\infty \int_0^\infty e^{-(x^2+y^2)} dx dy = \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \int_0^\infty r e^{-r^2} dr d\theta \\
 &= \frac{\pi}{2} \int_0^\infty r e^{-r^2} dr \\
 &= \frac{\pi}{2} \left[-\frac{e^{-r^2}}{2} \right]_0^\infty \\
 &= \frac{\pi}{2} \frac{1}{2} \\
 &= \frac{\pi}{4}
 \end{aligned} \tag{60}$$

It then follows that Equation 57 may be solved:

$$I = \sqrt{I^2} = \int_0^\infty e^{-x^2} dx = \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{4}} = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2} \tag{61}$$

Accordingly, Corollaries 4.1.1 and 4.1.2 logically follow:

Corollary 4.1.1.

$$\int_{-\infty}^\infty e^{-x^2} dx = \sqrt{\pi} \tag{62}$$

Corollary 4.1.2.

$$\int_{-\infty}^\infty e^{-x^2/2} dx = \sqrt{2\pi} \tag{63}$$

Let's prove these corollaries:

Proof. Consider this substitution of variables:

$$z = \sqrt{2}x \qquad dz = \sqrt{2} dx$$

Using this substitution, Corollaries 4.1.1 and 4.1.2 may be proven:

$$\int_{-\infty}^\infty e^{-x^2} dx = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \int_{-\infty}^\infty e^{-z^2/2} dz = \sqrt{\pi} \tag{64}$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^\infty e^{-x^2/2} dx = \sqrt{2} \sqrt{\pi} = \sqrt{2\pi} \tag{65}$$

QED

The Proof

The proof for Claim 4.1.1 may now be articulated:

Proof. Consider, once again, this other substitution of variables:

$$x = \sqrt{z} \qquad dx = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{z}} dz = \frac{z^{-1/2}}{2} dz$$

Using it, the following integral may be solved:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^\infty e^{-x^2} dx &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\infty z^{-1/2} e^{-z} dz \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \Gamma(1/2) \\ &= \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2} \end{aligned} \tag{66}$$

Conclusively, Claim 4.1.1 is proven:

$$\Gamma(1/2) = \sqrt{\pi} \tag{67}$$

QED

4.1.2 Negative values of α

As was mentioned earlier, by abusing the identity shown in Equation 55, one may extend the gamma function to negative non-integer values of α such that $\alpha \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Z}^-$. For example, to find $\Gamma(-9/2)$, one may compute:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Gamma(1/2) &= (-1/2)\Gamma(-1/2) \\
 &= (-1/2)(-3/2)\Gamma(-3/2) \\
 &= (3/4)(-5/2)\Gamma(-5/2) \\
 &= (-15/8)(-7/2)\Gamma(-7/2) \\
 &= (105/16)(-9/2)\Gamma(-9/2) \\
 &= (-945/32)\Gamma(-9/2)
 \end{aligned} \tag{68}$$

$$\therefore \Gamma(-9/2) = -\frac{32}{945}\Gamma(1/2) = -\frac{32}{945}\sqrt{\pi} \tag{69}$$

Hence, to calculate the value of a gamma function with a negative argument, one might modify a bit the result obtained in Equation 55 such that:

$$\Gamma(\alpha) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha + 1)}{\alpha} \text{ for } \alpha \in \mathbb{R}^- \setminus \mathbb{Z} \tag{70}$$

for example, take the same example of $\Gamma(-9/2)$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Gamma(-9/2) &= \frac{\Gamma(-7/2)}{(-9/2)} \\
 &= \frac{\Gamma(-5/2)}{(-9/2)(-7/2)} \\
 &= \frac{\Gamma(-3/2)}{(63/4)(-5/2)} \\
 &= \frac{\Gamma(-1/2)}{(-315/8)(-3/2)} \\
 &= \frac{\Gamma(1/2)}{(945/16)(-1/2)} \\
 &= \frac{\Gamma(1/2)}{(-945/32)}
 \end{aligned} \tag{71}$$

$$\therefore \Gamma(-9/2) = -\frac{32}{945}\Gamma(1/2) = -\frac{32}{945}\sqrt{\pi} \tag{72}$$

4.2 Relationship to Factorial Notation

Using a proof by induction, gamma functions can be shown to be related to the factorial notation.

Proof. Let us prove Equation 52, that is, that:

$$\Gamma(n) = \int_0^\infty x^{n-1} e^{-x} dx = (n-1)! \text{ for } n \in \mathbb{N} \quad (73)$$

For $n = 1$:

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma(1) &= \int_0^\infty x^{1-1} e^{-x} dx \\ &= \int_0^\infty e^{-x} dx \\ &= 1 \\ &= (1-1)! \\ &= 0! \end{aligned} \quad (74)$$

Assume that the equation holds for $n = k$ such that:

$$\Gamma(k) = (k-1)! \quad (75)$$

Then, let us prove that the equation is valid for $n = k + 1$ using integration by parts:

$u = x^k$ $du = kx^{k-1} dx$	$dv = e^{-x} dx$ $v = -e^{-x}$
---------------------------------	-----------------------------------

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma(k+1) &= \int_0^\infty x^{(k+1)-1} e^{-x} dx \\ &= \left[-x^k e^{-x} \right]_0^\infty + k \int_0^\infty x^{k-1} e^{-x} dx \\ &= 0 + k\Gamma(k) \\ &= k(k-1)! \\ &= ((k+1)-1)! \\ &= k! \end{aligned} \quad (76)$$

Therefore, Equation 52 is proven by mathematical induction.

QED

4.3 Conclusion

Using everything that was computed previously, the graph of $\Gamma(\alpha)$ may be plotted. It includes both positive, negative and fractional values of α . Notice how the asymptotes of the graph are found at every negative integer value; the function, as was mentioned previously, is not defined for negative integers.

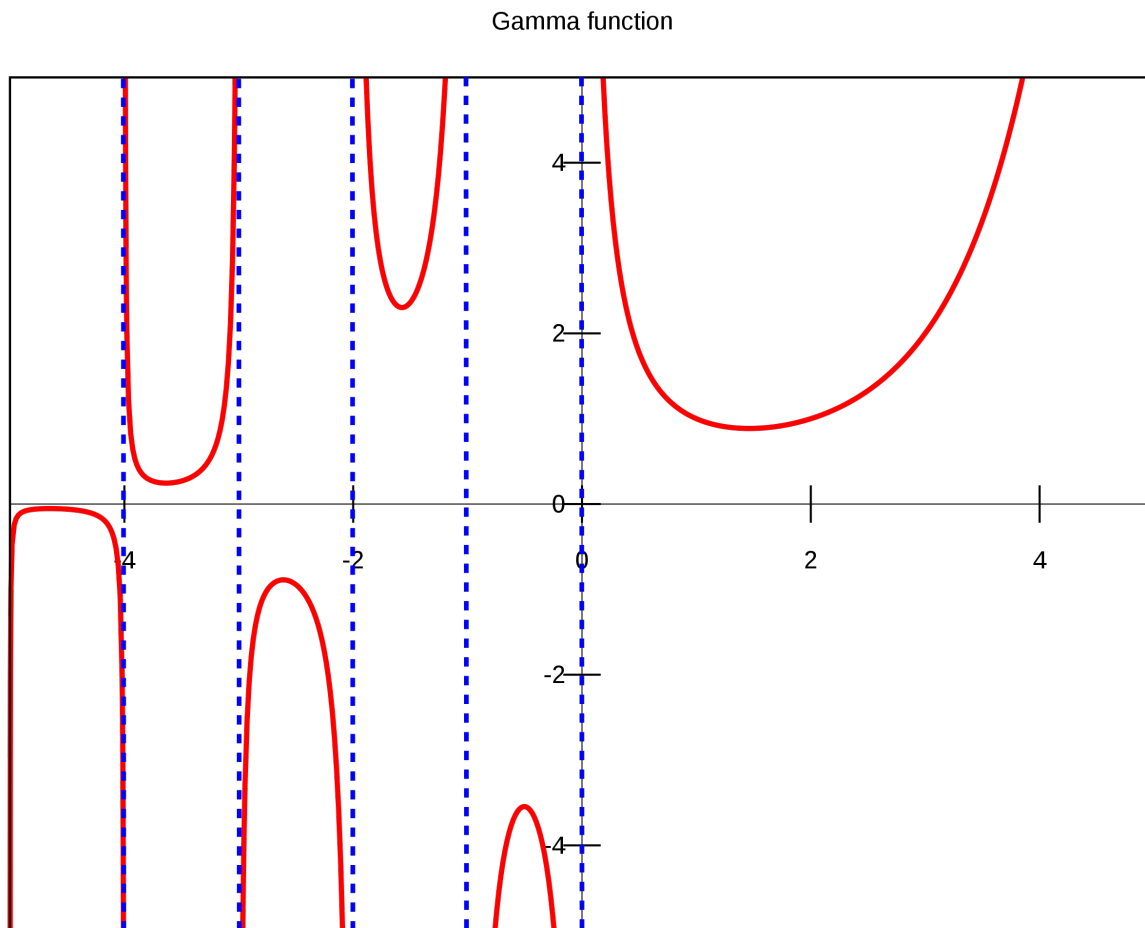


FIGURE 6: Graph featuring the plot of the function $\Gamma(\alpha)$ in red and the asymptotes of the function in dotted blue lines.

5 Special Cases of the Gamma Distribution

The gamma distribution has many common parameterizations. Hence, in order to make working with them easier, they were given a specific name such as the chi-square distribution, the exponential distribution and more. In this section, we will present some of these special cases and prove their relationship.

5.1 The Erlang Distribution

In real world applications, it is often useful to limit the number of occurrences to a positive integer (it may not be pertinent to determine, for example, the waiting time until 2.665 events take place). In this context, the special name “erlang distribution” has been attributed to the specific gamma distribution in which the shape parameter α only takes positive integer values and where the rate parameter λ is a positive real number.

$$f_{X_\alpha}(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\lambda x} & \alpha \in \mathbb{N}; x \geq 0 \\ 0 & x < 0 \end{cases} \quad (77)$$

This distribution takes its name from A. K. Erlang, the man who initially popularized its use in order to examine the number of telephone calls which can be made at the same time to the operators of the switching stations, in the field of phone traffic engineering. Indeed, the erlang distribution’s original purpose was to measure the time between incoming calls, a statistic which can be used along with the expected duration of incoming calls to analyze phone traffic loads. His work has since been expanded to consider queuing systems in general, as well as the load on web servers, interpurchase times and cancer incidence (see section 7).^[10]

5.2 The Exponential Distribution **X+Y**

The gamma distribution can model the elapsed time between random and independent events. However, what should one do when one wants to strictly model the time to wait before a single new event?

If a unique event is modeled, it follows that the shape parameter is limited to $\alpha = 1$. In such a case, the gamma distribution is said to follow an exponential distribution: more specifically, if $X \sim \mathcal{G}\text{amma}(1, \lambda)$, then it can also be said that $X \sim \mathcal{E}\text{xp}(\lambda)$. The continuous random variable X thus follows an exponential distribution with rate parameter λ , where the rate parameter represents how quickly events occur. More concretely:

$$X \sim \mathcal{G}\text{amma}(1, \lambda) \equiv \mathcal{E}\text{xp}(\lambda) \quad (78)$$

Indeed, using a simple substitution of the variables, one gets that:

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \frac{\lambda^\alpha x^{\alpha-1}}{\Gamma(\alpha)} e^{-\lambda x} \\ &= \frac{\lambda^1 x^0}{\Gamma(1)} e^{-\lambda x} \\ &= \lambda e^{-\lambda x} \end{aligned} \quad (79)$$

$$\therefore X \sim \mathcal{G}\text{amma}(1, \lambda) \equiv X \sim \mathcal{E}\text{xp}(\lambda) \quad (80)$$

Accordingly, it can be demonstrated that the sum of exponential random variables is a gamma random variable. That is, if X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are i.i.d random variables following $\mathcal{E}\text{xp}(\lambda)$, then:

$$Y = \sum_{i=1}^k [X_i] \sim \mathcal{G}\text{amma}(k, \lambda) \quad (81)$$

Proof. **X+Y proof**

$$XYZ \quad (82)$$

QED

5.3 The Chi-Squared Distribution

Then, a gamma distribution with parameters $\alpha = n/2$ and $\lambda = 1/2$ is called the chi-squared distribution with n degrees of freedom such that

$$X \sim \mathcal{Gamma}(n/2, 1/2) \equiv \chi_n^2 \quad (83)$$

Proof. First, to show that $\mathcal{Gamma}(n/2, 1/2) \equiv \chi_n^2$, let's prove that $\mathcal{Gamma}(1/2, 1/2) \equiv \chi_1^2$, a chi-squared distribution with one (1) degree of freedom, using a change of variables $Y = Z^2$ with $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$.

$$\begin{aligned} G(y) &= P(Y \leq y) \\ &= P(Z^2 \leq y) \\ &= P(-\sqrt{y} \leq z \leq \sqrt{y}) \\ &= \Phi(\sqrt{y}) - \Phi(-\sqrt{y}) \\ g(y) &= \frac{f(\sqrt{y})}{2\sqrt{y}} + \frac{f(-\sqrt{y})}{2\sqrt{y}} \\ &= \frac{e^{-y/2}}{2\sqrt{2\pi y}} + \frac{e^{-y/2}}{2\sqrt{2\pi y}} \\ &= \frac{2e^{-y/2}}{2\sqrt{2\pi y}} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}\Gamma(\frac{1}{2})} y^{-1/2} e^{-y/2} \\ &= \frac{(\frac{1}{2})^{1/2}}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2})} y^{1/2-1} e^{-(1/2)y} \end{aligned} \quad (84)$$

$$\therefore Y \sim \mathcal{Gamma}(1/2, 1/2) \equiv \chi_1^2 \quad (85)$$

One may generalize this result by using Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_n as i.i.d. random variables following $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ to find the distribution of

$$Y = \sum_{i=1}^n Z_i^2 \quad (86)$$

Hence, using the moment generating function,

$$\begin{aligned}
 M_{\sum_{i=1}^n Z_i^2}(t) &= \prod_{i=1}^n M_{Z_i^2}(t) \\
 &= M(t)^n \\
 &= \left(\frac{1/2}{1/2 - t} \right)^{n/2}
 \end{aligned} \tag{87}$$

This last line is equal to the moment generating function of a random variable following the distribution $\mathcal{Gamma}(n/2, 1/2)$. Hence,

$$\therefore Y \sim \mathcal{Gamma}(n/2, 1/2) \equiv \chi_n^2 \tag{88}$$

QED

Using the previously proven result, the density function of the chi-squared distribution may be determined by substituting the parameters $\alpha = n/2$ and $\lambda = 1/2$ into the density function of the gamma distribution:

$$\begin{aligned}
 f(x) &= \frac{\lambda^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\lambda x} \\
 &= \frac{(\frac{1}{2})^{n/2}}{\Gamma(\frac{n}{2})} x^{\frac{n}{2}-1} e^{-\frac{1}{2}x} \\
 &= \frac{1}{2^{n/2} \Gamma(\frac{n}{2})} x^{\frac{n}{2}-1} e^{-x/2}
 \end{aligned} \tag{89}$$

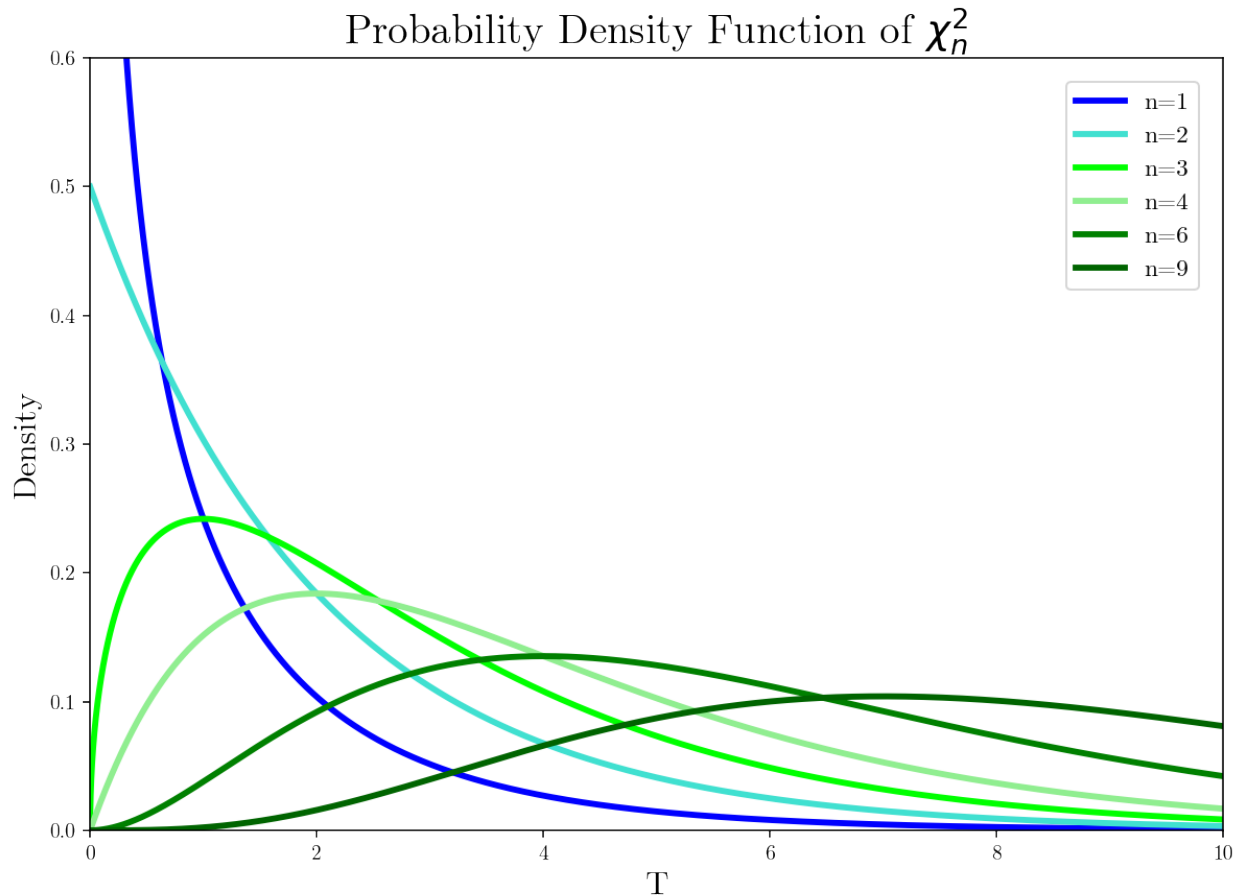


FIGURE 7: Graph of the probability distribution function of a χ_n^2 distribution for various values of n .

The chi square distribution is often used to describe the distribution of a sum of squared random variables, to test the fit of a distribution of data, or to determine whether data series are independent or dependent.

5.4 The Normal Distribution

As was shown previously in subsection 5.3, the normal distribution is related to the gamma distribution as it may be used to prove that the latter is related to the chi-squared distribution. That is:

$$Z \sim \mathcal{N}(\text{ormal}(0, 1) \Rightarrow Z^2 \sim \mathcal{G}\text{amma}(1/2, 1/2) \equiv \chi_1^2 \quad (90)$$

Furthermore, since the gamma distribution $\mathcal{G}\text{amma}(\alpha, \lambda)$ may be viewed as a sum of α exponential distributions, then by the central limit theorem, the density function of the gamma distribution will be extremely similar to that of a normal distribution when α approaches ∞ :

$$\mathcal{G}\text{amma}(\alpha, \lambda) \approx \mathcal{N}(\alpha/\lambda, \alpha/\lambda^2) \text{ for } \alpha \rightarrow \infty \quad (91)$$

The central limit theorem will not be proved as it is quite intuitive; the more data samples one has, the more centered around the expected value the probability density function graph will be. That being said, here is a graph representing this concept by comparing the probability density function graph of a $\mathcal{G}\text{amma}(60, 1)$ to that of a $\mathcal{N}(60, 60)$. Because $\mathcal{G}\text{amma}(\alpha, \lambda)$ is in essence a sum of α i.i.d. random variables following a distribution $\mathcal{E}\text{xp}(\lambda)$, then it makes sense that having a distribution $\mathcal{G}\text{amma}(60, 1)$ is like having 60 data samples following a $\mathcal{E}\text{xp}(1)$ distribution, which fits the central limit theorem.

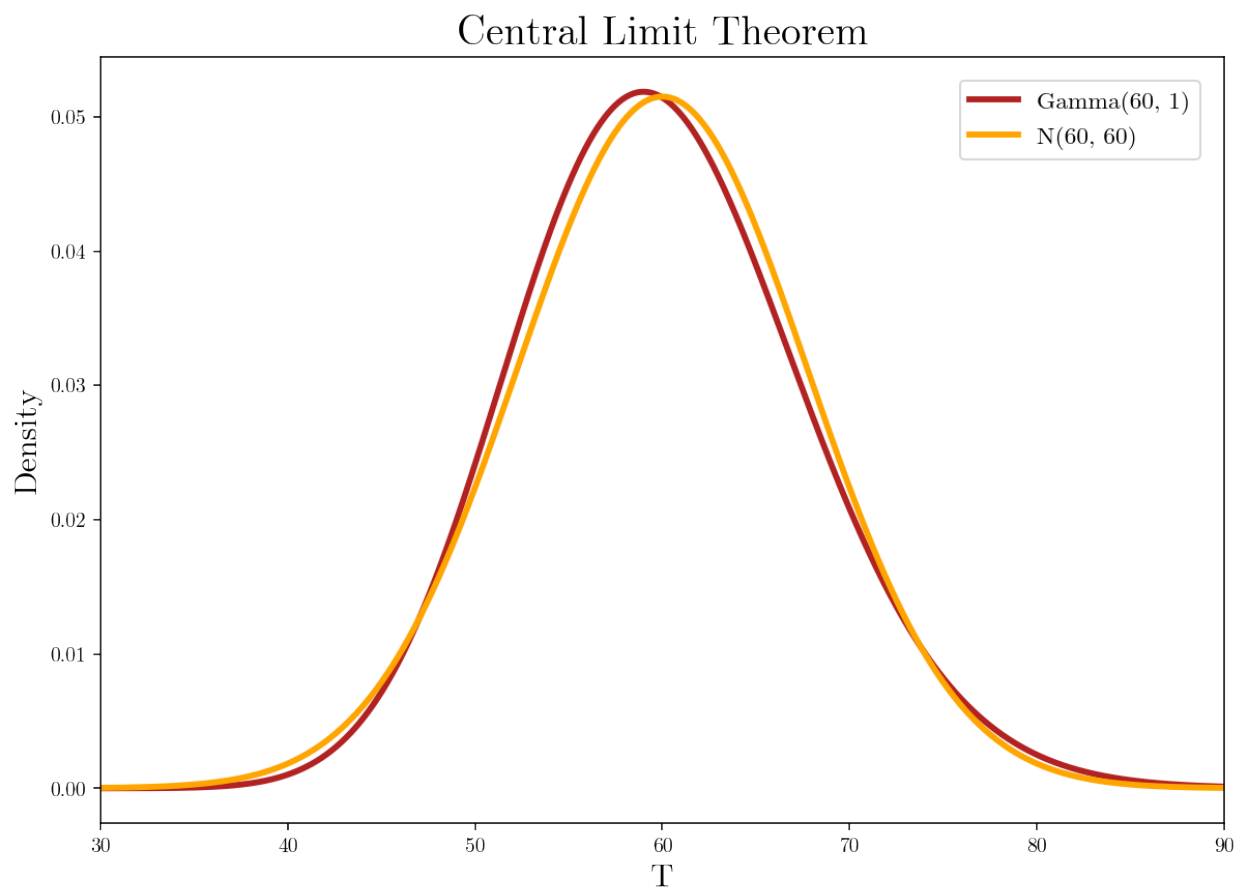


FIGURE 8: Graph showcasing the central limit theorem by comparing the probability density function graph of $\mathcal{G}\text{amma}(60, 1)$ to that of $\mathcal{N}(60, 60)$.

5.5 The Beta Distribution $\mathbf{X/(X+Y)}$

To introduce the beta distribution, let's show how it is related to the gamma distribution. Indeed, for $X \sim \mathcal{G}\text{amma}(\alpha, \lambda)$ and $Y \sim \mathcal{G}\text{amma}(\beta, \lambda)$, then $\frac{X}{X+Y} \sim \mathcal{G}\text{amma}(\alpha + \beta, \lambda)$. Let's prove it:

Proof. $\mathbf{X/(X+Y)}$

QED

It follows from the previous result that the beta distribution is, in fact, a proportion of two gamma distributions! In this section, we will define this distribution more precisely and explore its distinguishing features.

A random variable X is said to have a beta distribution with two parameters α and β if its probability distribution function is defined by

$$f(x) = \frac{x^{\alpha-1}(1-x)^{\beta-1}}{\mathcal{B}(\alpha, \beta)} \text{ for } 0 \leq x \leq 1 \text{ and } \alpha, \beta > 0 \quad (92)$$

where

$$\mathcal{B}(\alpha, \beta) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta)} \quad (93)$$

When looking at the numerator of the beta distribution function, similarities with the distribution function of the binomial distribution for independently distributed random events are evident.

$$p(x) = P(X = x) = \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x} \text{ for } x \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\} \quad (94)$$

Indeed, the two distribution functions are analogous to a certain extent, for while the binomial distribution models the number of successes, the beta distribution models the probability of success. Since $\alpha - 1$ represents the number of successes and $\beta - 1$ represents the number of failures, modifying those parameters changes the shape of the probability distribution to model varying probabilities. As α increases (more successful events), the bulk of

the probability distribution will shift towards the right, whereas an increase in β moves the distribution towards the left (more failures). Finally, the distribution will narrow if both α and β increase, for this increases the certainty regarding possible outcomes.

5.6 The Wishart Distribution

The Wishart distribution, named in honor of the Scottish mathematician John Wishart who first formulated it in 1928, is a generalization to multiple dimensions of the gamma distribution: it is a family of distributions defined over symmetric positive matrices. Namely, if X_1, \dots, X_n are independent and form a $p \times n$ matrix $X = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$, then the distribution of a $p \times p$ random matrix $M = XX' = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i X_i'$ is said to have a Wishart distribution with n degrees of freedom.

If $n \geq p$, such a matrix is denoted $\mathbf{M} \sim W_p(n, \Sigma)$ and has the following probability density function, where $\Gamma_p(\alpha)$ is the multivariate gamma function and where Σ is a fixed symmetric positive matrix of size $p \times p$.

$$f(\mathbf{M}) = \frac{1}{2^{np/2} \Gamma_p(\alpha) |\Sigma|^{n/2}} |\mathbf{M}|^{n-p-1/2} e^{-\frac{\text{trace}(\Sigma^{-1} \mathbf{M})}{2}} \quad (95)$$

Interesting similarities with the probability density function of the gamma distribution can clearly be noticed in the form of this equation. While this generalization of the gamma distribution to matrices is a rather intriguing topic that was important to mention, this paper will not explore the Wishart distribution in greater depth.^[11]

6 Advanced Properties

6.1 Skewness

In statistics, the skewness of a distribution is defined as the degree of asymmetry of the shape of the probability distribution with respect to the normal distribution. Distributions can exhibit right (positive) or left (negative) skewness; the normal distribution is qualified as exhibiting zero skewness. In the case of the gamma distribution, the skewness is only dependent upon the shape parameter α and corresponds to: ^{[12], [2]}

$$\text{Skewness} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\alpha}} \quad (96)$$

6.2 Information Entropy

The entropy of a random variable is defined as the average level of uncertainty associated with the possible outcomes of its probability distribution. In the case of continuous probability distributions such as the gamma distribution, one usually refers to differential entropy (also called continuous entropy), defined as: ^{[13], [2]}

$$h(X) = E[-\log(f(X))] \quad (97)$$

More specifically, the entropy of the gamma distribution corresponds to:

$$H(X) = \alpha + \ln(\lambda) + \ln(\Gamma(\alpha)) + (1 - \alpha)\psi(\alpha) \quad (98)$$

Following is the proof of this preceding equation:

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}
 H(X) &= E[-\ln(p(X))] \\
 &= E[-\alpha \ln(\lambda) + \ln(\Gamma(\alpha)) - (\alpha - 1) \ln(X) + \lambda X] \\
 &= \alpha + \ln(\lambda) + \ln(\Gamma(\alpha)) + (1 - \alpha)\psi(\alpha)
 \end{aligned} \tag{99}$$

QED

6.3 Characteristic function

In statistics, any random variable associated with a probability density function is said to have a characteristic function, which corresponds to the Fourier transformation of its probability density function. The characteristic function thus simply corresponds to an alternative way of describing a random variable: it fully determines the behavior and properties of a given probability distribution to the same extent as the distribution function, but can provide different insights to the features of the random variable. In the case of the gamma distribution, the characteristic function is defined as:^[14]

$$\text{CF} = \left(1 - \frac{it}{\lambda}\right)^{-\alpha} \tag{100}$$

6.4 Methods of Moments

The "methods of moments" of a probability distribution are methods used to estimate population parameters, that is, to describe various aspects of a given group or population. The methods of moments of the gamma distribution are defined as:^{[15], [16]}

$$\begin{aligned}
 \alpha &= \frac{E(X)^2}{\text{Var}(X)} \\
 \lambda &= \frac{E(X)}{\text{Var}(X)}
 \end{aligned} \tag{101}$$

6.4.1 Higher Moments

To describe or estimate further shape parameters of a probability distribution, the higher-order moments of a function can be used. Moments beyond 4th-order are often increasingly hard to estimate, and larger sample sizes are often required to obtain better quality of estimation.^[17]

The n th raw moment is given by:

$$E[X^n] = \frac{\Gamma(n + \alpha)}{\lambda^n \Gamma(\alpha)} \quad (102)$$

6.5 Excess kurtosis

Kurtosis, the fourth standardized moment, is a characteristic used to describe the shape, or the “tailedness” of a probability distribution. The normal distribution is used as the standard, displaying an excess kurtosis of zero with which one can compare the excess kurtosis of other distributions.^[18]

The exponential distribution, as a special case of the gamma distribution, has a positive excess kurtosis and is hence called leptokurtic. This, in short, indicates that it exhibits fatter tails than the normal distribution. Following is the equation characterizing the excess kurtosis of the gamma distribution:^[18]

$$\text{Kurtosis} = \frac{6}{\alpha} \quad (103)$$

7 General Applications and Family

The gamma distribution is used in many fields, since it is directly related to the erlang, normal and exponential distributions whose contributions extend to several disciplines. Here, we will present some of those applications.

7.1 Insurance Companies

First, the gamma distribution is of great use in the field of insurance services, given its direct relation to the exponential distribution. For example, an analyst could use this distribution to specify the amount of time a product lasts if one uses it at a constant average rate, thus modeling how reliable it is (and how much insurance should be charged for it). Then, the size of loan defaults and the cost of insurance claims are also often modeled according to a gamma distribution.

7.2 Natural Events Prediction

Then, the gamma distribution can also be used to model the amount of rainfall accumulated in a given reservoir. Indeed, this distribution fits positive data, represents rainfall distribution well and its two parameters give it sufficient flexibility to fit various climates.^[19]

7.3 Customer Satisfaction

Service time can also be modeled using the gamma distribution. For example, if one is the sole person in line waiting for a meal, the waiting time until one receives the long-awaited food can be modelled using an exponential distribution. Using the same principle, the erlang distribution can allow one to determine the total length of a process, that is, the duration of a sequence of independent events. For instance, if a large number of people are waiting in line to be served, the distribution of each of their individual waiting times (the sum of

several independent exponentially distributed variables) will correspond to the time it takes for the employee to serve everyone in it. Therefore, the gamma distribution lies at the heart of what is called queuing theory: the mathematical study of the congestion of waiting lines. Since waiting lines are found in countless places such as banks, restaurants and hospitals, as well as on web servers or multistep manufacturing and distribution processes, the gamma distribution provides very useful applications in everyday life.

7.4 Call Centers

One of the most famous of those applications concerns phone queuing, on which A. K. Erlang famously worked. The erlang distribution has indeed been developed in the objective to model the time between incoming calls at a call center, along with the expected number of calls, thus allowing call centers to know what their staffing capacity should be depending on the time of day.

7.5 Retail

Beyond waiting lines, the erlang distribution is often used by retailers to model the frequency of interpurchase times by consumers, which gives them an idea of how often a given consumer is expected to purchase a product from them and helps them control inventory and staffing.

7.6 Oncology

Finally, in the field of oncology, the age distribution of cancer incidence also follows a gamma distribution. Although the factors underlying cancer development are not yet fully understood, it has been hypothesized that cancers arise after several successive “driver events”, that is, after some number of mutations occurs in a cell. Analyses of cancer statistics suggest that the incidence of the most prevalent cancer types with respect to the patients’ age closely follows the gamma probability distribution or, more specifically, the erlang distribution. This

may be due to the fact that, more broadly, the erlang distribution can be used to model cell cycle time distribution.^[20] The age distribution of cancer can be modeled using the following equation:

$$Y = A \cdot x^{\alpha-1} \frac{e^{-\frac{x}{\beta}}}{\beta^{\alpha}} \cdot \Gamma(k) \quad (104)$$

In this case, the shape parameter α predicts the number of carcinogenic driver events, whereas the scale parameter β predicts the average time between those events for each cancer type. Using an additional amplitude parameter A , the maximal population susceptibility to a given type of cancer can even be predicted.^[20] Given that experimental research on cancer development is crucial for the lives of many people, numerical references such as that provided by the gamma distribution are of paramount importance in our society. The gamma distribution can save lives, if it is used wisely!

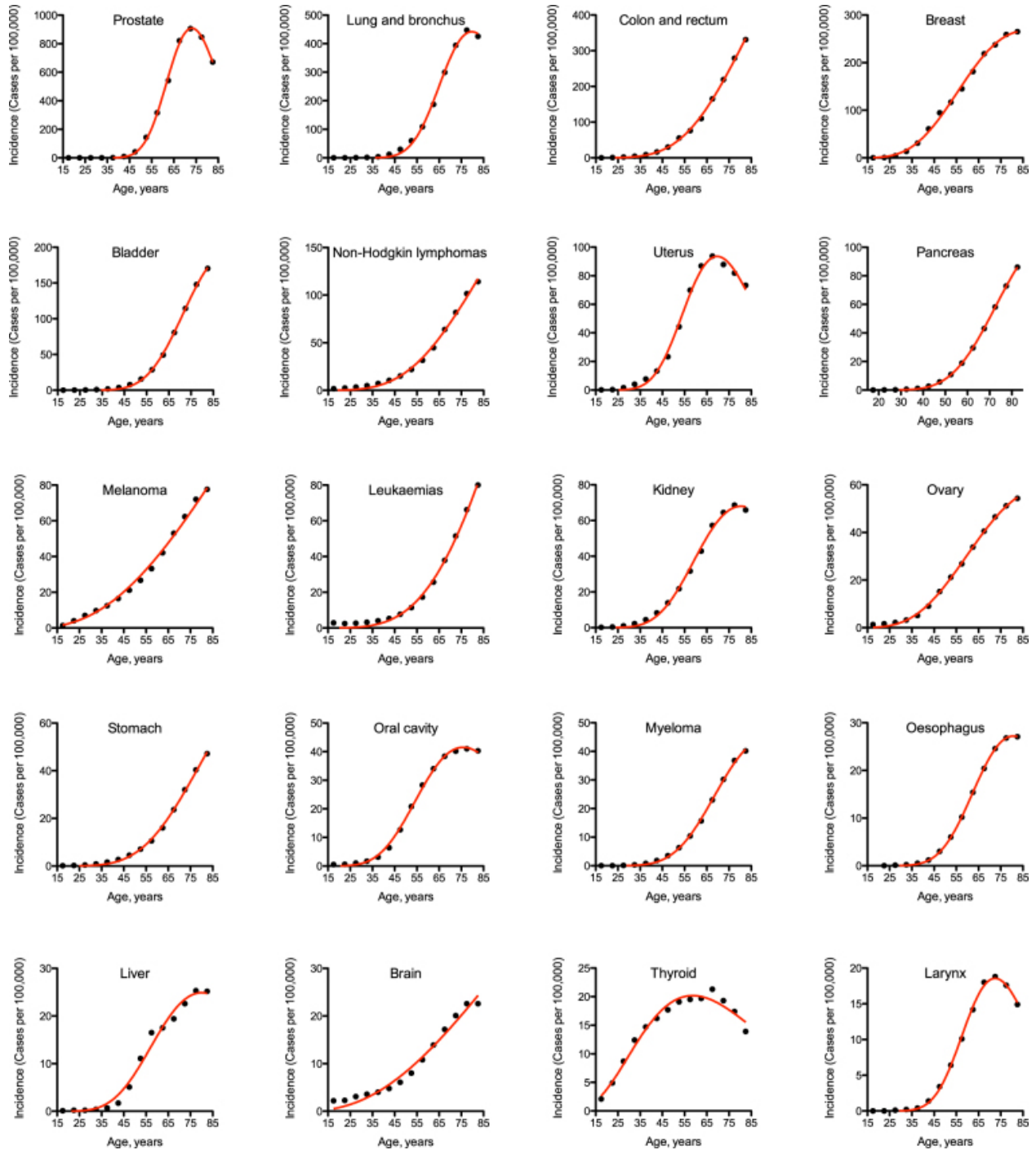


FIGURE 9: "The Erlang distribution approximates cancer incidence by age for 20 most prevalent cancer types. Dots indicate actual data for 5-year age intervals, curves indicate the PDF of the Erlang distribution fitted to the data [...]. The middle age of each age group is plotted. Cancer types are arranged in the order of decreasing incidence".^[20]

A Graphs - Python Code

A.1 Probability Density Function

Here is the code used to generate the probability density function graph of the gamma distribution in subsection 2.1:

```

0 import math
1 import numpy as np          # pip install numpy
2 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt  # pip install matplotlib
3
4 # Settings for matplotlib figure size, font and dpi
5 plt.rcParams["figure.figsize"] = [10, 7]
6 plt.rcParams["font.family"] = "CMU Serif"
7 plt.rcParams['figure.dpi'] = 140
8
9
10 def gamma_distribution_pdf(alpha_=4, lambda_=3):
11     # Array with values from 0 to 25 with 10000 equal increments
12     x = np.linspace(0, 25, 10000)
13
14     # f(x) for X ~ Gamma(alpha_, lambda_)
15     fx = (((1/lambda_)**alpha_)/math.gamma(alpha_)) * (x**(1/lambda_)) *
16     np.exp(-(1/lambda_)*x)
17
18     # Generating graph using matplotlib
19     plt.title("Probability Density Function of Gamma Distribution", fontsize=20)
20     plt.annotate(f"Gamma({alpha_}, {lambda_})", xy=(15, 0.0012), size=14, ha="center",
21     va="center", color="firebrick")
22     plt.xlabel("T", fontsize=16)
23     plt.ylabel("Density", fontsize=16)
24     plt.plot(x, fx, linewidth=3, color="firebrick")
25     plt.xlim([0, 25])
26     plt.ylim([0, 0.0015])
27     plt.show()
28 gamma_distribution_pdf(4, 3)

```

A.2 Cumulative Distribution Function

Here is the code used to generate the cumulative distribution function graph of the gamma distribution in subsection 2.2:

```

0 import math
1 import itertools
2 import numpy as np          # pip install numpy
3 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt  # pip install matplotlib
4
5 # Settings for matplotlib figure size, font and dpi
6 plt.rcParams["figure.figsize"] = [10, 7]
7 plt.rcParams["font.family"] = "CMU Serif"
8 plt.rcParams['figure.dpi'] = 140
9
10
11 def gamma_distribution_cdf(alpha_=4, lambda_=3):
12     # Array with values from 0 to 25 with 10000 equal increments
13     x = np.linspace(0, 25, 10000)
14
15     # f(x) for  $X \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha_-, \lambda_-)$ 
16     fx = (((1/lambda_-)**alpha_-)/math.gamma(alpha_-)) * (x**(1/lambda_-)) *
17     np.exp(-(1/lambda_-)*x)
18
19     dx = 0.0025 # Same as gap between values in array x
20     fxdx = fx * dx
21     Fx = np.array(list(itertools.accumulate(fxdx)))
22
23     # Generating graph using matplotlib
24     plt.title("Distribution Function of Gamma Distribution", fontsize=20)
25     plt.annotate(f"Gamma({alpha_-}, {lambda_-})", xy=(15, 0.006), size=14, ha="center",
26     va="center", color="firebrick")
27     plt.xlabel("T", fontsize=16)
28     plt.ylabel("Probability", fontsize=16)
29     plt.plot(x, Fx, linewidth=3, color="firebrick")
30     plt.xlim([0, 25])
31     plt.ylim([0, 0.0085])
32     plt.show()
33 gamma_distribution_cdf(4, 3)

```

A.3 Central Limit Theorem

Here is the code used to generate the central limit theorem graph in subsection 5.4:

```

0 import math
1 import numpy as np          # pip install numpy
2 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt # pip install matplotlib
3 import scipy as sp         # pip install scipy
4 from scipy import stats     # Used to generate gamma pdf array
5
6 # Settings for matplotlib figure size, font and dpi
7 plt.rcParams["figure.figsize"] = [10, 7]
8 plt.rcParams["font.family"] = "CMU Serif"
9 plt.rcParams['figure.dpi'] = 140
10
11 def central_limit_theorem(alpha_=60, lambda_=1, expected_=60, variance_=60):
12     x = np.linspace(30, 90, 100000)
13     y1 = sp.stats.gamma.pdf(x, alpha_, scale=1/lambda_)          # PDF of Gamma(alpha_,
14     y2 = sp.stats.norm.pdf(x, expected_, math.sqrt(variance_))    # PDF of N(expected_,
15     variance_)
16
17     # Generating graph using matplotlib
18     plt.title("Central Limit Theorem", fontsize=20)
19     plt.xlabel("T", fontsize=16)
20     plt.ylabel("Density", fontsize=16)
21     plt.plot(x, y1, label=f"Gamma({alpha_}, {lambda_})", linewidth=3, color="firebrick")
22     plt.plot(x, y2, label=f"N{expected_, variance_}", linewidth=3, color="orange")
23     plt.legend(bbox_to_anchor=(1, 1), loc="upper right", borderaxespad=1, fontsize=12)
24     plt.xlim([30, 90])
25     plt.show()
26
27 central_limit_theorem(60, 1, 60, 60)

```

B Simulations - Python Code

B.1 Simulation 1: $X + Y$

Comparison of the graph of $\mathcal{Gamma}(\alpha + \beta, \lambda)$ and the histogram of a $X + Y$ of $X \sim \mathcal{Gamma}(\alpha, \lambda)$ and $Y \sim \mathcal{Gamma}(\beta, \lambda)$ random variables featured in subsection 5.2.

```

0 import numpy as np                # pip install numpy
1 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt   # pip install matplotlib
2 import scipy as sp                # pip install scipy
3 from scipy import stats           # Used to generate gamma pdf array
4
5 # Settings for matplotlib figure size, font and dpi
6 plt.rcParams["figure.figsize"] = [10, 7]
7 plt.rcParams["font.family"] = "CMU Serif"
8 plt.rcParams['figure.dpi'] = 140
9
10
11 def histogram_gamma_sum(alpha_=1, beta_=3, lambda_=3):
12     # x and y are arrays of 1000000 i.i.d. Gamma(alpha_, lambda_) r.v.
13     x = np.random.gamma(alpha_, 1/lambda_, 1000000)
14     y = np.random.gamma(beta_, 1/lambda_, 1000000)
15     u = x + y # r.v. of interest
16
17     # Generating histogram using matplotlib
18     plt.title(fr"(X+Y) where X$\sim$\mathcal{Gamma}({alpha_}, {lambda_}) and Y$\sim$\mathcal{Gamma}({beta_}, {lambda_})",
19               fontsize=20)
20     plt.xlabel("T", fontsize=16)
21     plt.ylabel("Density", fontsize=16)
22     plt.hist(u, bins=10000, density=True, color="darkblue")
23     plt.annotate("(X+Y)", xy=(3, 0.6), size=14, ha="center", va="center", color="darkblue")
24     plt.ylim([0, 0.8])
25     plt.xlim([0, 5])
26     plt.show()
27
28 def gamma(alpha_=1, beta_=3, lambda_=3):
29     x = np.linspace(0, 60, 1000000)
30     y = sp.stats.gamma.pdf(x, (alpha_+beta_), scale=1/lambda_)
31
32     # Generating graph using matplotlib
33     plt.title("Probability Density Function of Gamma Distribution", fontsize=20)
34     plt.xlabel("T", fontsize=16)
35     plt.ylabel("Density", fontsize=16)
36     plt.plot(x, y, linewidth=3, color="firebrick")
37     plt.annotate(f"Gamma({alpha_}+{beta_}, {lambda_})", xy=(3, 0.6), size=14, ha="center",
38                 va="center", color="firebrick")
39     plt.ylim([0, 0.8])
40     plt.xlim([0, 5])
41     plt.show()
42
43 histogram_gamma_sum(1, 3, 3)
44 gamma(1, 3, 3)

```

B.2 Simulation 2: $\frac{X}{X+Y}$

Comparison of the graph of $\mathcal{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$ and the histogram of a $\frac{X}{X+Y}$ of $X \sim \mathcal{Gamma}(\alpha, \lambda)$ and $Y \sim \mathcal{Gamma}(\beta, \lambda)$ random variables featured in subsection 5.5.

```

0 import numpy as np                # pip install numpy
1 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt   # pip install matplotlib
2 import scipy as sp                # pip install scipy
3 from scipy import stats           # Used to generate gamma pdf array
4
5 # Settings for matplotlib figure size, font and dpi
6 plt.rcParams["figure.figsize"] = [10, 7]
7 plt.rcParams["font.family"] = "CMU Serif"
8 plt.rcParams['figure.dpi'] = 140
9
10
11 def histogram_beta(alpha_=2, beta_=5, lambda_=1):
12     # x and y are arrays of 100000 i.i.d. Gamma(alpha_, lambda_) r.v.
13     x = np.random.gamma(alpha_, 1/lambda_, 100000)
14     y = np.random.gamma(beta_, 1/lambda_, 100000)
15     v = x/(x + y) # r.v. of interest
16
17     # Generating histogram using matplotlib
18     plt.title(fr"$X/(X+Y)$ where $X \sim \text{Gamma}(\{alpha\_ \}, \{lambda\_ \})$ and $Y \sim \text{Gamma}(\{beta\_ \}, \{lambda\_ \})$",
19               fontsize=20)
20     plt.xlabel("T", fontsize=16)
21     plt.ylabel("Density", fontsize=16)
22     plt.hist(v, bins=10000, density=True, color="darkblue")
23     plt.annotate(fr"$\dfrac{X}{X+Y}$", xy=(0.6, 2.7), size=14, ha="center", va="center",
24                 color="darkblue")
25     plt.ylim([0, 3])
26     plt.xlim([0, 1])
27     plt.show()
28
29 def beta(alpha_=2, beta_=5):
30     x = np.linspace(0, 1, 10000)
31     y = sp.stats.beta.pdf(x, alpha_, beta_)
32
33     # Generating graph using matplotlib
34     plt.title("Probability Density Function of Beta Distribution", fontsize=20)
35     plt.xlabel("T", fontsize=16)
36     plt.ylabel("Density", fontsize=16)
37     plt.plot(x, y, linewidth=3, color="firebrick")
38     plt.annotate(fr"$\text{Beta}(\{alpha\_ \}, \{beta\_ \})$", xy=(0.6, 2.7), size=14, ha="center",
39                 va="center", color="firebrick")
40     plt.ylim([0, 3])
41     plt.xlim([0, 1])
42     plt.show()
43
44 histogram_beta(2, 5, 1)
45 beta(2, 5)

```

List of Figures

1	Graph featuring the plot of the probability density function of a gamma distribution.	6
2	Graph featuring the plot of the cumulative distribution function of a gamma distribution.	11
3	Visual representation of quantiles in a probability density distribution. Provided by GeeksforGeeks ^[9]	22
4	Graph featuring the probability density function of two distinct gamma distributions.	23
5	Graph featuring the probability density function of a gamma distribution with parameters $\alpha = 5$ and $\lambda = 1$	27
6	Graph featuring the plot of the function $\Gamma(\alpha)$ in red and the asymptotes of the function in dotted blue lines.	35
7	Graph of the probability distribution function of a χ_n^2 distribution for various values of n	41
8	Graph showcasing the central limit theorem by comparing the probability density function graph of $\mathcal{G}\text{amma}(60, 1)$ to that of $\mathcal{N}(60, 60)$	43
9	"The Erlang distribution approximates cancer incidence by age for 20 most prevalentcancer types. Dots indicate actual data for 5-year age intervals, curves indicate the PDF of the Erlang distribution fitted to the data [...]. The middle age of each age group is plotted. Cancer types are arranged in the order of decreasing incidence". ^[20]	53

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