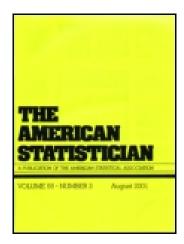
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## The Meaning of Kurtosis: Darlington Reexamined

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Theorem 2. Let (X, Y) be a pair of random variables whose distribution H is of the form (2.2) for some  $\phi$  in  $\Phi$ . Then

$$\tau(X, Y) = 4 \int_0^1 \frac{\phi(t)}{\phi'(t)} dt + 1.$$

**Proof.** First note that H(x, y) = 0 for all (x, y) such that  $\phi(x) + \phi(y) = 0$ . Hence we can compute  $\tau$  using (v) by integrating H over the region in which there is a density. That is,

$$\tau = \iint_{\phi(x) + \phi(y) < \phi(0)} H(x, y) \frac{-\phi''(H)\phi'(x)\phi'(y)}{[\phi'(H)]^3} dx dy.$$

Making the same transformations as in Theorem 1 and integrating yields the desired conclusion.

Figure 2 summarizes what the graph of  $\phi(t)/\phi'(t)$  tells us about H(x, y). The probability associated with the singular component and an estimate of Kendall's  $\tau$  are readily available. The graph is of most interest when comparing two copulas. Note that Fréchet's lower bound gives  $\phi(t)/\phi'(t) = t - 1$ . As  $\phi(t)/\phi'(t)$  approaches 0, we get a distribution close to Fréchet's upper bound.

Examples 1 and 2 (continued). In this case, it is easy to see that  $\tau(X, Y) = \alpha/(\alpha + 2)$  for all  $\alpha \ge -1$ . In particular, note that the cases  $\tau = -1$  and 0 correspond to the Fréchet lower bound and the independence distribution ( $\alpha = -1, 0$ , respectively), and  $\tau$  approaches 1 as  $\alpha$  tends to infinity. It is easy to verify directly that  $\lim_{\alpha \to \infty} H_{\alpha}(x, y) = \min\{x, y\}$ .

Example 3 (continued). Here, we see that  $\tau(X, Y) = 1 - 2/\alpha$ , which suggests that  $G_{\alpha}$  approaches Fréchet's upper bound as  $\alpha$  increases indefinitely. This is easy to check. Note also that  $\tau = 0$  when  $\alpha = 2$  but that

$$G_2(x, y) = \max\{0, 1 - \sqrt{(1-x)^2 + (1-y)^2}\}\$$

is not the independence distribution. This illustrates the parenthetical comment made in exercise (iv).

#### 5. COMMENT

Copulas of the form (2.2) serve other purposes besides those outlined in this article. Some of their theoretical uses are described in the book by Schweizer and Sklar (1983) and in a paper by Genest and MacKay (1986). In the latter, for example, it is shown how these copulas can be used to generate one-parameter families of bivariate distributions with prescribed marginals in such a way as to approach the Fréchet bounds "smoothly." Two examples of such families have been presented here (Examples 1 and 2). In general, it turns out that the convergence of a sequence  $H_n$  of copulas of the form (2.2) can be determined by simply looking at the graph of  $\phi_n/\phi'_n$ . See Genest and MacKay (1986) for details.

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## The Meaning of Kurtosis: Darlington Reexamined

### J. J. A. MOORS\*

There seems to be no universal agreement about the meaning and interpretation of kurtosis. An easy interpretation is given here: kurtosis is a measure of dispersion around the two values  $\mu \pm \sigma$ .

The concept of kurtosis seems to be rather difficult to interpret. Most statistical textbooks describe kurtosis in terms of peakedness, and some seek the explanation in heavy tails.

Ben-Horim and Levy (1984) is an exception: it presents a more elaborate example featuring a bimodal distribution.

Bimodality as interpretation of kurtosis was introduced in Darlington (1970). Unfortunately, he pushed an otherwise correct argument one step too far. The present note reexamines his reasoning.

The kurtosis k will be defined here as the normalized fourth central moment; compare Kendall and Stuart (1969). So, any random variable X with expectation  $E\{X\} = \mu$ , variance  $V\{X\} = \sigma^2$ , and finite fourth moment has

$$k = E\{X - \mu\}^4/\sigma^4.$$

Introduction of the standardized variable  $Z := (X - \mu)/\sigma$ 

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gives  $k = E\{Z^4\} = V\{Z^2\} + [E\{Z^2\}]^2$ , immediately implying the central formula

$$k = V\{Z^2\} + 1. (1)$$

The inequality  $k \ge 1$  follows at once; the minimum is attained for a symmetric two-point distribution. Further, (1) implies that k can be viewed as measure of the dispersion of  $Z^2$  around its expectation 1, or equivalently, the dispersion of Z around the values -1 and +1. This was essentially Darlington's reasoning, who next concluded that k is a measure of bimodality. This last conclusion does not follow, however. Bimodal distributions can have large kurtosis; this occurs if the modes are not close to the points  $Z = \pm 1$ . This last phenomenon was illustrated by Hildebrand (1971) by means of a family of double gamma distributions, among others. As a consequence, Darlington's result did not receive the attention it deserves.

A valid interpretation may be formulated as follows: kurtosis measures the dispersion around the *two* values  $\mu \pm \sigma$ ; it is an inverse measure for the concentration in these two points. High kurtosis, therefore, may arise in two situations: (a) concentration of probability mass near  $\mu$  (corresponding to a peaked unimodal distribution) and (b) concentration of probability mass in the tails of the distribution. The existence of these two possibilities explains the present confusion about the interpretation of kurtosis. Since  $V\{Z^2\}$  may be

unbounded if heavy tails occur, (1) also indicates clearly why k is strongly affected by the tail behavior of the distribution. Darlington (1970) gave an additional argument by considering the contribution to k of additional point masses.

Sometimes,  $k^*$ : = k - 3 is presented as an alternative definition of kurtosis, since  $k^* = 0$  for normal distributions. There is, however, nothing special about the kurtosis of normal distributions. A better alternative in the spirit of this note would be k': = k - 1. Of course, one could as well define a measure of concentration in  $\mu \pm \sigma$  as 1 - k or 1/k, the latter having the advantage of taking values between 0 and 1.

Since the derivation of (1) is a nice little exercise in dispersion, I expect to see it in any forthcoming textbook.

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# Bias of $S^2$ in Linear Regressions With Dependent Errors

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Bounds are given for the expected value of the estimator of the error variance in linear regressions, when the errors are dependent or heteroscedastic. The bounds are valid irrespective of the covariance structure between the errors. Necessary and sufficient conditions to attain the bounds are supplied.

KEY WORDS: Variance estimation; Heteroscedastic errors; Bound on bias.

Recently, David (1985) showed the following interesting result: if  $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n$  are random variables each with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ , then

$$0 \le E(s^2) \le [n/(n-1)]\sigma^2, \tag{1}$$

where  $s^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2/(n-1)$ . Of course,  $E(s^2) = \sigma^2$  when  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  are uncorrelated. It is especially remarkable that the upper bound is valid for any form of dependence between  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$ . Does a corresponding result hold in a more general setup like the linear regression model? In this article a similar inequality is given for the usual estimator of the error variance in linear regressions when the errors have an arbitrary covariance structure.

Let

$$y = X\beta + u,$$

where y is an  $n \times 1$  vector of observations on a dependent variable, X is an  $n \times k$  fixed regressor matrix such that  $1 \le \operatorname{rank}(X) = k < n$ ,  $\beta$  is a  $k \times 1$  vector of coefficients, and  $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, \ldots, u_n)'$  is an  $n \times 1$  vector of disturbances (or errors) such that  $E(\mathbf{u}) = 0$  and  $E(\mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}') = \Omega$ .  $\Omega$  is an arbitrary covariance matrix. Let

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = (X'X)^{-1}X'y$$
,  $\hat{\mathbf{u}} = \mathbf{y} - X\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ ,  $s^2 = \hat{\mathbf{u}}'\hat{\mathbf{u}}/(n-k)$ .

It is well known that  $E(s^2) = \sigma^2$  when  $\Omega = \sigma^2 I_n$ , but this does not usually hold otherwise. Since  $\hat{\mathbf{u}} = M\mathbf{u}$ , where  $M = I_n - P$  and  $P = X(X'X)^{-1}X'$ , we have

$$E(\hat{\mathbf{u}}'\hat{\mathbf{u}}) = E(\mathbf{u}'M\mathbf{u}) = \operatorname{tr}(M\Omega) = \operatorname{tr}(\Omega) - \operatorname{tr}(P\Omega). \quad (2)$$

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