

# Semiparametric robust mean estimation based on the orderliness of quantile averages

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**As arguably the most fundamental problem in statistics, nonparametric robust location estimation has many prominent solutions, such as the trimmed mean, Winsorized mean, Hodges–Lehmann estimator, and median of means. Recent research suggests that their biases can be quite different in asymmetric distributions. Here, similar to the mean-median-mode inequality, it is proven that in the context of nearly all common unimodal distributions, there is an orderliness of symmetric quantile averages with different breakdown points. Further deductions explain why the Winsorized mean generally have smaller biases compared to the trimmed mean. Building on the  $\nu$ th  $U$ -orderliness, binomial Hodges–Lehmann mean is proposed as the bias-optimum semiparametric robust mean estimator.**

semiparametric | mean-median-mode inequality | asymptotic | unimodal  
| Hodges–Lehmann estimator

In 1823, Gauss (1) proved that for any unimodal distribution with a finite second moment,  $|m - \mu| \leq \sqrt{\frac{3}{4}}\omega$ , where  $\mu$  is the population mean,  $m$  is the population median,  $\omega$  is the root mean square deviation from the mode,  $M$ . Bernard, Kazzi, and Vanduffel (2020) (2) derived bias bounds for the  $\epsilon$ -symmetric quantile average (SQA $_{\epsilon}$ ) for unimodal distributions, building on the work of Karlin and Novikoff (1963) and Li, Shao, Wang, and Yang (2018) (3, 4). They showed that the  $m$  has the smallest maximum distance to the  $\mu$  among all symmetric quantile averages. Daniell, in 1920, (5) analyzed a class of estimators, which are linear combinations of order statistics, and identified that  $\epsilon$ -symmetric trimmed mean (TM $_{\epsilon}$ ) belongs to this class. Another popular choice, the  $\epsilon$ -symmetric Winsorized mean (WM $_{\epsilon}$ ), which was named after Winsor and introduced by Tukey (6) and Dixon (7) in 1960, is also an  $L$ -statistic. Without assuming unimodality, Bieniek (2016) derived exact bias upper bounds of the Winsorized mean based on Danielak and Rychlik's work (2003) on the trimmed mean and confirmed that the former is smaller than the latter (8, 9). In 1963, Hodges and Lehmann (10) proposed a class of nonparametric location estimators based on rank tests and, from the Wilcoxon signed-rank statistic (11), deduced the median of pairwise means as a robust location estimator for a symmetric population. The concept of median of means (MoM $_{k,b}$ ,  $k$  is the number of size in each block,  $b$  is the number of blocks) was implicit several times in Nemirovsky and Yudin (1983) (12), Jerrum, Valiant, and Vazirani (1986), (13) and Alon, Matias and Szegedy (1996) (14)'s works. Having good performance even for distributions with infinite second moments, the advantages of MoM have received increasing attention over the past decade (15–22). Devroye, Lerasle, Lugosi, and Oliveira (2016) showed that MoM nears the optimum of mean estimation with regards to concentration bounds when the distribution has a heavy tail (20). In fact, asymptotically, the Hodges–Lehmann (H-L) estimator is equivalent to MoM $_{k=2,b=\frac{n}{k}}$ , and it can be seen as the pairwise mean distribution is approximated by the

bootstrap (for the asymptotic validity, the reader is referred to the seminal works of Efron (1979) (23), Bickel and Freedman (24), and Helmers, Janssen, and Veraverbeke (1990) (25)).

Here, the  $\epsilon, b$ -stratified mean is defined as

$$SM_{\epsilon,b,n} := \frac{b}{n} \left( \sum_{j=1}^{\frac{b-1}{2b\epsilon}} \sum_{i_j=\frac{(2bj-b-1)n\epsilon}{b-1}+1}^{\frac{(2bj-b+1)n\epsilon}{b-1}} X_{i_j} \right),$$

where  $X_1 \leq \dots \leq X_n$  denote the order statistics of a sample of  $n$  independent and identically distributed random variables  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ ,  $\epsilon \bmod \frac{2}{b-1} = 0$ ,  $\frac{1}{\epsilon} \geq 9$ . If the subscript  $n$  is omitted, only the asymptotic behavior is considered. If  $b$  is omitted,  $b = 3$ . The basic idea is to divide the random variables into  $b$  blocks according to their order, and then compute the mean of the middle block, which is the median of all  $b$  blocks. Although the principle is similar to the median of means, without the random shift, the result is different from MoM $_{k=\frac{n}{b},b}$ . The exact solution for  $n \bmod \frac{1}{\epsilon} \neq 0$  is imputing the remaining values with multiple hot deck imputation (proposed by Little and Rubin in 1986) (26), since it preserves the original distribution (proven by Reilly in 1991) (27). If  $n \bmod \frac{1}{\epsilon} = \varrho$ , the algorithm should run  $\binom{n}{\varrho}$  times. An approximation solution is randomly imputing the remaining values several times and then computing the mean of all estimations. The stratified mean is a type of stratum mean which is related to the stratified sampling. The most similar version was proposed by Takahasi and Wakimoto in 1968 (28), which is stratifying order statistics into several non-overlapping blocks and then computing the mean of one block. The median of means and stratified mean are consistent mean estimators if their asymptotic breakdown points are zero. However, if  $\epsilon = \frac{1}{9}$ , the biases of the SM $_{\frac{1}{9}}$  are nearly identical to those of the WM $_{\frac{1}{9}}$  in asymmetric distributions (Figure 1,

## Significance Statement

In 1964, van Zwet introduced convex transformation order for comparing the skewness of two distributions. This paradigm shift plays a fundamental role in defining robust measures of distributions, from spread to kurtosis. Here, rather than the stochastic ordering between two distributions, the orderliness of quantile averages within a distribution is investigated. By classifying distributions through inequalities, a series of sophisticated robust mean estimators are deduced. Nearly all common nonparametric robust location estimators are special cases thereof.

T.L. designed research, performed research, analyzed data, and wrote the paper.

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if no other subscripts,  $\epsilon$  is omitted for simplicity), i.e., their robustness to departures from the symmetry assumption is similar in practice. More importantly, the bounds confirm that the worst-case performances of  $WM_\epsilon$  are better than those of  $TM_\epsilon$  in terms of bias, but due to the complexity, any extensions are extremely difficult. The aim of this paper is to define a series of semiparametric models using inequalities, demonstrate their elegant interrelations and connections to parametric models, and deduce a set of sophisticated robust mean estimators.

## Quantile average and weighted average

$\epsilon$ -symmetric trimmed mean,  $\epsilon$ -symmetric Winsorized mean, and  $\epsilon$ -stratified mean are all  $L$ -statistics. More specifically, they are symmetric weighted averages, which is defined as

$$SWA_{\epsilon,n} := \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{\frac{n}{2}} \frac{X_i + X_{n-i+1}}{2} w_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{\frac{n}{2}} w_i},$$

where  $w_i$ s are the weights applied to the symmetric quantile average according to the definition of the corresponding  $L$ -statistic. For example, for the  $\epsilon$ -symmetric trimmed mean,  $w_i = \begin{cases} 0, & i < n\epsilon \\ 1, & i \geq n\epsilon \end{cases}$ . Mean ( $\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} TM_\epsilon$ ) and median ( $TM_{\frac{1}{2}}$ ) are just two special cases of symmetric trimmed mean. In 1974, Hogg investigated asymmetric trimmed mean and found its advantages for some special applications (29). To extend to the asymmetric case, the quantile average can be defined as

$$QA(\epsilon, \gamma, n) := \frac{1}{2} (\hat{Q}_n(\epsilon) + \hat{Q}_n(1 - \gamma\epsilon)).$$

where  $\gamma > 0$  and  $\epsilon \leq \frac{1}{1+\gamma}$ ,  $\hat{Q}_n(p)$  is the empirical quantile function. For example,  $QA(\epsilon = 0.2, \gamma = 2, n) = \frac{1}{2} (\hat{Q}_n(0.2) + \hat{Q}_n(0.6))$ . Symmetric quantile average is a special case of quantile average when  $\gamma = 1$ .

Analogously, weighted average can be defined as

$$WA_{\epsilon,\gamma} := \frac{\int_{\epsilon_0=0}^{\frac{1}{1+\gamma}} QA(\epsilon_0) w_{\epsilon_0}}{\int_{\epsilon_0=0}^{\frac{1}{1+\gamma}} w_{\epsilon_0}}.$$

Converting this asymptotic definition to finite sample definition requires rounding the  $n\epsilon_0$ , for simplicity, only asymptotic definition is considered here. For example, the  $\epsilon, \gamma$ -asymmetric trimmed mean ( $TM_{\epsilon,\gamma}$ ) is a weighted average that trims the left side  $\epsilon$  and trims the right side  $\gamma\epsilon$ , where  $w_{\epsilon_0} = \begin{cases} 0, & \epsilon_0 < \epsilon \\ 1, & \epsilon_0 \geq \epsilon \end{cases}$ . Noted that a weighted average is an  $L$ -statistic, but an  $L$ -statistic might not be a weighted average, because all quantile averages have the same  $\gamma$  in a weighted average. For the sake of brevity, in the following text, if  $\gamma$  is not indicated, symmetry will be assumed.

## Classifying distributions through inequalities

Let  $\mathcal{P}_k$  denote the set of all distributions over  $\mathbb{R}$  whose moments, from the first to the  $k$ th, are all finite. Without loss of generality, all classes discussed in the following are subclasses of the nonparametric class of distributions such that  $\mathcal{P}_1^k := \{P \text{ is continuous} \wedge \text{all } P \in \mathcal{P}_k\}$ . Besides fully and smoothly parameterized by a Euclidean parameter, or just assuming regularity conditions, there are many ways to classify

distributions. In 1956, Stein initiated the problem of estimating parameters in the presence of an infinite dimensional nuisance shape parameter (30). A notable example discussed in his foundational work was the estimation of the center of symmetry for an unknown symmetric distribution. In 1993, Bickel, Klaassen, Ritov, and Wellner published an influential semiparametrics textbook (31). They systematically classified nearly all common models into three classes: parametric, nonparametric, and semiparametric. However, there is another old and commonly encountered class of distributions that receives little attention in semiparametric literature: the unimodal distribution. It is a very unique semiparametric model because its definition is based on inequalities, i.e., assuming  $P$  is continuous,  $(f'(x) > 0 \text{ for } x \leq M) \wedge (f'(x) < 0 \text{ for } x \geq M)$ . Let  $\mathcal{P}_U$  denote the set of all unimodal distributions. Five parametric distributions in  $\mathcal{P}_U$  are detailed as examples here: Weibull, gamma, Pareto, lognormal and generalized Gaussian.

There was a widespread misbelief that the median is always located between the mean and the mode for an arbitrary unimodal distribution until Runnenburg (1978) and van Zwet (1979) (32, 33) endeavored to determine sufficient conditions under which the inequality holds, thus implying the possibility of its violation (counterexamples see Dharmadhikari and Joag-Dev (1988), Basu and DasGupta (1997), and Abadir (2005)'s papers) (34–36). The class of distributions satisfying the mean-median-mode inequality constitutes a subclass of  $\mathcal{P}_U$ . Analogously, a right-skewed distribution is called  $\gamma$ -ordered, if and only if

$$\forall \epsilon_1 \leq \epsilon_2 \leq \frac{1}{1+\gamma}, QA_{\epsilon_1,\gamma} \geq QA_{\epsilon_2,\gamma}.$$

It is reasonable, although not necessary, to further assume  $\gamma \geq 1$  since the gross errors of a right-skewed distribution, often, are mainly from the right side. The left-skewed case is just reversing the inequality and, if needed, assuming  $\gamma \leq 1$ ; for simplicity, it will be completely omitted in the following discussion. If  $\gamma = 1$ , it is referred to as ordered. This nomenclature will be assumed in the following text. Let  $\mathcal{P}_O$  denote the set of all ordered distributions. Nearly all common unimodal distributions, including Weibull, gamma, Pareto, lognormal and generalized Gaussian, are in  $\mathcal{P}_U \cap \mathcal{P}_O$  (proven in the following discussion and SI Text). The only minor exceptions occur when the Weibull and gamma distribution are near-symmetric (shown in the SI Text). Unlike the mean-median-mode inequality, whose sufficient conditions are very cumbersome, a necessary and sufficient condition of the  $\gamma$ -orderliness is the monotonic property of the bias function of  $QA_{\epsilon,\gamma}$  with respect to  $\epsilon$  (proven in the SI Text). The following necessary and sufficient condition hints at the relation between the mean-median-mode inequality and the orderliness.

**Theorem .1.** Let  $P_\Upsilon^k$  denote an arbitrary distribution in the set  $\mathcal{P}_\Upsilon^k$ .  $P_\Upsilon^k \in \mathcal{P}_O$  if and only if the pdf satisfies the inequality  $f(Q(\epsilon)) \geq f(Q(1 - \epsilon))$ , where  $0 \leq \epsilon \leq \frac{1}{2}$  (also assumed in the following discussions),  $Q(\epsilon)$  is the quantile function.

*Proof.* From the definition of ordered distribution, deducing  $\frac{Q(\epsilon - \delta) + Q(1 - \epsilon + \delta)}{2} \geq \frac{Q(\epsilon) + Q(1 - \epsilon)}{2} \Leftrightarrow Q(\epsilon - \delta) - Q(\epsilon) \geq Q(1 - \epsilon) - Q(1 - \epsilon + \delta) \Leftrightarrow Q'(1 - \epsilon) \geq Q'(\epsilon)$ , where  $\delta$  is an infinitesimal quantity. Since the quantile function is the inverse function of the cumulative distribution function (cdf),  $Q'(1 - \epsilon) \geq Q'(\epsilon) \Leftrightarrow F'(Q(\epsilon)) \geq F'(Q(1 - \epsilon))$ , the proof is complete by noticing that the derivative of cdf is pdf.  $\square$

The mean-median difference  $|\mu - m|$  was proposed to measure skewness by Pearson (1895) (37). Bowley (1926) proposed a robust skewness based on the SQA-median difference  $|\text{SQA}_\epsilon - m|$  (38). Groeneveld and Meeden (1984) (39) generalized these measures of skewness based on van Zwet's convex transformation (40) and investigated their properties. Suppose  $P_\gamma^k$  follows the mean-median-mode inequality. Then, the probability density  $f(Q(\epsilon))$  on the left side of the median, on average, is greater than the corresponding  $f(Q(1 - \epsilon))$ , since  $m < \frac{Q(0)+Q(1)}{2} \Leftrightarrow m - Q(0) < Q(1) - m$ . If  $Q(\epsilon) > M$ , the inequality  $f(Q(\epsilon)) \geq f(Q(1 - \epsilon))$  holds. The principle can be extended to unimodal-like distributions. Suppose there is a right-skewed continuous multimodal distribution following the mean-median-first mode inequality with many small modes on the right side, the first mode,  $M$ , has the greatest probability density and the median is within the first dominant mode, i.e., if  $x > m$ ,  $f(m) \geq f(x)$ , then, if  $Q(\epsilon) > M$ , the inequality  $f(Q(\epsilon)) \geq f(Q(1 - \epsilon))$  will also hold.

Furthermore, most common right-skewed distributions are partial bounded. This implies the convex decreasing behavior of the QA function when  $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ . If assuming convexity further, the second  $\gamma$ -orderliness can be defined as the following for a right-skewed distribution plus the  $\gamma$ -orderliness,

$$\forall \epsilon_1 \leq \epsilon_2 \leq \epsilon_3 \leq \frac{1}{2}, \frac{\text{QA}_{\epsilon_1, \gamma} - \text{QA}_{\epsilon_2, \gamma}}{\epsilon_2 - \epsilon_1} \geq \frac{\text{QA}_{\epsilon_2, \gamma} - \text{QA}_{\epsilon_3, \gamma}}{\epsilon_3 - \epsilon_2}.$$

An equivalent expression is  $\frac{d^2 \text{QA}}{d\epsilon^2} \geq 0 \wedge \frac{d \text{QA}}{d\epsilon} \leq 0$ . Analogously, the  $\nu$ th  $\gamma$ -orderliness can be defined as  $(-1)^\nu \frac{d^\nu \text{QA}}{d\epsilon^\nu} \geq 0 \wedge \dots \wedge -\frac{d \text{QA}}{d\epsilon} \geq 0$ . The definition of  $\nu$ th orderliness is the same, just setting  $\gamma = 1$ . Common unimodal distributions are also second and third ordered (shown in the SI Text). Let  $\mathcal{P}_{O_\nu}$  and  $\mathcal{P}_{\gamma O_\nu}$  denote the sets of all distributions which are  $\nu$ th ordered and  $\nu$ th  $\gamma$ -ordered. The following theorems can be used to quickly identify parametric distributions in  $\mathcal{P}_{O_\nu}$  and  $\mathcal{P}_{\gamma O_\nu}$  without solving the exact derivative.

**Theorem .2.** Any symmetric distribution with a finite second moment is  $\nu$ th ordered.

*Proof.* The assertion follows from the fact that for any symmetric distribution with a finite second moment, all symmetric quantile averages coincide. Therefore, the SQA function is always a horizontal line; the  $\nu$ th order derivative is zero.  $\square$

As a consequence of Theorem .2 and the fact that generalized Gaussian distribution is symmetric around the median, it is  $\nu$ th ordered.

**Theorem .3.** Any continuous right skewed distribution whose  $Q$  satisfies  $Q^{(\nu)}(p) \geq 0 \wedge \dots \wedge Q^{(i)}(p) \geq 0 \wedge Q^{(2)}(p) \geq 0$ ,  $i \bmod 2 = 0$ , is  $\nu$ th  $\gamma$ -ordered, provided that  $\gamma \geq 1$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\text{QA}(\epsilon) = \frac{1}{2}(Q(\epsilon) + Q(1 - \gamma\epsilon))$ , then  $(-1)^j \frac{d^j \text{QA}}{d\epsilon^j} = \frac{1}{2}((-1)^j Q^j(\epsilon) + \gamma^j Q^j(1 - \gamma\epsilon))$ ,  $\nu \geq j \geq 1$ , when  $j \bmod 2 = 0$ ,  $(-1)^j \frac{d^j \text{QA}}{d\epsilon^j} \geq 0$ , when  $j \bmod 2 = 1$ , the strict positivity is uncertain. If assuming  $\gamma \geq 1$ ,  $(-1)^j \frac{d^j \text{QA}}{d\epsilon^j} \geq 0$ , since  $Q^{(j+1)}(\epsilon) \geq 0$ .  $\square$

It is now trivial to prove that the Pareto distribution follows the  $\nu$ th  $\gamma$ -orderliness, provided that  $\gamma \geq 1$ , since the quantile function of the Pareto distribution is  $Q(p) = x_m(1 - p)^{-\frac{1}{\alpha}}$ ,  $x_m > 0$ ,  $\alpha > 0$ ,  $Q^{(\nu)}(p) \geq 0$  according to the chain rule.

**Theorem .4.** A right-skewed continuous distribution with a monotonic decreasing pdf is  $\gamma$ -ordered, if  $\gamma \geq 1$ .

*Proof.* A monotonic decreasing pdf means  $f'(x) = F^{(2)}(x) \leq 0$ . Since  $Q'(p) \geq 0$ , let  $x = Q(F(x))$ , then by differentiating both sides of the equation twice, one can obtain  $0 = Q^{(2)}(F(x)) (F'(x))^2 + Q'(F(x)) F^{(2)}(x) \Leftrightarrow Q^{(2)}(F(x)) = -\frac{Q'(F(x)) F^{(2)}(x)}{(F'(x))^2} \geq 0$ . The desired result is derived from Theorem .3.  $\square$

Theorem .4 gives an interesting insight into the relation between modality and  $\gamma$ -orderliness. According to the conventional definition, a distribution with a monotonic pdf is still a unimodal distribution. However, within the interval supported, its mode number is zero. In fact, the number of modes and their magnitudes are closely related to the possibility of the validity of orderliness, even though counterexamples can always be constructed. A proof of  $\gamma$ -orderliness, if  $\gamma \geq 1$ , can be easily done for the gamma distributions when  $\alpha \leq 1$  since the pdf of the gamma distribution is  $f(x) = \frac{\lambda^{-\alpha} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\frac{x}{\lambda}}}{\Gamma(\alpha)}$ ,  $x \geq 0$ ,  $\lambda > 0$ ,  $\alpha > 0$ , which is a product of two monotonic decreasing functions under constraints. For  $\alpha > 1$ , the proof is hard, numerical results show that the orderliness is valid until  $\alpha > 140$  (SI Text), but it is instructive to consider that when  $\alpha \rightarrow \infty$  the gamma distribution converges to a Gaussian distribution with mean  $\mu = \alpha\lambda$  and variance  $\sigma = \alpha\lambda^2$ .

**Theorem .5.** If transforming a symmetric unimodal random variable  $X$  with a function  $\phi(x)$  such that  $\frac{d^2 \phi}{dx^2} \geq 0 \wedge \frac{d\phi}{dx} \geq 0$  over the interval supported, then the convex transformed distribution is ordered. If the quantile function of  $X$  satisfies  $Q^{(2)}(\epsilon) \leq 0$ , the convex transformed distribution is second ordered.

*Proof.* Let  $\phi\text{SQA}(\epsilon) = \frac{1}{2}(\phi(Q(\epsilon)) + \phi(Q(1 - \epsilon)))$ , then,  $\frac{d\phi\text{SQA}}{d\epsilon} = \frac{1}{2}(\phi'(Q(\epsilon)) Q'(\epsilon) - \phi'(Q(1 - \epsilon)) Q'(1 - \epsilon)) = \frac{1}{2}Q'(\epsilon)(\phi'(Q(\epsilon)) - \phi'(Q(1 - \epsilon))) \leq 0$ , since for a symmetric distribution,  $m - Q(\epsilon) = Q(1 - \epsilon) - m$ , differentiating both sides,  $-Q'(\epsilon) = -Q'(1 - \epsilon)$ ,  $Q'(\epsilon) \geq 0$ ,  $\phi^{(2)} \geq 0$ . Notably, differentiating twice,  $Q^{(2)}(\epsilon) = -Q^{(2)}(1 - \epsilon)$ ,  $\frac{d^2 \phi\text{SQA}}{d\epsilon^2} = \frac{1}{2}((\phi^{(2)}(Q(\epsilon)) + \phi^{(2)}(Q(1 - \epsilon)))(Q'(\epsilon))^2) + \frac{1}{2}((\phi'(Q(\epsilon)) - \phi'(Q(1 - \epsilon))) Q^{(2)}(\epsilon))$ . The sign of  $\frac{d^2 \phi\text{SQA}}{d\epsilon^2}$  depends on  $Q^{(2)}(\epsilon)$ .  $\square$

The mean-median-mode inequality for distributions of the powers and roots of the variates of a given distribution was investigated by Henry Rietz in 1927 (41), but the most trivial solution is the exponential transformation since the derivatives are always positive. An application of Theorem .5 is that the lognormal distribution is ordered as it is exponentially transformed from the Gaussian distribution whose  $Q^{(2)}(\epsilon) = -2\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma e^{2\text{erfc}^{-1}(2\epsilon)^2} \text{erfc}^{-1}(2\epsilon) \leq 0$  (so, it is also second ordered).

Theorem .5 also reveals a relation between convex transformation and orderliness, since  $\phi$  is the non-decreasing convex function in van Zwet's trailblazing work *Convex transformations of random variables* (40). Consider there is a near-symmetric distribution  $S$  such that  $\text{SQA}_\epsilon$  as a function of  $\epsilon$  is fluctuating from 0 to  $\frac{1}{2}$ , and  $\mu = m$ . Based on the definition,  $S$  is not ordered. Let  $s$  be the pdf of  $S$ . Transforming  $S$  with  $\phi(x)$  will decrease  $s(Q_S(\epsilon))$ , and the decrease rate, due to



the order, is much smaller than  $s(Q_S(1 - \epsilon))$ . That means, as the second derivative of  $\phi(x)$  increases, eventually, after a point,  $s(Q_S(\epsilon))$  will always be greater than  $s(Q_S(1 - \epsilon))$  even previously not, i.e., the  $SQA_\epsilon$  function will be monotonic decreasing and  $S$  will be ordered. Accordingly, in a family of distributions that differ by a skewness-increasing transformation in van Zwet's sense, violations of orderliness typically occur only when the distribution is near-symmetric.

Remarkably, Bernard et al. (2020) (2) derived the bias bound of the symmetric quantile average for  $\mathcal{P}_U$ ,

$$B_{SQAB}(\epsilon) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \left( \sqrt{\frac{4}{9\epsilon} - 1} + \sqrt{\frac{3\epsilon}{4-3\epsilon}} \right) & \frac{1}{6} \geq \epsilon \geq 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} \left( \sqrt{\frac{1-\epsilon}{\epsilon+\frac{1}{3}}} + \sqrt{\frac{3\epsilon}{4-3\epsilon}} \right) & \frac{1}{2} \geq \epsilon > \frac{1}{6}. \end{cases}$$

**Theorem .6.** The above bias bound function,  $B_{SQAB}(\epsilon)$ , is monotonic decreasing over the interval  $(0, \frac{1}{2})$ .

*Proof.* When  $\frac{1}{6} \geq \epsilon \geq 0$ ,  $B'_{SQAB}(\epsilon) = \frac{1}{(4-3\epsilon)^2 \sqrt{\frac{4}{9\epsilon} - 1}} - \frac{1}{3\sqrt{\frac{4}{9\epsilon} - 9\epsilon^2}}$ . To prove  $B'_{SQAB} < 0$ , it is equivalent to proving  $(4-3\epsilon)^2 \sqrt{\frac{4}{9\epsilon} - 9\epsilon^2} > 3\sqrt{\frac{4}{9\epsilon} - 9\epsilon^2}$ . Let  $L(\epsilon) = (4-3\epsilon)^2 \sqrt{\frac{4}{9\epsilon} - 9\epsilon^2}$ ,  $R(\epsilon) = 3\sqrt{\frac{4}{9\epsilon} - 9\epsilon^2}$ , then  $\frac{L(\epsilon)}{\epsilon^2} = \frac{(4-3\epsilon)^2}{\epsilon^2} \sqrt{\frac{4}{9\epsilon} - 9\epsilon^2} = \left(\frac{4}{\epsilon} - 3\right)^2 \sqrt{\frac{1}{12-9\epsilon}}$ ,  $\frac{R(\epsilon)}{\epsilon^2} = 3\sqrt{\frac{4}{9\epsilon} - 9\epsilon^2}$ . Assuming,  $\frac{1}{\epsilon} \in (\frac{9}{4}, \infty)$ ,  $\frac{L(\epsilon)}{\epsilon^2} > \frac{R(\epsilon)}{\epsilon^2} \iff \left(\frac{4}{\epsilon} - 3\right)^2 \sqrt{\frac{1}{12-9\epsilon}} > 3\sqrt{\frac{4}{9\epsilon} - 9\epsilon^2} \iff \left(\frac{4}{\epsilon} - 3\right)^2 > 3\sqrt{\frac{4}{9\epsilon} - 9\epsilon^2} \sqrt{\frac{1}{12-9\epsilon}}$ . Let  $LmR(\frac{1}{\epsilon}) = \left(\frac{4}{\epsilon} - 3\right)^4 - 9\left(\frac{4}{\epsilon} - 9\right)\left(\frac{12}{\epsilon} - 9\right)$ ,  $\frac{dLmR(1/\epsilon)}{d(1/\epsilon)} = 32\left(32\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)^3 - 72\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)^2 + 27\frac{1}{\epsilon} + 27\right)$ ,  $\frac{d^2LmR(1/\epsilon)}{d^2(1/\epsilon)} = 32\left(96\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)^2 - 144\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right) + 27\right) > 0$ , let  $\frac{1}{\epsilon} = \frac{9}{4}$ ,  $\frac{dLmR(1/\epsilon)}{d(1/\epsilon)} > 0$ , therefore,  $\frac{dLmR(1/\epsilon)}{d(1/\epsilon)} > 0$ , for  $\frac{1}{\epsilon} \in (\frac{9}{4}, \infty)$ . Also,  $LmR(\frac{9}{4}) > 0$ , so,  $LmR(\frac{1}{\epsilon}) > 0$  for  $\epsilon \in (0, \frac{4}{9})$ . The first part is finished.

When  $\frac{1}{2} \geq \epsilon > \frac{1}{6}$ ,  $B'_{SQAB}(\epsilon) = \frac{1}{(4-3\epsilon)^2 \sqrt{\frac{1-\epsilon}{9\epsilon+3}}} - \frac{1}{(3\epsilon+1)^2 \sqrt{\frac{1-\epsilon}{9\epsilon+3}}}$ . To check whether  $B'_{SQAB}(\epsilon) < 0$ , first using the two identities  $\sqrt{\frac{1}{12-9\epsilon}} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{3(4-3\epsilon)}}$  and  $\sqrt{\frac{1}{3+9\epsilon}} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{3(1+3\epsilon)}}$  to simplify the expression, and then the inequality becomes,  $(4-3\epsilon)^{\frac{3}{2}} \sqrt{\epsilon} > (3\epsilon+1)^{\frac{3}{2}} \sqrt{1-\epsilon} \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}} \iff (4-3\epsilon)^{\frac{3}{2}} \sqrt{\epsilon} > (3\epsilon+1)^{\frac{3}{2}} \sqrt{1-\epsilon} \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}} \iff 3(4-3\epsilon)^3 \epsilon > (3\epsilon+1)^3 (1-\epsilon) \iff -54\epsilon^4 + 324\epsilon^3 - 450\epsilon^2 + 184\epsilon - 1 > 0$ . Since when  $\epsilon < 1$ ,  $-54\epsilon^4 + 324\epsilon^3 > 0$ , just consider the condition that  $270\epsilon^3 - 450\epsilon^2 + 184\epsilon - 1 > 0 \iff \epsilon(270\epsilon^2 - 450\epsilon + 174) + 10\epsilon - 1 > 0$ . Since  $270\epsilon^2 - 450\epsilon + 174 > 0$  is valid for  $\epsilon < \frac{1}{30}(25 - 3\sqrt{5})$ , so just need  $10\epsilon - 1 > 0$ ,  $10\epsilon > 1$ ,  $\epsilon > \frac{1}{10}$ . So, the inequality is valid for  $\frac{1}{30}(25 - 3\sqrt{5}) \approx 0.610 > \epsilon > \frac{1}{10}$ , within the range of  $\frac{1}{2} \geq \epsilon > \frac{1}{6}$ , therefore,  $B'_{SQAB} < 0$  for  $\frac{1}{2} \geq \epsilon > \frac{1}{6}$ . The first and second formula, when  $\epsilon = \frac{1}{6}$ , are all equal to  $\frac{1}{2} \left( \sqrt{\frac{5}{3}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{7}} \right)$ . It follows that  $B_{SQAB}(\epsilon)$  is continuous over  $(0, \frac{1}{2})$ . Hence,  $B'_{SQAB}(\epsilon) < 0$  is valid for  $0 < \epsilon < \frac{1}{2}$ , which leads to the assertion of this theorem.  $\square$

This monotonicity indicates that the extent of any violations of the orderliness is bounded for a unimodal distribution, e.g., for a right-skewed unimodal distribution, if

$\exists \epsilon_1 \leq \epsilon_2 \leq \epsilon_3 \leq \frac{1}{2}$ ,  $SQA_{\epsilon_2} \geq SQA_{\epsilon_3} \geq SQA_{\epsilon_1}$ ,  $SQA_{\epsilon_2}$  will not be too far away from  $SQA_{\epsilon_1}$ , since  $\sup_{P \in \mathcal{P}_U \cap \mathcal{P}_T^2} (SQA_{\epsilon_1}) > \sup_{P \in \mathcal{P}_U \cap \mathcal{P}_T^2} (SQA_{\epsilon_2}) > \sup_{P \in \mathcal{P}_U \cap \mathcal{P}_T^2} (SQA_{\epsilon_3})$ .

## Inequalities related to weighted averages

The bias bound of the  $\epsilon$ -symmetric trimmed mean is also monotonic for  $\mathcal{P}_U \cap \mathcal{P}_2$  (proven in the SI Text using the formula provided in Bernard et al.'s paper) (2). So far, it appears clear that the average bias of an estimator is closely related to its degree of robustness. For a right-skewed unimodal distribution, often, the mean,  $\epsilon$ -symmetric trimmed mean, and median occur in reverse alphabetical order, then analogous to the orderliness,  $\forall \epsilon_1 \leq \epsilon_2 \leq \frac{1}{2}$ ,  $TM_{\epsilon_1} \geq TM_{\epsilon_2}$ . It is called trimming inequality.  $\gamma$ -trimming inequality is the same, just added the term  $\gamma$ . A necessary and sufficient condition of the  $\gamma$ -trimming inequality is also the monotonic behavior of the bias of the  $\epsilon, \gamma$ -trimmed mean as a function of the breakdown point  $\epsilon$  (proven in the SI Text). Orderliness is a sufficient condition for the trimming inequality (proven in the SI Text), but it is not necessary.

**Theorem .7.** For a right-skewed continuous distribution following the  $\gamma$ -trimming inequality, the quantile average is always greater or equal to the corresponding trimmed mean with the same  $\epsilon$  and  $\gamma$ .

*Proof.* By deducing  $\frac{1}{1-\epsilon-\gamma\epsilon+2\delta} \int_{\epsilon-\delta}^{1-\gamma\epsilon+\delta} Q(u) du \geq \frac{1}{1-\epsilon-\gamma\epsilon} \int_{\epsilon}^{1-\gamma\epsilon} Q(u) du \iff \int_{\epsilon-\delta}^{1-\gamma\epsilon+\delta} Q(u) du - \frac{1-\gamma\epsilon+2\delta}{1-\epsilon-\gamma\epsilon} \int_{\epsilon}^{1-\gamma\epsilon} Q(u) du \geq 0 \iff \int_{\epsilon-\delta}^{\epsilon} Q(u) du - \frac{2\delta}{1-\epsilon-\gamma\epsilon} \int_{\epsilon}^{1-\gamma\epsilon} Q(u) du \geq 0 \iff \frac{1}{2\delta} \left( \int_{1-\gamma\epsilon}^{1-\gamma\epsilon+\delta} Q(u) du + \int_{\epsilon-\delta}^{\epsilon} Q(u) du \right) \geq \frac{1}{1-\epsilon-\gamma\epsilon} \int_{\epsilon}^{1-\gamma\epsilon} Q(u) du$  and noting that  $\lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{2\delta} \left( \int_{1-\gamma\epsilon}^{1-\gamma\epsilon+\delta} Q(u) du + \int_{\epsilon-\delta}^{\epsilon} Q(u) du \right) = \frac{Q(\epsilon)+Q(1-\gamma\epsilon)}{2}$ , the proof is complete.  $\square$

Additionally, the orderliness is a sufficient condition of the Winsorization inequality (proven in the SI Text). A similar result can be obtained in the following theorem.

**Theorem .8.** For a right-skewed continuous distribution following the  $\gamma$ -trimming inequality, the Winsorized mean is always greater or equal to the corresponding trimmed mean with the same  $\epsilon$  and  $\gamma$ , provided that  $\gamma \geq 1$ .

*Proof.* Continue the above deduction,  $\frac{Q(\epsilon)+Q(1-\gamma\epsilon)}{2} \geq \frac{1}{1-\epsilon-\gamma\epsilon} \int_{\epsilon}^{1-\gamma\epsilon} Q(u) du \iff \epsilon(Q(\epsilon) + Q(1-\gamma\epsilon)) \geq \left(\frac{2\epsilon}{1-\epsilon-\gamma\epsilon}\right) \int_{\epsilon}^{1-\gamma\epsilon} Q(u) du \iff \left(1 - \frac{1}{1-\epsilon-\gamma\epsilon}\right) \int_{\epsilon}^{1-\gamma\epsilon} Q(u) du + \epsilon(Q(\epsilon) + Q(1-\gamma\epsilon)) \geq 0 \iff \int_{\epsilon}^{1-\gamma\epsilon} Q(u) du + \epsilon(Q(\epsilon) + Q(1-\gamma\epsilon)) \geq \frac{1}{1-\epsilon-\gamma\epsilon} \int_{\epsilon}^{1-\gamma\epsilon} Q(u) du$ . Then, if  $\gamma \geq 1$ ,  $\int_{\epsilon}^{1-\gamma\epsilon} Q(u) du + \epsilon Q(\epsilon) + \gamma\epsilon Q(1-\gamma\epsilon) \geq \frac{1}{1-\epsilon-\gamma\epsilon} \int_{\epsilon}^{1-\gamma\epsilon} Q(u) du$ , the proof is complete.  $\square$

Theorem .8 unequivocally establishes that, for a distribution that follows the  $\gamma$ -trimming inequality, the Winsorized mean is always less biased than the trimmed mean, as long as  $\gamma \geq 1$ . For simplicity, just consider the symmetric case, if one wants to construct a robust SWA following the mean-symmetric weighted average-median inequality. According to the definition of the orderliness, for a right-skewed or

symmetric ordered distribution,  $\text{SWA} \geq m$ . So, the condition that SWA is between  $m$  and  $\mu$  is  $\mu \geq \text{SWA}$ . Let  $\mathcal{B}_i = \int_{i\epsilon}^{(i+1)\epsilon} \text{SQA}(u) du$ ,  $ka = k\epsilon + b$ , from the orderliness,  $-\frac{d\text{SQA}}{d\epsilon} \geq 0 \Rightarrow \forall a \leq 2a \leq \frac{1}{2}, -\frac{(\text{SQA}(2a) - \text{SQA}(a))}{a} \geq 0 \Rightarrow \mathcal{B}_i - \mathcal{B}_{i+1} \geq 0$ , from the second orderliness  $\frac{d^2\text{SQA}}{d^2\epsilon} \geq 0 \Rightarrow \forall a \leq 2a \leq 3a \leq \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{a} \left( \frac{(\text{SQA}(3a) - \text{SQA}(2a))}{a} - \frac{(\text{SQA}(2a) - \text{SQA}(a))}{a} \right) \geq 0 \Rightarrow \mathcal{B}_i - 2\mathcal{B}_{i+1} + \mathcal{B}_{i+2} \geq 0$ . Let  $\mathcal{B}_i = \mathcal{B}_0$ , then, from the orderliness, another version of  $\epsilon$ -symmetric Winsorized mean, block Winsorized mean, is defined here for comparison in the SI Dataset S1 as

$$\text{BWM}_{\epsilon,n} := \frac{1}{n} \left( \sum_{i=n\epsilon+1}^{(1-\epsilon)n} X_i + \sum_{i=n\epsilon+1}^{2n\epsilon} X_i + \sum_{i=(1-2\epsilon)n+1}^{(1-\epsilon)n} X_i \right),$$

which is double weighting the leftest and rightest blocks having the size  $\epsilon n$ .  $\text{SM}_\epsilon$  can be seen as replacing the two blocks,  $\mathcal{B}_i + \mathcal{B}_{i+2}$  with one block  $2\mathcal{B}_{i+1}$ . From the  $\nu$ th orderliness, the recurrence relation of the derivatives naturally produces the alternating binomial coefficients,

$$\begin{aligned} (-1)^\nu \frac{d^\nu \text{SQA}}{d\epsilon^\nu} &\geq 0 \Rightarrow \forall a \leq \dots \leq (\nu+1)a \leq \frac{1}{2}, \\ \frac{(-1)^\nu}{a} \left( \frac{\text{SQA}(\nu a + a)}{a} - \frac{\dots \text{SQA}(2a)}{a} - \frac{\text{SQA}(\nu a)}{a} - \dots \frac{\text{SQA}(a)}{a} \right) \\ &\geq 0 \Leftrightarrow \frac{(-1)^\nu}{a^\nu} \left( \sum_{j=0}^{\nu} (-1)^j \binom{\nu}{j} \text{SQA}((\nu-j+1)a) \right) \geq 0 \\ &\Rightarrow \sum_{j=0}^{\nu} (-1)^j \binom{\nu}{j} \mathcal{B}_{i+j} \geq 0. \end{aligned}$$

Based on the  $\nu$ th orderliness, the  $\epsilon$ -binomial mean is introduced as

$$\text{BM}_{\nu,\epsilon,n} := \frac{1}{n} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{\frac{1}{2}\epsilon^{-1}(\nu+1)-1} \sum_{j=0}^{\nu} \left( 1 - (-1)^j \binom{\nu}{j} \right) \mathfrak{B}_{i,j} \right),$$

where  $\mathfrak{B}_{i,j} = \sum_{l=n\epsilon(j+(i-1)(\nu+1)+1)}^{n\epsilon(j+(i-1)(\nu+1)+1)} (X_l + X_{n-l+1})$ ,  $\frac{1}{2}\epsilon^{-1}(\nu+1)-1 \in \mathbb{N}$ . If  $\nu$  is not indicated, it is default as  $\frac{1}{2}\epsilon^{-1}-1$ . The solution for  $n \bmod \epsilon^{-1} \neq 0$  is the same as that in the stratified mean.  $\text{BM}_{\nu=2,\epsilon}$  is identical to  $\text{SM}_{\epsilon,b=3}$ , if the two  $\epsilon$ s are the same. The reason that  $\text{SM}_{\frac{1}{9}}$  has similar biases as the corresponding  $\text{WM}_{\frac{1}{9}}$  is the Winsorized mean is using two single quantiles to replace the trimmed parts, not two blocks. If using single quantiles, based on the second orderliness, the stratified quantile mean can be defined as

$$\text{SQM}_{\epsilon,n} := 4\epsilon \sum_{i=1}^{\frac{1}{4\epsilon}} \frac{1}{2} (\hat{Q}_n((2i-1)\epsilon) + \hat{Q}_n(1 - (2i-1)\epsilon)),$$

where  $\frac{1}{\epsilon} \bmod 4 = 0$ ,  $\hat{Q}_n(p)$  is the empirical quantile function.  $\text{SQM}_{\frac{1}{4}}$  is the Tukey's midhinge (42). The biases of  $\text{SQM}_{\frac{1}{8}}$  are also very close to those of  $\text{BM}_{\frac{1}{8}}$  (Figure 1), which is based on the third orderliness.

The H-L estimator is a very unique robust location estimator due to its definition being substantially dissimilar from conventional symmetric weighted averages. Hodges and Lehmann (10) in the landmark paper *Estimates of location based on rank tests* proposed two methods to compute the H-L estimator, median of pairwise means and Wilcoxon score, whose time complexities are  $O(n^2)$  and  $O(n \log(n))$ , respectively. The Wilcoxon score is an estimator based on signed-rank test, or  $R$ -statistic (10). However, the median of pairwise means is a generalized  $L$ -statistic (classified by Serfling in 1984) (43) and a trimmed  $U$ -statistic (classified by Janssen, Serfling, and Veraverbeke in 1987) (44). By using the  $hl_k$  kernel pointed by Janssen, Serfling and Veraverbeke in 1987 (44) and weighted average generalized here, it is clear now that the H-L estimator is a weighted H-L mean, the definition of which is provided as follows,

$$\text{WHLM}_{k,\epsilon,\gamma,n} := \text{WA}_{\epsilon,\gamma,n} \left( (hl_k(X_{N_1}, \dots, X_{N_k}))_{N=1}^{(n)} \right),$$

where  $hl_k = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k x_i$ ,  $\text{WA}_{\epsilon,\gamma,n}(Y)$  denotes the  $\epsilon, \gamma$ -weighted average with the sequence  $(hl_k(X_{N_1}, \dots, X_{N_k}))_{N=1}^{(n)}$  as an input. Set the WA as  $\text{TM}_\epsilon$ , the  $k=2$  case is a version of the Wilcoxon one-sample statistic investigated by Saleh in 1976 (45), which is named as trimmed H-L mean here (Figure 1). The  $hl_2$  kernel distribution has a probability density function  $f_{hl_2}(x) = \int_0^{2x} 2f(t)f(2x-t)dt$  (a result after the transformation of variables), the support of the original distribution is assumed to be  $[0, \infty)$  for simplicity. The expected value is the solution of  $\int_0^{\text{H-L}} (f_{hl_2}(s)) ds = \frac{1}{2}$ . Due to the complexity of the equation, analytically proving the validity of the mean-H-L-median inequality for a distribution is hard. As an example, for the exponential distribution,  $f_{hl_2}(x) = 4\lambda^{-2}xe^{-2\lambda^{-1}x}$ ,  $E[\text{H-L}] = \frac{-W_{-1}(-\frac{1}{2\epsilon})-1}{2}\lambda \approx 0.839\lambda$ , where  $W$  is the Lambert W function. Analogous to the trimming inequality, the Hodges-Lehmann inequality can be defined as  $\forall n \geq k_2 \geq k_1 \geq 1, m\text{HLM}_{k_2} \geq m\text{HLM}_{k_1}$ , where  $m\text{HLM}_k$  is setting the WA as median. Since  $m\text{HLM}_{k=1} = m$ ,  $m\text{HLM}_{k=2} = \text{H-L}$ ,  $m\text{HLM}_{k=\infty} = \mu$ , if a distribution follows the H-L inequality, it also follows the mean-H-L-median inequality. Furthermore, the Hodges-Lehmann inequality is a special case of the  $U$ -orderliness, i.e.,

$$\begin{aligned} (\forall n \geq k_2 \geq k_1 \geq 1, \text{SQHLM}_{k_2,\epsilon} \geq \text{SQHLM}_{k_1,\epsilon}) \wedge \\ (\forall n \geq k_2 \geq k_1 \geq 1, \text{SQHLM}_{k_2,\epsilon} \leq \text{SQHLM}_{k_1,\epsilon}), \end{aligned}$$

where  $\text{SQHLM}_k$  is setting the WA as SQA. The direction of the inequality depends on  $\text{SQA}_\epsilon$  and  $\mu$ , since  $\text{SQHLM}_{k=1,\epsilon} = \text{SQA}_\epsilon$ .  $\gamma$ - $U$ -orderliness is just replacing SQA with QA.

**Theorem .9.**  $U$ -orderliness implies orderliness.

*Proof.* Suppose  $n \bmod 2 = 0$ ,  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $\frac{1}{2}(X_1 + X_n) \geq \dots \geq \frac{1}{2}(X_i + X_{n-i+1}) \geq \dots \geq \frac{1}{2}(X_{\frac{n}{2}} + X_{\frac{n}{2}+1})$  is valid for a sample from an ordered distribution. Let  $\tilde{\epsilon} = \frac{n}{i}$ , when  $\tilde{\epsilon} \rightarrow 0$ ,  $\text{SQHLM}_{k_2,\tilde{\epsilon}} \leq \text{SQHLM}_{k_1,\tilde{\epsilon}}$  is equivalent to the orderliness, since  $\text{SQHLM}_{k=j,\tilde{\epsilon} \rightarrow 0,n} = \frac{1}{2j} \left( \sum_{i=1}^j (X_i + X_{n-i+1}) \right)$  and Theorem .7 implies that  $\mu \leq \text{SQA}_\epsilon$ .  $\square$

Be aware that the  $U$ -orderliness itself does not assume any orderliness within the  $hl_k$  kernel distribution. The  $hl_{k=n-1}$



**Fig. 1.** Standardized asymptotic biases (with respect to  $\mu$ ) of fifteen robust location estimators (including three that detailed in another relevant paper for better comparison) in four two-parameter skewed unimodal distributions as a function of the kurtosis. The methods were described in the SI Text.

kernel distribution has  $n$  elements, and their order is the same as the original distribution, so it is ordered if and only if the original distribution is ordered. If assuming symmetry, the result is trivial since the  $k$ -fold convolutions of a symmetric distribution is also symmetric (proved by Laha in 1961) (46). Proving other cases is challenging. For example,  $f'_{hl_2}(x) = 4f(2x)f(0) + \int_0^{2x} 4f(t)f'(2x-t)dt$ , the strict negative of  $f'_{hl_2}(x)$  is not guaranteed if just assuming  $f'(x) < 0$ , so, even the original distribution is monotonic, the  $hl_2$  kernel distribution might be non-monotonic. Also, unlike the pairwise difference distribution, if the original distribution is unimodal, the pairwise mean distribution might be non-unimodal, as a counterexample was given by Chung in 1953 and mentioned by Hodges and Lehmann in 1954 (47, 48). If all  $hl_k$  kernel distributions,  $n \geq k \geq 2$ , is  $\nu$ th ordered, the distribution is  $\nu$ th  $U$ -ordered. From that, binomial H-L mean (set the WA as BM) is the bias-optimum choice in the semiparametric framework (Figure 1), although its maximum breakdown point is  $\approx 0.065$ . A comparison of the biases of  $mHLM_{k=5}$  and  $BM_{1/8}$  is appropriate (Figure 1), given their comparable breakdown points, with  $mHLM_{k=5}$  exhibiting smaller biases. This result, combined with Theorem .9, aligns with previous Devroye et al. (2016)'s analysis that MoM is nearly optimal with regards to concentration bounds (20), since asymptotically,  $mHLM_{k,n}$  is equivalent to  $MoM_{k,b=\frac{n}{k}}$ , therefore, it is also based on  $U$ -orderliness. Using a stochastic approach, the variance of  $mHLM_{k,n}$  is always lower than that of  $MoM_{k,b=\frac{n}{k}}$ , however, at the cost of a significantly elevated computational complexity. In 1958, Richtmyer proposed quasi-Monte Carlo simulation based on low-discrepancy sequences, which dramatically reduces the computational cost of large sample simulation (49). Quasi-Monte Carlo methods frequently employ Sobol sequences as the favored numerical sets (50). Do and Hall extended the principle to bootstrap in 1991 (51) and found that the quasi-random approach is competitive in terms of variance when compared with other bootstrap Monte Carlo procedures. By using quasi-sampling, the impact of the number of repetitions of the bootstrap, or bootstrap size, on variance is

negligible. An estimator based on the quasi-bootstrap approach can be seen as a very complex deterministic estimator which is not only computationally efficient, but also statistical efficient. The perspective change here not only shows the asymptotic equivalence of the median Hodges-Lehmann mean and median of means, but also allow the use of quasi-bootstrap to reduce the variance of the latter.

**Data Availability.** Data for Figure 1 are given in SI Dataset S1. All codes have been deposited in [GitHub](#).

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