

Jiří Anděl; Ivan Netuka; Karel Zvára  
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## ON THRESHOLD AUTOREGRESSIVE PROCESSES

JIŘÍ ANDĚL, IVAN NETUKA, KAREL ZVÁRA

A threshold autoregressive process of the first order with Gaussian innovations is analyzed in the paper. Four methods are used for finding its stationary distribution: (a) the exact solution is derived in some special cases, (b) a Markov approximation is proposed, (c) a numerical method for solving an integral equation is applied, (d) simulations are produced. In the cases (b) and (d) also estimates of the correlation function and of the spectral density are compared.

### 1. INTRODUCTION

The classical autoregressive (AR) process  $\{X_t\}$  is defined by

$$(1.1) \quad X_t = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k X_{t-k} + e_t,$$

where  $a_k$  are constants and  $\{e_t\}$  is a white noise, i.e. a sequence of uncorrelated random variables with  $Ee_t = 0$ ,  $\text{Var } e_t = \sigma^2 > 0$ . Other simple models used in the time series analysis are moving average (MA) process

$$(1.2) \quad X_t = \sum_{j=0}^m b_j e_{t-j}$$

and autoregressive-moving average (ARMA) process

$$(1.3) \quad X_t = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k X_{t-k} + \sum_{j=0}^m b_j e_{t-j},$$

where  $b_j$  are also constants. In the last years also some nonlinear models have been proposed. A bilinear model is defined by

$$X_t = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k X_{t-k} + \sum_{j=0}^m b_j e_{t-j} + \sum_{p=1}^P \sum_{q=1}^Q \beta_{pq} X_{t-p} e_{t-q},$$

where  $e_t$  are supposed to be not only uncorrelated, but also independent (Granger and Anderson [6]). Ozaki and Oda [14] consider models of the type

$$X_t = c_1 X_{t-1} + \dots + c_p X_{t-p} + d_1 X_{t-1}^2 + \dots + d_p X_{t-p}^2 + d_{p+1} X_{t-1} X_{t-2} + \dots \\ \dots + d_{p+p(p+1)/2} X_{t-p+1} X_{t-p} + \dots + z_r X_{t-1}^{s_1} \dots X_{t-m}^{s_m} + e_t.$$

They use the Akaike's Information Criterion AIC (Akaike [1]; Andél [2]) for estimating the dimension of the model. Tong [17] and [18] introduced a non-linear model in the following way. Let  $B_1, \dots, B_h$  be disjoint subsets of the real line  $\mathbb{R}$  such that  $B_1 \cup \dots \cup B_h = \mathbb{R}$ . Let  $\{Y_t\}$  be a time series. Define

$$X_t = a_{0k} + \sum_{j=1}^{n_k} a_{jk} X_{t-j} + e_t \quad \text{if } Y_{t-1} \in B_k,$$

where  $a_{jk}$  are some constants. Then  $\{Y_t\}$  is called an instrumental time series. Usually,  $B_0 = (-\infty, r_1)$ ,  $B_k = [r_k, r_{k+1})$  for  $k = 1, \dots, h$ , where  $r_{h+1} = \infty$ . The points  $r_1, \dots, r_h$  are then called the thresholds and  $\{X_t\}$  is said to be threshold autoregressive (TAR) process. A special case arises when  $Y_t = X_t$ . Such process  $\{X_t\}$  is sometimes called a self-exciting threshold autoregressive (SETAR) process. It has been shown by Pemberton and Tong [16] that TAR models exhibit features known in non-linear vibrations like jump resonance, amplitude-frequency dependency, limit cycles etc. Tong [19] generalized the TAR model to threshold autoregressive-moving average (TARMA) processes.

Haggan and Ozaki [8] proposed and analyzed exponential autoregressive (EAR) process defined by

$$X_t = \sum_{k=1}^p (a_k + b_k e^{-cX_{t-1}^2}) X_{t-k} + e_t,$$

where  $a_k, b_k$  and  $c$  are constants. Ozaki [13] deals with processes of the type

$$X_t = \begin{cases} \sum_{k=1}^p a_k X_{t-k} + e_t & \text{if } |X_{t-1}| \geq r, \\ \sum_{k=1}^p \left( \sum_{j=0}^{q_k} b_{kj} X_{t-1}^j \right) X_{t-k} + e_t & \text{if } |X_{t-1}| < r, \end{cases}$$

where  $r$  is a threshold and the parameters of the model satisfy the condition

$$\sum_{j=0}^{q_k} b_{kj} r^j = a_k, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots, p.$$

One of the important problems is to find conditions, under which the processes are stationary. All MA processes (1.2) are always stationary. The AR process (1.1) and the ARMA process (1.3) are stationary if and only if

$$z^n - a_1 z^{n-1} - \dots - a_n \neq 0 \quad \text{for } |z| \geq 1$$

(of course, it is understood that  $X_t$  belongs to the Hilbert space generated by the

variables  $e_t, e_{t-1}, \dots$ ). However, little is known about stationarity conditions for non-linear processes. For example, Jones [10] investigated the process

$$(1.4) \quad X_t = \lambda(X_{t-1}) + e_t,$$

where  $\lambda$  is an autoregressive function and  $e_t$  are independent identically distributed random variable (i.i.d.r.v.'s). Some "negative conditions" are derived in a quite explicit form. E.g., if the distribution of  $e_t$  has infinite tails with exponential-like behaviour, then no polynomial autoregressive function of degree greater than one can lead to a stationary process  $\{X_t\}$ . Jones does give conditions ensuring stationarity, but their verification seems to be rather difficult in any non-trivial case. (Let us mention that it can happen that  $\lambda$  depends on a parameter  $\theta$  and the distribution of  $e_t$  depends on a parameter  $\psi$ ; Jones [11] uses the maximum likelihood method for estimating  $\theta$  and  $\psi$  and derives some asymptotic properties of the estimators.)

The situation is even worse if we need to compute a stationary distribution of the process. There are two main problems:

(i) The distribution of  $e_t$  is given. Calculate stationary distribution of  $X_t$  (if it exists).

(ii) A distribution is given which should serve as a stationary distribution of  $X_t$ . Find a distribution of  $e_t$  (if it exists) which implies such a stationary distribution.

Generally, these problems are hard enough even for the stationary AR process (1.1) with  $n = 1$  (see Andél [2] and [3]).

As for the non-linear processes, Pemberton and Tong [16] analyzed the properties of a stationary distribution in the model

$$X_t = \lambda(X_{t-1}, \dots, X_{t-p-1}) + e_t.$$

Their main result can be formulated as follows: If  $e_t$  has a symmetric density and if  $\lambda$  is an odd function, then all the finite stationary joint densities of  $X_{t_1}, \dots, X_{t_k}$  are symmetric about  $(0, \dots, 0)$  for all  $t_1, \dots, t_k$ . However, they showed by an example that this condition is not necessary for the symmetry of stationary densities.

Jones [9] and [12] proposed three methods for evaluating stationary distributions of the model (1.4). All the procedures are based on some power-series expansions. They seem to be too complicated for a practical use. The problem is very difficult also from the theoretical point of view. The results concerning stationary measures (existence, uniqueness) are available under Doob's Condition D ([7], pp. 190–218). This condition is not satisfied even for Gaussian linear processes.

In the present paper we propose some other methods for computing the stationary marginal densities in non-linear processes. For simplicity, they will be explained in the case of a TAR model of the first order with one threshold  $r$ , although they can be used for any model (1.4). In a special case an explicit analytical solution is derived, which enables to compare the accuracy of other methods. The results are also checked by simulations.

## 2. PRELIMINARIES

In this section we calculate some integrals needed for derivations of main results in further parts of the paper.

Denote

$$\varphi(x) = (2\pi)^{-1/2} \exp\{-x^2/2\} \quad \text{and} \quad \Phi(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x \varphi(t) dt$$

the density and the distribution function of  $N(0, 1)$ , respectively. Let

$$\mu_n = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^n \varphi(x) dx, \quad n \geq 0,$$

be the moment of the  $n$ th order of  $N(0, 1)$ .

**Lemma 2.1.** Put

$$J_n = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^n e^{-kx^2/2} \Phi(-x) dx, \quad n = 0, 1, \dots,$$

where  $k > 0$  is a constant. Then

$$J_0 = [\pi/(2k)]^{1/2}, \quad J_1 = -k^{-1}(k+1)^{-1/2}, \quad J_2 = k^{-1}J_0,$$

$$J_3 = [2/k + 1(k+1)] J_1, \quad J_4 = (3/k) J_2.$$

Generally,

$$J_n = \frac{n-1}{k} J_{n-2} - k^{-1}(k+1)^{-n/2} \mu_{n-1}, \quad n \geq 2.$$

*Proof.* Using  $\Phi(-x) = 1 - \Phi(x)$ , we have

$$J_0 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-kx^2/2} dx - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-kx^2/2} \Phi(x) dx = (2\pi/k)^{1/2} - J_0.$$

From here we obtain  $J_0$ . The expression for  $J_1$  can be obtained using the integration by parts. The same method gives

$$J_n = -(1/k) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (-kx) e^{-kx^2/2} x^{n-1} \Phi(-x) dx = \frac{n-1}{k} J_{n-2} - k^{-1}(k+1)^{-n/2} \mu_{n-1}.$$

Inserting  $n = 2, 3$  and  $4$  we get the formulas for  $J_2, J_3$  and  $J_4$ .  $\square$

**Lemma 2.2.** Let  $k > 0$ . Denote

$$H(k) = \int_{-\infty}^0 e^{-kx^2/2} \Phi(x) dx, \quad M(k) = \int_{-\infty}^0 x^2 e^{-kx^2/2} \Phi(x) dx.$$

Then

$$H(k) = (2\pi k)^{-1/2} \operatorname{arctg} \sqrt{k},$$

$$M(k) = (2\pi k)^{-1/2} k^{-1} \operatorname{arctg} \sqrt{k} - (2\pi)^{-1/2} k^{-1}(k+1)^{-1}.$$

Proof. Obviously,

$$H'(k) = -\frac{1}{2} M(k).$$

Integration by parts gives

$$(2.1) \quad M(k) = k^{-1} H(k) - (2\pi)^{-1/2} k^{-1} (k+1)^{-1}.$$

Therefore,  $H(k)$  satisfies the linear differential equation

$$H'(k) + (2k)^{-1} H(k) = 2^{-1} (2\pi)^{-1/2} k^{-1} (k+1)^{-1}.$$

The solution is

$$H(k) = k^{-1/2} [c + (2\pi)^{-1/2} \arctg \sqrt{k}].$$

A direct evaluation of the integral yields  $H(1) = \frac{1}{8} (2\pi)^{1/2}$ , which implies  $c = 0$ . The formula for  $M(k)$  follows from (2.1).  $\square$

**Lemma 2.3.** Let  $r \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} & (2\pi)^{-1/2} \int_{-\infty}^r x^2 \exp\{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu)^2\} dx = \\ & = (1 + \mu^2) \Phi(r - \mu) - (2\pi)^{-1/2} (r + \mu) \exp\{-\frac{1}{2}(r - \mu)^2\}, \\ (2\pi)^{-1/2} \int_r^{\infty} x^2 \exp\{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu)^2\} dx & = (1 + \mu^2) \Phi(\mu - r) + \\ & + (2\pi)^{-1/2} (r + \mu) \exp\{-\frac{1}{2}(r - \mu)^2\}. \end{aligned}$$

Proof. The formulas can be derived by direct calculations.  $\square$

### 3. THE MODEL

In all the remaining sections of this paper we shall deal with the process  $\{X_t\}$  defined by

$$(3.1) \quad X_s = \begin{cases} \alpha X_{s-1} + e_s, & \text{if } X_{s-1} \leq r, \\ \beta X_{s-1} + e_s, & \text{if } X_{s-1} > r, \end{cases}$$

where  $e_s$  are independent  $N(0, \sigma^2)$  variables and  $\alpha, \beta, r, \sigma$  are given constants such that  $-1 < \alpha, \beta < 1$ ,  $\sigma > 0$ . This is a TAR process of the first order with normally distributed residuals. We shall assume that  $X_s$  and  $e_t$  are independent for  $s < t$ .

The main aim of our paper is to find a stationary distribution of  $\{X_s\}$ , its statistical characteristics, the correlation function and the spectral density. In a special case we were able to derive an explicit result. The approximate methods can be applied also to more general models than (3.1).

Obviously, the conditional distribution of  $X_s$  given  $X_{s-1} = y$  is

$$\mathcal{L}(X_s | X_{s-1} = y) = \begin{cases} N(\alpha y, \sigma^2), & \text{if } y \leq r, \\ N(\beta y, \sigma^2), & \text{if } y > r. \end{cases}$$

Let  $q_1(x|y)$  and  $q_2(x|y)$  be the density of  $N(\alpha y, \sigma^2)$  and  $N(\beta y, \sigma^2)$ , respectively. Assume that  $X_{s-1}$  has a density  $f(y)$ . Then the simultaneous density of  $X_s$  and  $X_{s-1}$  is

$$h(x, y) = \begin{cases} q_1(x|y)f(y), & \text{if } y \leq r, \\ q_2(x|y)f(y), & \text{if } y > r. \end{cases}$$

The density  $f$  is stationary if and only if the marginal density of  $X_s$  is also  $f$ . This gives the condition

$$f(x) = \int h(x, y) dy = \int_{-\infty}^r q_1(x|y)f(y) dy + \int_r^{\infty} q_2(x|y)f(y) dy.$$

Inserting for  $q_1$  and  $q_2$  we have the equation

$$(3.2) \quad f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)\sigma}} \int_{-\infty}^r \exp\left\{-\frac{(x-\alpha y)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right\} f(y) dy + \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)\sigma}} \int_r^{\infty} \exp\left\{-\frac{(x-\beta y)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right\} f(y) dy.$$

Without any loss of generality we shall assume that  $\sigma = 1$ .

#### 4. AN EXPLICIT SOLUTION

In this section we shall assume that  $r = 0$ ,  $\beta = -\alpha$ ,  $0 < \alpha < 1$ . Under such conditions we prove that there exists a stationary density  $f$  satisfying (3.2) and that the solution of (3.2) is unique apart from a multiplying factor.

**Theorem 4.1.** Consider the equation

$$(4.1) \quad f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)}} \int_{-\infty}^0 \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\alpha y)^2\right\} f(y) dy + \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)}} \int_0^{\infty} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(x+\alpha y)^2\right\} f(y) dy.$$

Then

$$(4.2) \quad f(x) = [2(1-\alpha^2)/\pi]^{1/2} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(1-\alpha^2)x^2\right\} \Phi(-\alpha x)$$

is a solution of (4.1) and  $f$  is a probability density.

**Proof.** Denote  $C = [2(1-\alpha^2)/\pi]^{1/2}$ . If  $f(x)$  is defined by (4.2), then the right-hand side (RHS) of (4.1) is

$$\begin{aligned} RHS &= (2\pi)^{-1/2} \int_0^{\infty} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(x+\alpha y)^2\right\} [f(y) + f(-y)] dy = \\ &= (2\pi)^{-1/2} C \int_0^{\infty} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(x+\alpha y)^2\right\} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(1-\alpha^2)y^2\right\} dy, \end{aligned}$$

since  $\Phi(-\alpha y) + \Phi(\alpha y) = 1$ . Further we have

$$\begin{aligned} RHS &= C \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2}(1 - \alpha^2) x^2 \right\} (2\pi)^{-1/2} \int_0^\infty \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2}(y + \alpha x)^2 \right\} dy = \\ &= C \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2}(1 - \alpha^2) x^2 \right\} \Phi(-\alpha x) = f(x). \end{aligned}$$

Obviously,  $f(x) > 0$ . From Lemma 2.1 we obtain  $\int f(x) dx = 1$ . This concludes the proof.  $\square$

**Theorem 4.2.** Let  $f(x)$  be the density (4.2) and

$$v'_n = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^n f(x) dx.$$

Then

$$v'_n = \alpha^{-n-1} [2(1 - \alpha^2)/\pi]^{1/2} J_n,$$

where  $J_n$  is defined in Lemma 2.1 for  $k = \alpha^{-2} - 1$ . The expectation  $\mu$  and the variance  $v^2$  belonging to  $f(x)$  are

$$\mu = -(2/\pi)^{1/2} \alpha(1 - \alpha^2)^{-1/2}, \quad v^2 = (1 - \alpha^2)^{-1} \left( 1 - \frac{2\alpha^2}{\pi} \right).$$

**Proof.** The formula for  $v'_n$  follows from Lemma 2.1. Further we have  $\mu = v'_1$ ,  $v^2 = v'_2 - (v'_1)^2$ .  $\square$

The central moments

$$v_n = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \mu)^n f(x) dx$$

can be computed for  $n = 3$  and  $n = 4$  from

$$v_3 = v'_3 - 3v'_2 v'_1 + 2(v'_1)^3, \quad v_4 = v'_4 - 4v'_3 v'_1 + 6v'_2 (v'_1)^2 - 3(v'_1)^4.$$

Then the coefficient of skewness  $\alpha_3$  and the coefficient of excess  $\alpha_4$  are given by

$$\alpha_3 = v_3/v^3, \quad \alpha_4 = v_4/v^4.$$

**Theorem 4.3.** Let the variable  $X_{s-1}$  in the model (3.1) have the density  $f(x)$  given in (4.2). Then the correlation coefficient  $\rho$  of the variables  $X_s$  and  $X_{s-1}$  is

$$\rho = (\pi - 2\alpha^2)^{-1} \alpha [\pi + 2\alpha(1 - \alpha^2)^{1/2} - 2\alpha - 2 \arctg(\alpha^{-2} - 1)^{1/2}].$$

**Proof.** The simultaneous density  $h(x, y)$  of the variables  $X = X_s$  and  $Y = X_{s-1}$  is

$$h(x, y) = \begin{cases} (2\pi)^{-1/2} \exp \left\{ -(x - \alpha y)^2/2 \right\} f(y), & \text{if } y \leq 0, \\ (2\pi)^{-1/2} \exp \left\{ -(x + \alpha y)^2/2 \right\} f(y), & \text{if } y > 0. \end{cases}$$

Then

$$EXY = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xy h(x, y) dx dy =$$



$$= \pi^{-1}(1-\alpha^2)^{1/2} \left[ \int_{-\infty}^0 y \exp\{-(1-\alpha^2)y^2/2\} \Phi(-\alpha y) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \exp\{-(x-\alpha y)^2/2\} dx dy + \int_0^{\infty} y \exp\{-(1-\alpha^2)y^2/2\} \Phi(-\alpha y) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \exp\{-(x+\alpha y)^2/2\} dx dy \right].$$

From

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \exp\{-(x \mp \alpha y)^2/2\} dx = \pm(2\pi)^{1/2} \alpha y$$

and from Lemma 2.2 we obtain

$$\text{EXY} = (1-\alpha^2)^{-1} \alpha + 2\pi^{-1}(1-\alpha^2)^{-1/2} \alpha^2 - 2\pi^{-1}(1-\alpha^2)^{-1} \arctg(\alpha^{-2}-1)^{1/2}.$$

Since  $\text{EX} = \text{EY} = \mu$  and  $\text{Var } X = \text{Var } Y = v^2$ , where  $\mu$  and  $v^2$  are introduced in Theorem 4.2, it only remains to insert into the formula

$$\rho = (\text{EXY} - \mu^2)/v^2. \quad \square$$

In the following part of this section we prove that (4.2) is a unique density satisfying (4.1).

**Lemma 4.4.** To any solution  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$  of (4.1) there exists a function  $\varphi \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$  such that

$$(4.3) \quad \varphi(\alpha z) = (\alpha \sqrt{\pi})^{-1} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-(z-t)^2} \varphi(t) dt, \quad z \in \mathbb{R},$$

and

$$(4.4) \quad f(x) = (\alpha \sqrt{\pi})^{-1} \int_0^{\infty} \exp\left\{-\left(\frac{x}{\sqrt{2}} + t\right)^2\right\} \varphi(t) dt, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

**Proof.** Let  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$  be a solution of (4.1). Put

$$(4.5) \quad \varphi(t) = f(t\sqrt{(2)/\alpha}) + f(-t\sqrt{(2)/\alpha}).$$

Since  $\varphi \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$  is an even function, we get

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-(z-t)^2} \varphi(t) dt = \int_0^{\infty} [e^{-(z+t)^2} + e^{-(z-t)^2}] \varphi(t) dt.$$

Inserting from (4.5) we obtain four integrals. After the substitutions  $\pm t\sqrt{(2)/\alpha} = s$  we use the fact that  $f$  is a solution of (4.1). This yields

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-(z-t)^2} \varphi(t) dt = \frac{\alpha}{\sqrt{2}} [f(z\sqrt{2}) + f(-z\sqrt{2})] \sqrt{(2)\pi} = \alpha \sqrt{(\pi)} \varphi(\alpha z).$$

Further, from (4.1),

$$f(x) = (2\pi)^{-1/2} \int_0^{\infty} \exp\{-\frac{1}{2}(x+\alpha y)^2\} [f(-y) + f(y)] dy.$$

The substitution  $y = t\sqrt{(2)/\alpha}$  immediately leads to (4.4). □

**Lemma 4.5.** Let  $\varphi \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$  satisfy (4.3). Then for the Fourier transform

$$\widehat{\varphi}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{itx} \varphi(x) dx$$

of the function  $\varphi$  the relation

$$(4.6) \quad \widehat{\varphi}(t/\alpha) = e^{-t^2/4} \widehat{\varphi}(t), \quad t \in \mathbb{R},$$

holds.

*Proof.* The Fourier transform of  $e^{-x^2}$  is  $\sqrt{(\pi)} e^{-t^2/4}$ . Calculating the Fourier transforms of both sides of (4.3) we obtain (4.6).  $\square$

**Lemma 4.6.** Let  $F$  be a function such  $F(t/\alpha) = e^{-t^2/4} F(t)$ . If  $F$  is continuous at  $t = 0$ , then there exists a constant  $c$  such that

$$F(t) = c \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{4} \frac{\alpha^2}{1 - \alpha^2} t^2 \right\}.$$

*Proof.* Put

$$G(t) = F(t) \exp \left\{ \frac{1}{4} \frac{\alpha^2}{1 - \alpha^2} t^2 \right\}.$$

Then

$$G(t/\alpha) = F(t/\alpha) \exp \left\{ \frac{1}{4} \frac{1}{1 - \alpha^2} t^2 \right\} = e^{-t^2/4} \exp \left\{ \frac{1}{4} \frac{1}{1 - \alpha^2} t^2 \right\} F(t) = G(t).$$

The function  $G$  is also continuous at  $t = 0$ . For any  $t \in \mathbb{R}$  we have  $\alpha^n t \rightarrow 0$  and

$$G(t) = G[(\alpha t)/\alpha] = G(\alpha t) = G(\alpha^2 t) = \dots = G(\alpha^n t) \rightarrow G(0) = c. \quad \square$$

**Lemma 4.7.** If  $\varphi \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$  is a solution of (4.3), then there exists  $k \in \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$(4.7) \quad \varphi(t) = k \exp \left\{ -\frac{1 - \alpha^2}{\alpha^2} t^2 \right\}, \quad t \in \mathbb{R}.$$

*Proof.* In view of (4.6) and Lemma 4.6,

$$\widehat{\varphi}(t) = c \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{4} \frac{\alpha^2}{1 - \alpha^2} t^2 \right\}.$$

This implies (4.7).  $\square$

**Theorem 4.8.** The function (4.2) is a unique density satisfying (4.1).

*Proof.* It was proved in Theorem 4.1 that  $f(x)$  given in (4.2) is a solution. From (4.2) and (4.5) we obtain

$$\varphi(t) = [2(1 - \alpha^2)/\pi]^{1/2} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1 - \alpha^2}{\alpha^2} t^2 \right\}.$$

However, according to Lemma 4.7 this  $\varphi$  is the only solution of (4.2) leading to a density. Since any solution  $f$  must satisfy (4.4), we proved the unicity.  $\square$

## 5. MARKOV APPROXIMATION

The Markov process  $\{X_s\}$  defined by (3.1) can be approximated by a Markov chain with a finite number of states. We choose some points  $c_1 < c_2 < \dots < c_{h-1}$  in such a way that one of them coincides with the threshold  $r$ . If we formally put  $c_h = \infty$ , then the real line is divided into intervals  $J_1, \dots, J_h$ , where  $J_1 = (-\infty, c_1)$ ,  $J_k = [c_{k-1}, c_k)$  for  $k = 2, \dots, h$ . Let

$$z_1 = c_1 - \frac{1}{2}(c_2 - c_1), \quad z_k = \frac{1}{2}(c_{k-1} + c_k) \quad \text{for } k = 2, \dots, h-1, \\ z_h = c_{h-1} + \frac{1}{2}(c_{h-1} - c_{h-2}).$$

This is the classical representation of the intervals  $J_k$  by their middle-points.

Let  $i, j$  be some numbers from the set  $\{1, 2, \dots, h\}$ . The probability  $P(X_s \in J_j | X_{s-1} \in J_i)$  can be approximated by

$$p_{ij} = P(X_s \in J_j | X_{s-1} = z_i).$$

From the model (3.1) we can see that the conditional distribution of  $X_s$  given  $X_{s-1} = z_i$  is  $N(\alpha z_i, \sigma^2)$  for  $z_i < r$  and  $N(\beta z_i, \sigma^2)$  for  $z_i > r$ . This leads to a homogeneous Markov chain with  $h$  states represented by  $z_1, \dots, z_h$  and with the matrix of transition probabilities  $\mathbf{P} = (p_{ij})$ , where

$$p_{ij} = \begin{cases} \Phi[(z_j - \alpha z_i)/\sigma] - \Phi[(z_{j-1} - \alpha z_i)/\sigma] & \text{if } z_i < r, \\ \Phi[(z_j - \beta z_i)/\sigma] - \Phi[(z_{j-1} - \beta z_i)/\sigma] & \text{if } z_i > r. \end{cases}$$

The stationary distribution of the Markov chain is given by such a vector of probabilities  $\mathbf{p} = (p_1, \dots, p_h)$  which satisfies the equation

$$\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{P}'\mathbf{p}, \quad p_1 + \dots + p_h = 1.$$

The moments of the stationary distribution are

$$\lambda'_k = \sum_{i=1}^h z_i^k p_i.$$

The expectation  $\mu$  and the variance  $v^2$  are

$$\mu = \sum z_i p_i, \quad v^2 = \sum z_i^2 p_i - \mu^2.$$

The central moments of higher orders as well as the coefficients  $\alpha_3$  and  $\alpha_4$  of this distribution can be calculated in the same way as  $v_3, v_4, \alpha_3$  and  $\alpha_4$  in Section 4.

The matrix of transition probabilities after  $k$  steps is  $\mathbf{P}^k$ . Its elements will be denoted by  $p_{ij}^{(k)}$ . If  $\{X_s\}$  is our stationary Markov chain with the states  $z_1, \dots, z_k$ , then

$$EX_s X_{s+k} = \sum_i \sum_j z_i z_j p_i p_{ij}^{(k)}.$$

The correlation function of the process  $\{X_s\}$  is

$$\varrho_k = (\mathbf{E}X_s X_{s+k} - \mu^2) / v^2, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

The spectral density  $g$  of this stationary process can be calculated by the formula

$$g(\lambda) = \frac{v^2}{2\pi} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \varrho_k e^{-ik\lambda},$$

where  $\varrho_0 = 1$  and  $\varrho_k = \varrho_{-k}$  for  $k < 0$ . In practical cases we shall compute  $\varrho_k$  only for  $|k| \leq K$ , where  $K$  is a bound depending on the rate how  $\varrho_k$  tends to zero. Then the spectral density is approximately

$$g(\lambda) = \frac{v^2}{2\pi} \left( 1 + 2 \sum_{k=1}^K \varrho_k \cos k\lambda \right).$$

## 6. A NUMERICAL SOLUTION

The equation (3.2) can also be solved numerically. Generally, consider the integral equation

$$(6.1) \quad f(x) - \lambda \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} q(x|y) f(y) dy = 0,$$

where  $q$  is a given function. First, we choose the points  $a_1, \dots, a_{n+1}$  such that the integrals

$$\int_{-\infty}^{a_1} q(x|y) f(y) dy \quad \text{and} \quad \int_{a_{n+1}}^{\infty} q(x|y) f(y) dy$$

are negligible. One of the points  $a_i$  must coincide with  $r$ . Put  $\Delta_i = a_{i+1} - a_i$ ,  $s_i = (a_{i+1} + a_i)/2$ . Then

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} q(x|y) f(y) dy \approx \sum_{i=1}^n \int_{a_i}^{a_{i+1}} q(x|y) f(y) dy$$

and each integral from  $a_i$  to  $a_{i+1}$  will be numerically evaluated using the Gauss formula with three knots:

$$\int_{a_i}^{a_{i+1}} q(x|y) f(y) dy = \sum_{j=1}^3 w_{ij} q(x|y_{ij}) f(y_{ij}),$$

$$w_{ij} = \begin{cases} \frac{5}{18} \Delta_i & \text{for } j = 1, \\ \frac{4}{9} \Delta_i & \text{for } j = 2, \\ \frac{5}{18} \Delta_i & \text{for } j = 3, \end{cases} \quad y_{ij} = \begin{cases} s_i - \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)} \Delta_i & \text{for } j = 1, \\ s_i & \text{for } j = 2, \\ s_i + \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)} \Delta_i & \text{for } j = 3. \end{cases}$$

Instead of (6.1) we have

$$(6.2) \quad f(x) - \lambda \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^3 w_{ij} q(x|y_{ij}) f(y_{ij}) = 0.$$

Inserting  $y_{ij}$  for  $x$  we obtain the homogeneous system of linear equations, where  $f(y_{ij})$  are unknown and  $\lambda$  is a parameter. This leads to the problem of finding the eigenvalues and the eigenvectors of a matrix. We look for the solution which corresponds to such a value of  $\lambda$ , which is near to 1. In our numerical investigations really a value of  $\lambda$  was very near to 1 (e.g. 0.997), whereas the others were substantially smaller (below 0.5), and the identification of the proper  $\lambda$  from the set of all eigenvalues was easy.

According to (6.2) an (approximate) formula for the stationary density  $f$  was found in the form

$$(6.3) \quad f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^3 k_{ij} q(x | y_{ij}),$$

where

$$k_{ij} = \lambda w_{ij} f(y_{ij}), \quad \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^3 k_{ij} = 1,$$

and

$$(6.4) \quad q(x | y_{ij}) \text{ is the density of } \begin{cases} N(\alpha y_{ij}, \sigma^2) & \text{if } y_{ij} < r, \\ N(\beta y_{ij}, \sigma^2) & \text{if } y_{ij} > r. \end{cases}$$

The moments corresponding to  $f(x)$  can be easily found, because

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^k f(x) dx = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^3 k_{ij} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^k q(x | y_{ij}) dx$$

and  $\int x^k q(x | y_{ij}) dx$  is a known moment of a normal distribution (6.4). Thus we get the expectation  $\mu$ , variance  $v^2$ ,  $\alpha_3$  and  $\alpha_4$ .

This method also allows to calculate the correlation coefficient  $\rho$  of the variables  $X = X_x$  and  $Y = Y_{x-1}$  in the stationary case. Let  $Y$  have the density  $f$  (6.3). Then the joint density  $h(x, y)$  of  $X$  and  $Y$  is

$$h(x, y) = \begin{cases} (2\pi)^{-1/2} \exp\{-\frac{1}{2}(x - \alpha y)^2\} f(y) & \text{if } y < r, \\ (2\pi)^{-1/2} \exp\{-\frac{1}{2}(x - \beta y)^2\} f(y) & \text{if } y \geq r. \end{cases}$$

We have

$$\begin{aligned} EXY &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xy h(x, y) dx dy = \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^3 k_{ij} \int_{-\infty}^r y q(y | y_{ij}) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x (2\pi)^{-1/2} \exp\{-\frac{1}{2}(x - \alpha y)^2\} dx dy + \\ &+ \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^3 k_{ij} \int_r^{\infty} y q(y | y_{ij}) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x (2\pi)^{-1/2} \exp\{-\frac{1}{2}(x - \beta y)^2\} dx dy = \\ &= \alpha \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^3 k_{ij} \int_{-\infty}^r y^2 q(y | y_{ij}) dy + \beta \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^3 k_{ij} \int_r^{\infty} y^2 q(y | y_{ij}) dy. \end{aligned}$$

We insert from (6.4) and use Lemma 2.3. Finally we get

$$\begin{aligned}
 EXY = & \alpha \sum_i \sum_j k_{ij} [(1 + \alpha^2 y_{ij}^2) \Phi(r - \alpha y_{ij}) - (2\pi)^{-1/2} (r + \alpha y_{ij}) \exp\{-\frac{1}{2}(r - \alpha y_{ij})^2\}] + \\
 & + \alpha \sum_i \sum_j k_{ij} [(1 + \beta^2 y_{ij}^2) \Phi(r - \beta y_{ij}) - (2\pi)^{-1/2} (r + \beta y_{ij}) \exp\{-\frac{1}{2}(r - \beta y_{ij})^2\}] + \\
 & + \beta \sum_i \sum_j k_{ij} [(1 + \alpha^2 y_{ij}^2) \Phi(\alpha y_{ij} - r) + (2\pi)^{-1/2} (r + \alpha y_{ij}) \exp\{-\frac{1}{2}(r - \alpha y_{ij})^2\}] + \\
 & + \beta \sum_i \sum_j k_{ij} [(1 + \beta^2 y_{ij}^2) \Phi(\beta y_{ij} - r) + (2\pi)^{-1/2} (r + \beta y_{ij}) \exp\{-\frac{1}{2}(r - \beta y_{ij})^2\}].
 \end{aligned}$$

Now, the correlation coefficient  $\rho$  is calculated by

$$\rho = (EXY - \mu^2)/v^2.$$

## 7. SOME NUMERICAL RESULTS

The exact solution based on explicit formulas from Section 4 is available only for  $r = 0$  and  $\alpha = -\beta$ . However, in these cases it enables to compare the accuracy of other methods.

The Markov approximation, the results of which are given in Tables 1, 2 and 3, was obtained from a division of the real line into 10 intervals. The bounds of these interval (except for  $-\infty$  and  $\infty$ ) are introduced in the row  $A$  of the Table 6.

For the numerical solution, which was described in Section 6, the following points  $a_i$  were chosen:

$$-8, -5, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 6.$$

Again, the results are contained in Tables 1, 2 and 3.

For each combination  $(r, \alpha, \beta)$  ten simulations were produced. Each simulation had the length  $N = 500$ . The results are given in the tables in the columns with the heading "simulations". The first number is the average of the corresponding sample statistics calculated from 10 realizations. The second number (in the parenthesis) represents the sample deviation of the type

$$\left[\frac{1}{9} \sum_{i=1}^{10} (x_i - \bar{x})^2\right]^{1/2},$$

where  $x_i$  are the sample statistics.

The accuracy of the Markov approximation surely depends on the number of states and on their location. Some information about it can be obtained from the Tables 4 and 5. The investigated cases are denoted by the letters  $A - G$  and the bounds of the used intervals are in Table 6. To make the comparisons easier, the Table 4 contains also column with the exact results and the Table 5 a column with the numerical solution (because in the latter case the exact result is not known).

The correlation functions and the spectral densities for  $r = 0$ ,  $\alpha = 0.9$  and  $\beta = -0.9$  are drawn in Fig. 1 and Fig. 2, respectively. The solid line is the average from 10 simulations. The spectral densities in the simulations were estimated by Parzen formula. The dashed line represents the result from the Markov approximation when there are 10 states corresponding to the scheme A introduced in Table 6. The dotted line belongs to the Markov approximation with 20 states and their scheme is E.

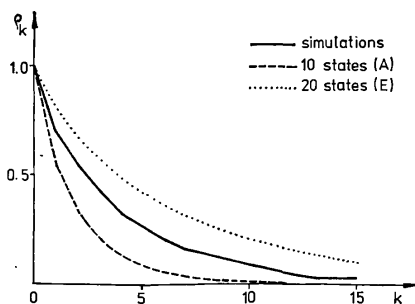


Fig. 1. Estimates of the correlation function for  $r = 0$ ,  $\alpha = 0.9$ ,  $\beta = -0.9$ .

Table 1.

		$r = 0$			
		Exact	Markov approximation	Numerical solution	Simulations
$\alpha = 0.5$ $\beta = -0.5$	$\mu$	-0.461	-0.488	-0.461	-0.428 (0.048)
	$v^2$	1.121	1.192	1.121	1.112 (0.074)
	$\alpha_3$	-0.035	0.017	-0.035	-0.029 (0.129)
	$\alpha_4$	3.010	2.874	3.010	2.902 (0.177)
	$\varrho$	0.173	0.174	0.173	0.153 (0.060)
$\alpha = 0.8$ $\beta = -0.8$	$\mu$	-1.064	-1.033	-1.063	-1.002 (0.088)
	$v^2$	1.646	1.440	1.646	1.624 (0.157)
	$\alpha_3$	-0.245	0.165	-0.246	-0.228 (0.160)
	$\alpha_4$	3.134	2.528	3.136	3.065 (0.232)
	$\varrho$	0.522	0.449	0.522	0.496 (0.058)
$\alpha = 0.9$ $\beta = -0.9$	$\mu$	-1.647	-1.332	-1.639	-1.533 (0.134)
	$v^2$	2.549	1.514	2.513	2.447 (0.331)
	$\alpha_3$	-0.472	0.347	-0.441	-0.460 (0.220)
	$\alpha_4$	3.321	2.451	3.220	3.194 (0.371)
	$\varrho$	0.724	0.548	0.723	0.701 (0.047)

**Table 2.**

		$r = 1$		
		Markov approximation	Numerical solution	Simulations
$\alpha = 0.5$ $\beta = -0.5$	$\mu$	-0.364	-0.343	-0.307 (0.053)
	$v^2$	1.297	1.217	1.216 (0.087)
	$\alpha_3$	0.023	-0.023	-0.037 (0.138)
	$\alpha_4$	2.851	2.988	2.882 (0.176)
	$\varrho$	0.217	0.219	0.200 (0.056)
$\alpha = 0.9$ $\beta = -0.9$	$\mu$	-1.219	-1.540	-1.447 (0.149)
	$v^2$	1.801	2.829	2.784 (0.305)
	$\alpha_3$	0.425	-0.308	-0.300 (0.190)
	$\alpha_4$	2.517	3.084	3.058 (0.355)
	$\varrho$	0.562	0.722	0.699 (0.039)

**Table 3.**

		$r = 2$		
		Markov approximation	Numerical solution	Simulations
$\alpha = 0.5$ $\beta = -0.5$	$\mu$	-0.261	-0.145	-0.099 (0.060)
	$v^2$	1.362	1.314	1.302 (0.071)
	$\alpha_3$	0.009	-0.035	-0.047 (0.076)
	$\alpha_4$	2.832	2.980	2.915 (0.153)
	$\varrho$	0.278	0.356	0.342 (0.051)
$\alpha = 0.9$ $\beta = -0.9$	$\mu$	-1.115	-1.326	-1.267 (0.286)
	$v^2$	2.045	3.437	3.399 (0.506)
	$\alpha_3$	0.440	-0.179	-0.153 (0.187)
	$\alpha_4$	2.480	2.878	2.817 (0.240)
	$\varrho$	0.590	0.747	0.720 (0.030)

The numerical experience contained in Tables 1–6 and in Fig. 1–2 leads to the following conclusions.

a. The numerical solution is very near to the exact values. Its quality decreases a little, when  $|\alpha|, |\beta| \rightarrow 1$ .

b. Markov approximations give only rough estimates of the considered characteristics. The precision is not better even if the number of the states grows. We must remark, however, that this may be a consequence of the inaccuracies arising in the process of solving great number of linear equations with an ill-conditioned matrix. It would be interesting to analyze this problem in detail. In any case, the Figures 1 and 2 clearly show that the estimates of the correlation function and of the spectral density are rather bad, whereas the approximations of  $\mu$  and  $v^2$  can be of some use.



Table 4.

		$r = 0, \alpha = 0.9, \beta = -0.9$									
		Markov approximation									
Exact		10 states (A)	10 states (B)	10 states (C)	10 states (D)	20 states (E)	26 states (F)	26 states (G)			
$\mu$	-1.647	-1.332	-1.878	-1.859	-1.898	-1.962	-1.761	-1.707			
$v^2$	2.549	1.514	3.210	3.212	3.229	3.739	2.759	2.740			
$\alpha_3$	-0.472	0.347	-0.512	-0.550	-0.515	-0.814	-0.466	-0.533			
$\alpha_4$	3.321	2.451	3.145	3.055	3.021	3.832	3.324	3.503			
$\varrho$	0.724	0.548	0.753	0.765	0.765	0.801	0.736	0.736			

Table 5.

		$r = 1, \alpha = 0.8, \beta = -0.6$									
		Markov approximation									
Numerical solution		10 states (A)	10 states (B)	10 states (C)	10 states (D)	10 states (E)	20 states (F)				
$\mu$	-0.871	-0.843	-0.954	-0.913	-0.938	-0.933					
$v^2$	1.853	1.676	2.239	2.104	2.154	2.091					
$\alpha_3$	-0.176	0.182	-0.156	-0.363	-0.347	-0.382					
$\alpha_4$	3.062	2.535	3.623	3.326	3.255	3.544					
$\varrho$	0.558	0.498	0.546	0.580	0.587	0.591					

c. Although a simulation of the length  $N = 500$  is usually considered as long enough for AR processes of the first and second order, in case of a threshold model this may be true only for small values  $|\alpha|$  and  $|\beta|$ . Tables 1–3 clearly show that the

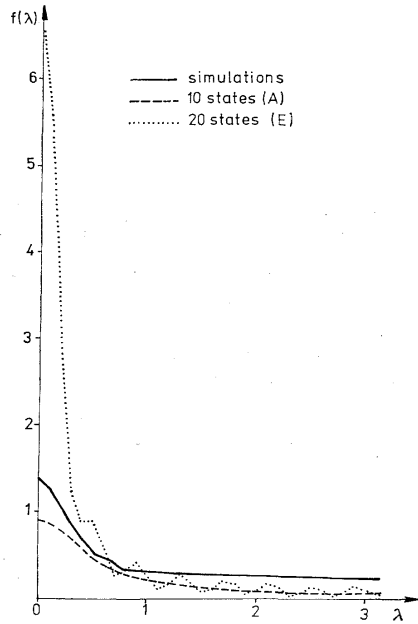


Fig. 2. Estimates of the spectral density for  $r = 0, \alpha = 0.9, \beta = -0.9$ .

Table 6.

The bounds of intervals used in Tables 4 and 5.

A	-2.5	-1.5	-1.0	-0.5	0.0	0.5	1.0	1.5	2.5	
B	-6.0	-4.0	-3.0	-2.0	-1.0	0.0	1.0	2.0	5.0	
C	-6.0	-4.0	-3.0	-2.2	-1.6	-1.0	0.0	1.0	2.0	
D	-6.0	-4.0	-2.8	-2.1	-1.4	-0.7	0.0	1.0	2.0	
E	-9.0	-6.0	-4.0	-3.0	-2.5	-2.0	-1.5	-1.0	-0.5	0.0
	0.5	1.0	1.5	2.0	2.5	3.0	4.0	6.0	9.0	
F	-13.0	-11.0	-9.0	-8.0	-7.0	-6.0	-5.0	-4.0	-3.0	-2.0
	-1.7	-1.4	-1.1	-0.8	-0.5	-0.2	0.0	0.5	1.0	1.5
	2.0	3.0	4.0	5.0	7.0					
G	-12.0	-9.0	-8.0	-7.0	-6.0	-5.0	-4.0	-3.6	-3.2	-2.8
	-2.4	-2.0	-1.7	-1.4	-1.1	-0.8	-0.5	-0.2	0.0	0.5
	1.0	1.5	2.0	3.0	5.0					

variability of characteristics from the simulations is too large for  $\alpha = 0.9$ ,  $\beta = -0.9$ . Although the results of simulations introduced in our tables are close to exact values, we must not forget, that they are averages; each of them needed, in fact, some  $10 \times 500$  simulated variables!

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*Doc. RNDr. Jiří Anděl, DrSc., doc. RNDr. Ivan Netuka, CSc., RNDr. Karel Zvára, CSc., Univerzita Karlova, matematicko-fyzikální fakulta (Charles University — Faculty of Mathematics and Physics), Sokolovská 83, 186 00 Praha 8, Czechoslovakia.*