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# On sequential maxima of exponential sample means, with an application to ruin probability

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#### Abstract

We obtain the distribution of the maximal average in a sequence of independent identically distributed exponential random variables. Surprisingly enough, it turns out that the inverse distribution admits a simple closed form. An application to ruin probability in a risk-theoretic model is also given.

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#### **1** Introduction

Consider a sequence  $(X_i)_{i\geq 1}$  of independent identically distributed (i.i.d.) random variables, each having exponential distribution with mean 1. For each  $i \in \mathbb{N}^+$  define the sample mean of the first i variables as  $\overline{X}_i := (X_1 + X_2 + \cdots + X_i)/i$ . The supremum of this sequence,

$$Z_{\infty} := \sup\{\bar{X}_i : i \in \mathbb{N}^+\},\$$

is finite because the sequence converges to 1 with probability 1.

In this note we compute the distribution function,  $F_{\infty}$ , of  $Z_{\infty}$ . In fact, what has nice form is the inverse of this distribution function. Our main result is the following.

**Theorem 1.1.** (a)  $Z_{\infty}$  has distribution function

$$F_{\infty}(x) = 1 - \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{k^{k-1}}{k!} x^{k-1} e^{-kx}$$

for x > 0, and density which is continuous on  $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{1\}$ , positive on  $(1, \infty)$ , and zero on  $(-\infty, 1)$ .

(b) The restriction of  $F_{\infty}$  on  $(1, \infty)$  is one to one and onto (0, 1) with inverse

$$F_{\infty}^{-1}(u) = \frac{-\log(1-u)}{u} \quad \text{for all } u \in (0,1).$$
(1.1)

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**Remark 1.2.** (a) For  $F_{\infty}$  we have the alternative expression

$$F_{\infty}(x) = 1 + \frac{1}{x}W_0(-xe^{-x})$$

where  $W_0$  is the principal branch of the Lambert W function, that is, the inverse function of  $x \mapsto xe^x, x \ge 1$ ; see [3]. Indeed, the power series  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{k^{k-1}}{k!} y^k$  has interval of convergence [-1/e, 1/e] and equals  $-W_0(-y)$ .

(b) Clearly, the results of the theorem extend immediately to the case that the  $X_i$ 's are i.i.d. and  $X_1 = aY + b$  with a > 0,  $b \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $Y \sim Exp(1)$ . However, we were not able to find an explicit formula for the distribution of  $Z_{\infty}$  for any other distribution of the  $X_i$ 's.

(c) Although it is intuitively clear that  $F_{\infty}(x) > 0$  for x > 1, it is not entirely obvious how to verify it by direct calculations. However, this fact is evident from Theorem 1.1.

(d) Formula (1.1) enables the explicit calculation of the percentiles of  $F_{\infty}$ . Therefore, the result is useful for the following kind of problems: Suppose that a quality control machine calculates subsequent averages, and alarms if some average  $\bar{X}_n$  is greater than c, where c is a predetermined constant such that the probability of false alarm is small, say  $\alpha$ . For  $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ , the upper percentage point of  $F_{\infty}$  (that is, the point  $c_{\alpha}$  with  $F_{\infty}(c_{\alpha}) = 1 - \alpha$ ) is given by  $c_{\alpha} = \frac{-\log \alpha}{1-\alpha}$ , and thus the proper value of c is  $c = c_{\alpha}$ .

If in the definition of  $Z_{\infty}$  we discard the first n-1 values of  $\bar{X}_i$ , we obtain the random variable

$$M_n := \sup\{\bar{X}_i : i \ge n\}$$

for which, however, (for  $n \ge 2$ ) the distribution function is quite complicated even for the exponential case. For instance, the distribution of  $M_2$  is given by (we omit the details)

$$F_{M_2}(x) = F_{\infty}(x) + e^{-2x} \frac{F_{\infty}(x)}{1 - F_{\infty}(x)}, \quad x \ge 0.$$

What we can compute is the asymptotic distribution of  $\sqrt{n}(M_n - 1)$  as  $n \to \infty$ . This distribution is the same for a large class of distributions of the  $X_i$ 's, as the following theorem shows.

**Theorem 1.3.** Assume that the  $(X_i)_{i\geq 1}$  are i.i.d. with mean 0, variance 1, and there is p > 2 with  $\mathbb{E}|X_1|^p < \infty$ . Let  $M_n := \sup\{\overline{X}_i : i \geq n\}$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$ . Then,

$$\sqrt{n}M_n \Rightarrow |Z|$$

where  $Z \sim N(0, 1)$  is a standard normal random variable.

It is easy to see that under the assumptions of Theorem 1.3, by the law of the iterated logarithm, it holds

$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} \frac{\sqrt{n}}{\sqrt{2 \log \log n}} M_n = 1.$$

### 2 Proofs

Proof of Theorem 1.1. (a) For each  $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$  consider the random variable

$$Z_n := \max\left\{\bar{X}_1, \bar{X}_2, \dots, \bar{X}_n\right\}$$

and call  $F_n$  its distribution function. Since the sequence  $(Z_n)_{n\geq 1}$  is increasing and converges to  $Z_{\infty}$ , the distribution function of  $Z_{\infty}$  at any  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  equals

$$F_{\infty}(x) = \Pr(\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \{Z_n \le x\}) = \lim_{n \to \infty} F_n(x).$$
(2.1)

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We will compute  $F_n$  recursively. For  $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$  and  $x \ge 0$  we have

$$F_{n+1}(x) = \Pr[X_1 \le x, X_1 + X_2 \le 2x, \dots, X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_{n+1} \le (n+1)x]$$
  
=  $\int_0^x \int_0^{2x-y_1} \dots \int_0^{(n+1)x-(y_1+y_2+\dots+y_n)} e^{-(y_1+y_2+\dots+y_{n+1})} d\mathbf{y}_{n+1}$   
=  $\int_0^x \int_0^{2x-y_1} \dots \int_0^{nx-(y_1+y_2+\dots+y_{n-1})} \left\{ e^{-(y_1+y_2+\dots+y_n)} - e^{-(n+1)x} \right\} d\mathbf{y}_n$   
=  $F_n(x) - e^{-(n+1)x} \operatorname{Vol}(K_n(x))$ 

where  $d\mathbf{y}_k = dy_k \cdots dy_2 dy_1$  and

$$K_n(x) := \{ (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n_+ : 0 \le y_1 + \dots + y_i \le ix, i = 1, 2, \dots, n \}.$$

Note that  $F_1(x) = 1 - e^{-x}$  and introduce the convention  $\operatorname{Vol}(K_0(x)) = 1$ . It follows that  $F_n(x) = 1 - \sum_{k=1}^n \operatorname{Vol}(K_{k-1}(x))e^{-kx}$  and from Lemma 2.2, below, we get the explicit form

$$F_n(x) = 1 - \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{k^{k-1}}{k!} x^{k-1} e^{-kx}, \text{ for all } x \ge 0, \ n \in \mathbb{N}^+.$$
(2.2)

This implies the first formula for  $F_{\infty}$ . By the law of large numbers, we get that  $F_{\infty}(x) = 0$  for all  $x \in (-\infty, 1)$ , and thus, the derivative of  $F_{\infty}$  in  $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{1\}$  is

$$f_{\infty}(x) := \mathbf{1}_{x>1} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{k^{k-1}}{k!} \left(k - \frac{k-1}{x}\right) x^{k-1} e^{-kx}.$$
(2.3)

Since  $F_{\infty}$  is continuous in  $\mathbb{R}$  and differentiable in  $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{1\}$  with continuous derivative there, it follows that  $f_{\infty}$  is a density for  $Z_{\infty}$ . The formula for  $f_{\infty}$  shows that it is positive exactly at  $(1, \infty)$ .

(b) First we rewrite  $F_{\infty}$  in a more convenient form. The fact that  $F_{\infty}(x) = 0$  for  $x \in [0, 1)$  implies the remarkable identity (see Fig. 1)

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{k^{k-1}}{k!} x^{k-1} e^{-kx} = 1 \quad \text{for all } x \in [0,1).$$
(2.4)

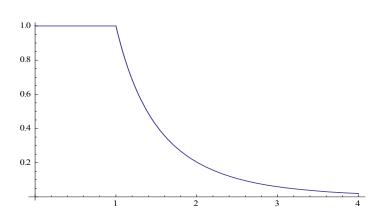


Figure 1: The series (2.4) in the interval  $0 \le x \le 4$ .

Our aim is to compute the value of the series in the left hand side also for  $x \ge 1$ . The series converges uniformly for  $x \in [0, \infty)$  because

$$\sup_{x \ge 0} \frac{k^{k-1}}{k!} x^{k-1} e^{-kx} = \frac{(k-1)^{k-1}}{k!} e^{-(k-1)} \sim \frac{1}{k^{3/2} \sqrt{2\pi}}$$

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which is summable in k. Thus, by continuity, (2.4) holds also for x = 1. Now we rewrite (2.4) in the form

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{k^{k-1}}{k!} (xe^{-x})^k = x \text{ for all } x \in [0,1].$$
(2.5)

The power series  $h(y) := \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{k^{k-1}}{k!} y^k$  is strictly increasing in  $[0, e^{-1}]$  and thus (2.5) says that h is the inverse function of the restriction,  $g_r$ , on [0, 1] of the function  $g : [0, \infty) \to [0, e^{-1}]$  with  $g(x) = xe^{-x}$ . The function g is continuous, strictly increasing in [0, 1], and strictly decreasing in  $[1, \infty)$  with  $g(0) = 0, g(1) = e^{-1}, g(\infty) = 0$ . Thus, for each  $x \in [1, \infty)$ , there exists a unique  $t = t(x) \in (0, 1]$  such that  $g_r(t) = xe^{-x}$ , i.e.,  $te^{-t} = xe^{-x}$ ; hence, we define

$$t(x) := g_r^{-1}(xe^{-x}) = h(xe^{-x}), \ x \ge 0.$$
(2.6)

Since t(x) = x for  $x \in [0, 1]$ , we have

$$F_{\infty}(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } x \le 1, \\ 1 - \frac{t(x)}{x}, & \text{if } x \ge 1. \end{cases}$$
(2.7)

Now for any fixed  $u \in (0,1)$ , the relation  $F_{\infty}(x) = u$  gives x - t(x) = xu so that t(x) = (1-u)x. Consequently,

$$e^{xu} = \frac{e^{-t(x)}}{e^{-x}} = \frac{x}{t(x)} = \frac{1}{1-u}.$$

Thus,  $x = -\log(1-u)/u$ , and the proof is complete.

**Remark 2.1.** From the well-known relation  $\mathbb{E} Z_n^{\alpha} = \alpha \int_0^{\infty} x^{\alpha-1} (1 - F_n(x)) dx$  for  $\alpha > 0$  and formula (2.2), we obtain a simple expression for the moments:

$$\mathbb{E} Z_n^{\alpha} = \alpha \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{\Gamma(\alpha + k - 1)}{k^{\alpha} k!}$$

In particular,

$$\mathbb{E}Z_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k^2}, \quad \mathbb{E}Z_n^2 = 2\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k^2}, \quad \mathbb{E}Z_n^3 = 3\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k^2} + 3\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k^3}.$$

Since  $Z_n \nearrow Z_\infty$  with probability one, the above relations combined with the monotone convergence theorem give the moments of  $Z_\infty$  and in particular that it has mean  $\frac{\pi^2}{6}$  and variance  $\frac{\pi^2}{6}(2-\frac{\pi^2}{6})$ .

The next lemma is a special case of Theorem 1 in [7] (see relation (7) in that paper), however, to keep the exposition self-contained, we provide a proof.

**Lemma 2.2.** For  $x \ge 0$ ,  $x + t \ge 0$ , and  $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$ , define

$$K_n(x,t) := \{ (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n_+ : y_1 + \dots + y_i \le ix + t \text{ for all } i = 1, 2, \dots, n \}.$$

Then,

$$V_n(x,t) := \operatorname{Vol}(K_n(x,t)) = \frac{1}{n!}(x+t)((n+1)x+t)^{n-1}, \ n = 1, 2, \dots,$$
 (2.8)

and, in particular, setting t = 0,  $\operatorname{Vol}(K_n(x)) = \frac{1}{n!}(n+1)^{n-1}x^n$ .

*Proof.* Clearly  $V_1(x,t) = x + t$  and for  $n \ge 1$ 

$$V_{n+1}(x,t) = \int_0^{x+t} \int_0^{2x+t-y_1} \cdots \int_0^{(n+1)x+t-(y_1+y_2+\cdots+y_n)} d\mathbf{y}_{n+1}$$
  
=  $\int_0^{x+t} \int_0^{x+(x+t-y_1)} \cdots \int_0^{nx+(x+t-y_1)-(y_2+\cdots+y_n)} d\mathbf{y}_{n+1}$  (2.9)  
=  $\int_0^{x+t} V_n(x,x+t-y_1) dy_1.$ 

The claim follows by induction on n.

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It is consistent with the recursion (2.9) for  $V_n$  and (2.8) to define  $V_0(x,t) := 1$  so that (2.8) holds for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}^+ \cup \{0\}$ . This agrees with the convention  $\operatorname{Vol}(K_0(x)) = 1$  we made in the proof of Theorem 1.1(a).

Proof of Theorem 1.3. By Theorem 2.2.4 in [4], we may assume that we can place  $(X_i)_{i\geq 1}$  on the same probability space with a standard Brownian motion  $(W_s)_{s\geq 0}$ , so that, with probability 1, we have  $|n\bar{X}_n - W_n|/n^{1/p}(\log n)^{1/2} \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$ . This implies that

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \sqrt{n} \left( M_n - \sup_{k \in \mathbb{N}, k \ge n} \frac{W_k}{k} \right) = 0$$

with probability 1. On the other hand, with probability one, we have for all large n the bound  $\sup_{s \in [n,n+1]} |W_s - W_n| \le 2\sqrt{\log n}$ , thus

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \sqrt{n} \left( \sup_{k \in \mathbb{N}^+, k \ge n} \frac{W_k}{k} - \sup_{s \ge n} \frac{W_s}{s} \right) = 0.$$

Finally, by scaling and time inversion, we conclude that

$$\sqrt{n}\sup_{s\geq n}\frac{W_s}{s} \stackrel{d}{=} \sup_{s\geq 1}\frac{W_s}{s} \stackrel{d}{=} \sup_{s\in[0,1]}W_s \stackrel{d}{=} |W_1|,$$

and the proof is complete.

### 3 An application to ruin probability

Following the same steps as in the proof of Theorem 1.1(b), one can evaluate the distribution function,  $F_{n;\lambda}$ , of the random variable

$$Z_{n;\lambda} := \max\left\{\frac{X_1}{1+\lambda}, \frac{X_1+X_2}{2+\lambda}, \dots, \frac{X_1+X_2+\dots+X_n}{n+\lambda}\right\}$$

for all  $\lambda > -1$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$ . Indeed, using (2.8) and induction on n it is easily verified that for all  $x \ge 0$  we have

$$F_{n;\lambda}(x) = 1 - (1+\lambda)e^{-\lambda x} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{k(k+\lambda)^{k-2}}{k!} x^{k-1}e^{-kx}.$$

Thus, the distribution function of  $Z_{\infty,\lambda} := \lim_{n \to \infty} Z_{n;\lambda}$  equals

$$F_{\infty;\lambda}(x) = 1 - (1+\lambda)e^{-\lambda x} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{k(k+\lambda)^{k-2}}{k!} x^{k-1} e^{-kx}$$
(3.1)

$$= 1 - \frac{t(x)}{x} e^{\lambda(t(x) - x)},$$
(3.2)

where the function t is defined by (2.6). To justify the equality (3.2), we use the same arguments that lead from (2.4) to (2.7). Similarly as in Theorem 1.1(b), we find that  $F_{\infty;\lambda}$  is zero in  $(-\infty, 1]$ , strictly increasing in  $[1, \infty)$  with range [0, 1), and its distribution inverse is given by

$$F_{\infty;\lambda}^{-1}(u) = \frac{-\log(1-u)}{1-(1-u)^{\frac{1}{1+\lambda}}} \times \frac{1}{\lambda+1}, \quad 0 < u < 1.$$
(3.3)

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**Remark 3.1.** By the law of large numbers, the series in the right hand side of (3.1) equals to one for all  $x \in [0,1]$ . Therefore, setting  $x = \alpha$ ,  $1 + \lambda = \theta$  and  $k \to k + 1$ , the function

$$p(k;\alpha,\theta) = \theta e^{-\alpha(\theta+k)} \frac{\alpha^k (k+\theta)^{k-1}}{k!}$$

defines a probability mass function supported on  $\mathbb{N}^+ \cup \{0\}$ , known (after a suitable re-parametrization) as generalized Poisson distribution with parameter  $(\alpha, \theta) \in [0, 1] \times (0, \infty)$ ; see [2] and references therein.

Consider now the following risk model. Assume that the aggregate claim at time n is described by  $S_n := X_1 + \cdots + X_n$ , where the  $(X_i)_{i \ge 1}$  are i.i.d. with  $\mathbb{E} X_1 = 1$ , the premium rate (per time unit) is  $c = 1 + \theta > 0$  ( $\theta$  is the safety loading of the insurance), and the initial capital is  $u > -(1 + \theta)$ , where negative initial capital is allowed for technical reasons. The risk process is defined by

$$U_n = u + cn - S_n, \ n \in \mathbb{N}^+.$$

Clearly, the ruin probability

$$\psi(u) := \Pr(U_n < 0 \text{ for some } n \in \mathbb{N}^+)$$
(3.4)

is of fundamental importance. Our explicit formulae are useful in computing the minimum initial capital needed to ensure that  $\psi(u)$  is small. In the following, we exclude the trivial case where the distribution of  $X_1$  is concentrated at 1.

This particular problem (for general claims) has been studied in [6] under the name *discrete-time surplus-process model*, while the probability of ruin for more general models is studied in detail in the standard reference [1].

When  $c \leq 1$ , we have  $\psi(u) = 1$  no matter how large u is. Indeed, when c < 1, the claim is a consequence of the strong law of large numbers, while when c = 1, since we have excluded the case  $\Pr(X_1 = 1) = 1$ , it follows from Theorems 4.1.2, 4.2.7 in [5] (which imply that  $(n - S_n)_{n \geq 1}$  oscillates between  $-\infty$  and  $\infty$ ). Hence, the problem is nontrivial only for c > 1, i.e.,  $\theta > 0$ .

**Theorem 3.2.** Assume that the *i.i.d.* individual claims  $(X_i)_{i\geq 1}$  are exponential random variables with mean 1, fix  $\alpha \in (0,1)$  and  $\theta > 0$ , and set  $c = 1 + \theta$ . Then, (a) the ruin probability (3.4) is given by

$$\psi(u) = \begin{cases} \frac{t(c)}{c} \exp\left(-u\left(1 - \frac{t(c)}{c}\right)\right), & \text{if } u > -c, \\ 1 & \text{if } u \le -c, \end{cases}$$
(3.5)

where the function t is given by (2.6);

(b) the minimum initial capital  $u = u(\alpha, \theta)$  needed to ensure that  $\psi(u) \le \alpha$  is given by the unique root of the equation

$$(1+\theta+u)\left(1-\alpha^{\frac{1+\theta}{1+\theta+u}}\right) = -\log\alpha, \ u > -(1+\theta).$$
(3.6)

*Proof.* (a) For u > -c, we can use (3.2) to get

$$\psi(u) = 1 - F_{\infty;u/c}(c) = \frac{t(c)}{c} e^{(u/c)(t(c)-c)},$$

which is (3.5). Then, the definition of t shows that  $\lim_{u\to -c^+} \psi(u) = \frac{t(c)e^{-t(c)}}{ce^{-c}} = 1$ , and the monotonicity of  $\psi$  implies that  $\psi(u) = 1$  for  $u \leq -c$ .

(b) By the formula of part (a), the function  $\psi$  is strictly decreasing in the interval  $(-c, \infty)$  and maps that interval to (0, 1). Therefore, there is a unique  $u = u(\alpha, \theta) > -c$ 

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such that  $\psi(u) = \alpha$ . Let  $\lambda := u/c$ , which is greater than -1. Then, using (3.3), we see that

$$\psi(u) = \alpha \Leftrightarrow F_{\infty;\lambda}(c) = 1 - \alpha \Leftrightarrow c = F_{\infty;\lambda}^{-1}(1 - \alpha) = \frac{-\log \alpha}{(1 + \lambda)\left(1 - \alpha^{\frac{1}{1 + \lambda}}\right)}$$

We substitute  $c=1+\theta, \lambda=u/(1+\theta),$  and the above equivalences show that u is the unique solution of

$$\left(1+\frac{u}{1+\theta}\right)\left(1-\alpha^{\frac{1+\theta}{1+\theta+u}}\right) = \frac{-\log\alpha}{1+\theta}.$$

The exact values of u in (3.6) are in perfect agreement with the numerical approximations given in the last line of Table 1 in [6]. Notice that the initial capital u can be negative sometimes, e.g.,  $u(.5, .5) \simeq -.3107$ .

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