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Quantal Response: Practical Sensitivity Testing

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Sensitivity testing, or analysis of a binary quantal response to a continuous stimulus, has historically been modeled from first principles by assuming a single simple parameterization and imposing the form of a specific cumulative distribution function on the response. Application of the Generalized Linear Model approach admits arbitrary response functions and model complexity in a unified framework and subsumes the historical approach as a specific case. Estimation, hypothesis testing, and confidence interval computations are provided. Application to V50 ballistic limit armor acceptance testing is presented.
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1. Background

The response \((y)\) of an armor target to a ballistic threat can be characterized as penetration \((y = 1)\) or non-penetration \((y = 0)\). This is called a binary quantal response (QR), since there are exactly two possible outcomes. All other factors being constant, one may consider the effect of threat velocity (the stimulus) upon penetration (the response). The basic model for this interaction is that penetration is random, shots are independent, and that the probability of penetration is some function \(G(v)\) of velocity,

\[
\Pr[y = 1 \mid v] = G(v). \tag{1}
\]

So \(y\) has a Bernoulli distribution conditional on velocity with Bernoulli parameter \(G(v)\). Of course, \(G\) is bound between 0 and 1, and one expects that \(G\) is an increasing function of \(v\). Thus, \(G\) has the functional form of a cumulative distribution function (cdf).

Of particular interest is the \(v_{50}\), that velocity for which the probability of penetration equals 1/2.

\[
G(v_{50}) = 0.5 \tag{2}
\]

Analyses of the \(v_{50}\) and other quantities of interest are conducted by collecting samples of penetration responses and velocities, estimating the function \(G\), and performing statistical inference on the results. This general paradigm is commonly known as “sensitivity analysis.”

2. The Location-Scale Sensitivity Model

Quantal response (penetration) \(y \in \{0,1\}\) to a continuous stimulus (velocity) \(v\) was originally modeled by using the standard normal cdf for a response function

\[
G_o(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{z} \exp(-u^2/2) \, du \tag{3}
\]

and then estimating parameters \(m\) and \(s\) in the model

\[
E[y \mid v] = G_o \left( \frac{v - m}{s} \right) = \Pr[y = 1 \mid v], \tag{4}
\]

where \(y\) has the indicated Bernoulli distribution, by the method of maximum likelihood (ML). This is the location-scale parameterization. In general, cdfs \(G_o\) of location-scale distributions have the form
$$G_\theta(v) = G_o\left(\frac{v-\mu}{\sigma}\right),$$  \hspace{1cm} (5)

where $G_o$ is a standardized cdf. Then the parameter vector is $\theta = \left[\begin{array}{c} \mu \\ \sigma \end{array}\right]$, where the location parameter is $\mu$ and the scale parameter is $\sigma$.

The aim of analysis is to estimate the parameter $\theta$ and then make inferences and perform statistical tests on meaningful population parameters such as $v_{50}$. With $G_o$ chosen such that $G_o(0) = 0.5$, then $G_\theta(\mu) = 0.5$ and $\mu = v_{50}$. Thus, inferences on the parameter $\mu$ are, in fact, inferences on $v_{50}$.

3. **The Linear Sensitivity Model**

Response (penetration) $y \in \{0,1\}$ has expected value depending on stimulus (velocity) $v$,

$$E[y \mid v] = G_o(b_0 + b_1 v).$$  \hspace{1cm} (6)

The conditional distribution of $y$ is Bernoulli with the indicated mean, so

$$E[y \mid v] = G_o(b_0 + b_1 v) = \Pr[y = 1 \mid v].$$  \hspace{1cm} (7)

If $G_o$ is an increasing function, then the response function $G_o$ must be a cdf.

This is a linear parameterization,

$$G_\beta(v) = G_o(b_0 + b_1 v),$$  \hspace{1cm} (8)

and the parameter vector is $\beta = \left[\begin{array}{c} b_0 \\ b_1 \end{array}\right]$. To admit additional complexity, these models recognize the argument of $G_o$ as a polynomial and thus have

$$E[y \mid v] = G_o(b_0 + b_1 v + b_2 v^2 + \cdots + b_k v^k)$$  \hspace{1cm} (9)

for finite $k$, where $k = 1$ in the previous example.
4. Generalized Linear Model (GLM) Estimation

Quantal response function estimation can be implemented using the Generalized Linear Model (GLM) with binomial response distribution and appropriate link functions. (See, for example, McCulloch and Searle.\(^1\))

The response \( y \) has expected value depending on stimulus \( X \) and \( \beta \) (both vectors)

\[
E[y \mid X] = G_o(X\beta).
\]  
(10)

The distribution of \( y \) is Bernoulli with the indicated mean, so

\[
E[y \mid X] = G_o(X\beta) = \Pr[y = 1 \mid X]
\]  
(11)

For sensitivity modeling the link function \( G_o \) is usually taken to be a continuous cdf. Some authors call the inverse function \( Q_o = G_o^{-1} \) the link.

GLM estimates the linear coefficients \( \beta \) in the linear model

\[
Q_o E[y \mid X] = X\beta.
\]  
(12)

Common choices for \( G_o \) include the normal cdf (probit link)

\[
G_o(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{z} \exp(-u^2/2) \, du
\]  
(13)

and the logistic cdf (logit link)

\[
G_o(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}.
\]  
(14)

5. Reparameterization

Estimation and inference on the location-scale parameter \( \theta \) is of particular interest, since \( \mu = \nu_{50} \), but the usual GLM estimate provides the linear parameter \( \beta \) and its variance estimate \( V_{\beta} \). Since

---

\[ b_0 + b_1 v = \frac{v - \mu}{\sigma} = -\frac{\mu}{\sigma} + \frac{1}{\sigma} v, \quad (15) \]

the location-scale parameter is obtained by

\[
\theta = \begin{bmatrix} \mu \\ \sigma \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -b_0/b_1 \\ 1/b_1 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (16)
\]

The location-scale variance estimate is given by the variance transformation of equation C-19 in appendix C.

\[
V_\theta = \frac{d\theta^t}{d\beta} \cdot V_\beta \cdot \frac{d\theta}{d\beta}. \quad (17)
\]

The required derivative is

\[
\frac{d\theta}{d\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} d\mu/db_0 \\ d\mu/db_1 \\ d\sigma/db_0 \\ d\sigma/db_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1/b_1 \\ 0 \\ b_0/b_1^2 \\ -1/b_1^2 \end{bmatrix} = -\frac{1}{b_1^2} \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ -b_0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (18)
\]

In practice, to avoid numerical instability, computations are conducted using the standardized stimulus

\[
u = \frac{v - v_m}{v_s}, \quad (19)\]

where \(v_m\) and \(v_s\) are, respectively, the sample mean and standard deviation of \(v\), and the parameter vector is \(\alpha = [a_0, a_1]\) so that

\[
a_0 + a_1 u = \left( a_0 - \frac{a_1 v_m}{v_s} \right) + \frac{a_1}{v_s} v = b_0 + b_1 v = \frac{v - \mu}{\sigma} = -\frac{\mu}{\sigma} + \frac{1}{\sigma} v. \quad (20)\]

Thus, the location-scale parameter \(\theta\) and its variance estimate \(V_\theta\) can be recovered from the standardized linear parameter \(\alpha\) and its variance estimate \(V_\alpha\). These are

\[
\theta = \begin{bmatrix} \mu \\ \sigma \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} v_m - v_s a_0/a_1 \\ v_s/a_1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (21)
\]

and
\[ V_\theta = \frac{d\theta^t}{d\alpha} \cdot V_\alpha \cdot \frac{d\theta}{d\alpha}, \]  

(22)

where

\[
\frac{d\theta}{d\alpha} = \begin{bmatrix} d\mu / d\alpha_0 & d\sigma / d\alpha_0 \\ d\mu / d\alpha_1 & d\sigma / d\alpha_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -v_s / a_1 & 0 \\ v_s a_0 / a_1^2 & -v_s / a_1^2 \end{bmatrix} = -v_s \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & 0 \\ -a_0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}. \]  

(23)

Also, if need be, the usual linear parameter \( \beta \) and its variance estimate \( V_\beta \) can be recovered from the standardized linear parameter \( \alpha \) and its variance estimate \( V_\alpha \). These are

\[ \beta = \begin{bmatrix} b_0 \\ b_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_0 - a_1 v_m / v_s \\ a_1 / v_s \end{bmatrix} \]  

(24)

and

\[ V_\beta = \frac{d\beta^t}{d\alpha} \cdot V_\alpha \cdot \frac{d\beta}{d\alpha}, \]  

(25)

where

\[
\frac{d\beta}{d\alpha} = \begin{bmatrix} db_0 / d\alpha_0 & db_1 / d\alpha_0 \\ db_0 / d\alpha_1 & db_1 / d\alpha_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -v_m / v_s & 1 / v_s \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{v_s} \begin{bmatrix} v_s & 0 \\ -v_m & 1 \end{bmatrix}. \]  

(26)

### 6. Confidence Intervals

First, consider velocity confidence intervals on \( v_p \) for fixed probability of penetration \( p \) (see figure 1). The response function gives probability of penetration at velocity \( v \),

\[ G_\theta(v) = G_\sigma \left( \frac{v - \mu}{\sigma} \right), \text{ where } \theta = \begin{bmatrix} \mu \\ \sigma \end{bmatrix}. \]  

(27)

The nominal point estimate of \( v_p \), the velocity at which the probability of penetration is \( p \), is expressed in terms of the quantile function \( Q = G^{-1} \) as

\[ v_p = Q_\theta(p) = \mu + \sigma Q_\sigma(p) = K\theta, \text{ where } K = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & Q_\sigma(p) \end{bmatrix}. \]  

(28)

Confidence intervals are calculated from the estimator distribution \( \theta \sim N_2(M_\theta, V_\theta) \). So

\[ K\theta = N(KM_\theta, KV_\theta K^t). \]  

(29)
Since $K\theta \sim KM_0 + \sqrt{KV_0 K^\top} \cdot Z$ with $Z \sim N(0,1)$, it follows that a $100(1 - \alpha)$% two-sided confidence interval on $v_p$ is given in the usual manner by

\[
\left[ KM_0 - \sqrt{KV_0 K^\top} \cdot Z_{1-\alpha/2} \text{ and } KM_0 + \sqrt{KV_0 K^\top} \cdot Z_{1-\alpha/2} \right].
\] (30)

The quantile point $Z_q$ of the standard normal distribution satisfies $\Pr[Z \leq Z_q] = q$.

It is also possible to calculate confidence intervals on the probability of penetration $p$ for fixed velocity $v$ (see figure 2). Start with the linear parameterization of the response

\[
G_\theta(v) = G_\theta(b_0 + b_1 v) = G_\theta(K\beta), \text{ where } K = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & v \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \beta = \begin{bmatrix} b_0 \\ b_1 \end{bmatrix}.
\] (31)

Confidence intervals are calculated from the estimator distribution $\beta \sim N_2(M_\beta, V_\beta)$. So

\[
KM_\beta = N(KM_\beta, KV_\beta K^\top).
\] (32)
Since $K\beta \sim KM_{\beta} + \sqrt{KV_{\beta}K^t} \cdot Z$ where, again, $Z \sim N(0,1)$, it follows that a $100(1 - \alpha)\%$ two-sided confidence interval on $p$ is given by

$$\left[ G_o \left( KM_{\beta} - \sqrt{KV_{\beta}K^t} \cdot Z_{1-\alpha/2} \right) \right] \text{ and } G_o \left( KM_{\beta} + \sqrt{KV_{\beta}K^t} \cdot Z_{1-\alpha/2} \right). \tag{33}$$

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7. **Hypothesis Testing**

The theory of appendix B provides a means for hypothesis tests on response curve parameters, and, in particular, for comparing $v_{50}$ estimates against each other.

The quadratic forms derived from asymptotic normal distributions of maximum likelihood estimators are known as *Wald’s Statistics*, and the tests are called *Wald’s Tests*. 

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Figure 2. Estimate and normal theory $p$ confidence intervals.
Suppose that \( n \) experiments and have given \( n \) response curve parameter estimates \( \{ \hat{\theta}_i: i = 1, \ldots, n \} \) with, for example, the probit (cumulative normal) response function in terms of the usual location-scale parameter \( \theta = [\mu \sigma] \), where \( \hat{\theta}_i = [m_{i1} \; s_{i1}] \). So the model for the response is cumulative normal with mean \( \mu \) and standard deviation \( \sigma \).

Since the mean is the median, \( \mu = \nu_{50} \). The other parameter \( \sigma \) characterized the steepness of the response curve. Inferences about the parameters are inferences about \( \nu_{50} \) and the steepness of the response. So there are \( n \) sets of estimates and their covariance matrices. For \( i = 1, \ldots, n \),

\[
\hat{\theta}_i = \begin{bmatrix} m_{i1} \\ s_{i1} \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{\nu}_i = \begin{bmatrix} \nu_{i11} & \nu_{i12} \\ \nu_{i12} & \nu_{i22} \end{bmatrix}.
\tag{34}
\]

In terms of appendix B,

\[
X = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\theta}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \hat{\theta}_n \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad V = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\nu}_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \hat{\nu}_n \end{bmatrix},
\tag{35}
\]

and the test is constructed by choosing \( K \) (called a contrast matrix in this context) to compare certain elements of \( X \).

\[
H_0: KX = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad H_1: KX \neq 0.
\tag{36}
\]

The test statistic is the associated quadratic form

\[
S = (KX)^t (KVK^t)^{-1} KX.
\tag{37}
\]

Under the null hypothesis, the distribution of \( S \) is central chi-square

\[
S \sim \chi^2_r,
\tag{38}
\]

and the alternative distribution with true parameter value \( \theta = M \) is noncentral chi-square

\[
S \sim \chi^2_{r, \delta},
\tag{39}
\]

where \( r = \text{rank} K \) and the noncentrality parameter is \( \delta = (KM)^t (KVK^t)^{-1} KM \).

Note: Any random variable \( Z \) has cumulative distribution function (cdf) \( F_Z(t) = \Pr [Z \leq t] \) and quantile function \( Q_Z(u) = \inf \{ x: F_Z(x) \geq u \} \).

A test with type I error (probability of rejecting a true \( H_0 \)) equal to \( \alpha \) has critical value \( S_0 \), where
\[ \alpha = \Pr[S > S_0 \mid H_0] , \quad (40) \]

since large values of \( S \) are significant, and \( S \) exceeds \( S_0 \) with \( H_0 \)-probability \( \alpha \). Thus, the critical value is given by

\[ S_0 = Q_{\chi^2}^2 (1 - \alpha) . \quad (41) \]

Based on the observed value \( \hat{S} \) of \( S \), the p-value of an experiment is

\[ p = \Pr[S > \hat{S} \mid H_0] = 1 - F_{\chi^2} (\hat{S}) . \quad (42) \]

The decision rule is to reject \( H_0 \) if \( \hat{S} > S_0 \), or, equivalently, if \( p < \alpha \).

For a fixed alternative \( \theta = M \) with \( KM \neq 0 \), the type II error \( \beta \) is the probability of not rejecting the null hypothesis \( H_0 \) under \( H_1 \), when \( H_0 \) is false,

\[ \beta = \Pr[S < S_0 \mid H_1] = F_{\chi^2}^{\hat{S}} (S_0) = F_{\chi^2}^{\hat{S}} \left( Q_{\chi^2}^2 (1 - \alpha) \right) . \quad (43) \]

The power \( q \) of the test is the probability of detecting the alternative,

\[ q = 1 - \beta = 1 - F_{\chi^2}^{\hat{S}} (S_0) = 1 - F_{\chi^2}^{\hat{S}} \left( Q_{\chi^2}^2 (1 - \alpha) \right) . \quad (44) \]

Illustrations of specific tests follow. The test for \( \nu_{50} \) equality is

\[ H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2 \text{ and } H_1: \mu_1 \neq \mu_2 . \quad (45) \]

The contrast is

\[ K = [1 \quad 0 \quad -1 \quad 0 \quad \ldots] . \quad (46) \]

Then

\[ KK^t = m_1 - m_2 \quad \text{and} \quad KV = v_{111} + v_{211} . \quad (47) \]

and the quadratic form test statistic is

\[ S = \frac{(m_1 - m_2)^2}{v_{111} + v_{211}} \sim \chi^2_1 . \quad (48) \]

Under the alternative hypothesis with true difference in mean \( \mu_1 - \mu_2 = \Delta \), the test statistic has the noncentral chi-square distribution
\[ S \sim \chi_{1, \delta}^2, \]  
where  
\[ \delta = \frac{\Lambda^2}{\nu_{111} + \nu_{211}}, \]  
and the test has power  
\[ q = 1 - \beta = 1 - F_{\chi_{1, \delta}^2} (S_0) = 1 - F_{\chi_{1, \delta}^2} \left( Q_{\chi_{1}^2}(1 - \alpha) \right). \]  

To compare response curves for location and scale, test  
\[ H_0: (\mu_1, \sigma_1) = (\mu_2, \sigma_2) \text{ and } H_1: (\mu_1, \sigma_1) \neq (\mu_2, \sigma_2) \]  
and use the contrast  
\[ K = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & \ldots \end{bmatrix}. \]  
The test statistic \( S \) is \( \chi_2^2 \), with \( d_m = m_1 - m_2 \) and \( d_s = s_1 - s_2 \).  
\[ S = \frac{d_s^2(v_{111} - v_{211}) - 2d_s d_m (v_{112} - v_{212}) + d_m^2(v_{122} - v_{222})}{(v_{111} - v_{211})(v_{122} - v_{222}) - (v_{112} + v_{212})^2}. \]  

To compare four \( v_{50} \) estimates, one can safely discard the \( \sigma \) information and use \( v_i = v_{ii} \) in  
\[ X = \begin{bmatrix} m_1 \\ m_2 \\ m_3 \\ m_4 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } V = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & v_2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & v_3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & v_4 \end{bmatrix}. \]  
Tests for pairwise comparisons are as those just presented.  
\[ H_0: \mu_i = \mu_j \text{ and } H_1: \mu_i \neq \mu_j, \]  
where
To compare all four \( v_{50} \) estimates,

\[ H_0: (\forall i, j) \mu_i = \mu_j \quad \text{and} \quad H_1: (\exists i, j) \mu_i \neq \mu_j. \]  

(58)

Use

\[ K = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \]  

(59)

or, equivalently,

\[ K = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}. \]  

(60)

Both give the same \( S \sim \chi^2_2 \). The explicit form is tedious, but reasonable software works directly with the matrices anyway.

To compare the first against the mean of the other three,

\[ H_0: \mu_1 = (\mu_2 + \mu_3 + \mu_4)/3 \quad \text{and} \quad H_1: \mu_1 \neq (\mu_2 + \mu_3 + \mu_4)/3, \]  

(61)

use

\[ K = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 & -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}. \]  

(62)

Then \( S \sim \chi^2_1 \).

---

### 8. Computation

A historical implementation of quantal response computation has been documented by McKaig and Thomas.\(^2\) The original computations involved were derived from first principles. (See, for example, DARCOM P 706-103.\(^3\) The code (written in FORTRAN) must be compiled for use on each particular platform. The modern approach in this report uses GLM explicitly. (See appendix E for details on Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE) for the GLM.) This technique provides computationally stable solutions for polynomial type models by iterated systems of linear

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GLM estimation is implemented by iterative reweighted least squares (IRLS) maximization of
the deviance function (which is linearly related to the log likelihood). For the natural link, in this
case logit, IRLS is equivalent to the Newton-Raphson method of solving the MLE score equation
\[
\mathcal{L}'(\beta) = 0 ,
\]  
(63)
where \( \mathcal{L} = -\log L \). The estimator sequence \( \{\beta_i: i = 0,1,2 \ldots \} \) begins with an initial guess \( \beta_0 \).
Subsequent elements are generated by solution of the linear differential approximation
\[
\mathcal{L}'(\beta_i) + (\beta_{i+1} - \beta_i) \mathcal{L}''(\beta_i) = 0.
\]  
(64)
For the other links, IRLS is equivalent to Fisher scoring, another method for obtaining the MLE,
in which the Hessian matrix \( \mathcal{L}'' \) is replaced by its expected value
\[
\mathcal{L}'(\beta_i) + (\beta_{i+1} - \beta_i) \text{E}[\mathcal{L}''(\beta_i)] = 0.
\]  
(65)
In all cases, some stopping rule determines termination of the estimation sequence.
This stripped-down Java program illustrates the Fisher update algorithm computation for the logistic model. The linear parameter estimate is $b$, and the information matrix is $M$ in the code.

```java
// QrDemo.java

import static java.lang.Math.*;

public class QrDemo {
    public QrDemo(int n, double[] x, int[] y) {
        double d, dev, dev0=Double.POSITIVE_INFINITY, v, w, A[]={0, 0},
        M[]={0,0,(0,0)}, mu[]=new double[n], eta[]=new double[n], b[]={0,0};
        for (int iterations = 1; iterations <= 64; iterations++) {
            dev = 0;
            for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
                eta[i] = b[0] + b[1] * x[i];
                mu[i] = 1/(1+exp(-eta[i]));
                dev += y[i] == 1 ? log(mu[i]) : log(1-mu[i]);
            }
            dev *= -2;
            System.out.printf("%2d: dev = %23.16e , b[] = (%23.16e, %23.16e)\n",
                iterations, dev, b[0], b[1]);
            if (abs((dev0-dev)/dev) < 1e-16) { break; }
            dev0 = dev;
            for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
                v = mu[i] * (1 - mu[i]);
                w = y[i] - mu[i];
                A[0] += w;
                A[1] += w * x[i];
                M[0][0] += v;
                M[0][1] += v * x[i];
                M[1][1] += v * x[i] * x[i];
            }
            d = M[0][0]*M[1][1] - M[0][1]*M[0][1];
            b[0] += ( A[0]*M[1][1] - A[1]*M[0][1] ) / d;
            b[1] += ( - A[0]*M[0][1] + A[1]*M[0][0] ) / d;
        }
        System.out.printf("b[] = (%1.5f %1.5f)\n", b[0], b[1]);
    }

    public static void main(String args[]) {
        int n=10;
        double x[]= { 2620, 2667, 2717, 2718, 2721, 2724, 2744, 2811, 2840, 3020};
        int y[]= { 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 1};
        new QrDemo(n, x, y);
    }
}
```

/// End of QrDemo.java

---

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Compiling and running the program exposes the deviance convergence and estimator sequence.

$ javac QrDemo.java
$ java QrDemo

1: dev = 1.3862943611198906e+01, b[] = (0.0000000000000000e+00, 0.0000000000000000e+00)
2: dev = 9.4193618456986190e+00, b[] = (-3.2157347360933600e+01, 1.1658816396959381e+02)
3: dev = 8.1371858801278300e+00, b[] = (-5.9172217594741300e+01, 2.1560778235030360e+02)
4: dev = 7.6605663092878600e+00, b[] = (-8.6314382325022158e+01, 3.5179282803824540e+02)
5: dev = 7.5591856884309470e+00, b[] = (-1.1142261623953550e+02, 4.0736195954769690e+02)
6: dev = 7.5590754128675300e+00, b[] = (-1.1213096248281227e+02, 4.0965020516739340e+02)
7: dev = 7.5590754128675300e+00, b[] = (-1.1213779766541855e+02, 4.0998818950062040e+02)
8: dev = 7.5590754128675300e+00, b[] = (-1.1213779829230498e+02, 4.0998812125193500e+02)
9: dev = 7.5590754128675300e+00, b[] = (-1.1213779829230532e+02, 4.0998812125193630e+02)
10: dev = 7.5590754128675300e+00, b[] = (-1.1213779829230532e+02, 4.0998812125193710e+02)
11: dev = 7.5590754128675300e+00, b[] = (-1.1213779829230532e+02, 4.0998812125193710e+02)
12: dev = 7.5590754128675300e+00, b[] = (-1.1213779829230532e+02, 4.0998812125193710e+02)
13: dev = 7.5590754128675300e+00, b[] = (-1.1213779829230532e+02, 4.0998812125193710e+02)

b[] = (-112.13780 0.04100)

9. Applications

The code can be extended to compute parameter, variance, and correlation estimates for different parameterizations and display the results along with a Lower Confidence Bound (LCB) on the $v_{50}$. This example implements the logit link with Fisher scoring optimization, using data with stimulus (velocity) in the first column and response (penetration) in the second column:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stimulus</th>
<th>Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>600.000</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>579.500</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>580.400</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>616.400</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>626.200</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>627.000</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>599.800</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>614.900</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>613.100</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>575.000</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In practice, one works with the standardized predictor $u$ and linear parameter $a[] = \alpha = (a_0, a_1)$ of section 5 and computes its variance $V_\alpha = V_a$ and correlation $R_\alpha$.

\[
a[] = (-0.19415, 2.2279), V_\alpha = (0.88564, -0.35817, . , 1.7373), R_\alpha = -0.28876
\]

Transformations provide the usual linear and location-scale parameterizations $b[] = \beta$ and $ms[] = (\mu, \sigma) = \theta$ and their variances $V_\beta = V_b$ and $V_{ms} = V_\theta$ and correlations.

\[
b[] = (-73.045, 0.12077), V_b = (1881.9, -3.0988, . , 0.0051048),
\]
\[ R_b = -0.99978 \]

\[
 ms[] = ( 604.84, 8.2804 ),
 Vms = ( 57.348, -6.3638, . , 23.998 ),
 Rms = -0.17154
\]

Logit Response Parameters: \(( \mu , \sigma ) = ( 604.84, 8.2804 )\)

The location-scale version is required for confidence bounds on \(v_{50}\), since its standard deviation comes from \(V_\theta\). The standard normal 95% quantile \(Z_{95} = 1.645\) gives a 95% LCB on \(v_{50}\).

\[
 V_{50} \text{ estimate } = \mu = 604.84
\]

\[
 \text{V50 standard deviation } = SD.\mu = 7.5728
\]

\[
 95\% \text{ LCB on } V_{50} = \mu - SD.\mu * Z_{95} = 592.38
\]

Computations must take place in one of the linear versions, and the standardized version avoids numerical problems caused by collinearity, as indicated by the extreme correlation \(R_b\) of the raw linear version.

LangMod (Collins and Moss\(^4\)) is a Java GUI implementation of a modified Langlie sequential strategy for quantal response testing. LangMod has been used to support various customer and research programs for testing personal protective equipment as well as ground and aircraft targets. LangMod incorporates (among other things) the logistic regression calculations developed in this report and displays QR calculation results and a graph of the data and response function estimate as shown in figure 3.

---

Figure 3. Quantal response from LangMod.

Similar capabilities are implemented in a local S-PLUS library, `libv50`, which has been used in support of various projects (see, for example, Collins et al.\textsuperscript{5}). This library uses the native S-PLUS GLM computations. For example, in S-PLUS, the GLM computation can be implemented as

```r
fit <- glm(x~v, family=binomial (link=logit), data=z)
```

where the data frame z contains stimulus velocity v and response penetration x ∈ \{0,1\}. Then, `glm` returns model coefficient estimates $\beta = (b_0, b_1)$ in `fit$coefficients` and estimated parameter variance matrix $V_\beta$ in `summary(fit)$cov.unscaled`. The library implements the reparameterization, hypothesis testing, and confidence interval procedures outlined in this report. The computations and graphics for figures 1 and 2 were generated by `libv50`.

Appendix A. Vector Function Conventions

A.1 Notation

Vectors are columns. With \( x \in \mathbb{R}^n \),

\[
x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix},
\]

and if \( f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^k \), then \( f(x) \in \mathbb{R}^k \) and

\[
f(x) = \begin{bmatrix} f_1(x) \\ f_2(x) \\ \vdots \\ f_k(x) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} f_1(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \\ f_2(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \\ \vdots \\ f_k(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \end{bmatrix}.
\]

If \( A \) is an \( n \times k \) matrix, the \( a_{ij} \) denotes the element in row \( i \) and column \( j \). The transpose of \( A \),

\[
B = A^t,
\]

is a \( k \times n \) matrix and has \( b_{ij} = a_{ji} \).

A.2 Inner Products and Norms

The usual inner product is

\[
\langle x, y \rangle = x^t y = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i y_i,
\]

and a weighted inner product is

\[
\langle x, y \rangle_W = x^t W y = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_i w_{ij} y_j.
\]

The associated (squared) norms are

\[
\|x\|^2 = \langle x, x \rangle = x^t x = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2.
\]
\[ \|x\|^2_W = x^t W x = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_i w_{ij} x_j. \]  
(A-7)

In the event that \( W \) is a diagonal matrix,

\[ (x, y)_W = x^t W y = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i w_{ii} y_i, \]  
(A-8)

and

\[ \|x\|^2_W = (x, x)_W = \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{ii} x_i^2. \]  
(A-9)

### A.3 Derivatives

The derivative of \( f \) is the \( n \times k \) matrix function in which column \( j \) is the derivative \( df_j/dx \) of the coordinate \( j \) scalar field \( f_j \). So the element in row \( i \) and column \( j \) is \( df_j/dx_i \), and the derivative is

\[
\frac{d}{dx} f(x) = \begin{bmatrix}
\frac{df_1}{dx_1} & \frac{df_2}{dx_1} & \ldots & \frac{df_k}{dx_1} \\
\frac{df_1}{dx_2} & \frac{df_2}{dx_2} & \ldots & \frac{df_k}{dx_2} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
\frac{df_1}{dx_n} & \frac{df_2}{dx_n} & \ldots & \frac{df_k}{dx_n}
\end{bmatrix}.  
\]  
(A-10)

In particular, the derivative of a scalar field \( f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R} \) is a column vector

\[
\frac{df}{dx} = \begin{bmatrix}
\frac{df}{dx_1} \\
\frac{df}{dx_2} \\
\vdots \\
\frac{df}{dx_n}
\end{bmatrix}.  
\]  
(A-11)

The linearization of \( f \) at \( x_o \) is
If $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^k$ is given by a linear transformation with $k \times n$ matrix $A$,

$$f(x) = Ax = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{k1} & a_{k2} & \cdots & a_{kn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_{j=1}^n a_{1j}x_j \\ \Sigma_{j=1}^n a_{2j}x_j \\ \vdots \\ \Sigma_{j=1}^n a_{kj}x_j \end{bmatrix}.$$ 

Then the derivative is the $n \times k$ matrix

$$\frac{df}{dx} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{k1} \\ a_{12} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{k2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{1n} & a_{2n} & \cdots & a_{kn} \end{bmatrix} = A^t,$$ 

and $f(x_o + \delta) = f(x_o) + A\delta$, as expected.

$$f(x) = x^tA = [x_1 \ x_2 \ \cdots \ x_n] \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1k} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{k1} & a_{k2} & \cdots & a_{nk} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_{i=1}^n x_ia_{i1} \\ \Sigma_{i=1}^n x_ia_{i2} \\ \vdots \\ \Sigma_{i=1}^n x_ia_{ik} \end{bmatrix}.$$ 

Then the derivative is the $n \times k$ matrix

$$\frac{df}{dx} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1k} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \cdots & a_{nk} \end{bmatrix} = A.$$

So derivatives of inner products and (squared) norms are

$$\frac{d}{dx}(x,y) = \frac{d}{dx}(y,x) = y,$$ 

$$\frac{d}{dx}(x,y)_W = W'y \text{ and } \frac{d}{dx}(y,x)_W = W^ty,$$ 

$$\frac{d}{dx} \|x\|^2 = 2x.$$
\[ \frac{d}{dx} \|x\|_W^2 = (W + W^t)x, \]  
(A-20)

and

\[ \frac{d}{dx} \|x - a\|_W^2 = (W + W^t)(x - a). \]  
(A-21)

Some second derivatives are

\[ \frac{d^2}{dxx^t} \|x\|^2 = 2I \]  
(A-22)

and

\[ \frac{d^2}{dxx^t} \|x\|_W^2 = W + W^t. \]  
(A-23)

**A.4 The Chain Rule**

If \( x \) itself is a function with \( x: \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \), write \( x = x(u) \in \mathbb{R}^n \) for \( u \in \mathbb{R}^m \).

Then \( g = f \circ x: \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k \) and the elements of the \( m \times k \) matrix \( \frac{dg}{du} \) are \( \frac{dg}{du_i} = \sum_{p=1}^n \frac{df_j}{dx_p} \frac{dx_p}{du_i} \) for \( i = 1, \ldots, m \) and \( j = 1, \ldots, k \). So, the derivative of \( g \) is

\[ \frac{dg}{du} = \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{p=1}^n \frac{df_1}{dx_p} \frac{dx_p}{du_1} & \sum_{p=1}^n \frac{df_2}{dx_p} \frac{dx_p}{du_1} & \cdots & \sum_{p=1}^n \frac{df_k}{dx_p} \frac{dx_p}{du_1} \\ \sum_{p=1}^n \frac{df_1}{dx_p} \frac{dx_p}{du_2} & \sum_{p=1}^n \frac{df_2}{dx_p} \frac{dx_p}{du_2} & \cdots & \sum_{p=1}^n \frac{df_k}{dx_p} \frac{dx_p}{du_2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \sum_{p=1}^n \frac{df_1}{dx_p} \frac{dx_p}{du_m} & \sum_{p=1}^n \frac{df_2}{dx_p} \frac{dx_p}{du_m} & \cdots & \sum_{p=1}^n \frac{df_k}{dx_p} \frac{dx_p}{du_m} \end{bmatrix} \]

\[ = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{dx_1}{du_1} & \frac{dx_2}{du_1} & \cdots & \frac{dx_n}{du_1} \\ \frac{dx_1}{du_2} & \frac{dx_2}{du_2} & \cdots & \frac{dx_n}{du_2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{dx_1}{du_m} & \frac{dx_2}{du_m} & \cdots & \frac{dx_n}{du_m} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{df_1}{dx_1} & \frac{df_2}{dx_1} & \cdots & \frac{df_k}{dx_1} \\ \frac{df_1}{dx_2} & \frac{df_2}{dx_2} & \cdots & \frac{df_k}{dx_2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{df_1}{dx_n} & \frac{df_2}{dx_n} & \cdots & \frac{df_k}{dx_n} \end{bmatrix} = \frac{dx}{du} \cdot \frac{df}{dx}. \]  
(A-24)
Thus follows the chain rule for vector fields

$$\frac{d}{du} f(x(u)) = \frac{d}{du} x(u) \cdot \frac{d}{dx} f(x)|_{x=x(u)}. \quad (A-25)$$

In particular, with $x = f^{-1}$ and $f(x(u)) = u$, then $\frac{df}{du} = 1$ and $\frac{df^{-1}}{du} = \left(\frac{d}{dx} f(x)\right)^{-1}|_{x=f^{-1}(u)}$.

Simply write $\frac{df}{du} = \frac{dx}{du} \cdot \frac{df}{dx}$ when $f$ is a function of $x$, which is, in turn, a function of $u$ and write $\frac{dx}{du} = \left(\frac{du}{dx}\right)^{-1}$, in general.

For example,

$$\frac{d}{dx} \|Bx\|^2_w = \frac{d}{dx} (Bx) \cdot (W + W^t)Bx = B^t(W + W^t)Bx, \quad (A-26)$$

and

$$\frac{d}{dx} \|Bx + a\|^2_w = \frac{d}{dx} (Bx) \cdot (W + W^t)(Bx + a) = B^t(W + W^t)(Bx + a). \quad (A-27)$$
INTENTIONALLY LEFT BLANK.
Appendix B. Multivariate Normal Distribution and Quadratic Forms

B.1 Normal Distribution

The vector

\[ X = \begin{bmatrix} X_1 \\ \vdots \\ X_n \end{bmatrix} \]  

has the multivariate normal distribution

\[ X \sim N_n(M, V) , \]  

with mean vector

\[ M = \begin{bmatrix} m_1 \\ \vdots \\ m_n \end{bmatrix} \]  

and covariance matrix

\[ V = \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & \cdots & v_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ v_{n1} & \cdots & v_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \]  

when each \( x_i \) is normally distributed with mean \( m_i \) and variance \( v_{il} \) so that \( x_i \sim N(m_i, v_{il}) \) and the \( x_i \) are related by \( \text{Cov}(x_i, x_j) = v_{ij} \). So, \( EX = M \) and \( \text{Var} X = E[(X - M)(X - M)^t] = V \).

The probability density function (pdf) of \( X \) is \( f(x) \), where

\[ (2\pi)^{n/2}|V|^{1/2} f(x) = \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2} (x - M)^t V^{-1} (x - M) \right] = \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \|x - M\|^2_{V^{-1}} \right]. \]  

In particular, the \( x_i \) are independent if \( V \) is a diagonal matrix. If \( V = vI \) where \( I \) is the identity matrix, then all \( x_i \) have the same variance \( v \). If \( V = I \), then all \( x_i \) have unit variance. If, additionally, \( M = 0 \), then the \( x_i \) are independent standard normal \( N(0,1) \).

For any \( n \)-vector \( A \),

\[ A = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix} . \]  

\( X \) has the translation property
For any linear transformation \( K: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^r \),

\[
K = \begin{bmatrix}
k_{11} & \cdots & k_{1n} \\
\vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
k_{r1} & \cdots & k_{rn}
\end{bmatrix},
\]

the distribution of \( KX \) is

\[
KX \sim N_r(KM, KV K^T).
\]

Useful conditions are that \( V \) is nonsingular (positive-definite) and that \( r \leq n \) and rank \( K = r \), so that \( KV K^T \) is also nonsingular (positive-definite).

### B.2 The Quadratic Form

Associated with each nondegenerate multivariate normal \( X \) is a standard quadratic form which has a central \( \chi^2 \) distribution. Any symmetric positive-definite square matrix \( V \) has a “square root” \( U \) which can be obtained through Choleski, singular value, or spectral decomposition where \( V = UU^T \). Then the inverse \( W = V^{-1} \) can be written as \( W = T^T T \) where \( T = U^{-1} \). Now if \( X \sim N_n(M, V) \), then \( X - M \sim N_n(0, V) \) and \( Z = T(X - M) \sim N_n(0, TVT^T) \). Since \( TVT^T = TUU^T T^T = I \), it follows that \( Z \sim N_n(0, I) \), and the elements of \( Z \) are iid \( N(0, 1) \), so

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{n} z_i^2 = Z^T Z \sim \chi_n^2,
\]

which is chi-squared with \( n \) degrees of freedom. In terms of matrices,

\[
Z^T Z = (T(X - M))^T T(X - M) = (X - M)^T T^T T (X - M) = (X - M)^T W (X - M) = (X - M)V^{-1}(X - M)
\]

is the quadratic form associated with \( X \sim N_n(M, V) \). It has the chi-squared distribution

\[
Z^T Z = (X - M)^T V^{-1}(X - M) \sim \chi_n^2
\]

with \( n \) degrees of freedom.

There is also a noncentral quadratic form associated with \( X \). Suppose now that

\[
X + A \sim N_n(M + A, V).
\]
\[ Y = TX \sim N_n(TM, I) \quad \text{(B-13)} \]

and let
\[ TM = \begin{bmatrix} d_1 \\ \vdots \\ d_n \end{bmatrix}. \quad \text{(B-14)} \]

The \( y_i \) are independent normal \( N(d_i, 1) \), and
\[ \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i^2 \sim \chi^2_{n, \delta}. \quad \text{(B-15)} \]

This is a noncentral chi-squared distribution with noncentrality parameter
\[ \delta = \sum_{i=1}^{n} d_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \text{E}[y_i]^2. \quad \text{(B-16)} \]

In the literature, the noncentrality parameter is variously considered to be \( \delta \) or \( \delta/2 \) or \( \sqrt{\delta} \).

Anyway,
\[ \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i^2 = Y^t Y = (TX)^t TX = X^t T^t T X = X^t W X = X^t V^{-1} X. \quad \text{(B-17)} \]

Furthermore,
\[ \delta = \sum_{i=1}^{n} d_i^2 = (TM)^t TM = M^t T^t T M = M^t V^{-1} M. \quad \text{(B-18)} \]

So the noncentral quadratic form associated with \( X \sim N_n(M, V) \) is
\[ Y^t Y = X^t V^{-1} X \sim \chi^2_{n, M^t V^{-1} M}, \quad \text{(B-19)} \]

which has the noncentral chi-square distribution with \( n \) degrees of freedom and noncentrality parameter \( \delta = M^t V^{-1} M \).

It is possible to combine transformations and quadratic forms. Start with
\[ X \sim N_n(M, V). \quad \text{(B-20)} \]

The transformed centered vector is
\[ K(X - M) \sim N_r(0, KVK^t), \quad \text{(B-21)} \]

and its quadratic form is

\[ [K(X - M)]^t (KVK^t)^{-1} [K(X - M)] \sim \chi_r^2. \quad \text{(B-22)} \]

The transformed (uncentered) vector is

\[ KX \sim N_r(KM, KVK^t), \quad \text{(B-23)} \]

and its quadratic form is

\[ (KX)^t (KVK^t)^{-1} KX \sim \chi_{r,(KM)^t(KVK^t)^{-1}KM}^2, \quad \text{(B-24)} \]

which is noncentral chi-square with \( r \) degree of freedom and noncentrality parameter

\[ \delta = (KM)^t (KVK^t)^{-1} KM. \quad \text{(B-25)} \]
Appendix C. Maximum Likelihood Estimator Distributions

In general, the joint density (likelihood) \( L \) of a sample \( \{X_i\}_{i=1}^n \) depends on a k-dimensional parameter \( \psi = (\psi_1, ..., \psi_k) \), as

\[
L(X_1, ..., X_n; \psi).
\] (C-1)

The log likelihood is denoted \( \mathcal{L} = \log L \). A maximum likelihood estimator \( \hat{\psi} \) of \( \psi \) satisfies

\[
\hat{\psi} = \arg \max L(\psi) = \arg \max \mathcal{L}(\psi).
\] (C-2)

The \( k \times k \) Fisher Information Matrix for the entire sample

\[
M_{\psi} = \mathbb{E} \left[ \left( \frac{d\mathcal{L}}{d\psi} \right) \cdot \left( \frac{d\mathcal{L}}{d\psi} \right)^t \right]
\] (C-3)

has inverse

\[
V_{\psi} = M_{\psi}^{-1}.
\] (C-4)

The asymptotic distribution of the MLE is

\[
\sqrt{n}(\hat{\psi} - \psi) \to N_k(0, nV_{\psi}) \quad \text{as} \quad n \to \infty
\]

\[
\hat{\psi} \sim N_k(\psi, V_{\psi}).
\] (C-5)

If the samples are independent, then the likelihood is

\[
L = \prod_{i=1}^n f_i(X_i).
\] (C-6)

Its logarithm is

\[
\mathcal{L} = \log L = \sum_{i=1}^n \log f_i(X_i),
\] (C-7)

and the derivative is
\[ \frac{dL}{d\psi} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{d}{d\psi} \log f_i(X_i). \]  

(C-8)

The outer product is

\[ \left( \frac{dL}{d\psi} \right) \cdot \left( \frac{dL}{d\psi} \right)^t = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( \frac{d}{d\psi} \log f_i(X_i) \right) \cdot \left( \frac{d}{d\psi} \log f_i(X_i) \right)^t \]

\[ + \sum_{i \neq j} \left( \frac{d}{d\psi} \log f_i(X_i) \right) \cdot \left( \frac{d}{d\psi} \log f_j(X_j) \right)^t. \]  

(C-9)

As the samples are independent, the information matrix \( M_L \) is

\[ \text{E} \left[ \left( \frac{dL}{d\psi} \right) \cdot \left( \frac{dL}{d\psi} \right)^t \right] = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \text{E} \left[ \left( \frac{d}{d\psi} \log f_i(X_i) \right) \cdot \left( \frac{d}{d\psi} \log f_i(X_i) \right)^t \right] \]

\[ + \sum_{i \neq j} \text{E} \left[ \left( \frac{d}{d\psi} \log f_i(X_i) \right) \cdot \text{E} \left[ \left( \frac{d}{d\psi} \log f_j(X_j) \right)^t \right] \right], \]  

(C-10)

and since

\[ \text{E} \left[ \frac{d}{d\psi} \log f \right] = \int \frac{1}{f} \frac{df}{d\psi} f = \int \frac{df}{d\psi} = \frac{d}{d\psi} \int f = \frac{d}{d\psi} 1 = 0, \]  

(C-11)

the information for the entire sample is

\[ M_\psi = \sum_{i=1}^{n} M_i, \]  

(C-12)

where \( M_i \) is the information matrix for a single observation

\[ M_i = \text{E} \left[ \left( \frac{d}{d\psi} \log f_i(X_i) \right) \cdot \left( \frac{d}{d\psi} \log f_i(X_i) \right)^t \right]. \]  

(C-13)

Furthermore, if the samples are identically distributed, then \( M_\psi = nM_o \), where
\begin{equation}
M_o = E \left[ (\frac{d}{d\psi} \log f(X_o)) \cdot (\frac{d}{d\psi} \log f(X_o))^t \right].
\end{equation}

In this case, with \( V_o = M_o^{-1} \), the variance is \( V_\psi = M_\psi^{-1} = n^{-1}M_o^{-1} = n^{-1}V_o \), and for an iid sample, the result is the usual

\[ \sqrt{n}(\hat{\psi} - \psi) \rightarrow N_k(0, V_o) \quad \text{as} \quad n \rightarrow \infty \]
\[ \hat{\psi} \sim N_k(\psi, n^{-1}V_o). \]

Now consider another parameterization \( \phi \). The chain rule gives

\begin{equation}
\frac{d\mathcal{L}}{d\psi} = \frac{d\phi}{d\psi} \frac{d\mathcal{L}}{d\phi},
\end{equation}

so the information matrix transformation is

\begin{align}
M_\phi &= E \left[ (\frac{d\phi}{d\psi} \frac{d\mathcal{L}}{d\phi}) \cdot (\frac{d\phi}{d\psi} \frac{d\mathcal{L}}{d\phi})^t \right] \\
&= \frac{d\phi}{d\psi} E \left[ \left( \frac{d\mathcal{L}}{d\phi} \right) \cdot \left( \frac{d\mathcal{L}}{d\phi} \right)^t \right] \frac{d\phi}{d\psi} \\
&= \frac{d\phi}{d\psi} M_\phi \frac{d\phi}{d\psi}. 
\end{align}

The chain rule also gives the inverse of a derivative matrix as the derivative of the inverse function, so

\begin{equation}
M_\phi^{-1} = \left( \frac{d\phi}{d\psi} \right)^{-1} M_\phi^{-1} \left( \frac{d\phi}{d\psi} \right)^{-1},
\end{equation}

and the corresponding variance transformation is

\begin{equation}
V_\psi = \frac{d\psi^t}{d\phi} V_\phi \frac{d\psi}{d\phi}.
\end{equation}
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Appendix D. The Linear Model

D.1 The Basic Model

The usual linear model is

\[ Y = X\beta + \epsilon, \quad (D-1) \]

where \( Y \) is an \( n \times 1 \) response, \( X \) is an \( n \times p \) independent matrix, \( \beta \) is a \( p \times 1 \) parameter, and the \( n \times 1 \) error \( \epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2 I_n) \). So \( EY = X\beta \) and \( \text{Var} Y = \sigma^2 I_n \). Each column of \( X \) is a linear predictor, and the model is

\[ y_i = \sum_{j=1}^{p} X_{ij} \beta_j. \quad (D-2) \]

One works with the \( p \)-parameter model for a single predictor \( \nu \) by choosing a set of fixed basis functions \( \{f_1, ..., f_p\} \) and setting \( X_{ij} = f_j(v_i) \).

\[ y_i = \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j f_j(v_i). \quad (D-3) \]

For example, choice of \( f_j(v) = v^{j-i} \) gives the polynomial model

\[ y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \nu + \beta_2 \nu^2 + \cdots + \beta_{p-1} \nu^{p-1}. \quad (D-4) \]

(See equation B-5 in appendix B.) Solution by least squares is equivalent to maximum likelihood for normal error, and the criterion is to choose \( \nu \) that minimizes \( Q = \epsilon^T \epsilon = \|\epsilon\|^2 = \|Y - X\beta\|^2 \) since \( \epsilon = Y - X\beta \). This is

\[ Q = \|Y\|^2 - 2\beta^2 X^T Y + \|X\beta\|^2. \quad (D-5) \]

The solution follows from setting the derivative to 0,

\[ \frac{dQ}{d\beta} = -2X^T Y + 2X^T X\beta = 0, \quad (D-6) \]

to obtain the normal equations.
with solution

\[ \hat{\beta} = (X^t X)^{-1} X^t Y \]  

and response estimate

\[ \hat{Y} = HY, \]

where the so-called hat matrix is

\[ H = X (X^t X)^{-1} X^t. \]

Note that \( E\hat{\beta} = \beta \) and \( \text{Var} \hat{\beta} = \sigma^2 (X^t X)^{-1}. \)

Modern software for linear least-squares estimation operates on equation \( D-7 \) through the response vector \( Y \) and the design matrix \( X \). The normal equations are solved efficiently without inverting the design matrix, and software provides parameter estimates and diagnostics such as the parameter variance and hat matrix diagonal.

**D.2 The Weighted Model**

When the error is \( N(0, \Sigma) \), the correct inner product is weighted by the symmetric \( W = \Sigma^{-1} \), so \( Q = e^t W e = \| e \|^2_w = \| Y - X\beta \|^2_w. \) This is

\[ Q = \| Y \|^2_w - 2\beta^t X^t W Y + \| X\beta \|^2_w. \]  

Then

\[ \frac{dQ}{d\beta} = -2X^t W Y + 2X^t W X\beta = 0. \]  

The normal equation is

\[ X^t W X \beta = X^t W Y. \]  

The solution is

\[ \hat{\beta} = (X^t W X)^{-1} X^t W Y, \]

and the response estimate is \( \hat{Y} = HY, \) where
\[ H = X(X^tWX)^{-1}X^tW. \] (D-15)

Note that \( E\hat{\beta} = \beta \) and \( \text{Var}\hat{\beta} = (X^tWX)^{-1}. \)

Modern software for linear least-squares estimation operates on equation D-13 through the response vector \( Y \), the weight vector \( W \), and the design matrix \( X \). The normal equations are solved efficiently without inverting the design matrix, and software provides parameter estimates and diagnostics such as the parameter variance and hat matrix diagonal.

Note that for these models, the likelihood function is

\[ L(\beta) = (2\pi)^{-n/2} |W|^{1/2} \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \|Y - X\beta\|_W^2 \right]. \] (D-16)

Its log derivative is

\[ \frac{d}{d\beta}\log L(\beta) = X^tW(Y - X\beta), \] (D-17)

and the information matrix is

\[ M_\beta = X^tWX. \] (D-18)
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Appendix E. The Generalized Linear Model

E.1 Model Formulation

In the Generalized Linear Model (GLM), the response $Y$ has an arbitrary distribution, $\eta = X\beta$ is a linear function of the k-dimensional parameter $\beta$, and the mean response is modeled as

$$\mu = E[Y \mid X] = G(\eta)$$  \hspace{1cm} (E-1)

for some monotone link function $G$ with derivative $g = G'$. (Some authors call $G^{-1}$ the link.) Response distributions are taken to be from a single-parameter exponential family, with the form

$$f(y, \theta, \psi) = \exp\left\{ \frac{y\theta - b(\theta)}{a(\psi)} + c(y, \psi) \right\}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (E-2)

The parameter $\theta$ is to be estimated, and $\psi$ is a nuisance parameter.

With $\ell = \log f$, calculate the moments of $Y$ in terms of exponential family components.

$$E\left[ \frac{d}{d\theta} \ell(y, \theta, \psi) \right] = 0$$  \hspace{1cm} (E-3)

because $\int f(y, \theta, \psi)dy = 1$, and under suitable regularity conditions, $0 = \frac{d}{d\theta} \int f(y, \theta, \psi)dy = \int \frac{d}{d\theta} f(y, \theta, \psi)dy = \int \frac{d}{d\theta} \ell(y, \theta, \psi) \cdot f(y, \theta, \psi)dy$. Therefore, $E[(y - b'(\theta))/a(\psi)] = 0$, and

$$E[Y] = \mu = G(\eta) = b'(\theta).$$  \hspace{1cm} (E-4)

Also, as usual,

$$E\left[ \left( \frac{d}{d\theta} \ell(y, \theta, \psi) \right)^2 \right] = -E\left[ \frac{d^2}{d\theta^2} \ell(y, \theta, \psi) \right]$$

because $\text{Var} \left[ \frac{d}{d\theta} \ell \right] = E\left[ \left( \frac{d}{d\theta} \ell \right)^2 \right] = \int \left( \frac{d}{d\theta} \ell \right)^2 \cdot f \, dy = \int \frac{d}{d\theta} \ell \cdot \frac{d}{d\theta} f \, dy = \frac{d}{d\theta} \ell \cdot f \bigg|_{-\infty}^{\infty}$

$$- \int \frac{d^2}{d\theta^2} \ell \cdot f \, dy = -E\left[ \frac{d^2}{d\theta^2} \ell \right].$$  \hspace{1cm} (E-5)

Therefore, $E[(y - \mu)^2/a(\psi)^2] = -E[-b''(\theta)/a(\psi)]$, and
\[ \text{Var} \, Y = v(\mu) a(\psi) = b''(\theta) a(\psi), \]  

\((E-6)\)

where \(v(\mu) = \text{Var}[Y]/a(\psi) = b''(\theta) = g(\eta) \frac{d\eta}{d\theta}.\)

In the case that \(\eta = \theta, \) and hence \(\mu = G(\eta) = G(\theta), \) \(G\) is called the canonical link function.

Then \(\mu = b'(\theta) = G(\theta) = G(\eta) \) and \(v(\mu) = b''(\theta) = g(\theta) = g(\eta).\)

### E.2 Estimation

Let \([x_1 \quad \cdots \quad x_n] = X^t, \) so the (column) vector \(x_i\) is row \(i\) of \(X, \eta_l = x_i^t \beta, \) and \(\theta_i = \theta(\eta_l).\)

Maximum likelihood estimation for the GLM is accomplished by maximizing the log likelihood function

\[ \mathcal{L} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \ell(y_i, \theta_i, \psi) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[ \frac{y_i \theta_i - b(\theta_i)}{a(\psi)} + c(y_i, \psi) \right]. \]  

\((E-7)\)

This is a weighted least-squared problem where the design and weight depend on the unknown parameter, and it can be solved iteratively by the Newton-Raphson method.

#### The Newton-Raphson Method

In one dimension, a zero of \(F\) is obtained by linearizing and updating the current argument \(x_o\) to \(x,\) solving \(F(x_o) + (x - x_o)F'(x_o) = 0\) to get \(x = x_o - F(x_o)/F'(x_o).\) Optimize \(F\) by setting \(F'' = 0,\) so the update is \(x = x_o - F'(x_o)/F''(x_o).\)

The vector version is \(x = x_o - \left[ \frac{d^2}{dxx^t} F(x_o) \right]^{-1} \frac{d}{dx} F(x_o) .\) Taking \(x = x_o + \delta, \) the increment \(\delta = x - x_o \) satisfies \(\left[ \frac{d^2}{dxx^t} F(x_o) \right] \delta = -\frac{d}{dx} F(x_o).\) Some derivatives are required.

#### Gradient

Differentiating gives the gradient (vector of first derivatives)

\[ \mathcal{D}(\beta) = \frac{d\mathcal{L}}{d\beta} = a(\psi)^{-1} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} [y_i - b'(\theta_i)] \cdot \frac{d\theta_i}{d\beta}. \]  

\((E-8)\)

Since \(\frac{d}{d\beta} b'(\theta_i) = b''(\theta_i) \frac{d\theta_i}{d\beta} = v(\mu_i) \frac{d\theta_i}{d\beta} \) and \(\frac{d}{d\beta} b'(\theta_i) = \frac{d}{d\beta} G(\eta_i) = \frac{d}{d\beta} G(x_i^t \beta) = g(\eta_i) x_i, \) then
\[
\frac{d\theta_i}{d\beta} = \frac{g(\eta_i)}{v(\mu_i)} x_i. \tag{E-9}
\]

So the gradient is

\[
\mathcal{D}(\beta) = a(\psi)^{-1} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \mu_i) \cdot \frac{g(\eta_i)}{v(\mu_i)} x_i = a(\psi)^{-1} \cdot X^t W_F U_F, \tag{E-10}
\]

where, for \(i = 1, ..., n\), the diagonal weight matrix \(W_F\) has elements \(w_{Fi} = g(\eta_i)^2 / v(\mu_i)\),

\[
W_F = \text{diag} \left[ \frac{g(\eta_1)^2}{v(\mu_1)} \ldots \frac{g(\eta_n)^2}{v(\mu_n)} \right], \tag{E-11}
\]

and the centered/scaled response vector \(U_F\) has elements \(u_{Fi} = (y_i - \mu_i) / g(\eta_i)\).

\[
U_F = \left[ \frac{y_1 - \mu_1}{g(\eta_1)} \ldots \frac{y_n - \mu_n}{g(\eta_n)} \right]. \tag{E-12}
\]

**Hessian**

Using \(\frac{d}{d\beta} v(\mu_i) = v'(\mu_i) \frac{d}{d\beta} G(x_i^t \beta) = v'(\mu_i) g(x_i^t) x_i\),

\[
\frac{d^2}{d\beta^t \beta} \theta_i = \frac{g'(\eta_i) v(\mu_i) - g(\eta_i)^2 v'(\mu_i)}{v(\mu_i)^2} x_i x_i^t, \tag{E-13}
\]

and the Hessian (matrix of second derivatives) is

\[
\mathcal{H}(\beta) = \frac{d^2}{d\beta^t \beta} \mathcal{L} = a(\psi)^{-1} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[ -b''(\theta_i) \frac{d\theta_i}{d\beta} \frac{d\theta_i^t}{d\beta} + (y_i - \mu_i) \frac{d^2}{d\beta^t \beta} \theta_i \right] \\
= a(\psi)^{-1} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[ -\frac{g(\eta_i)^2}{v(\mu_i)} + (y_i - \mu_i) \frac{g'(\eta_i) v(\mu_i) - g(\eta_i)^2 v'(\mu_i)}{v(\mu_i)^2} \right] x_i x_i^t \\
= a(\psi)^{-1} \cdot X^t W_N X, \tag{E-14}
\]

where

\[
W_N = W_F - W_D, \tag{E-15}
\]

and \(W_D\) is a diagonal matrix with diagonal elements.
\[ w_{Di} = (y_i - \mu_i) \frac{g'(\eta_i) \nu(\mu_i) - g(\eta_i)^2 \nu'(\mu_i)}{\nu(\mu_i)^2}. \]  
(E-16)

Since \( E[W_D] = 0 \), the expected value of the Hessian is

\[ E\mathcal{H}(\beta) = -a(\psi)^{-1} \cdot X^t W_F X. \]  
(E-17)

The Fisher Information Matrix is

\[ M_\beta = E \left[ \frac{d}{d\beta} \mathcal{L} \cdot \frac{d}{d\beta} \mathcal{L}^t \right] = -E \left[ \frac{d^2}{d\beta^2} \mathcal{L} \right] = -E\mathcal{H}(\beta) = -a(\psi)^{-1} \cdot X^t W_F X, \]  
(E-18)

and the asymptotic estimator distribution is \( N_k (\beta, a(\psi) \cdot (X^t W_F X)^{-1}) \).

**Newton-Raphson**

Now, apply the Newton-Raphson algorithm iteratively to solve the optimization.

For GLM, the Newton-Raphson update is \( \beta = \beta_o + \delta \), where

\[ \mathcal{H}(\beta_o) = -D(\beta_o) \]

\[ (X^t W_N X) \delta = X^t W_F U_F \]

\[ (X^t W_N X) \delta = X^t W_N W_N^{-1} W_F U_F \]

\[ (X^t W_N X) \delta = X^t W_N U_N \]  
(E-19)

with

\[ U_N = W_N^{-1} W_F U_F. \]  
(E-20)

These are the normal equations for minimization of \( Q = ||U_N - X\delta||^2_{W_N} \). Both \( W_N \) and \( U_N \) depend on \( \beta_o \). The normal equations can be solved iteratively with an initial guess \( \beta_o \) by calculating \( \eta = X \beta_o, \mu = G(\eta), g, g', \nu, \nu', W_F, U_F, W_D, W_N, \) and \( U_N \). Then solve for \( \delta \). The updated solution is \( \beta = \beta_o + \delta \). Now replace \( \beta_o \) with \( \beta \), and repeat. This is iteratively reweighted least squares with Newton-Raphson update.

**Fisher Scoring**

For the GLM, the Fisher Scoring update uses \( E\mathcal{H} \) in place of \( \mathcal{H} \) to get
which are the normal equations for $Q = \|U_F - X\delta\|_W^2$. Both $W_F$ and $U_F$ depend on $\beta_o$. The normal equations can be solved iteratively with an initial guess $\beta_o$ by calculating $\eta = X\beta_o$, $\mu = G(\eta)$, $g, v, W_F$, and $U_F$. Then solve for $\delta$, update, and repeat. This is iteratively reweighted least squares with Fisher scoring.

### E.3 Canonical Link

For the canonical link, $w_{Fi} = g(\eta_i) = v(\mu_i)$ and $u_{Fi} = (y_i - \mu_i)/w_{Fi}$. Also, since $d\theta_i/d\beta = x_i$ and $d^2\theta_i/d\beta d^\beta = 0$, it follows that $E\mathcal{H}(\beta) = \mathcal{H}(\beta)$. So Newton-Raphson and Fisher scoring are equivalent.

### E.4 Confidence Intervals

Normal-approximation 100$p$% confidence intervals on the mean response are given by

$$G(x\beta \pm \Phi_{1-(1-p)/2}\sqrt{Vx}),$$

where $\Phi$ is a standard normal quantile, $V$ is the estimated parameter variance matrix, and $x$ is a row of an $X$ matrix corresponding to the desired level. For the basis implementation, this is

$$x = (f_1(v), ..., f_p(v)).$$

### E.5 Bernoulli Response

Suppose the response $Y \in \{0,1\}$ is Bernoulli with $Pr[Y = 1] = \mu = 1 - Pr[Y = 0]$. The Bernoulli probability is

$$f(y) = \mu^y(1 - \mu)^{1-y} = \exp\left[y\log\frac{\mu}{1-\mu} + \log(1 - \mu)\right].$$

so $a = 1$, $c = 0$, and there is no nuisance parameter. Furthermore, $\theta = \log(\mu/(1 - \mu))$ and $\mu = 1/(1 + e^{-\theta})$, and so $b(\theta) = -\log(1 - \mu) = \log(1 + e^\theta)$. Note that $EY = b'(\theta) = e^\theta/(1 + e^\theta) = \mu$ and $Var Y = v(\mu) = b''(\theta) = e^\theta/(1 + e^\theta)^2 = \mu(1 - \mu)$ as expected.

With $\eta = \theta$ and $\mu = G(\theta)$, the canonical link for Bernoulli response is seen to be the logistic cdf $G(\eta) = 1/(1 + e^{-\eta}) = \mu$. Note that $g(\eta) = \mu(1 - \mu) = v(\mu)$, so $w_{Fi} = \mu_i(1 - \mu_i)$ and $u_{Fi} = (y_i - \mu_i)/\mu_i(1 - \mu_i)$. The resulting model is logistic regression, or the logit model.

For an arbitrary link cdf $G$, take $\eta = X\beta$, $\mu = G(X\beta)$, $v(\mu) = \mu(1 - \mu)$, and $g(\eta) = g(X\beta)$.

Use of the standard normal cdf $G = \Phi$ with pdf $g = \phi$ gives the probit model.
Because the likelihood function is \( L = \prod \mu_i^{y_i} \cdot (1 - \mu_i)^{1-y_i} \), it follows that \( L_{\text{full}} = 1 \) for the Bernoulli model and the deviance is \( \Delta = -2 \log L \).

As an example, consider the usual two-parameter model with predictor \((x_1, ..., x_n)\) and response \((y_1, ..., y_n)\). The increment \( \delta = (d_0, d_1) \) is the solution of \( M\delta = A \), where

\[
M = X^tWX = \begin{bmatrix}
\Sigma w_i \\
\Sigma w_i x_i \\
\Sigma w_i x_i^2
\end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad A = X^tWU = \begin{bmatrix}
\Sigma w_i u_i \\
\Sigma w_i u_i x_i \\
\Sigma w_i u_i x_i^2
\end{bmatrix}.
\] (E-25)

To do the Fisher update of section E.2, calculate the linear response \( \eta_i = b_0 + b_1 x_i \), mean \( \mu_i = G(\eta_i) \), derivative \( g_i = g(\eta_i) \), variance \( v_i = \mu_i(1 - \mu_i) \), transformed response \( u_i = u_{Fi} \) \( = (y_i - \mu_i) / g_i \), weight \( w_i = w_{Fi} = g_i^2 / v_i \), and weighted transformed response \( w_i u_i = w_{Fi} u_{Fi} \) \( = (y_i - \mu_i) g_i / v_i \).

For the Newton-Raphson update, \( w_{Di} = (y_i - \mu_i)(g_i^2 v_i - g_i^2 v_i^2) / v_i^2 \) and \( w_{Ni} = w_{Fi} - w_{Di} \) and \( u_i = u_{Ni} = w_{Fi} / w_{Ni} \cdot (y_i - \mu_i) / g_i \). Then \( w_i = w_{Ni} \) and \( w_i u_i = w_{Ni} u_{Ni} = w_{Fi} u_{Fi} \).

For the canonical link \( w_i = w_{Fi} = g_i = v_i \) and \( w_i u_i = w_{Fi} u_{Fi} = y_i - \mu_i \).
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