

A New Class of Spherical Pearson-type Family of Distributions

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Abstract. The Pearson-type family densities are among the most important classes of distributions, also playing key roles in directional statistics. To model data scattered asymmetrically on non-Euclidean spaces, including spheres, the researchers confined themselves to extending particular distributions from the class of the Pearson-type family densities. Those specific distributions are symmetric, but their extended versions are usually heavy-tailed. This paper introduces alternative probability density functions in the class of Pearson-type distributions on the sphere with the spherical Student's t , Fisher, and Chi-square densities as the subfamilies. We show that it is intrinsically asymmetric by investigating various theoretical properties of this new subclass. Intensive simulation studies are conducted to explore various aspects of this subclass. Also, modeling two real-life data using the proposed densities and comparing the results with the fits arising from other common spherical distributions are considered.

Keywords. Asymmetric Property, Gaussian Hypergeometric Function, Heavy-tailed Distributions, Pearson type Family, Spherical Densities.

MSC: 60E05, 62E15, 62H10.

1 Introduction

Over three decades, many activities have been reported to propose probability distributions on the sphere. Most densities defined on the sphere were symmetric, with some minor exceptions. The projected normal distribution can be bimodal and asymmetrical

(Hernandez-Stumpfhauser et al. , 1978). See, for example, Fisher et al. (1987), and Mardia and Jupp (2000) to consult a comprehensive treatment of distributions on the non-Euclidean spaces in general and the unit sphere in particular cases too. Our objective is to introduce some new spherical densities using the Euclidean Pearson-type family distributions and extend them appropriately, for suitability in real applications.

Generally, there are two well-known methods to construct spherical distributions. Following Mardia and Jupp (2000), the methods are categorized as conditional and marginal approaches. For instance, the von Mises-Fisher (vMF) distribution is considered as a density derived using the conditional approach. Interestingly, most of the multivariate distributions can be conditioned in a proper way so that the corresponding densities will lead to some counterparts on the sphere. Consequently, the resulting distributions on the sphere inherit relatively the same properties as the initial densities in Euclidean space. It should be noted that most distributions derived in this way pose the rotational symmetry property. This important feature is relatively crucial while dealing with spherical densities. See, for example, Mardia and Jupp (2000), to consult the theoretical aspect of this property in the context of the directional statistics. To the best of our knowledge, there is rare activity on modeling skewness or bimodality of the spherical data.

Some circular and directional distributions can also be derived through wrapping, which is a method of the marginal approach. Following this methodology, some well-known densities, such as wrapped Cauchy, wrapped normal and wrapped Student's t distributions have been proposed in the literature, including the popular book written by Mardia and Jupp (2000). The wrapped Cauchy distribution, which belongs to the Pearson family VII and is a subclass of the Jones-Pewsey distribution, has been extensively explored in many studies. Also, the wrapped normal distribution, being a density in the subclass of Pearson type VII and one of the popular distributions on the circle, was the center of attention for some years.

Most studies treating the Pearson family distribution on the non-Euclidean space have concentrated on particular cases; circle or sphere. For instance, Kato and Shimizu (2004) studied various aspects of the t distribution on the sphere. Pewsey et al. (2013) gave a comprehensive treatment of different wrapped distributions along with their important properties all on the circle. However, there is a rare report on constructing spherical densities based on the Euclidean version of the Pearson-type family distributions. An exception is a research conducted by Shimizu and Iida (2002), who studied the Student's t -distribution on the sphere as a subclass of Pearson type VII family.

Following the approach by Mardia and Jupp (2000), we are going to follow a new strategy to propose the spherical densities in the class of the Pearson-type family distributions. Particularly, we construct the spherical t -distribution using the conditional approach accompanied by invoking the multivariate Student's t -distribution. Then, recalling the relationship between the Student's t , Fisher, and Chi-square distributions on the Euclidean space, we propose their counterparts on the sphere as a subclass of

the spherical Pearson type distributions. Also, statistical inferences on these densities and a procedure to generate samples from the proposed distributions are provided. Moreover, we present the applications of fitting the proposed distributions to two real-life data sets and compare the results with those obtained by fitting other spherical densities.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. We first propose a new class of skew spherical densities in Section 2. We then consider making the statistical inference using two common approaches, namely the method of moment and maximum likelihood method, in Section 3. Section 4 includes some simulation studies that compare the proposed distributions with the general class of vMF densities. The analyses of two real-life data are provided in Section 5. The paper concludes with a general discussion and some insights on further possible research on this topic.

2 Pearson-Type Family Distributions on Sphere

There are many cases where heavy rather than light-tailed densities should be considered to model data. These distributions have particular structures, and the way to construct them is also typical. As pointed out by Pearson (1916), the heavy-tailed densities with some reasonable properties are the members of the type VII family of the Pearson system.

On the other hand, it is very common to use the vMF distribution to model data lying on the unit sphere's surface. One of the main reasons to do so is partly because this density plays the same role as the normal distribution in Euclidean space. Following Shimizu and Iida (2002), the spherical t -distribution on the unit sphere is a proper candidate to study the heavy-tailed spherical data. In fact, they proposed this density as a subclass of the Pearson-type VII distributions. Here, we first review some important properties of this distribution using the standard spherical coordinate systems and then extend it to propose our new Pearson type VI and III densities and study their special sub-classes, such as spherical t , Fisher and Chi-square distributions.

Let us consider random vector $X \in \mathbb{S}^{p-1}$ represented by its equivalent angle in the spherical coordinate systems, i.e., $\theta = (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_{p-1})'$, where $'$ stands for the transpose operator. Note that, here, \mathbb{S}^m denotes m -dimensional unit sphere. Following the approach by Mardia and Jupp (2000), the connection between two sets of variables are given by

$$\begin{aligned} X &= (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_p)' \\ &= (\cos \theta_1, \sin \theta_1 \cos \theta_2, \dots, \sin \theta_1 \cdots \sin \theta_{p-2} \sin \theta_{p-1})'. \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, a mean direction vector with parameter $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{p-1})'$, can be defined as

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_\circ &= (\mu_1^\circ, \mu_2^\circ, \dots, \mu_p^\circ)' \\ &= (\cos \alpha_1, \sin \alpha_1 \cos \alpha_2, \dots, \sin \alpha_1 \cdots \sin \alpha_{p-2} \sin \alpha_{p-1})'. \end{aligned}$$

Using this typical definition of an angular random variable, the spherical t -distribution can be derived via invoking its multivariate counterpart on the Euclidean space R^p , as follows.

2.1 Spherical t -distribution

To start, let us assume a p -dimensional random vector \mathbf{T} has a multivariate t -distribution with ν degrees of freedom, i.e., $\mathbf{T} \sim t_\nu$. Then, for an outcome t of \mathbf{T} , the corresponding probability density function (*pdf*) is given by

$$C[1 + \frac{1}{\nu}(\mathbf{t} - \mu'_o)' \Sigma^{-1}(\mathbf{t} - \mu'_o)]^{-\frac{\nu+p}{2}}, \quad (2.1)$$

where C and Σ are the normalizing constant and the covariance matrix of \mathbf{T} , respectively. The norm of variables and parameters must be fixed to construct a function with the domain on the sphere. By imposing the constraints $\|\mathbf{T}\| = R$, $\|\mu_o\| = r$, where $\|\cdot\|$ is the Euclidean norm, and $\Sigma = \sigma I_p$, where I_p is the p -dimensional identity matrix, and setting $X = \mathbf{T}/R$ and $\mu = \mu_o/r$, the *pdf* given in (2.1) turns to

$$C[1 + \frac{1}{\sigma\nu}(R^2 + r^2 - 2Rrx'\mu)]^{-\frac{\nu+p}{2}}. \quad (2.2)$$

Shimizu and Iida (2002) called this *pdf* the spherical t -distribution on \mathbb{S}^{p-1} . By setting further constraints $R = r = \sigma = 1$ and defining $\kappa = 2/\nu$, the spherical t -density in (2.2) is simplified as

$$f_1(x | \mu, \kappa) = C_p(\kappa)[1 + \kappa(1 - x'\mu)]^{-\frac{1}{\kappa} - \frac{p}{2}}, \quad (2.3)$$

where

$$C_p^{-1}(\kappa) = \frac{2^{p-1} \pi^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \Gamma(\frac{p-1}{2})}{(1 + 2\kappa)^{(1/\kappa + p/2)} \Gamma(p-1)} {}_2F_1(\frac{1}{\kappa} + \frac{p}{2}, \frac{p-1}{2}; p-1; \frac{2\kappa}{1+\kappa}),$$

and ${}_2F_1(a, b; c; z)$ is the Gaussian hypergeometric function, Abramowitz and Stegun (1965). Usually, the interest is on the special case $p = 3$, i.e. the unit sphere. Then, the normalized constant of the density for this particular case is simplified as $C_3(\kappa) = (1 + \kappa/2)/((1 - (1 + 2\kappa)^{-1/\kappa - 1/2})(2\pi))$. To shorten the notations for our latter computational tasks, we denote the spherical t -distribution along with its parameters as $ST_p(\mu, \kappa)$, where μ represents the mean direction and κ is known as the concentration parameter. See, e.g. Mardia and Jupp (2000) for more details on the concepts and interpretations of these parameters.

Using the tangent-normal decomposition, see e.g., Fisher et al. (1987), the random variables θ_1 and $(\theta_2, \theta_3, \dots, \theta_{p-1})'$ are independent on the pole. Hence, the spherical Pearson type densities on the pole can indeed be expressed as the product of two independent densities. Moreover, it can be shown that the random vector $(\theta_2, \theta_3, \dots, \theta_{p-1})'$

is distributed uniformly on \mathbb{S}^{p-2} . Therefore, the random variable θ_1 plays a key role in defining the $ST_p(\mu, \kappa)$ distribution on the pole.

The trigonometric moment problem stands at the source of significant streams of analysis. In the calculation related to complex numbers due to the relationship between complex numbers and trigonometric functions, trigonometric moments are widely used, especially in physics. Also, due to the difficulty of calculating classical moments on the circle, trigonometric moments are used in most of literature on circular statistics. Now, suppose the interest is in deriving the moments of the first component of the spherical variable on \mathbb{S}^{p-1} , i.e. X_1 . Based upon the earlier discussion on the properties of the $ST_p(\mu, \kappa)$, it is straightforward to convey this objective in terms of the density of θ_1 . To do so, let us denote the m -th moment of X_1 , by $\rho_m(\kappa)$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \rho_m(\kappa) &= E(\cos^m \theta_1) \\
 &= C_{\theta_1,p}^{-1}(\kappa) \int_0^\pi \cos^m \theta_1 [1 + \kappa - \kappa \cos \theta_1]^{-\frac{1}{\kappa} - \frac{p}{2}} \sin^{p-2} \theta_1 d\theta_1 \\
 &= C_{\theta_1,p}^{-1}(\kappa) \int_{-1}^1 t^m [1 + \kappa - \kappa t]^{-\frac{1}{\kappa} - \frac{p}{2}} (1 - t^2)^{\frac{p-3}{2}} dt \\
 &= \sum_{i=0}^m \binom{m}{i} (-1)^{m-i} \frac{2^{i+p-2} C_{\theta_1}^{-1}}{(1 + 2\kappa)^{\frac{1}{\kappa} + \frac{p}{2}}} \\
 &\times \int_0^1 \left(1 - \frac{2\kappa}{1 + 2\kappa} u\right)^{-\frac{1}{\kappa} - \frac{p}{2}} (1 - u)^{\frac{p-3}{2}} u^{i + \frac{p-3}{2}} du \\
 &= \sum_{i=0}^m \binom{m}{i} (-1)^{m-i} 2^i \frac{\Gamma(i + \frac{p-1}{2}) \Gamma(p-1)}{\Gamma(i + p - 1) \Gamma(\frac{p-1}{2})} \\
 &\times \frac{{}_2F_1(\frac{1}{\kappa} + \frac{p}{2}, i + \frac{p-1}{2}; i + p - 1; \frac{2\kappa}{1+2\kappa})}{{}_2F_1(\frac{1}{\kappa} + \frac{p}{2}, \frac{p-1}{2}; p - 1; \frac{2\kappa}{1+2\kappa})}, \tag{2.4}
 \end{aligned}$$

where $C_{\theta_1,p}(\kappa)$ is the normalized constant of the density for the angular variable θ_1 . It is easy to show that for $m = 1$ and $p = 3$, we have

$$\rho_1(\kappa) = \frac{{}_2F_1(\frac{1}{\kappa} + \frac{3}{2}, 2; 3; \frac{2\kappa}{1+2\kappa})}{{}_2F_1(\frac{1}{\kappa} + \frac{3}{2}, 1; 2; \frac{2\kappa}{1+2\kappa})} - 1.$$

To recall the relationship between the Student's t and Fisher distributions on the plane, we shall obtain the spherical Fisher distribution in the next section.

2.2 Spherical Fisher Distribution

It is known from elementary statistics that if a random variable, say U , follows the Fisher distribution with parameters α and β ; denoted by $F(\alpha, \beta)$, then for outcome u , its pdf , is proportional to

$$u^{\frac{\alpha}{2}-1} \left(1 + \frac{\alpha}{\beta} u\right)^{-\frac{\alpha+\beta}{2}}.$$

Considering the special case $\alpha = 2$ and $\beta = 2/\kappa$, it is then seen that the Fisher distribution is closely connected to the $ST_2(\mu, \kappa)$. This is seen via using the equality $U = 1 - X'\mu$. On the other hand, *pdf* of the truncated Fisher distribution with parameters α_1 and α_2 is written as

$$f(x | \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \sigma) \propto (1 - x'\mu)^{\alpha_1-1} (1 + \frac{1 - x'\mu}{\sigma})^{-(\alpha_1+\alpha_2)}. \tag{2.5}$$

Note that the truncated Fisher is also known as the Beta Prime distribution and is considered as a subclass of the Pearson type VI distributions. See, for example, Johnson et al. (1995) for more details.

This last connection motivated us to extend the $ST_p(\mu, \kappa)$ density to derive the spherical Fisher distribution, denoted by $SF_p(\mu, \kappa)$, as a proper candidate to analyze directional data. If its *pdf* is identified by $f_2(x | \mu, \kappa)$, then we can write

$$f_2(x | \mu, \kappa) = C_p(\kappa)(1 - x'\mu)^{\frac{p}{2}-1} (1 + \frac{p\kappa}{2}(1 - x'\mu))^{-\frac{p}{2}-\frac{1}{\kappa}},$$

where

$$C_p^{-1}(\kappa) = \frac{2^{\frac{3p}{2}-2} \pi^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \Gamma(p - \frac{3}{2})}{\Gamma(\frac{3p}{2} - 2)} (1 + p\kappa)^{-\frac{p}{2}-\frac{1}{\kappa}} {}_2F_1(\frac{p}{2} + \frac{1}{\kappa}, \frac{p-1}{2}, \frac{3p-4}{2}, \frac{p\kappa}{p\kappa+1}).$$

It can be seen that for the particular case $p = 3$,

$$C_3^{-1}(\kappa) = 2\pi(\frac{2}{3\kappa})^{\frac{3}{2}} B(\frac{3\kappa}{3\kappa+1}; \frac{3}{2}, \frac{1}{\kappa}),$$

where $B(\cdot)$ is incomplete beta function, Abramowitz and Stegun (1965), represented by $B(x; a, b) = \int_0^x t^{a-1}(1-t)^{b-1} dt$.

Similar to discussion on the properties of $ST_p(\mu, \kappa)$, if the spherical variable $X = (X_1, \dots, X_p)'$ follows the $SF_p(\mu, \kappa)$ on the pole, the m -th moment of X_1 , is derived using

the following expressions:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \rho_m(\kappa) &= E(\cos^m \theta_1) \\
 &= C_{\theta_1,p}^{-1}(\kappa) \\
 &\times \int_0^\pi \cos^m \theta_1 (1 - \cos \theta_1)^{\frac{p}{2}-1} \left(1 + \frac{p\kappa}{2}(1 - \cos \theta_1)\right)^{-\frac{p}{2}-\frac{1}{\kappa}} \sin^{p-2} \theta_1 d\theta_1 \\
 &= C_{\theta_1,p}^{-1}(\kappa) \int_{-1}^1 t^m (1-t)^{\frac{p}{2}-1} \left(1 + \frac{p\kappa}{2}(1-t)\right)^{-\frac{p}{2}-\frac{1}{\kappa}} (1-t^2)^{\frac{p-3}{2}} dt \\
 &= \sum_{i=0}^m \left[\frac{\binom{m}{i} (-1)^{m-i} 2^{\frac{3p}{2}-3+i} C_{\theta_1}^{-1}}{(1+p\kappa)^{\frac{p}{2}+\frac{1}{\kappa}}} \right. \\
 &\times \left. \int_0^1 \left(1 - \frac{p\kappa}{p\kappa+1}u\right)^{-\frac{p}{2}-\frac{1}{\kappa}} (1-u)^{p-\frac{5}{2}} u^{i+\frac{p-3}{2}} du \right] \\
 &= \sum_{i=0}^m \left[\binom{m}{i} (-1)^{m-i} 2^i \frac{\Gamma(\frac{p-1}{2} + i) \Gamma(\frac{3p-4}{2})}{\Gamma(\frac{3p-4}{2} + i) \Gamma(\frac{p-1}{2})} \right. \\
 &\times \left. \frac{{}_2F_1\left(\frac{p}{2} + \frac{1}{\kappa}, i + \frac{p-1}{2}; i + \frac{3p-4}{2}; \frac{p\kappa}{p\kappa+1}\right)}{{}_2F_1\left(\frac{p}{2} + \frac{1}{\kappa}, \frac{p-1}{2}; \frac{3p-4}{2}; \frac{p\kappa}{p\kappa+1}\right)} \right], \tag{2.6}
 \end{aligned}$$

where $C_{\theta_1,p}(\kappa)$ is the normalized constant of density. Once again, it can be seen that for the particular case $p = 3$,

$$\rho_1(\kappa) = \frac{4} {5} \frac{{}_2F_1\left(\frac{1}{\kappa} + \frac{3}{2}, 2; \frac{7}{2}; \frac{3\kappa}{3\kappa+1}\right)}{{}_2F_1\left(\frac{1}{\kappa} + \frac{3}{2}, 1; \frac{5}{2}; \frac{3\kappa}{3\kappa+1}\right)} - 1.$$

Trivial relationships between the Pearson type family distributions will help us to propose other spherical distributions too. For instance, the Pearson type VI and III distributions, have a strong connection with the Chi-square distribution on the plane. Hence, we invoke such relationship to introduce the spherical Chi-square distribution in the subsequent section.

2.3 Spherical Chi-square Distribution

Our objective here is to impose some restrictions in the density given by (2.5) to derive a new distribution useful in directional statistics. Let us set $\alpha_1 = \kappa/2, \sigma = \alpha_2$ and allow α_2 to be as large as possible. Then, it can be shown that the resulted density is a new distribution in the class of the Pearson type III family with the following pdf:

$$f_3(x | \mu, \kappa) = \frac{\Gamma(\frac{\kappa}{2} + p - 2)(1 - x'\mu)^{\frac{\kappa}{2}-1} e^{x'\mu+1}}{2^{\frac{\kappa}{2}+p-2} \pi^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \Gamma(\frac{\kappa}{2} + p - 3) M\left(\frac{p-1}{2}, \frac{\kappa}{2} + p - 2, 2\right)}, \tag{2.7}$$

where $M(\cdot, \cdot, \cdot)$ is the confluent hypergeometric function (Abramowitz and Stegun, 1965). We call this new density the Spherical Chi-square distribution and denote this

with the notation $SC_p(\mu, \kappa)$. It is straightforward to show that for particular case $p = 3$, the *pdf* in (2.7) reduces to

$$f_3(x | \mu, \kappa) = \frac{(1 - x' \mu)^{\frac{\kappa}{2}-1} e^{x' \mu - 1}}{2\pi \gamma(\frac{\kappa}{2}, 2)},$$

where $\gamma(\cdot, \cdot)$ is the lower incomplete gamma function represented by $\gamma(a, x) = \int_0^x t^{a-1} e^{-t} dt$.

Similar to discussions in dealing with $ST_p(\mu, \kappa)$, the m -th moment of X_1 , say $\rho_m(\kappa)$, can be obtained through the following sequel equalities, provided the spherical variable X follows $SC_p(\mu, \kappa)$:

$$\begin{aligned} \rho_m(\kappa) &= E(\cos^m \theta_1) \\ &= C_{\theta_1, p}^{-1}(\kappa) \int_0^\pi \cos^m \theta_1 (1 - \cos \theta_1)^{\frac{\kappa}{2}-1} e^{\cos \theta_1} \sin^{p-2} \theta_1 d\theta_1 \\ &= C_{\theta_1, p}^{-1}(\kappa) \int_{-1}^1 t^m (1-t)^{\frac{\kappa}{2}-1} e^t (1-t^2)^{\frac{p-3}{2}} dt \\ &= 2^{p-3+\frac{\kappa}{2}} C_{\theta_1, p}^{-1}(\kappa) \int_0^1 (2u-1)^m (1-u)^{\frac{p-3+\kappa}{2}-1} u^{\frac{p-3}{2}} e^{2u-1} du \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^m \binom{m}{i} (-1)^{m-i} 2^i \frac{\Gamma(\frac{2i+p-1}{2}) \Gamma(p-2+\frac{\kappa}{2}) M(\frac{2i+p-1}{2}, p-2+\frac{\kappa}{2}+i, 2)}{\Gamma(\frac{p-1}{2}) \Gamma(p-2+\frac{\kappa}{2}+i) M(\frac{p-1}{2}, p-2+\frac{\kappa}{2}, 2)}, \end{aligned} \tag{2.8}$$

where $C_{\theta_1, p}(\kappa)$ is the normalized constant. It can be seen that, for the particular case $p = 3$, we have

$$\rho_1 = \frac{2M(2, 2 + \frac{\kappa}{2}, 2)}{(1 + \frac{\kappa}{2})M(1, 1 + \frac{\kappa}{2}, 2)} - 1.$$

To have consistent notations throughout this paper, we use the abbreviation $SPT_p(\mu, \kappa)$ to indicate the Spherical Pearson Type distributions including the Student's t , Fisher and chi-square densities. However, if we want to deal with a particular Pearson type distribution, we will provide explicit notation, as discussed earlier, along with expressing the *pdf* of its corresponding density.

After introducing the $SPT_p(\mu, \kappa)$ distributions, we look at geometrical representations of these densities. This will help us to have a sense of their multimodality and rotational symmetry properties. The schematic representation of these densities is shown in Figure 1. As seen in the left panel, the spherical t -density, similar to vMF, is unimodal. Both the mean direction and mode of this density occur at μ . Pictured at the middle, the spherical Fisher density is multimodal around the μ , being suitable to analyze the data scattered around particular directional quantity, say mean. Although for some specific values, the spherical chi-square behaves differently in many ways as seen at the right panel of Figure 1. The shape of density depends on the values of κ

and α , particularly for the small value of κ . It has high density in some particular areas while shows antipodal in others. However, the density function is unimodal, for large κ , (not plotted here). Clearly, more plots need to be drawn in terms of geometrical investigation of the $SPT_p(\mu, \kappa)$ distributions. Due to space limitations, we leave this topic here and reserve them for further research.

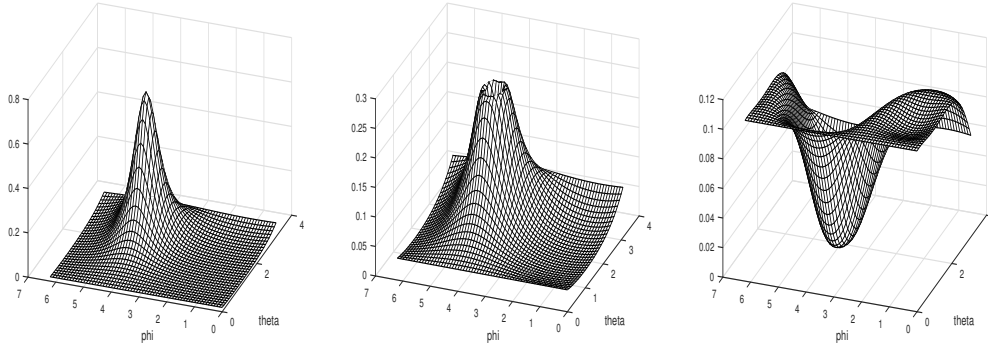


Figure 1: The density function of $SPT_p((\alpha, \beta), \kappa)$, based on latitude angle θ and longitude angle ϕ with the same parameter $(\alpha, \beta) = (2, 4)$ and $\kappa = 5$. Left to right ST, SF, and SC density functions.

3 Statistical Inference on the Parameters

Now, we provide the procedure for making the statistical inference on the parameters of the spherical Pearson type distributions. We shall deal with both the method of moment and maximum likelihood approaches. Note that we start with two trivial methodologies in the setting of the statistical inference. One can follow other inferential methods in his/her own interest.

Let us assume the spherical random variables X_i for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$, are n independent observations following the spherical Pearson type distributions with the mean direction μ and the concentration parameter κ , i.e. $SPT_p(\mu, \kappa)$, on S^{p-1} . The statistical inference about μ and κ , are given below using two approaches in turn.

3.1 Method of Moment Estimator

In order to calculate moments of the SPT distribution, we invoke its rotational symmetry property. The property for our considered density can simply be conveyed as follows: If Y is distributed as $SPT_p(\mu_0, \kappa)$ and M is a rotation matrix, which rotates μ_0 to μ , then $X = MY$ is a random vector distributed as $SPT_p(\mu, \kappa)$. As seen, this interesting property shows that the rotated variable preserves the initial form of the density with just a different directional mean compared with the initial (raw) variable. We shall see that this feature helps us in dealing with theoretical computations tasks later. To consult

more properties of the rotational symmetry, one can see, for example, Mardia and Jupp (2000).

Using the rotational symmetry property, we can write

$$\begin{aligned}
 E(X) &= M \times E(Y) \\
 &= M \times E\left\{(\cos \theta_1, \sin \theta_1 \cos \theta_2, \dots, \sin \theta_1 \cdots \sin \theta_{d-2} \sin \theta_{d-1})\right\} \\
 &= \rho_1(\kappa)M \times \mu_0 = \rho_1(\kappa)\mu,
 \end{aligned} \tag{3.1}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Var}(X) &= M \times \text{Var}(Y) \times M' \\
 &= M \times \{E(Y Y') - E(Y)E(Y')\} \times M' \\
 &= M\{\text{diag}[\rho_2(\kappa), \frac{1 - \rho_2(\kappa)}{p - 1}, \dots, \frac{1 - \rho_2(\kappa)}{p - 1}] - \rho_1^2(\kappa)\mu_0\mu_0'\}M' \\
 &= M\{\rho_2(\kappa)\mu_0\mu_0' + \frac{1 - \rho_2(\kappa)}{p - 1}(I_p - \mu_0\mu_0') - \rho_1^2(\kappa)\mu_0\mu_0'\}M' \\
 &= (\rho_2(\kappa) - \rho_1^2(\kappa))\mu\mu' + \frac{1 - \rho_2(\kappa)}{p - 1}(I_p - \mu\mu'),
 \end{aligned}$$

where, I_p is the identity matrix of order p .

As is common in directional statistics, we use cosine moments to estimate the parameters of the SPT distributions by the method of moment. Following this perspective, the mean direction is easily estimated as $\tilde{\mu} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i / \|\sum_{i=1}^n x_i\|$. To estimate the concentration parameter (κ), one can again recall the first moment of the SPT. Using the equation (3.1), we have $E(X')\mu = \rho_1(\kappa)$. It can be shown that $\rho_1(\kappa)$ is a monotone function of κ . For the simple case where $p = 3$, the plots of $\rho_1(\kappa)$ for all three distributions ST, SF, and SC reveal that it is an increasing function of κ . In summary, calling the inverse function $\rho^{-1}(\cdot)$, and using the method of moment, the estimate of κ can be written as $\tilde{\kappa} = \rho_1^{-1}(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i' \tilde{\mu} / n)$. As can be seen, one needs to follow some numerically iterated methods to derive the estimates of the parameters using the method of moment because the expressions involving $\tilde{\mu}$ and $\tilde{\kappa}$ are inter-connected. There are many algorithms to apply for this purpose. We shall see an implementation of such procedure while conducting our simulation studies. Note that we used unusual notations for the method of moments estimators just to distinguish them with their counterparts in the next section.

3.2 Maximum Likelihood Estimator

To invoke the maximum likelihood estimate (MLE) approach, it is common to maximize the (logarithm of the) likelihood function of the parameter(s), which is associated with the *pdf* of the corresponding variables. To this end, we use Lagrange functions \mathcal{L}_j , for $j = 1, 2, 3$, which are in fact the logarithm of the likelihood functions accompanied with

some constraints. Here, we have

$$\mathcal{L}_j(\mu, \kappa) = \ell_j(\mu, \kappa) + \lambda(1 - \mu' \mu),$$

where $\ell_j(\mu, \kappa) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log f_j(x_i | \mu, \kappa)$, with the obvious constraint $\mu' \mu = 1$.

To differentiate $\mathcal{L}_j(\mu, \kappa)$ with respect to μ and κ , the maximum likelihood estimators are given by the following expressions:

$$\hat{\mu} = \left\{ \frac{\partial \ell(\mu, \kappa) / \partial \mu}{\ell(\mu, \kappa)} \right\} / \left\| \frac{\partial \ell(\mu, \kappa) / \partial \mu}{\ell(\mu, \kappa)} \right\|, \tag{3.2}$$

$$\hat{\kappa} = \arg \max_{\kappa} \ell(\mu, \kappa). \tag{3.3}$$

It is clear that the MLEs of the parameters should be derived by some iterative algorithms via invoking Equations (3.2) and (3.3). Before describing a general flowchart of such algorithm, it worths pointing out an important assertion useful to derive the MLEs.

Using the density function (2.5), it can be shown that for a small value of σ or equivalently large value of κ , the second component of density function (2.5) converges to 1. Now, using the first component considering the Lagrange condition $\mu' \mu = 1$, the estimation of μ is approximated by

$$\hat{\mu} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{x_i}{1-x_i \tilde{\mu}}}{\left\| \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{x_i}{1-x_i \tilde{\mu}} \right\|}, \tag{3.4}$$

where $\tilde{\mu}$ is the estimate of μ given by the MM approach. So, this estimation can be used as an initial value while invoking any iterative algorithm to derive the parameter estimates.

In summary, the following simple iterative steps can be followed to obtain the parameters estimation of the $SPT_p(\mu, \kappa)$ using the MLE method:

Step 0. Compute the initial value for $\hat{\mu}$, using the expression (3.4).

Step 1. Derive an estimate for κ using Equation (3.3).

Step 2. Having $\hat{\kappa}$ from **Step 1**, obtain an estimate for μ using Equation (3.2).

Step 3. Iterate between **Step 1** and **Step 2** using the updated parameters until reaching an reasonable rate of convergence fixed before running the algorithm.

4 Simulation Study

Due to both popularity and importance of three dimensional sphere in many real applications, we confine ourselves to conduct the simulation studies on \mathbb{S}^2 . Our investigations will be performed in two different scenarios. First, we compare the performances

of the MM and ML estimators in different settings. Then, we study fitting the SPT distributions where the generated data are contaminated by some noisy observations with an specific degree of contamination to elaborate some outliers.

To start, let us describe the procedure on how to simulate the spherical data modelled by the SPT density. In order to simulate the data from $ST_3(\mu, \kappa)$, $SF_3(\mu, \kappa)$ and $SC_3(\mu, \kappa)$, we invoke the distribution functions of $\theta \in (0, \pi)$ and $\phi \in (0, 2\pi)$ on the pole, where these two variables are independent. In particular, while being on the pole, ϕ is distributed uniformly on the unit circle, independent from θ . So, the distribution function of ϕ is the same for all three densities. In particular, not being concerned too much about the specific distribution of the SPT, we have

$$G(\phi) = \frac{\phi}{2\pi}, \quad 0 < \phi < 2\pi.$$

On the other hands, the distribution function of θ , following three aforementioned distributions are, respectively, given by

$$\begin{aligned} F_{ST}(\theta) &= \frac{1 - (1 + \kappa - \kappa \cos \theta)^{-\frac{1}{\kappa} - \frac{1}{2}}}{1 - (1 + 2\kappa)^{-\frac{1}{\kappa} - \frac{1}{2}}}, \\ F_{SF}(\theta) &= \frac{B\left(\frac{3(1 - \cos \theta)\kappa}{3(1 - \cos \theta)\kappa + 2}, \frac{3}{2}, \frac{1}{\kappa}\right)}{B\left(\frac{3\kappa}{3\kappa + 1}, \frac{3}{2}, \frac{1}{\kappa}\right)}, \\ F_{SC}(\theta) &= \frac{\gamma\left(\frac{\kappa}{2}, 1 - \cos \theta\right)}{\gamma\left(\frac{\kappa}{2}, 2\right)}. \end{aligned}$$

As can be seen, simulation θ from either densities is straightforward using available computational tools.

A remark to note is that the ultimate pair (ϕ, θ) generated then is a point on the pole. But, the spherical data might live somewhere else on the sphere than the pole in real application. In particular, the data are assumed to have unknown spherical mean μ . This problem can also be circumvented using transferring data appropriately by some rotation matrices. Among many, a simple one was proposed by Mardia and Jupp (2000). It rotates the spherical point m_1 to its counterpart m_2 or vice versa, and is written as

$$M(m_1, m_2) = \frac{(m_1 + m_2)(m_1 + m_2)'}{1 + m_1' m_2} - I_3.$$

Now, we are ready to simulate spherical data from three proposed distributions described in the previous sections. This along with some comments on the relevant inputs are given next.

We initiate our simulation study by generating data from the $SPT_3(\mu, \kappa)$ distributions. This is done via altering the location parameters to be one of the pairs $(\alpha, \beta) = \{(\pi/4, \pi/4), (\pi/3, \pi/6)\}$ while the concentration parameters (κ) is fixed at $\kappa = 1.8$. Also, to investigate the effects of sample size in estimating parameters, we consider

four scenarios $n = 20, 50, 100, 1000$. Furthermore, we iterate each simulation run 1000 times. Note that the large sample case gives us insights on the asymptotic behaviour of our estimators though the theoretical aspects of this issue needs to be comprehensively studied. To evaluate the accuracy of the proposed estimators, we calculate the mean, relative bias (RB) and mean square errors (MSE) for every simulation scenario. The entire results of the simulation studies based upon different scenarios are reported in tables 1, 2 and 3. It worths to mention that the means of parameters are highlighted by a dashed line over the estimates of corresponding parameters in each table. Also, for brevity of notation, we write MLE and MM, indicating the maximum likelihood and method of moment estimators, respectively.

As can be seen in all three tables, the estimations provided by the MM procedure are generally performing better than those derived through the MLE method in the small sample size situations. But, this is not the case when the numbers of samples increases which leads to better performance of the MLEs. Following the results reported in Tables 1, the accuracy of the estimation of the directional means for the ST distribution is improved by increasing either the concentration parameter (κ) or the sample size (n). However, this pattern is not observed while estimating the concentration parameter. That means, if either the sample size or the directional mean is increased then the estimators proposed for estimating κ are doing worth.

Following the results reported in Table 2, we see that the performance of two methods in estimating the directional mean in the SF distribution is relatively the same. Note that, as the concentration parameter increases, unlike the RB measure, the values of the MSEs also increase too. This shows critical impact of the concentration parameter on other parameters of spherical Pearson type family densities studied in this paper. Note that the similar patterns are also observed in Table 3 while the SC distribution is invoked in both generating the spherical data and estimating the parameters.

To have a visual inspection of efficiency of the methods in different situations as well as in the case of various distributions proposed in this paper, we provided the comparative plots in Figures 2, 3 and 4. In all plots, the first and second cases refer to the simulation study in which the parameters of the SPT densities are fixed as $(\alpha, \beta, \kappa) = (\frac{\pi}{4}, \frac{\pi}{4}, 1)$, and $(\alpha, \beta, \kappa) = (\frac{\pi}{3}, \frac{\pi}{6}, 8)$, respectively, where α and β are mean direction parameters and κ is the concentration parameter. Also, the approximate 95% confidence intervals have been computed for each density and particular sample size. The computed intervals are drawn as solid lines with the average of the estimates at the middle, identified by either the MLE or MM approaches.

Table 1: Mean, RB and MSE of the parameter estimations using the MLE and MM approaches under different scenarios. Dashed lines over the estimators indicate the mean of the estimations in 1000 runs derived in using from ST distribution. Real values of the parameters are on the top of each panel.

Method MLE $(\alpha, \beta, \kappa) = (\frac{\pi}{4}, \frac{\pi}{4}, 1)$									
n	$\hat{\alpha}$	RB $_{\hat{\alpha}}$	MSE $_{\hat{\alpha}}$	$\hat{\beta}$	RB $_{\hat{\beta}}$	MSE $_{\hat{\beta}}$	$\hat{\kappa}$	RB $_{\hat{\kappa}}$	MSE $_{\hat{\kappa}}$
20	0.847	0.078	0.058	0.713	-0.092	0.214	2.366	1.366	4.601
50	0.798	0.016	0.028	0.789	0.005	0.061	1.580	0.580	1.041
100	0.791	0.007	0.014	0.772	-0.018	0.030	1.278	0.278	0.354
1000	0.787	0.002	0.001	0.783	-0.003	0.003	1.009	0.009	0.029
Method MM $(\alpha, \beta, \kappa) = (\frac{\pi}{4}, \frac{\pi}{4}, 1)$									
20	0.837	0.065	0.062	0.726	-0.076	0.218	2.367	1.367	5.369
50	0.798	0.016	0.030	0.786	0.001	0.067	1.590	0.590	1.590
100	0.793	0.010	0.016	0.773	-0.016	0.031	1.285	0.285	0.552
1000	0.788	0.003	0.002	0.783	-0.003	0.003	1.011	0.011	0.040
Method MLE $(\alpha, \beta, \kappa) = (\frac{\pi}{3}, \frac{\pi}{6}, 8)$									
20	1.045	-0.002	0.016	0.521	-0.005	0.025	8.692	0.087	3.365
50	1.046	-0.002	0.007	0.525	0.003	0.008	8.633	0.079	3.602
100	1.048	0.001	0.003	0.524	0.001	0.004	8.335	0.042	2.710
1000	1.047	0.000	0.000	0.524	-0.000	0.000	8.094	0.012	0.505
Method MM $(\alpha, \beta, \kappa) = (\frac{\pi}{3}, \frac{\pi}{6}, 8)$									
20	1.051	0.004	0.025	0.520	-0.007	0.036	7.338	-0.083	5.843
50	1.051	0.003	0.010	0.526	0.005	0.013	7.478	-0.065	5.377
100	1.049	0.002	0.005	0.527	0.006	0.006	7.878	-0.015	4.188
1000	1.047	-0.000	0.000	0.523	-0.000	0.000	8.131	0.016	0.949

Many remarks can be extracted from the plots. As seen, to increasing the sample size leads to the accurate estimates no matter which distribution is used in fitting the simulated data. Moreover, two methods of estimation, i.e., MLE and MM, have the same performance the same in most scenarios. However, there are some cases in which the MM estimators are doing better than MLE, particularly when the concentration parameter (κ) is small.

Let us confine ourselves to the case in which the sample size is small and the ST is considered with the real values $(\alpha, \beta, \kappa) = (\frac{\pi}{4}, \frac{\pi}{4}, 1)$. Then, the approximate confidence intervals for the concentration parameter (κ) covers some unaccepted negative values. This shows that the standard errors of estimator in this scenario are too big. Such atypical cases occur for both the ML and MM estimators. Note that we just see these odd results in the ST density case while other two distributions are at the safe side. Amazingly, the approximate confidence intervals for the concentration parameter (κ) are too narrow if the SC density is used in the first case, i.e., $(\alpha, \beta, \kappa) = (\frac{\pi}{4}, \frac{\pi}{4}, 1)$.

Under the scenario $(\alpha, \beta, \kappa) = (\frac{\pi}{3}, \frac{\pi}{6}, 8)$, the performance of either estimators using different distributions are relatively reasonable. While the patterns for α and β are consistent across all three densities, the pattern for κ shows more variability. It means the proposed estimator for κ neither follows the asymptotic law nor shows consistent pattern for all three distributions. This might be particularly due to the large value set to generate data, i.e. $\kappa = 8$, imposing considerable variation in each sample path. Do remember that the spherical data might display multimodality on the empirical density in this case. Hence, the common procedures proposed in this paper fail to

make sensible inference. This topic can though be studied in futur research too.

Table 2: Mean, RB and MSE of the parameter estimations using the MLE and MM approaches under different scenarios. Dashed lines over the estimators indicate the mean of the estimations in 1000 runs using the SF distribution. Real values set for the parameters are on the top of each panel.

Method MLE $(\alpha, \beta, \kappa) = (\frac{\pi}{4}, \frac{\pi}{4}, 1)$									
n	$\hat{\alpha}$	$RB_{\hat{\alpha}}$	$MSE_{\hat{\alpha}}$	$\hat{\beta}$	$RB_{\hat{\beta}}$	$MSE_{\hat{\beta}}$	$\hat{\kappa}$	$RB_{\hat{\kappa}}$	$MSE_{\hat{\kappa}}$
20	0.925	0.178	0.208	0.404	-0.485	0.651	1.131	0.131	0.980
50	0.788	0.003	0.068	0.685	-0.128	0.321	1.277	0.277	0.839
100	0.790	0.005	0.045	0.737	-0.061	0.259	1.219	0.219	0.551
1000	0.783	-0.003	0.005	0.779	-0.008	0.011	1.049	0.049	0.060
Method MM $(\alpha, \beta, \kappa) = (\frac{\pi}{4}, \frac{\pi}{4}, 1)$									
20	0.926	0.179	0.196	0.388	-0.506	0.661	1.291	0.291	0.808
50	0.790	0.005	0.059	0.691	-0.120	0.292	1.341	0.341	0.753
100	0.784	-0.002	0.035	0.790	0.006	0.142	1.342	0.342	0.737
1000	0.781	-0.006	0.004	0.781	-0.005	0.008	1.071	0.071	0.097
Method MLE $(\alpha, \beta, \kappa) = (\frac{\pi}{3}, \frac{\pi}{6}, 8)$									
20	1.052	0.005	0.074	0.467	-0.108	0.148	7.978	-0.003	1.406
50	1.058	0.010	0.031	0.516	-0.015	0.041	8.035	0.004	1.179
100	1.056	0.008	0.017	0.520	-0.007	0.023	8.000	0.000	1.317
1000	1.047	0.000	0.001	0.514	-0.017	0.002	7.984	-0.002	0.893
Method MM $(\alpha, \beta, \kappa) = (\frac{\pi}{3}, \frac{\pi}{6}, 8)$									
20	1.066	0.018	0.065	0.488	-0.068	0.110	8.011	0.001	1.514
50	1.062	0.014	0.030	0.520	-0.008	0.043	7.956	-0.005	1.496
100	1.053	0.006	0.017	0.521	-0.004	0.021	7.840	-0.020	1.267
1000	1.046	-0.002	0.001	0.514	-0.019	0.002	8.074	0.009	0.889

Based upon the discussion provided in the introduction, we expect that the SPT is performing well where the empirical plot of the data are relatively skewed. To evaluate this objective, we were interested in fitting the vMF density as well as various forms of the $SPT_3(\mu, \kappa)$ distributions where the simulated data are subject to some outliers. To do this end, we initially generated data from the vMF distribution and then contaminated them by adding a fixed value to the latitude on the North pole. Remember that longitudinal is uniformly distributed on the North pole irrespective of the type of distribution considered to simulate the data. Hence, one can only concentrated on tracing the sample path of the latitudinal variable being modeled by some stochastic processes. Hence, we now compare the aforementioned models in terms of variability imposed on the latitude. To do so, we generate data from vMF on the North pole and randomly select 5, 10, 20, 50 percent of observations and contaminate them by adding the constant angle to the latitude. In particular, we add a fixed value, say ζ to a proportion, say $\Pi\%$, of the latitudinal angles, leading to outliers. Mathematically, we write this as $\theta_{outlier} = \theta_{real} + \zeta$. Note that the concentration parameter (κ) is allowed to be any positive value. However, we considered three different numbers for κ to elaborate low, medium and large concentration.

Table 3: Mean, RB and MSE of the parameter estimations. The data are generated from SC distribution using the MLE and MM approaches under different scenarios. Dashed lines over the estimators indicate the mean of the estimations in 1000 runs using the SC distribution. Real values set for the parameters are on the top of each panel.

Method MLE $(\alpha, \beta, \kappa) = (\frac{\pi}{4}, \frac{\pi}{4}, 1)$									
n	$\hat{\alpha}$	RB $_{\hat{\alpha}}$	MSE $_{\hat{\alpha}}$	$\hat{\beta}$	RB $_{\hat{\beta}}$	MSE $_{\hat{\beta}}$	$\hat{\kappa}$	RB $_{\hat{\kappa}}$	MSE $_{\hat{\kappa}}$
20	0.763	-0.028	0.020	0.835	0.063	0.054	0.643	-0.357	0.134
50	0.783	-0.003	0.005	0.785	-0.001	0.011	0.823	-0.177	0.039
100	0.783	-0.003	0.002	0.794	0.011	0.004	0.994	-0.006	0.007
1000	0.785	0.000	0.000	0.787	0.002	0.000	1.004	0.004	0.001
Method MM $(\alpha, \beta, \kappa) = (\frac{\pi}{4}, \frac{\pi}{4}, 1)$									
20	0.798	0.016	0.029	0.793	0.010	0.068	0.973	-0.027	0.084
50	0.798	0.016	0.013	0.790	0.006	0.021	0.978	-0.022	0.033
100	0.789	0.005	0.005	0.786	0.001	0.011	1.001	0.001	0.015
1000	0.784	-0.002	0.001	0.788	0.003	0.001	1.005	0.005	0.002
Method MLE $(\alpha, \beta, \kappa) = (\frac{\pi}{3}, \frac{\pi}{6}, 8)$									
20	1.054	0.007	0.062	0.496	-0.053	0.082	8.031	0.004	1.618
50	1.033	-0.014	0.027	0.545	0.042	0.045	8.057	0.007	1.092
100	1.045	-0.002	0.015	0.515	-0.017	0.020	8.090	0.011	0.498
1000	1.050	0.002	0.010	0.522	-0.002	0.001	8.000	0.010	0.344
Method MM $(\alpha, \beta, \kappa) = (\frac{\pi}{3}, \frac{\pi}{6}, 8)$									
20	1.064	0.016	0.056	0.500	-0.045	0.091	8.107	0.013	1.029
50	1.011	-0.035	0.030	0.538	0.027	0.042	8.122	0.015	0.848
100	1.046	-0.001	0.014	0.517	-0.012	0.022	8.101	0.013	0.453
1000	1.050	0.002	0.014	0.522	-0.001	0.020	8.001	0.012	0.386

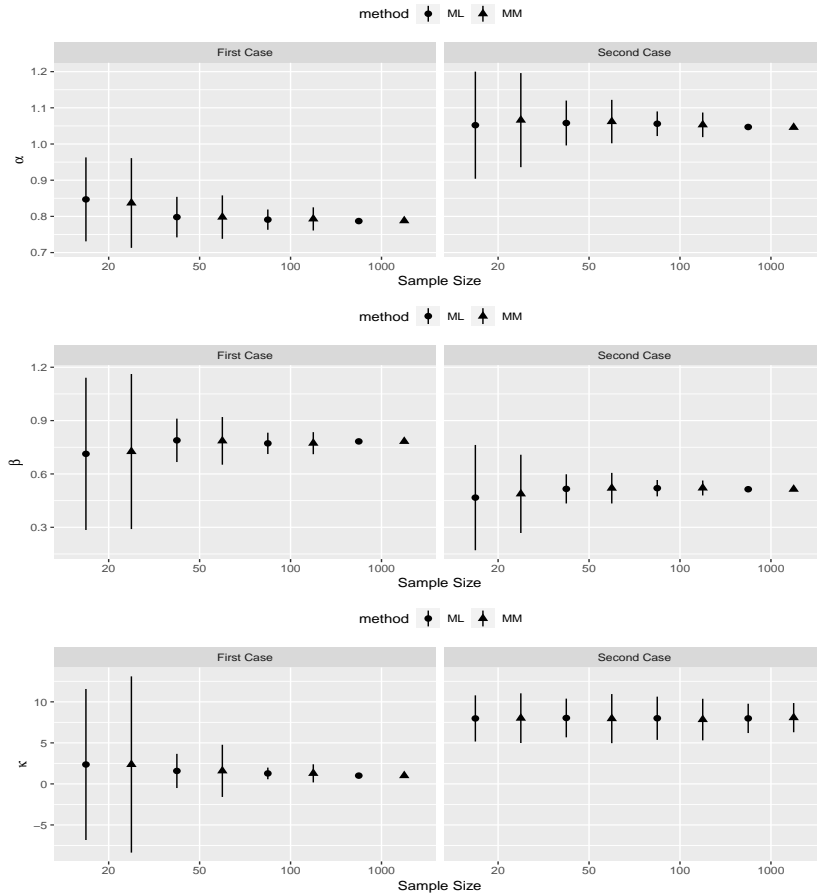


Figure 2: Comparative plots for the estimators of the ST's parameters using two estimation procedures. The approximated 95% CIs are plotted versus different sample sizes. The first and second cases refer to the scenario in which the parameters of the ST density are fixed as $(\alpha, \beta, \kappa) = (\frac{\pi}{4}, \frac{\pi}{4}, 1)$, and $(\alpha, \beta, \kappa) = (\frac{\pi}{3}, \frac{\pi}{6}, 8)$, respectively.

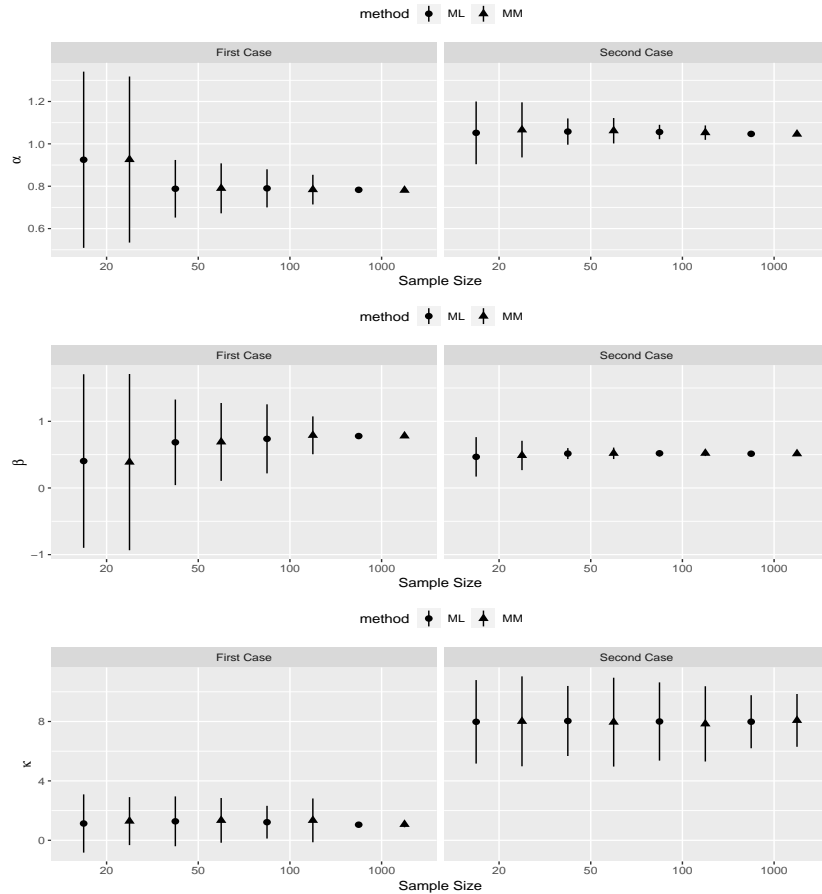


Figure 3: Comparative plots for the estimators of the SF's parameters using two estimation procedures. The approximated 95% CIs are plotted versus different sample sizes. The first and second cases refer to the scenario in which the parameters of the SF density are fixed as $(\alpha, \beta, \kappa) = (\frac{\pi}{4}, \frac{\pi}{4}, 1)$, and $(\alpha, \beta, \kappa) = (\frac{\pi}{3}, \frac{\pi}{6}, 8)$, respectively.

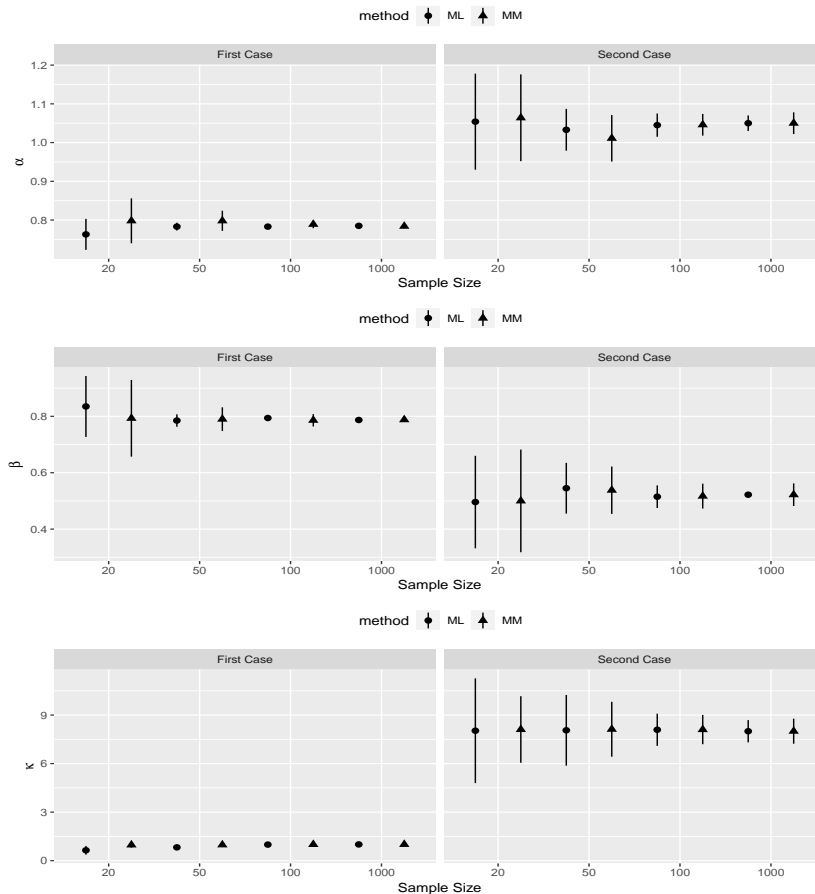


Figure 4: Comparative plots for the estimators of the SC's parameters using two estimation procedures. The approximated 95% CIs are plotted versus different sample sizes. The first and second cases refer to the scenario in which the parameters of the SC density are fixed as $(\alpha, \beta, \kappa) = (\frac{\pi}{4}, \frac{\pi}{4}, 1)$, and $(\alpha, \beta, \kappa) = (\frac{\pi}{3}, \frac{\pi}{6}, 8)$, respectively.

We were also interested in comparing the performance of the SPT and vMF distributions under different percentage of contamination. To this end, we derived the difference between the likelihood functions computed under those underlying distributional assumptions. Note that the vMF density is shifted using a pre-fixed proportion of angles to cope with skewness feature of its counterpart distribution. In particular, we first generated data from $vMF_3(\mu_0, \kappa)$ and then contaminated Π percent of their latitudes with the fixed angles ζ . At the end, we recorded the number of times (from 100 simulation runs) when the SPT likelihood was bigger than the shifted vMF counterpart. The results are reported in Table 4. Based upon the results in this table, some remarks are given below.

Recalling above discussion, we could take the value of ζ into account as a degree of contamination. Hence, the level of tolerance that each distribution is performing

appropriately, after increasing the value of ζ , will show the level of robustness. As seen, the SPT distributions are more robust in compare with the shifted vMF for the large value of ζ . This is the case for both densities come from the SPT. We also see that SPT distribution is more robust if the concentration parameter (κ) increases.

Table 4: Comparing the SPT and the shifted vMF distribution when the generated samples from $vMF(\mu_0, \kappa)$ are contaminated with Π percent on one angle. Values in each cell show the number of time (over 100 run), the logarithm of the likelihood for each of the SPT family is greater than the shifted vMF. See the text for more details.

		κ											
		5				10				50			
μ_0	Π	5	10	20	50	5	10	20	50	5	10	20	50
	ST	$\frac{\pi}{6}$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	17	100	100
$\frac{\pi}{4}$		0	0	0	0	0	3	90	10	100	100	100	100
$\frac{\pi}{3}$		0	33	100	100	12	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
$\frac{\pi}{3}$		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	2
SF	$\frac{\pi}{6}$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	100	100	100
	$\frac{\pi}{4}$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	100	100	100
	$\frac{\pi}{3}$	0	0	53	95	0	0	100	100	100	100	100	100
	$\frac{\pi}{3}$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SC	$\frac{\pi}{6}$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	$\frac{\pi}{4}$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	100	100
	$\frac{\pi}{3}$	0	0	6	100	0	0	80	100	0	100	100	100
	$\frac{\pi}{3}$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

5 Application

As an application of the densities studied in this paper, we consider two real-life data sets in this section. We first investigate fitting the $ST_3(\mu, \kappa)$, $SF_3(\mu, \kappa)$ and $SC_3(\mu, \kappa)$, distributions using these data sets. Moreover, we fit four popular spherical distributions, namely vMF, Kent, Wood and Angular Central Gaussian (ACG) densities, to those data in order to compare the performance of all densities. See, for example, Mardia and Jupp (2000) for more details on the properties of the latter densities. The criteria to choose a candidate density that fit our real-life data well are two common statistical measures; Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) and Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC).

Now, let's take a closer look to our real-life data sets. The first data set (Data 1) deals with a sociological study of the attitudes of 48 individuals to 16 different occupations. Following Coxon and Jones (1978), individuals were asked to make their judgments on rating or rank ordering of occupations based upon four different criteria namely Earnings, Social Status, Reward, Social Usefulness. Rating and rank ordering were transformed on S^2 through multidimensional scaling method reported in Coxon and Jones (1978). Note that the data, registered as the unit vectors, can be found in Appendix B20 of Fisher et al. (1987).

The second data set (Data 2) is a report on the measurements of the orientation of the dendritic field at various sites in the retinas of 6 cats, in response to different visual stimuli. We used a subset of the original data where 30 responses of cats to horizontally polarized light are provided. Keilson et al. (1983) was first to analyze this data set.

The spherical coordinates of this data set can be found in Appendix B15 of Fisher et al. (1987).

A schematic representation of two real data set is shown in Figure 5. As can be seen, both data sets contain some outliers, which can be visually detected in the direction that we plotted the spheres. In particular, a clear sign of one outlying observation is seen among the first data set. As discussed earlier, the SPT distributions are more heavy tailed than other common spherical densities. Hence, we expect that our proposed densities are better choices in modeling two data sets described above.

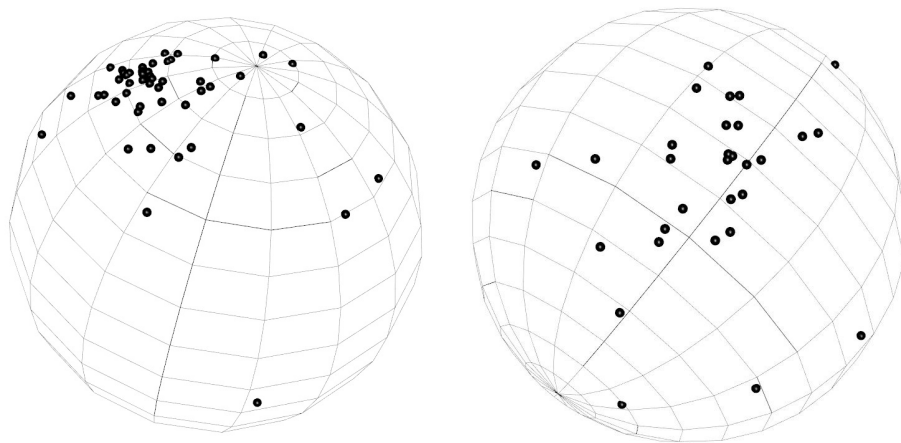


Figure 5: Schematic representation of the real data set (left: Data 1 and right: Data 2) on S^2 .

The values of two model choice criteria for all distributions are shown in Table 5. Because the value of AIC and BIC for SPT are less than others densities, we can assert that the SPT outperforms its counterparts when two described data sets are used to fit spherical densities. Moreover, among the family of SPT distributions, the ST is the best candidate density to fit to both data sets. These results support our initial guesses on suitability of the SPT distributions in compare with other spherical densities.

Table 5: The values of the AIC and BIC criteria after fitting the vMF, Kent, Wood, ACG, ST, SF and SC distributions to two real data sets. See text for more details of abbreviates. The least values in each criterion and using each data set, highlighted as boldface, show superiority of the ST density among alternative distributions.

Data set	Criterion	Spherical Distribution						
		vMF	Kent	Wood	ACG	ST	SF	SC
Data 1	AIC	39.38	38.95	37.24	94.34	3.77	8.29	20.33
	BIC	44.99	48.30	46.60	98.08	1.84	13.90	25.94
Data 2	AIC	52.57	54.81	52.93	106.4	44.97	50.62	51.18
	BIC	56.78	61.82	59.94	109.1	49.18	54.82	55.39

6 Discussion

It is believed that the outliers usually lead to a bias statistical inference while fitting some non-robust models to analyzed data. In the lack of possible approaches to treat outliers prior to the ultimate statistical analysis, one should seek some suitable models to analyze the entire data. In this case, considering heavy tailed distributions that are resistant to outliers in order to properly model the data is a viable option. This becomes even more important when working with spherical data. To provide a solution to this problem, we proposed the spherical t -distribution in this paper. Then, various statistical properties of this density have been investigated. In particular, we expressed the procedures of estimating the parameters of this density using two common statistical inference methods. We also studied some special cases of this distribution in which the data are available on the unit sphere. We illustrated the robustness of the spherical t -distribution while being compared with the popular vMF density using some simulated studies conducted in different scenarios. Moreover, we have showed superiority of our proposed distribution in compare with other alternative spherical densities while employing them to fit two real data sets.

The ST proposed in this paper belongs to the Pearson type family distribution. Following this point, we also introduced two other densities, called SF and SC, and studied their properties. These latter densities are multimodal in some particular situations and are, indeed, robust to the outliers in compare with the vMF distributions.

According to the terminologies of the spherical distributions, the SPT distributions proposed in this paper are constructed through the conditional approach. One can study driving these densities using other methods and extend the idea in various directions. As another topic to research in this field, one can conduct the statistical tests on the parameters of the SPT distributions. Finally, one might prefer to impose the skewness on the sphere and then look at the asymmetric distributions based on the Pearson type family connected to the proposed densities in this paper.

Declarations

Data availability

The real datasets analysed during the current study can be found in Appendix of Fisher et al. (1987). Also, the datasets generated during simulation study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

Statements and Declarations

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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