## Multistate systems and importance measures - part 3

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Multistate systems - part 3

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#### Failure rates

Let  $\overline{F}(t) = P(T > t)$  for the lifetime T of some component, and assume that  $\overline{F}(t) > 0$  for all  $t \ge 0$ . Then we have:

$$\bar{F}(t)=e^{-\Lambda(t)},\quad t\geq 0,$$

where  $\Lambda(t) = -\ln(\overline{F}(t))$ . The function  $\Lambda$  is called the cumulative failure rate function of T.

The derivative of  $\Lambda(t)$ , denoted  $\lambda(t)$ , is called the failure rate function of T and can be expressed as follows:

$$\lambda(t) = rac{\partial}{\partial t}(-\ln(\bar{F}(t))) = rac{f(t)}{\bar{F}(t)}, \quad t \ge 0.$$

NOTE:  $\lambda(t)dt$  can be interpreted as the conditional probability that the component fails in the interval (t, t + dt], given that the component survived the interval [0, t].

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## Failure rates (cont.)

NOTE: The survival function can be expressed in terms of the failure rate function as follows:

$$\bar{F}(t) = e^{-\int_0^t \lambda(u) du}, \quad t \ge 0, \tag{1}$$

Thus, a lifetime distribution is uniquely determined by its failure rate function.

If  $\lambda$  is increasing, we say that the lifetime has an increasing failure rate.

If  $\lambda$  is decreasing, we say that the lifetime has a decreasing failure rate.

- Increasing failure rates are used to describe aging. As the component gets older, it becomes more prone to failures.
- Decreasing failure rates are used to describe infant mortality. As the component gets older, early failures are eliminated or corrected.

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The cumulative failure rate function  $\Lambda$  can also be interpreted as a transformation of time. Based on this interpretation we introduce the time transformed random variable of a random variable T with cumulative failure rate  $\Lambda$ :

 $S = \Lambda(T) =$  The cumulative failure rate at time T

In order to avoid technical issues, we assume that  $\lambda(t) > 0$  for all  $t \ge 0$ . This implies that the cumulative failure rate:

$$\Lambda(t)=\int_0^t\lambda(u)du$$

is strictly increasing. Thus,  $\Lambda(T)$  has a uniquely defined inverse,  $\Lambda^{-1}$ .

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## The time transform (cont.)

We can now easily find the distribution of the random variable S:

$$P(S > s) = P(\Lambda(T) > s)$$
$$= P(T > \Lambda^{-1}(s))$$
$$= \overline{F}(\Lambda^{-1}(s))$$
$$= e^{-\Lambda(\Lambda^{-1}(s))} = e^{-s}$$

Thus, we see that the random variable S is exponentially distributed with failure rate 1.

# Counting processes

#### Definition

A stochastic process  $\{N(t)\}$  is a counting process if:

- **1**  $N(t) \ge 0$
- $2 N(t) \in \mathbb{Z}.$
- 3 If s < t, then  $N(s) \leq N(t)$
- If s < t, then N(t) N(s) represents the number of events that have occurred in (s, t].</p>

NOTE: If N(0) = 0, the last property implies that:

N(t) = N(t) - N(0) = The number of events that have occurred in [0, t]

## Homogenous Poisson processes

#### Definition

A counting process  $\{N(t)\}$  is a homogenous Poisson process with rate  $\lambda$  if:

**1** 
$$N(0) = 0$$

**2**  $\{N(t)\}$  has stationary and independent increments.

3 
$$P(N(t+h) - N(t) = 1) = \lambda h + o(h)$$

**④** 
$$P(N(t+h) - N(t) ≥ 2) = o(h)$$

NOTE: If  $W_1, W_2, \ldots$  are the waiting times between events in a homogenous Poisson process with rate  $\lambda$ , then:

 $W_1, W_2, \ldots$  are independent and exponentially distributed with rate  $\lambda$ 

## Non-homogenous Poisson processes

#### Definition

A counting process  $\{N(t)\}$  is a non-homogenous Poisson process with rate function  $\lambda(t)$  if:

**1** 
$$N(0) = 0$$

{N(t)} has independent increments.

3 
$$P(N(t+h) - N(t) = 1) = \lambda(t)h + o(h)$$

3 
$$P(N(t+h) - N(t) \ge 2) = o(h)$$

We also introduce the cumulate rate function:

$$\Lambda(t)=\int_0^t\lambda(u)du$$

Moreover, we assume that  $\lambda(u) > 0$  for all u > 0, implying that  $\Lambda$  is strictly increasing, and that  $\Lambda$  has a uniquely defined inverse  $\Lambda^{-1}$ .



Some properties of a non-homogenous Poisson process:

$$P(N(t) = n) = \frac{[\Lambda(t)]^n}{n!}e^{-\Lambda(t)}, \quad n = 0, 1, \dots$$

$$P(N(t+v)-N(t)=n)=\frac{[\Lambda(t+v)-\Lambda(t)]^n}{n!}e^{-(\Lambda(t+v)-\Lambda(t))} \quad n=0,1,\ldots$$

$$P(N(t+v)-N(t)=0)=e^{-(\Lambda(t+v)-\Lambda(t))}$$



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Let  $T_1 < T_2 < \cdots$  denote the points of time when the process  $\{N(t)\}$  jumps. We also let  $T_0 = 0$  and introduce the waiting times between the event times:

$$W_k = T_k - T_{k-1}, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

We then have:

$$P(W_k > w_k | T_{k-1} = t_{k-1}) = P(N(t_{k-1} + w_k) - N(t_{k-1}) = 0)$$
$$= e^{-(\Lambda(t_{k-1} + w_k) - \Lambda(t_{k-1}))}$$

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We then introduce the waiting times between the time transformed event times:

$$V_k = \Lambda(T_k) - \Lambda(T_{k-1}), \quad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

We then have:

$$\begin{aligned} P(V_k > v_k | T_{k-1} = t_{k-1}) &= P(\Lambda(T_k) - \Lambda(t_{k-1}) > v_k | T_{k-1} = t_{k-1}) \\ &= P(\Lambda(T_k) > \Lambda(t_{k-1}) + v_k | T_{k-1} = t_{k-1}) \\ &= P(T_k > \Lambda^{-1}(\Lambda(t_{k-1}) + v_k) | T_{k-1} = t_{k-1}) \\ &= P(W_k > \Lambda^{-1}(\Lambda(t_{k-1}) + v_k) - t_{k-1} | T_{k-1} = t_{k-1}) \end{aligned}$$

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We then substitute:

$$w_k = \Lambda^{-1}(\Lambda(t_{k-1}) + v_k) - t_{k-1},$$

and note that:

$$\begin{split} \Lambda(t_{k-1} + w_k) &= \Lambda(t_{k-1} + \Lambda^{-1}(\Lambda(t_{k-1}) + v_k) - t_{k-1}) \\ &= \Lambda(\Lambda^{-1}(\Lambda(t_{k-1}) + v_k)) \\ &= \Lambda(t_{k-1}) + v_k \end{split}$$

Hence, we get that:

$$P(V_k > v_k | T_{k-1} = t_{k-1}) = P(W_k > \Lambda^{-1}(\Lambda(t_{k-1}) + v_k) - t_{k-1} | T_{k-1} = t_{k-1})$$
$$= P(W_k > w_k | T_{k-1} = t_{k-1})$$
$$= e^{-(\Lambda(t_{k-1} + w_k) - \Lambda(t_{k-1}))} = e^{-v_k}$$

This shows that a non-homogenous Poisson process with rate function  $\lambda(t)$  can be constructed from a homogenous Poisson process as follows:

We start out by generating independent and identically distributed waiting times:

$$V_1, V_2, \ldots$$

from the exponential distribution with failure rate 1.

In order to compute the resulting event times,  $T_1, T_2, \ldots$ , of the non-homogenous Poisson process we note that:

$$V_k = \Lambda(T_k) - \Lambda(T_{k-1}), \quad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

Using  $T_0 = 0$  as a starting point, the event times,  $T_1, T_2, \ldots$ , can be calculated recursively by:

$$T_k = \Lambda^{-1}[\Lambda(T_{k-1}) + V_k], \quad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

#### Definition

A counting process  $\{N(t)\}$  is a renewal process if the waiting times between events,  $W_1, W_2, \ldots$  are independent and identically distributed with cumulative distribution function F.

NOTE: If  $\{N(t)\}$  is a renewal process and the waiting times between events,  $W_1, W_2, \ldots$  are exponentially distributed with rate  $\lambda$ , then  $\{N(t)\}$  is a homogenous Poisson process.

Thus, renewal processes are generalizations of homogenous Poisson processes, similar to how semi-Markov processes are generalizations of Markov processes.

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## The trend-renewal model

Motivated by renewal processes and the connection between non-homogenous Poisson processes and homogenous Poisson processes, we now consider a more general type of process where we allow the time transformed waiting times:

$$V_1, V_2, \ldots$$

to be generated from an arbitrary distribution on the positive axis.

Definition (Trend-renewal model)

Let  $\lambda(t)$  be a positive intensity function defined for all  $t \ge 0$ , satisfying  $\Lambda(t) \equiv \int_0^t \lambda(u) du < \infty$  for all  $t \ge 0$ , and  $\Lambda(\infty) = \infty$ .

Furthermore, let F be a cumulative distribution function such that F(0) = 0.

A counting process is a trend-renewal process with respect to F and  $\lambda$ , and written as  $TRP(F, \lambda)$ , if the waiting times between the time-transformed event times  $\Lambda(T_0), \Lambda(T_1), \ldots$  are independent and identically distributed with cumulative distribution function F.

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To explain this model in more detail, we again consider the waiting times between the time-transformed event times:

$$V_k = \Lambda(T_k) - \Lambda(T_{k-1}), \quad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

By the definition of the trend-renewal model,  $V_1, V_2, \ldots$  are independent, identically distributed and:

$$P(V_k \leq v) = F(v), \quad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

Thus, the process  $TRP(F, \lambda)$  may be constructed by generating a sequence of independent random variables  $V_1, V_2, \ldots$  from the distribution F.

In order to compute the resulting event times  $T_1, T_2, \ldots$ , we recall that:

$$V_k = \Lambda(T_k) - \Lambda(T_{k-1}), \quad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

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Thus, the event times,  $T_1, T_2, \ldots$ , can be computed recursively by:

$$T_k = \Lambda^{-1}[\Lambda(T_{k-1}) + V_k], \quad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

Alternatively, since  $T_0 = 0$  and that  $\Lambda(0) = 0$ , we can compute the event times,  $T_1, T_2, \ldots$ , using the following expansion:

$$T_{1} = \Lambda^{-1}[\Lambda(T_{0}) + V_{1}] = \Lambda^{-1}(V_{1})$$

$$T_{2} = \Lambda^{-1}[\Lambda(T_{1}) + V_{2}] = \Lambda^{-1}(V_{1} + V_{2})$$

$$T_{3} = \Lambda^{-1}[\Lambda(T_{2}) + V_{3}] = \Lambda^{-1}(V_{1} + V_{2} + V_{3})$$
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NOTE: For a given process  $TRP(F, \lambda)$  and constant c > 0, we may define alternative functions for  $t \ge 0$ :

$$\begin{split} \tilde{\lambda}(t) &= c\lambda(t) \\ \tilde{\Lambda}(t) &= \int_0^t \tilde{\lambda}(u) du = c \int_0^t \lambda(u) du = c\Lambda(t) \end{split}$$

Then it is easy to verify that:

$$\tilde{\Lambda}^{-1}(u) = \Lambda^{-1}(c^{-1} \cdot u)$$

This follows since:

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We then let:

$$ilde{V}_k = ilde{\Lambda}(T_k) - ilde{\Lambda}(T_{k-1}), \quad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

be the waiting times obtained using the alternative time-transform  $\tilde{\Lambda}.$  Then:

$$ilde{\mathcal{V}}_k = ilde{\Lambda}(T_k) - ilde{\Lambda}(T_{k-1}) = c\Lambda(T_k) - c\Lambda(T_{k-1}) = cV_k, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

Hence, we get that:

$$\begin{split} \tilde{\Lambda}^{-1}(\tilde{V}_1 + \cdots + \tilde{V}_k) &= \Lambda^{-1}(c^{-1}[\tilde{V}_1 + \cdots + \tilde{V}_k]) \\ &= \Lambda^{-1}(c^{-1}[cV_1 + \cdots + cV_k]) \\ &= \Lambda^{-1}(V_1 + \cdots + V_k) = T_k, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots \end{split}$$

Thus, the alternative function  $\tilde{\Lambda}$  and alternative waiting times,  $\tilde{V}_1, \tilde{V}_2, \ldots$  generate the same event times,  $T_1, T_2, \ldots$ , as the original function,  $\Lambda$ , and the original waiting times,  $V_1, V_2, \ldots$ 

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By definition of the trend-renewal model  $TRP(F, \lambda)$ , the cumulative distribution function of the original waiting times is F.

The cumulative distribution function of the alternative waiting times is given by:

$$\widetilde{F}(v) = P(\widetilde{V}_k < v) = P(cV_k < v) = F(v/c), \quad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

Since the alternative function  $\tilde{\Lambda}$  and alternative waiting times  $\tilde{V}_1, \tilde{V}_2, \ldots$  generate the same event times,  $T_1, T_2, \ldots$ , as the original function,  $\Lambda$ , and the original waiting times  $V_1, V_2, \ldots$ , we conclude that:

$$TRP(F,\lambda) \Leftrightarrow TRP(\tilde{F},\tilde{\lambda})$$

To avoid ambiguity, some authors only consider trend-renewal processes where the expected waiting times between the time-transformed event times are equal to 1.

In our context, this is ambiguity does not cause problems, so we ignore this issue

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## A multistate trend-renewal model

NOTE: A trend-renewal model can only be used for counting processes (typically counting failure events). In the context of multistate components we need a similar framework generalizing semi-Markov processes.

For  $s \in S$  and  $k = 1, 2, \ldots$  we introduce:

 $T'_{ks}$  = The *k*th time the component enters state *s*  $T_{ks}$  = The *k*th time the component leaves state *s* 

For  $s \in S$  and k = 1, 2, ... we also introduce the waiting times spent in each state between the transitions:

 $W_{ks}$  = The *k*th waiting time in state  $s = T_{ks} - T'_{ks}$ 

Finally, we let  $\Lambda_s(t) = \int_0^t \lambda_s(u) du$  denote the time transform applied to event times affecting the state  $s \in S$ .

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In this model we assume that the waiting times for all the states are affected by the same global clock.

Thus, e.g., if a component ages by time, this aging occurs regardless of the state the component is in.

In particular, the component ages also when it is under repair.

A global time model is also appropriate for components which are subject to seasonal effects, since such effects typically affects the component regardless of state.

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## The Global time model (cont.)

We let the waiting times between the time-transformed event times be defined as:

$$V_{ks} = \Lambda_s(T_{ks}) - \Lambda_s(T'_{ks})$$

Assuming that  $V_{1s}, V_{2s}, \ldots$  are independent and identically distributed with cumulative distribution function  $F_s$ , these quantities can easily be generated using Monte Carlo simulation.

The event times,  $T_{1s}, T_{2s}, \ldots$  can then be calculated for all  $s \in S$  using the following recursive relation:

$$T_{ks} = \Lambda_s^{-1} [\Lambda_s(T'_{ks}) + V_{ks}], \quad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

NOTE: In this case we do not necessarily have  $T'_{1,s} = 0$ . In fact, since we use a global clock, the times  $T'_{1,s}, T'_{2,s}, \ldots$  depends on the amount of time spent in the other states.

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In this model we assume that the waiting times for the states are affected by individual local clocks for each state.

Thus, e.g., aging in one given state is **independent** of the time spent in the other states.

In particular, aging in each of the functioning states is independent of repair times.

Such a model, however, is not likely to fit a case where the component is subject to global effects.

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We recall that the waiting times spent in each state between the transitions are:

$$W_{ks} = T_{ks} - T'_{ks}$$

We then let  $U_{0s} = 0$ , and introduce the following quantities for k = 1, 2, ... and  $s \in S$ :

$$U_{ks} = W_{1s} + \cdots + W_{ks} = U_{k-1,s} + W_{ks}.$$

Thus,  $U_{1s}, U_{2s}, \ldots$  are the points of time when the component leaves state s, given that we use a clock which is stopped when the component is not in state s. We will refer to these points of time as the *net event times* for state s.

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We then let the waiting times between the time-transformed net event times be defined as:

$$V_{ks} = \Lambda_s(U_{ks}) - \Lambda_s(U_{k-1,s}), \quad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

Assuming that  $V_{1s}, V_{2s}, \ldots$  are independent and identically distributed with cumulative distribution function  $F_s$ , these quantities can easily be generated using Monte Carlo simulation.

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#### The Local time model

The net event times  $U_{1s}, U_{2s}, \ldots$  for state s can be calculated for all  $s \in S$  using:

$$U_{ks} = \Lambda_s^{-1} [\Lambda_s(U_{k-1,s}) + V_{ks}], \quad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

Thus, recalling that  $U_{0s} = 0$  and that  $\Lambda_s(0) = 0$ , we have that:

$$U_{1s} = \Lambda_s^{-1} [\Lambda_s(U_{0s}) + V_{1s}] = \Lambda^{-1}(V_{1s})$$
$$U_{2s} = \Lambda_s^{-1} [\Lambda_s(U_{1s}) + V_{2s}] = \Lambda^{-1}(V_{1s} + V_{2s})$$

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Finally, in order to find the event times  $T_{1s}, T_{2s}, \ldots$ , we recall that  $T_{ks} = T'_{ks} + W_{ks}$ ,  $k = 1, 2, \ldots$ 

Hence, by inserting the net event times we get that:

$$T_{ks} = T'_{ks} + U_{ks} - U_{k-1,s}, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

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## Specific rate functions

Lakey and Rigdon (1992) introduced the power law model with two parameters  $\alpha, \beta > 0$ , where:

$$\lambda(t) = \alpha \beta t^{\alpha - 1}, \quad t \ge 0.$$

The corresponding cumulative rate function is given by:

$$\Lambda(t)=\int_0^t\lambda(u)du=\beta t^{\alpha}.$$

NOTE: If  $\alpha > 1$ , the intensity is increasing, while if  $\alpha < 1$ , the intensity is decreasing. To run simulations we also need the inverse of the cumulative intensity function. For the power law model this is given by:

$$\Lambda^{-1}(u) = (u/\beta)^{1/\alpha}$$

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## Specific rate functions (cont.)

A more general model could allow non-monotonic intensity functions as well. This can be accomplished by using an additive model:

$$\lambda(t) = \sum_{j=1}^m \gamma_j \lambda_j(t),$$

where  $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_m$  are intensity functions, and where  $\gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_m$  are non-negative constants. By applying appropriate scaling, it is easy and convenient to choose these constants so that:

$$\sum_{j=1}^m \gamma_j = 1.$$

If this is done,  $\lambda$  becomes a convex combination of the intensity functions  $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_m$ . By integrating the intensity function we find that the cumulative intensity function is:

$$\Lambda(t) = \sum_{j=1}^m \gamma_j \Lambda_j(t),$$

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# Specific rate functions (cont.)

For additive intensity functions it may not be possible to find analytical expressions for  $\Lambda^{-1}$ . However, if we can find analytical expressions for  $\Lambda_1^{-1}, \ldots, \Lambda_m^{-1}$ , then  $\Lambda^{-1}$  can easily be determined numerically.

Assume more specifically, that for a given u we are able to compute  $t_j = \Lambda_j^{-1}(u)$ , j = 1, ..., m, and that:

$$t_{\min} = \min_{1 \le j \le m} t_j$$
, and  $t_{\max} = \max_{1 \le j \le m} t_j$ .

Then it is easy to show that:

$$t_{\min} \leq \Lambda^{-1}(u) \leq t_{\max}.$$

By using these lower and upper bounds we can easily find  $\Lambda^{-1}(u)$  numerically using e.g., the bisection method.

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#### Importance measures in the non-homogenous case

We consider a multistate system  $(C, \phi)$  where  $C = \{1, 2\}$ , and where both components have only three possible states, i.e.,  $S_1 = S_2 = \{0, 1, 2\}$ .

For simplicity we let  $f_i(s) = s$ , for all  $s \in S_i$ , i = 1, 2.

The structure function is given by:

 $\phi(X_1(t), X_2(t)) = \min(f_1(X_1(t)), f_2(X_2(t))).$ 

The transition matrices of the built-in Markov chains are:

$$\boldsymbol{P}^{(1)} = \boldsymbol{P}^{(2)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.0, & 0.1, & 0.9\\ 0.9, & 0.0, & 0.1\\ 0.1, & 0.9, & 0.0 \end{bmatrix},$$

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For  $s \in S_i$ ,  $i \in C$  and k = 1, 2, ... we introduce:

$$T_{ks}^{(i)'}$$
 = The *k*th time Component *i* enters state *s*  
 $T_{ks}^{(i)}$  = The *k*th time Component *i* leaves state *s*

Moreover, we introduce the waiting times spent in each state between the transitions:

$$\begin{split} \mathcal{W}_{ks}^{(i)} &= \text{Component } i' \text{s } k\text{th waiting time in state } s \\ &= \mathcal{T}_{ks}^{(i)} - \mathcal{T}_{ks}^{(i)'}, \end{split}$$

as well as the net event times:

$$U_{ks}^{(i)} = W_{1s}^{(i)} + \dots + W_{ks}^{(i)} = U_{k-1,s}^{(i)} + W_{ks}^{(i)}.$$

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The time transform applied to event times affecting the state  $s \in S_i$ ,  $i \in C$  is denoted by:

$$\Lambda_s^{(i)}(t) = \int_0^t \lambda_s^{(i)}(u) du.$$

Finally, we assume that:

$$V_{1s}^{(i)}, V_{2s}^{(i)}, \ldots, \quad s \in S_i,$$

are independent and identically distributed with cumulative distribution function  $F_s^{(i)}$ .

### The global and local time models

For the global time model we then have:

$$T_{ks}^{(i)} = (\Lambda_s^{(i)})^{-1} [\Lambda_s(T_{ks}^{(i)'}) + V_{ks}^{(i)}],$$

while for the local time model we have:

$$U_{ks}^{(i)} = (\Lambda_s^{(i)})^{-1} [\Lambda_s(U_{ks}^{(i)}) + V_{ks}^{(i)}].$$

More specifically we assume that  $V_{1s}^{(i)}, V_{2s}^{(i)}, \ldots$  are independent and exponentially distributed with expected value  $\mu_s^{(i)}$ , where:

$$\begin{split} \mu_0^{(1)} &= \mu_0^{(2)} = 0.5, \\ \mu_1^{(1)} &= \mu_1^{(2)} = 2.0, \\ \mu_2^{(1)} &= \mu_2^{(2)} = 7.5. \end{split}$$

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## The global and local time models (cont.)

In order to see the effect of the trend-renewal model more clearly, we use the following intensity functions:

$$\lambda_0^{(1)}(t) = \lambda_1^{(1)}(t) = 1,$$
  
 $\lambda_0^{(2)}(t) = \lambda_1^{(2)}(t) = \lambda_2^{(2)}(t) = 1.$ 

The corresponding cumulative intensity functions then become:

$$egin{aligned} &\Lambda_0^{(1)}(t) = \Lambda_1^{(1)}(t) = t, \ &\Lambda_0^{(2)}(t) = \Lambda_1^{(2)}(t) = \Lambda_2^{(2)}(t) = t. \end{aligned}$$

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## The global and local time models (cont.)

For state 2 of Component 1, however, a more complicated intensity function is used:

$$\lambda_2^{(1)}(t) = \sum_{j=1}^3 \gamma_j(\alpha_j \beta_j t^{\alpha_j - 1}),$$

where the parameters of  $\lambda_2^{(1)}(t)$  are:

$$\begin{aligned} &\alpha_1 = 0.75, \quad \alpha_2 = 1.0, \quad \alpha_3 = 1.6, \\ &\beta_1 = 2.0, \quad \beta_2 = 1.0, \quad \beta_3 = 0.1, \\ &\gamma_1 = 0.75, \quad \gamma_2 = 0.15, \quad \gamma_3 = 0.1. \end{aligned}$$

The corresponding cumulative intensity function then becomes:

$$egin{aligned} &\Lambda_2^{(1)}(t) = \sum_{j=1}^3 \gamma_j(eta_j t^{lpha_j}) \ &= 0.75(2.0t^{0.75}) + 0.15t + 0.1(0.1t^{1.6}). \end{aligned}$$

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# The global and local time models (cont.)

Below we have plotted the intensity function  $\lambda_2^{(1)}(t)$ .



We observe that  $\lambda_2^{(1)}(t)$  is decreasing in the beginning, and then increasing later This shape is often referred to as a bath tub shape.

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## Monte Carlo simulation using Global time model



Figure:  $E[X_1(t)]$  (red),  $E[X_2(t)]$  (green) and  $E[\phi(t)]$  (blue) - Global time model

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## Monte Carlo simulation using Local time model



Figure:  $E[X_1(t)]$  (red),  $E[X_2(t)]$  (green) and  $E[\phi(t)]$  (blue) - Local time model

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## Monte Carlo simulation using Global time model



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## Monte Carlo simulation using Local time model



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## Monte Carlo simulation using Global time model



Figure:  $I_{NB}^{*(1)}(t)$  (red) and  $I_{NB}^{*(2)}(t)$  (green) - Global time model

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## Monte Carlo simulation using Local time model



Figure:  $I_{NB}^{*(1)}(t)$  (red) and  $I_{NB}^{*(2)}(t)$  (green) - Local time model

## Monte Carlo Result Summary

- The results show that in a non-stationary case, the importance ranking may change over time.
- In order to obtain a time-independent ranking, one must average the measures over time.
- In both plots we observe that Component 2 is more important than Component 1 in the first phase, while Component 1 is more important than Component 2 in the second phase.
- Using the Global time model, the first phase is shorter than when the Local time model is used.
- The choice between the Global and the Local model can have an impact on the results.

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