

APPROXIMATING THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD ESTIMATE OF THE CHANGE-POINT IN A SEQUENCE OF INDEPENDENT RANDOM VARIABLES

BY YI-CHING YAO

Colorado State University

The problem of estimating the change-point in a sequence of independent random variables is considered. As the sample sizes before and after the change-point tend to infinity, Hinkley (1970) showed that the maximum likelihood estimate of the change-point converges in distribution to that of the change-point based on an infinite sample. Letting the amount of change in distribution approach 0, it is shown that the distribution, suitably normalized, of the maximum likelihood estimate based on an infinite sample converges to a simple one which is related to the location of the maximum for a two-sided Wiener process. Numerical results show that this simple distribution provides a good approximation to the exact distribution (with an infinite sample) in the normal case. However, it is unclear whether the approximation is good for general nonnormal cases.

1. Introduction and main results. In industrial engineering, it is often observed that, over a period of time, the quality of products deteriorates due to system failures. A simple model for this situation is that X_i , $i = \dots, -1, 0, 1, \dots$, are independent observations of the quality of products at different time points, X_i having probability density function $f(\cdot, \theta_0)$ if $i \leq \tau$ and $f(\cdot, \theta_0 + \Delta)$ if $i > \tau$. Here θ_0 is the target value, but after an unknown time point τ , it is changed by an amount $\Delta \neq 0$. It is desired to estimate this unknown parameter τ , which is usually called a change-point.

In this paper, we assume that (1) θ_0 and Δ are known and Δ is nonzero, (2) $\tau = \tau_0$ is the true (fixed) value of τ , and (3) the random variables $\log f(X_i, \theta_0) - \log f(X_i, \theta_0 + \Delta)$, $i = \tau_0$ and $\tau_0 + 1$, are continuous. Let $\hat{\tau}_N$ be the maximum likelihood estimate of τ_0 based on a sample of size N

$$\{X_i: i = -[(N-1)/2], \dots, -1, 0, 1, \dots, [N/2]\};$$

that is, $\hat{\tau}_N$ is that value of r which maximizes V_r subject to $-[(N-1)/2] \leq r \leq [N/2]$, where

$$V_r = \begin{cases} 0, & r = 0, \\ \sum_{i=1}^r U_i, & r = 1, 2, \dots, \\ -\sum_{i=r+1}^0 U_i, & r = -1, -2, \dots, \end{cases}$$

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and $U_i = \log f(X_i, \theta_0) - \log f(X_i, \theta_0 + \Delta)$, $i \in Z$ (the set of all integers). Let $\hat{\tau}_\infty$ be the maximum likelihood estimate of τ_0 based on an infinite sample $\{X_i; i \in Z\}$; that is, $\hat{\tau}_\infty$ is that value of r which maximizes V_r over Z . The distribution of $\hat{\tau}_N - \tau_0$ depends on θ_0 and Δ as well as on $[(N-1)/2] + \tau_0 + 1$ and $[N/2] - \tau_0$ (the sample sizes before and after the change-point) while that of $\hat{\tau}_\infty - \tau_0$ depends only on θ_0 and Δ . Note that since $|\hat{\tau}_N| \leq |\hat{\tau}_\infty|$ and $\Delta^2(\hat{\tau}_\infty - \tau_0)$ is bounded in probability for small Δ (see Theorem 2), $\Delta^2(\hat{\tau}_N - \tau_0)$ is bounded in probability for small Δ and for all N . The following theorem provides an upper bound for $\Pr(\hat{\tau}_N \neq \hat{\tau}_\infty)$ which implies that the distribution of $\hat{\tau}_N - \tau_0$ can be approximated by that of $\hat{\tau}_\infty - \tau_0$ if Δ is small and $\Delta^2 \min\{[(N-1)/2] + \tau_0 + 1, [N/2] - \tau_0 + 1\}$ is large.

THEOREM 1. *Suppose that (i) the Fisher information*

$$I(\theta_0) = -\int \partial^2 \log f(x, \theta_0) / \partial \theta^2 f(x, \theta_0) dx > 0,$$

(ii) $E(U_{\tau_0}) = I(\theta_0)\Delta^2/2 + o(\Delta^2) = -E(U_{\tau_0+1})$ and (iii) $\text{var}(U_i) = I(\theta_0)\Delta^2 + o(\Delta^2)$, $i = \tau_0$ and $\tau_0 + 1$. Then for sufficiently small $\Delta \neq 0$ and for all N with $-[(N-1)/2] \leq \tau_0 \leq [N/2]$,

$$\Pr(\hat{\tau}_N \neq \hat{\tau}_\infty) \leq 19I^{-1}(\theta_0)\Delta^{-2}\{([N/2] - \tau_0 + 1)^{-1} + \{[(N-1)/2] + \tau_0 + 1\}^{-1}\}.$$

It should be remarked that the assumption of θ_0 and $\Delta \neq 0$ known is crucial for Theorem 1. When θ_0 and Δ are unknown and have to be estimated from the data, the upper bound of Theorem 1 is no longer valid in general.

The distribution of $\hat{\tau}_\infty - \tau_0$ does not seem to have a closed-form expression. Hinkley (1970) developed a numerical scheme to compute this distribution and he noticed that the numerical computation is difficult to handle for small Δ since the distribution becomes rather dispersive. When Δ is small, it is naturally expected that the distribution of $\hat{\tau}_\infty - \tau_0$ can be approximated by its limiting distribution as $\Delta \rightarrow 0$. Theorem 2 below gives this limiting distribution which is related to the location of the maximum for a two-sided Wiener process.

THEOREM 2. *Suppose that the three conditions of Theorem 1 are satisfied and that $E(|U_i|^{2+\epsilon}) = o(\Delta^2)$, $i = \tau_0$ and $\tau_0 + 1$, for some $\epsilon > 0$. Then, as $\Delta \rightarrow 0$, $\Delta^2 I(\theta_0)(\hat{\tau}_\infty - \tau_0)$ converges in distribution to a random variable having cumulative distribution function F defined by $F(a) = 1 - F(-a)$ and for $a > 0$,*

$$F(a) = 1 + (2\pi)^{-1/2} a^{1/2} e^{-a/8} - 2^{-1}(a+5)\Phi(-a^{1/2}/2) + 3 \cdot 2^{-1} e^a \Phi(-3 \cdot 2^{-1} a^{1/2}),$$

where $\Phi(\cdot)$ is the standard normal distribution.

From Theorems 1 and 2, it follows that the distribution of $\Delta^2 I(\theta_0)(\hat{\tau}_N - \tau_0)$ can be approximated by F if Δ is small and $\Delta^2 \min([(N - 1)/2] + \tau_0 + 1, [N/2] - \tau_0 + 1)$ is large. The proofs of the two theorems are given in the next section. In Section 3, some numerical results are presented to compare the distribution of $\hat{\tau}_\infty - \tau_0$ with an approximation based on the limiting distribution F . It appears that this approximation is good in the normal case, but it is still unclear whether it is good for general nonnormal cases.

2. Proofs of Theorems 1 and 2.

PROOF OF THEOREM 1. It is clear that

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Pr(\hat{\tau}_N \neq \hat{\tau}_\infty) &= \Pr(\hat{\tau}_\infty > [N/2]) + \Pr(\hat{\tau}_\infty < -[(N - 1)/2]) \\
 (1) \qquad &\leq \Pr\left(\sup_{r > [N/2] - \tau_0} (V_{\tau_0+r} - V_{\tau_0}) \geq 0\right) \\
 &\quad + \Pr\left(\sup_{r < -[(N-1)/2] - \tau_0} (V_{\tau_0+r} - V_{\tau_0}) \geq 0\right).
 \end{aligned}$$

Using the Hájek-Rényi inequality [Hájek and Rényi (1955)] and letting $\mu = E(U_{\tau_0+1})$, $\sigma^2 = \text{var}(U_{\tau_0+1})$,

$$\begin{aligned}
 (2) \qquad &\Pr\left(\sup_{r > [N/2] - \tau_0} 3r^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^r (U_{\tau_0+i} - \mu) / \sigma^2 \geq 1\right) \\
 &\leq 9\sigma^{-2} \left\{ ([N/2] - \tau_0 + 1)^{-1} + \sum_{i \geq [N/2] - \tau_0 + 2} i^{-2} \right\} \\
 &\leq 18\sigma^{-2} ([N/2] - \tau_0 + 1)^{-1},
 \end{aligned}$$

which is bounded from above by $19 / \{I(\theta_0)\Delta^2([N/2] - \tau_0 + 1)\}$ for small Δ , since $\Delta^{-2}\sigma^2 \rightarrow I(\theta_0)$ as $\Delta \rightarrow 0$. Now, since $\Delta^{-2}\mu \rightarrow -I(\theta_0)/2$ as $\Delta \rightarrow 0$, it is clear that for small Δ , $\mu + \sigma^2/3 < 0$ and so the first term on the right-hand side of the inequality (1) is bounded from above by the left-hand side of (2). Similarly, it can be shown that the second term on the right-hand side of (1) is bounded by $19 / \{I(\theta_0)\Delta^2([(N - 1)/2] + \tau_0 + 1)\}$ for small Δ , completing the proof. \square

To prove Theorem 2, we need a few lemmas. Since the distribution of $\hat{\tau}_\infty - \tau_0$ does not depend on τ_0 , we assume $\tau_0 = 0$ for the remainder of this section. Note that $\{V_0 = 0, V_1, \dots\}$ and $\{V_0 = 0, V_{-1}, \dots\}$ are two independent random walks with negative drift. Define $\{S_\Delta(t): -\infty < t < \infty\}$ by

$$(3) \qquad S_\Delta(\Delta^2 I(\theta_0)r) = V_r, \quad r = \dots, -1, 0, 1, \dots$$

and linear interpolations. The following lemma is a consequence of Theorem 3.1 of Prokhorov (1956).

LEMMA 1. For every $T > 0$, $\{S_\Delta(t): -T \leq t \leq T\}$ converges in distribution to $\{W(t) - |t|/2: -T \leq t \leq T\}$ if the probability density functions $f(\cdot, \theta)$ satisfy the conditions of Theorem 2, where $\{W(t): -\infty < t < \infty\}$ is a two-sided standard Wiener process with $W(0) = 0$.

Let $R_\Delta(T)$ be that value of t which maximizes $S_\Delta(t)$ over $-T \leq t \leq T$. Clearly, $\Delta^2 I(\theta_0) \hat{r}_\infty = R_\Delta(\infty)$ and $|R_\Delta(T)|$ is increasing in T . We first find the limiting distribution of $R_\Delta(T)$ as $\Delta \rightarrow 0$. For every continuous function $x(\cdot) \in C[-T, T]$, let $m(x) = \max\{x(t): -T \leq t \leq T\}$, $m_1(x) = \max\{x(t): 0 \leq t \leq T\}$, $l(x) = \inf\{t: x(t) = m(x), -T \leq t \leq T\}$ and $l_1(x) = \inf\{t: x(t) = m_1(x), 0 \leq t \leq T\}$. Let $X(t) = W(t) - |t|/2, -T \leq t \leq T$. The mapping $l(x)$ from $C[-T, T]$ to the real line is continuous with respect to the sup-norm at x where the maximum of x is uniquely attained. But from Shepp (1979), the maximum of $X(t), -T \leq t \leq T$, is uniquely attained with probability 1 and it follows from Lemma 1 and the continuous mapping theorem [Billingsley (1968), page 30] that $R_\Delta(T)$ converges in distribution to $l(X)$, the location of the maximum for $\{X(t): -T \leq t \leq T\}$. Using the result of Shepp (1979) and the independence of $\{X(t): 0 \leq t \leq T\}$ and $\{X(t): -T \leq t \leq 0\}$, $l(X)$ has probability density function

$$(4) \quad g_T(a) = \int_0^\infty h_T(|a|, b) H_T(b) db, \quad -T \leq a \leq T,$$

where for $0 \leq a \leq T, b > 0$,

$$(5) \quad h_T(a, b) = \frac{b}{\pi a^{3/2} (T - a)^{3/2}} \int_{-\infty}^b (b - u) \times \exp\left\{-\frac{b^2}{2a} - \frac{(b - u)^2}{2(T - a)} - \frac{u}{2} - \frac{T}{8}\right\} du$$

is the joint density of $l_1(X)$ and $m_1(X)$ and

$$(6) \quad H_T(b) = \Pr(m_1(X) \leq b) = \int_0^b \int_0^T h_T(a, b') da db'.$$

We have obtained

LEMMA 2. As $\Delta \rightarrow 0$, $R_\Delta(T)$ converges in distribution to a random variable having probability density function g_T .

The following lemma is an immediate corollary of Theorem 1.

LEMMA 3.

$$\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty, \Delta \rightarrow 0} \Pr(R_\Delta(T) = R_\Delta(\infty)) = 1.$$

PROOF OF THEOREM 2. From Lemmas 2 and 3 and Fatou's lemma, for $-\infty < u < v < \infty$,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \liminf_{\Delta \rightarrow 0} \Pr(u \leq R_{\Delta}(\infty) \leq v) &= \liminf_{T \rightarrow \infty} \liminf_{\Delta \rightarrow 0} \Pr(u \leq R_{\Delta}(T) \leq v) \\
 &= \liminf_{T \rightarrow \infty} \int_u^v g_T(a) da \\
 (7) \qquad &\geq \int_u^v \left[\liminf_{T \rightarrow \infty} g_T(a) \right] da \\
 &\geq \int_u^v \left[\int_0^{\infty} \left\{ \liminf_{T \rightarrow \infty} h_T(|a|, b) H_T(b) \right\} db \right] da.
 \end{aligned}$$

From (5) and using integration by parts, for $a > 0, b > 0$,

$$\begin{aligned}
 h_T(a, b) &= \frac{b}{\pi a^{3/2} (T - a)^{3/2}} \\
 &\times \left[(T - a) \exp \left\{ -\frac{b^2}{2a} - \frac{b}{2} - \frac{T}{8} \right\} \right. \\
 &\quad \left. + \frac{T - a}{2} \int_{-\infty}^b \exp \left\{ -\frac{b^2}{2a} - \frac{(b - u)^2}{2(T - a)} - \frac{u}{2} - \frac{T}{8} \right\} du \right].
 \end{aligned}$$

On the right-hand side, the first term tends to 0 as $T \rightarrow \infty$, and the second term equals, using $v = \{u + (T - a)/2 - b\}(T - a)^{-1/2}$,

$$(2\pi)^{-1} a^{-3/2} b \int_{-\infty}^{(T-a)^{1/2}/2} \exp \left\{ -v^2/2 - b^2/(2a) - a/8 - b/2 \right\} dv,$$

which converges to $(2\pi)^{-1/2} a^{-3/2} b \exp\{-(a + 2b)^2/(8a)\}$. So, we have shown that $h_T(|a|, b)$ converges, as $T \rightarrow \infty$, to

$$(8) \qquad h_{\infty}(|a|, b) = (2\pi)^{-1/2} |a|^{-3/2} b \exp\{-(|a| + 2b)^2/(8|a|)\}.$$

Also, from (6) and (8) and Fatou's lemma, for $b > 0$,

$$(9) \qquad \liminf_{T \rightarrow \infty} H_T(b) \geq \int_0^b \int_0^{\infty} h_{\infty}(a, b') da db'.$$

We claim that

$$(10) \qquad \int_0^{\infty} h_{\infty}(a, b) da = e^{-b}.$$

To prove (10), write

$$\int_0^{\infty} h_{\infty}(a, b) da = \int_0^{2b} h_{\infty}(a, b) da + \int_{2b}^{\infty} h_{\infty}(a, b) da.$$

Using $a' = 4b^2/a$,

$$\int_0^{2b} h_{\infty}(a, b) da = \int_{2b}^{\infty} (2\pi)^{-1/2} 2^{-1} (a')^{-1/2} \exp\{-(a' + 2b)^2/(8a')\} da'.$$

So,

$$\int_0^\infty h_\infty(a, b) da = e^{-b} \int_{2b}^\infty (2\pi)^{-1/2} (a^{-3/2}b + a^{-1/2}/2) \exp\{-(a-2b)^2/(8a)\} da,$$

which equals, using $a' = (a-2b)(4a)^{-1/2}$,

$$e^{-b} \int_0^\infty (2\pi)^{-1/2} 2 \exp\{-(a')^2/2\} da' = e^{-b}.$$

From (7), (8), (9) and (10), we have

$$\begin{aligned} \liminf_{\Delta \rightarrow 0} \Pr(u \leq R_\infty(\Delta) \leq v) &\geq \int_u^v \left\{ \int_0^\infty h_\infty(|a|; b) (1 - e^{-b}) db \right\} da \\ &= \int_u^v \left\{ (3/2) e^{|a|} \Phi(-3|a|^{1/2}/2) \right. \\ &\quad \left. - \Phi(-|a|^{1/2}/2) \right\} da. \end{aligned}$$

But, the inequality can be replaced by an equality if it can be shown that the term inside the parentheses is a probability density function; that is, its total integral over the real line equals 1. This is indeed true since

$$dF(a)/da = (3/2)e^{|a|}\Phi(-3|a|^{1/2}/2) - \Phi(-|a|^{1/2}/2)/2$$

and $F(\infty) - F(-\infty) = 1$, completing the proof. \square

REMARK 1. We note that $dF(a)/da$ has a unique mode at $a = 0$. As $a \rightarrow \infty$, $F(a)$ behaves like $1 - (2\pi)^{-1/2}(256/9)a^{-3/2}\exp(-a/8)$. That is, the limiting distribution has exponential tails.

3. Numerical results. Applying Theorem 2 with continuity correction, we approximate $\Pr(\hat{\tau}_\infty - \tau_0 \leq k)$ by

$$(11) \quad F(\Delta^2 I(\theta_0)(k + 0.5)),$$

where k is an integer. When $f(\cdot, \theta)$ is the normal density with mean θ and variance σ^2 , the distribution of $\hat{\tau}_\infty - \tau_0$ depends only on $(\Delta^2 I(\theta_0))^{1/2} = |\Delta|/\sigma$. Without loss of generality, we assume that $\sigma = 1$. In Table 1, the approximation using (11) is compared with Hinkley's results. The numbers in parentheses are taken from Table 3.3 of Hinkley (1970), which may be regarded as the exact $\Pr(\hat{\tau}_\infty - \tau_0 \leq k)$. It should be remarked that Hinkley's Δ is one-half of our Δ . This table shows that the limiting distribution provides a good approximation. In particular, it approximates the tail probabilities very accurately. This is important in estimating significance levels (in hypothesis testing) and confidence levels (in interval estimation).

REMARK 2. In the normal case with $\sigma = 1$, the distribution of $\Delta^2(\hat{\tau}_\infty - \tau_0)$ is equal to that of the (random) value of r which maximizes $W(r) - |r|/2$ over

TABLE 1
Approximation by the limiting distribution ^a

<i>k</i>	Δ							
	1.0	1.2	1.4	1.6	1.8	2.0	2.4	3.0
0	0.627(0.640)	0.662(0.680)	0.696(0.719)	0.729(0.756)	0.760(0.790)	0.788(0.820)	0.838(0.873)	0.895(0.928)
1	0.750(0.754)	0.799(0.804)	0.840(0.847)	0.875(0.882)	0.904(0.911)	0.927(0.933)	0.959(0.965)	0.984(0.988)
2	0.819(0.821)	0.867(0.870)	0.905(0.908)	0.933(0.936)	0.954(0.957)	0.969(0.971)	0.987(0.988)	0.997(0.997)
3	0.864(0.865)	0.908(0.910)	0.940(0.941)	0.962(0.963)	0.976(0.977)	0.986(0.987)	0.995(0.996)	
4	0.895(0.896)	0.935(0.936)	0.961(0.962)	0.977(0.978)	0.987(0.988)	0.993(0.993)		
5	0.918(0.919)	0.952(0.953)	0.974(0.974)	0.986(0.986)	0.993(0.993)	0.997(0.997)		
6	0.935(0.935)	0.965(0.965)	0.982(0.982)	0.991(0.991)	0.996(0.996)			
7	0.948(0.948)	0.974(0.974)	0.988(0.988)	0.994(0.995)				
8	0.958(0.958)	0.980(0.981)	0.991(0.991)	0.996(0.996)				
9	0.966(0.966)	0.985(0.985)	0.994(0.994)					
10	0.972(0.973)	0.989(0.989)	0.996(0.996)					
12	0.981(0.982)	0.993(0.993)						
14	0.987(0.987)	0.996(0.996)						
16	0.991(0.991)							
18	0.994(0.994)							
20	0.996(0.996)							

^aThe numbers in parentheses are taken from Table 3.3 of Hinkley (1970).

TABLE 2
Contaminated normal cases, $\Delta = 1.5$ ^a

<i>k</i>	ϵ, σ							
	0.05, 2	0.05, 3	0.05, 5	0.10, 3	0.20, 3	0.30, 3	0.40, 3	0.50, 3
0	0.701(0.725)	0.698(0.725)	0.698(0.717)	0.686(0.712)	0.664(0.690)	0.644(0.659)	0.625(0.636)	0.606(0.614)
1	0.846(0.844)	0.842(0.842)	0.843(0.849)	0.828(0.830)	0.801(0.804)	0.774(0.776)	0.746(0.747)	0.717(0.719)
2	0.910(0.907)	0.907(0.905)	0.907(0.906)	0.894(0.895)	0.870(0.871)	0.843(0.838)	0.815(0.808)	0.784(0.782)
3	0.944(0.942)	0.941(0.940)	0.942(0.940)	0.931(0.932)	0.910(0.916)	0.887(0.878)	0.860(0.847)	0.830(0.825)
4	0.964(0.963)	0.962(0.960)	0.962(0.960)	0.954(0.953)	0.936(0.941)	0.916(0.910)	0.892(0.883)	0.864(0.858)
5	0.976(0.975)	0.975(0.973)	0.975(0.971)	0.968(0.967)	0.954(0.956)	0.936(0.933)	0.915(0.905)	0.889(0.883)
6	0.984(0.984)	0.983(0.982)	0.983(0.980)	0.978(0.976)	0.966(0.968)	0.951(0.947)	0.932(0.921)	0.908(0.901)
7	0.989(0.989)	0.988(0.987)	0.988(0.986)	0.984(0.982)	0.975(0.976)	0.962(0.961)	0.946(0.937)	0.924(0.916)
8	0.992(0.993)	0.992(0.992)	0.992(0.989)	0.989(0.988)	0.981(0.983)	0.971(0.967)	0.956(0.948)	0.937(0.930)
9	0.995(0.995)	0.994(0.994)	0.994(0.993)	0.992(0.991)	0.986(0.986)	0.977(0.972)	0.964(0.958)	0.947(0.940)
10	0.996(0.997)	0.996(0.996)	0.996(0.995)	0.994(0.995)	0.989(0.990)	0.982(0.975)	0.971(0.965)	0.955(0.952)
12				0.997(0.997)	0.994(0.995)	0.988(0.987)	0.980(0.977)	0.967(0.966)
14					0.996(0.997)	0.992(0.991)	0.986(0.986)	0.976(0.974)
16						0.995(0.995)	0.990(0.991)	0.982(0.982)
18						0.997(0.996)	0.993(0.992)	0.987(0.986)
20							0.995(0.994)	0.990(0.991)

^aThe numbers in parentheses are based on a simulation study with 2000 replications for each case.

$\{k\Delta^2: k = \dots, -1, 0, 1, \dots\}$, which explains why the approximation (11) is good even for Δ not too small. To see how a departure from normality affects the accuracy of the approximation, we considered eight contaminated normal distributions, $f(\cdot, \theta) = (1 - \epsilon)N(\theta, 1) + \epsilon N(\theta, \sigma^2)$ with $(\epsilon, \sigma) = (0.05, 2), (0.05, 3), (0.05, 5), (0.1, 3), (0.2, 3), (0.3, 3), (0.4, 3)$ and $(0.5, 3)$. A simulation study was carried out with $\Delta = 1.5$ and 2000 replications for each case. The simulation results (with standard deviations less than one-half of 1%) are given in parentheses in Table 2. Except for $k = 0$, the approximation is better in the first five cases than in the last three. This indicates that the approximation may not be as good if the density $f(\cdot, \theta)$ is far from normality.

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DEPARTMENT OF STATISTICS
COLORADO STATE UNIVERSITY
FORT COLLINS, COLORADO 80523