

Duality Revisited: Construction of Fractional Frequency Distributions Based on Two Dual Lotka Laws

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Fractional frequency distributions of, for example, authors with a certain (fractional) number of papers are very irregular and, therefore, not easy to model or to explain. This article gives a first attempt to this by assuming two simple Lotka laws (with exponent 2): one for the number of authors with n papers (total count here) and one for the number of papers with n authors, $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Based on an earlier made convolution model of Egghe, interpreted and reworked now for discrete scores, we are able to produce theoretical fractional frequency distributions with only one parameter, which are in very close agreement with the practical ones as found in a large dataset produced earlier by Rao. The article also shows that (irregular) fractional frequency distributions are a consequence of Lotka's law, and are not examples of breakdowns of this famous historical law.

Introduction

In Rousseau (1992), the discussion started on the fractional frequency distribution of, for example, authors, and the distribution of their fractional scores in a bibliography. Fractional scores means that if an author has published a paper in which there are i ($i = 1, 2, 3, \dots$) authors in total, then this author (and all the other authors in this article) receives a score $1/i$. This is different from the total scoring system in which every author receives a score 1 in such a paper; hence, here, scores are always entire numbers, as opposed to the fractional scoring system. One then wonders how the fractional frequency distribution of author scores looks like in a given bibliography. To be precisely

clear about the score of an author in such a bibliography, let us give an example. Suppose an author in this bibliography has a paper where he/she is the only author, has another paper where there are two authors in total, and has three other papers where there are three authors in total. Then the overall fractional score of this author is the sum of the fractional scores per paper, i.e., $1 + 1/2 + 3 \cdot 1/3 = 2.5$. Note that we avoided to use the term "total fractional score," which could be confusing with the overall score in the total counting system of this author, which would be 5 in this case.

Although Lotka's law (or distribution) very well applies to any scoring system where entire numbers are used—we can even go back to the historical paper Lotka (1926) for this—it is clear that this is not the case anymore for the fractional scoring system. As Rousseau (1992) points out, a fractional score of $1/8$ probably will occur less frequently than a score $1/4$, because we can assume that there are less eight-authored papers than four-authored ones. Even if this would not be the case we can go further to $1/16$, $1/32, \dots$ scores that will not occur very frequently. In addition to this, a score $1/4$ need not only come from authorship in a four-authored paper but is also obtained in the case the author has two eight-authored papers. To go back to the score of 2.5 above, the number of possibilities is (theoretically) unlimited. Indeed, an overall score of 2.5 can also be reached via two one-authored papers and one two-authored paper, but also via five two-authored papers, but also via three two-authored papers and four four-authored papers, and so on.

Burrell and Rousseau (1995) present numerical simulations of fractional frequency distributions showing their irregular shapes.

From this it is very clear that calculating the fractional frequency distribution is very difficult, if not impossible. Indeed, in any theoretical work, any positive rational num

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ber $q = p/r$ ($p, r \in \mathbb{N}$) is a possible fractional frequency (indeed *one* of the many ways to obtain q as an overall fractional score is by having p r -authored papers). So, if we want to determine the fractional frequency distribution one requires a formula for $f(q)$, the probability (or fraction) to have an overall fractional score $q \in Q^+$, the positive rational numbers. This is virtually impossible, because there are an infinite number of these, and because we expect, due to the very irregular shape (see the examples above and also further, where we discuss the Rao data set) of such a distribution, that, for each $q \in Q^+$, a different formula for $f(q)$ is needed, i.e., we do not expect to be able to produce one analytical function for $f(q)$ where q appears as a parameter.

Therefore, in Egghe (1993) we decided to tackle the problem, where the rational number q is replaced by any real number $z \in \mathbb{R}^+$. The argument—briefly—was as follows. Let $\varphi(i)$ denote Lotka’s law (any exponent) being the fraction of authors with i papers in the total scoring system (i.e., independent of the number of coauthors in these papers), $i \in \mathbb{N}$. Let $f_1(z)$ be the fraction of authors with a fractional score z in one paper (hence, $z = 1, 1/2, 1/3, 1/4, \dots$). Then the overall fractional frequency distribution f is given by ($z \in Q^+$)

$$f(z) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \underbrace{(f_1 \star \dots \star f_1)}_{i \text{ times}}(z) \varphi(i) \quad (1)$$

where \star denotes convolution, applied here i times in every term of the sum. Indeed, Equation 1 follows from the Theorem of Total Probability (also called Partition Theorem) and the fact that $(f_1 \star \dots \star f_1)(z)$, where we have i times f_1 , is the distribution of the fractional frequencies of authors, given one has published i papers (see, e.g., Chung, 1974, or Blom, 1989, or virtually any good text book on probability theory).

As said, in Egghe (1993) we were unable to use Equation 1 in the discrete case ($z \in Q^+$), but we studied the continuous case ($z \in \mathbb{R}^+$). In Egghe (1993), we could indeed show that Equation 1 is not a decreasing function anymore but is increasing up to $z = 1$ from where it starts decreasing. This explained the “overall” view of a fractional frequency distribution but not at all its values for every rational z . We refer to the table in the Appendix for a very large fractional dataset, collected earlier in Rao (1995), with accompanying graph (Figure 1). There the “overall” view is clear, but also the irregularity of the individual data is evident. The graph clearly shows that as fractions of papers (q) increases, $f(q)$ tends to zero. Further, $f(q)$ is not a smooth curve, and it moves up and down frequently even for large values of q . The mean and median are 1.121 and 0.99252, respectively. The variance and standard deviation are 1.1721 and 1.0826, respectively.

We close this overview of existing results by remarking that the model (1) follows from a dual approach of infor-

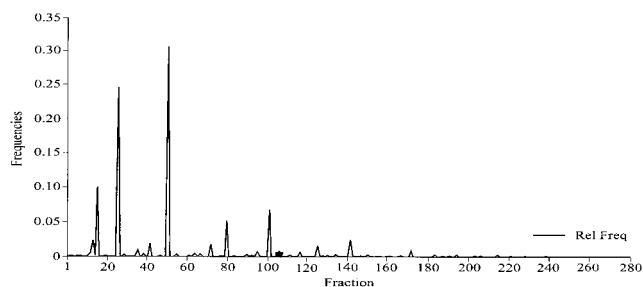


FIG. 1. A fractional frequency curve (experimental data of the table in the Appendix).

metrics (cf. Egghe, 1989, 1990), because f_1 is derived from the Lotka law ψ , the dual of the Lotka law φ : $\psi(j)$ denotes the fraction of papers with j authors ($j \in \mathbb{N}$). Hence, model (1) involves (and *only* involves) the two dual Lotka laws φ and ψ . It is, therefore, that we argued in Egghe (1993) that modeling fractional counting does not prove a breakdown of Lotka’s law (as argued in Rousseau, 1992) but, on the contrary, Lotka’s laws φ and its dual ψ explain the fractional frequency distribution. We, therefore, consider (1) to have a high informetric explanatory value.

For this reason, we continue to use (a variant of) model (1), in the attack of the problem of explaining the irregular shape of the fractional frequency distribution $f(q)$, $q \in Q^+$. As explained above, this is not possible for every $q \in Q^+$. In this article, therefore, we apply a variant of Equation 1 to grouped data, where we only allow for a few fractional scores q . Let us explain this in more detail. Let $i \in \mathbb{N}$ be fixed. A fractional scoring model that is between the classical one and the total scoring system is the following:

1. If we have a paper with j authors, $j = 1, \dots, i - 1$, each author receives a score of $1/j$,
2. If we have a paper with j authors, $j = i, i + 1, \dots$, each author receives a score of $1/i$.

Note that for $i = 1$ we have the total scoring system, which we will not use here. If i increases, we move closer and closer to the fractional scoring system. Because now, for each fixed $i \in \mathbb{N}$, only the scores $1, \dots, 1/i$ per paper are possible, we are in a position to calculate all possible fractional frequency probabilities, where we will limit ourselves to total scores $q \leq 2$. One reason for this is that the most interesting part of scores is in the interval $[0, 2]$ (the highest values belong to that interval and, although irregularity persists after $q = 2$, the overall tendency is a decreasing function). Another reason is the increased difficulty in calculating $f(q)$ for higher q . Indeed, the higher the q , the more possibilities there are of patterns of publications to reach this value. This will also be illustrated in the sequel.

The next section will deal with $i = 2$. Here, the only possible values for q are $1/2, 1, 3/2, 2$ and this case is too rough in comparison with the detailed Rao data (Rao, 1995). Appropriate grouping in these data gives a first (rough) comparison between the theoretically obtained fractional frequency distribution and the experimental one.

The fourth section deals with $i = 3$. Here, we have possible fractional scores q : $1/3, 1/2, 2/3, 5/6, 1, 7/6, 4/3, 3/2, 5/3, 11/6, 2$ (we stop at 2), and for each of them we present an analytical formula for its probability $f(q)$. Corresponding groupings in the Rao data now gives a remarkable agreement between the theoretical and experimental fractional frequency distribution.

The fifth section deals with $i = 4$. Possible fractional scores q here are: $1/4, 1/3, 1/2, 7/12, 2/3, 3/4, 5/6, 11/12, 1, 13/12, 7/6, 5/4, 4/3, 17/12, 3/2, 19/12, 5/3, 7/4, 11/6, 23/12, 2$. Again, for each of them we give an analytical formula for its probability $f(q)$ and corresponding groupings in the Rao data again gives a remarkable agreement between the theoretical and experimental fractional frequency distribution.

The case $i = 5$ is also elaborated, now yielding formulae for not less than 83 fractional scores $q \leq 2$. The model is very good, but the only problem is that groupings in the Rao data often are not necessary because the obtained intervals are too small. In this way, many very low probabilities are compared. This phenomenon could be compared with the choice—in statistics—of how many bars one uses in a histogram: usually a computer program gives an optimal choice (see also Egghe and Rousseau, 2001). If we take less bars, the graph becomes too rough; if we use more bars, we risk to have too many intervals so that reasonable groupings are not possible anymore.

For the Rao data the cases $i = 3$ and 4 are the best, but we stress the fact that the very detailed cases $i = 5$ has its application in even larger datasets, yet to be constructed. We, therefore, plead to construct very large fractional data sets (i.e., fractional frequency scores of authors in vast domains) so that our model for $i = 5$ is more suited.

In the next section we present the general theoretical model, which is a discrete (exact) version of the continuous (approximated) version in Egghe (1993).

Exact, Discrete, Theoretical Model for the Fractional Frequency Distribution, Derived from Two Dual Lotka Laws

Let $\varphi(n)$ denote the fraction of authors with n papers ($n \in \mathbb{N}$, total counts). Its dual analog (cf. Egghe, 1989, 1990) is the function ψ where $\psi(n)$ denotes the fraction of papers with n authors ($n \in \mathbb{N}$). In the sequel we will use concrete Lotka laws for these functions, but the following important result is independent of the choice of function for φ and ψ .

Lemma II.1. Let $f_1(z)$ denote the fraction of the authorships (i.e., author occurrences) with fractional score z in one paper. Then

$$f_1(z) = \frac{\psi\left(\frac{1}{z}\right)}{\mu z} \quad (2)$$

where μ denotes the average number of authors per paper.

Proof:

$$f_1(z) = \frac{\text{total \# authorships with fractional score } z \text{ in 1 paper}}{\text{total \# authorships}}$$

$$f_1(z) = \frac{\frac{1}{z} \left(\text{total \# papers with } \frac{1}{z} \text{ authors} \right)}{\text{total \# authorships}}$$

$$f_1(z) = \frac{1}{z} \frac{\text{total \# papers}}{\text{total \# authorships}} \frac{\text{total \# papers with } \frac{1}{z} \text{ authors}}{\text{total \# papers}}$$

$$f_1(z) = \frac{1}{z} \frac{1}{\mu} \cdot \text{fraction of papers with } \frac{1}{z} \text{ authors}$$

$$f_1(z) = \frac{\psi\left(\frac{1}{z}\right)}{\mu z} .$$

□

Note that $z = 1/n, n \in \mathbb{N}$, necessarily. This shows that the fractional score of an author in one paper is directly derivable from ψ . Together with its dual function φ we will be able to derive the theoretical, discrete fractional frequency distribution. We thank one of the referees to complete our proof of an earlier version.

Proposition II.2.: Let $f(z)$ denote the fractional frequency distribution of a bibliography (more generally an IPP—see Egghe, 1989, 1990) for which φ and ψ are the valid, dual, (entire) frequency functions as described above. Then, for every $z \in Q^+$:

$$f(z) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \underbrace{(f_1 \star \dots \star f_1)}_{i \text{ times}}(z) \varphi(i), \quad (3)$$

where \star denotes convolution. Here it is assumed that the fractional scores distributions in a paper are independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.), being the distribution f_1 .

Proof: Let N be the (random variable of the) number of papers ($i \in \mathbb{N}$) and $Y(j)$ the fractional score from the j th paper. Then

$$\begin{aligned} f(z) &= P(\text{overall fraction} = z) \\ &= P(Y(1) + Y(2) + \dots + Y(N) = z) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(Y(1) + Y(2) + \dots + Y(N) = z | N = i) P(N = i) \end{aligned}$$

by the Theorem of Total Probability. So

$$f(z) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(Y(1) + Y(2) + \dots + Y(i) = z)P(N = i)$$

(independence of N w.r.t. the Y s)

$$f(z) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(Y(1) + Y(2) + \dots + Y(i) = z)\varphi(i).$$

The distribution of $Y(1) + Y(2) + \dots + Y(i)$ is given by the convolution of the individual distributions because we assumed independence of the Y s (cf. Chung, 1974, Blom, 1989), and this becomes the i -fold convolution of f_1 , using the assumption of identical distributions for the Y s. Hence, we proved Equation 3. \square

Note: although it is relatively easy to accept that all Y s have the same distribution, the fact that they are independent is less sure. It is indeed not certain that a certain score in paper 2 (say) is independent of the score in paper 1, due to collaboration habits. However, we have to suppose independence for the intricate model (see Equation 3 and further on!) to work. The assumption can be considered as a simplification that is acceptable in this first attempt to model fractional frequencies. It will be clear in the sequel that our model fits real data very well, which is a (post factum!) argument for the acceptance of this simplification.

From the above it is, hence, clear, at least theoretically, that the very irregular fractional frequency distribution is determined by the entire frequency distribution φ and its dual ψ . In the sequel we will use the simplest (and in informetrics most important) distribution: the Lotka distribution with exponent 2. So we will use ($n \in \mathbb{N}$)

$$\varphi(n) = \frac{6}{\pi^2 n^2}. \quad (4)$$

Here, $6/\pi^2 \approx 0.6079271$ is the normalizing constant, assuring that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \varphi(n) = 1 \quad (5)$$

as is required for a discrete distribution (cf. also Egghe and Rousseau, 1990).

For the dual analog ψ of φ , we use the same simple function

$$\psi(n) = \frac{6}{\pi^2 n^2}, \quad (6)$$

$n \in \mathbb{N}$. Hence, $\varphi = \psi$, mathematically, but φ and ψ have dual interpretations. Note that Equations 2 and 6 imply that

$$f_1(z) = \frac{6z}{\pi^2 \mu} \quad (7)$$

Note on the Use of the Law of Lotka

The use of the law of Lotka for the distribution φ is undisputed (although other distributions can be used, of course). As one of the referees points out, this has been confirmed hundreds of times (going even back to Lotka, 1926 itself). However, the same referee disputes the use of Lotka's law for distribution ψ . As he/she rightly points out, Lotka's law is not fitting well the distribution of number of authors per paper in the cases Ajiferuke (1991) and Rousseau (1994). It is fitting in case there are more single-authored papers than two-authored ones, but in several cases there are more two-authored papers than single-authored ones. Nevertheless, we used Lotka's law for ψ for the following reasons:

1. We wanted to develop further a "Lotka-type" informetrics theory as we did before in several papers. Hereby we want to show the interaction of the two dual laws and also that nothing else is needed to explain the fractional frequency distributions. Of course, basic for the model is proposition II.2 and—as indicated by the same referee—the model (3) is probably very robust in the sense that it will not matter very much what are the exact distributions that are used for φ and ψ . Another referee even advocates to use the real experimental data for φ and ψ . Although this has value in the testing of the validity of model (3), this methodology would not shed light on the dual mechanism that is explained in this article (via Equation 2). In short, we want to investigate how "far" we can go with "Lotka-type informetrics." It would then also be interesting to develop—in a consequent way—other informetric theories, based on other frequency distributions. Note that Egghe (2000) and Egghe and Rao (2002) are examples of an explanation of the first citation distribution and of the most recent reference distribution, where (especially in the latter article) it was made clear that the distribution of the number of references does not follow Lotka's law.
2. Using Lotka's law for φ and ψ is easy, and much easier than using distributions of the lognormal type (which would have been more exact, certainly in the case of ψ).
3. In a forthcoming article we intend to investigate other distributions for φ and ψ . Even the use of the uniform distribution for ψ (which is clearly not the correct one!) could be considered, thereby showing the "power in itself" of the methodology that is developed here (robustness).
4. Last but not least: our data show an approximate Lotka law for ψ . Only the cases of one and two authors per paper yield a more or less equal number of papers, contrary to Lotka's law. The reason that we encounter a distribution close to Lotka's law is that we have papers

in mathematics where collaboration is less than in some other disciplines (such as, for example, chemistry, . . .).

The parameter μ (the mean of ψ) will be determined by an ad hoc method (see further). We prefer it this way rather than calculating the mean of ψ , for n limited to a finite number of values (as in practice). Allowing an infinite number of n in ψ yields a distribution with infinite mean.

As explained in the previous section, Equation 3, interpreted for continuous $z \in \mathbb{R}^+$ yields in Egghe (1993) an explanation of the overall behavior of f : increasing in $[0, 1]$ and decreasing beyond 1. However, it does not give an explanation for the many irregularities in rational points $z \in \mathbb{Q}^+$. This will be done in the rest of this article. We will be able to inspect the properties of f in Equation 3 by adapting it a bit by restricting the number of possible fractional scores (per paper) from below as explained in the introduction (and repeated further on). Analogous groupings in the experimental data will then allow for the comparison between the theoretical model with the experimental fractional frequency distribution.

The Case $i = 2$: Allowing an Author Score of 1/2 or 1 in One Paper

Although too rough, this case will very simply illustrate the methodology that we will apply in this article to yield discrete fractional frequency distributions. Note that in all our studies in this article we will limit ourselves to fractional scores $q \leq 2$, as explained in the introduction.

In this simple model, an author receives a score 1 if he/she is an author in a single-authored paper. If he/she is author in a multiauthored paper, this author receives a score 1/2. Let us call g_1 the author distribution of fractional scores in one paper. By definition

$$g_1(1) = f_1(1) \quad (8)$$

$$g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \sum_{i=2}^{\infty} f_1\left(\frac{1}{i}\right) \quad (9)$$

$$g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = 1 - f_1(1), \quad (10)$$

because f_1 is a distribution. Using Equation 7 this yields

$$g_1(1) = \frac{6}{\pi^2 \mu} \quad (11)$$

$$g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = 1 - \frac{6}{\pi^2 \mu} \quad (12)$$

We apply now Equation 3, but with f_1 replaced by g_1 and for the values $z = 1/2, 1, 3/2, 2$, the only possible scores (inferior to 2). This gives

$$f\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\varphi(1) \quad (13)$$

$$f(1) = g_1(1)\varphi(1) + \left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\right)^2\varphi(2) \quad (14)$$

$$f\left(\frac{3}{2}\right) = 2g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)g_1(1)\varphi(2) + \left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\right)^3\varphi(3) \quad (15)$$

$$f(2) = (g_1(1))^2\varphi(2) + 3\left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\right)^2g_1(1)\varphi(3) + \left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\right)^4\varphi(4), \quad (16)$$

where φ is given by Equation 4.

These values are then compared by the corresponding grouped data from Rao's table in the Appendix, grouped as follows:

1. score 1/2 corresponds to grouping the data in the interval]0, 0.75]
2. score 1 corresponds to grouping in]0.75, 1.25]
3. score 3/2 corresponds to]1.25, 1.75]
4. score 2 corresponds to]1.75, 2.25].

It is clear that we take the interval]0, 0.75] for 1/2 (and not]0.25, 0.75]) because in our model, all fractional scores (in one paper), smaller than 1/2, are transformed into 1/2.

Of course, these groupings are not a perfect analog of our simplified model because an author with an overall score of 1/4, being the result of participation in two eight-authored papers is classified into the score 1 in the model while it is classified in the interval]0, 0.75] in the grouping. This difference is there, but will diminish in the next cases where we allow for smaller fractions. Also, if we find good results in this setting, this will indicate that the above difference is not destroying the similar nature of both simplifications.

The (only) parameter μ is determined by requiring $f(1/2)$ to be exact:

$$f\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \left(1 - \frac{6}{\pi^2 \mu}\right) \frac{6}{\pi^2} = \frac{18,892}{46,853} = \frac{\# \text{ in }]0, 0.75]}{\text{total } \#}$$

(see the table in the Appendix). This yields $\mu = 1.80537576$. We have now the following table and graph, comparing theoretical and experimental fractional frequency distributions (Table 1 and Figure 2).

From the above we see, although we only compare four fractions, both theoretical and experimental graphs are following the same pattern. This will become more clear in the next (more important and more interesting) cases.

TABLE 1. Distribution of overall fractional scores (case of $i = 2$).

q	Theoretical (f)	Experimental
1/2	0.4033047	0.4033047
1	0.2715154	0.345911681
3/2	0.0875965	0.079546667
2	0.0545977	0.081360852

The Case $i = 3$: Allowing an Author Score of 1/3, 1/2, or 1 in One Paper

This will be the first interesting case. Here, an author receives a score 1 if he/she is an author in a single-authored paper, a score 1/2 if he/she is an author in a two-authored paper, and a score 1/3 if he/she is an author in a j -authored paper, for all $j \geq 3$. Now we have

$$g_1(1) = f_1(1) = \frac{6}{\pi^2 \mu} \tag{17}$$

$$g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = f_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \frac{3}{\pi^2 \mu} \tag{18}$$

$$g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) = 1 - \left(f_1(1) + f_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\right) = 1 - \frac{9}{\pi^2 \mu} \tag{19}$$

Possible overall fractional scores (in $]0, 2]$) are 1/3, 1/2, 2/3, 5/6, 1, 7/6, 4/3, 3/2, 5/3, 11/6, 2 (theoretical) to be compared with grouped data (from the table in the Appendix) in the intervals $]0, 5/12]$, $]5/12, 7/12]$, $]7/12, 9/12]$, $]9/12, 11/12]$, $]11/12, 13/12]$, $]13/12, 15/12]$, $]15/12, 17/12]$, $]17/12, 19/12]$, $]19/12, 21/12]$, $]21/12, 23/12]$, $]23/12, 25/12]$.

We have the following formulas from which the theoretical fractional frequency distribution can be calculated.

$$f\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) = g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) \varphi(1) \tag{20}$$

$$f\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \varphi(1) \tag{21}$$

$$f\left(\frac{2}{3}\right) = \left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\right)^2 \varphi(2) \tag{22}$$

$$f\left(\frac{5}{6}\right) = 2g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \varphi(2) \tag{23}$$

$$f(1) = g_1(1) \varphi(1) + \left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\right)^2 \varphi(2) + \left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\right)^3 \varphi(3) \tag{24}$$

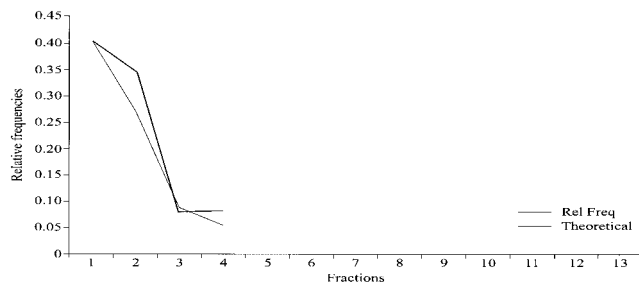


FIG. 2. Theoretical and experimental fractional frequency distributions (case of $i = 2$).

$$f\left(\frac{7}{6}\right) = 3\left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\right)^2 g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \varphi(3) \tag{25}$$

$$f\left(\frac{4}{3}\right) = 2g_1(1)g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) \varphi(2) + 3\left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\right)^2 g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) \varphi(3) + \left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\right)^4 \varphi(4) \tag{26}$$

$$f\left(\frac{3}{2}\right) = 2g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)g_1(1) \varphi(2) + \left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\right)^3 \varphi(3) + 4\left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\right)^3 g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \varphi(4) \tag{27}$$

$$f\left(\frac{5}{3}\right) = 3\left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\right)^2 g_1(1) \varphi(3) + 6\left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\right)^2 \left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\right)^2 \varphi(4) + \left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\right)^5 \varphi(5) \tag{28}$$

$$f\left(\frac{11}{6}\right) = 6g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)g_1(1) \varphi(3) + 4g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) \times \left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\right)^3 \varphi(4) + 5\left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\right)^4 g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \varphi(5) \tag{29}$$

$$f(2) = (g_1(1))^2 \varphi(2) + 3\left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\right)^2 g_1(1) \varphi(3) + 4\left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\right)^3 g_1(1) \varphi(4) + \left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\right)^4 \varphi(4) + 10\left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\right)^3 \left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\right)^2 \varphi(5) + \left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\right)^6 \varphi(6). \tag{30}$$

Again, the parameter μ is determined by

TABLE 2. Distribution of overall fractional scores (case of $i = 3$).

q	Theoretical (f)	Experimental
1/3	0.1389322	0.1389322
1/2	0.1562373	0.2530468
2/3	0.0079701	0.0112693
5/6	0.0294265	0.0236911
1	0.323324	0.3125520
7/6	0.0027311	0.0097112
4/3	0.0389478	0.0192304
3/2	0.0417687	0.0340426
5/3	0.0059575	0.0049303
11/6	0.0129368	0.0072781
2	0.0483318	0.070959

$$f\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) = \left(1 - \frac{9}{\pi^2\mu}\right) \frac{6}{\pi^2} = \frac{\# \text{ in } \left[0, \frac{5}{12}\right]}{\text{total \#}}$$

$$= \frac{6,508}{46,853}$$

yielding $\mu = 1.1819488123$. We obtain the following remarkable table and graph (Table 2 and Figure 3).

The agreement between the theoretical and experimental results is remarkable. This proves that the two dual Lotka laws are capable of modeling fractional frequency distributions (except, maybe, for $q = 1/2$, on which we will comment at the end of the article). The model also allows to prove the following inequalities (nonexhaustive list, proofs are left to the reader):

1. $f\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) < f\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \Leftrightarrow \mu < 1.216$ (as in our case)
2. $f\left(\frac{2}{3}\right) < \frac{1}{4}f\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)$
3. $f(1) > 2f\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)$
4. $f\left(\frac{5}{6}\right) < \min\left(\frac{1}{2}f\left(\frac{1}{2}\right), \frac{3}{2\pi^2}f\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\right)$
5. $f\left(\frac{4}{3}\right) > 2f\left(\frac{5}{6}\right)$
6. $f(2) > f\left(\frac{3}{2}\right)$
7. $f\left(\frac{5}{3}\right) > 2f\left(\frac{7}{6}\right)$

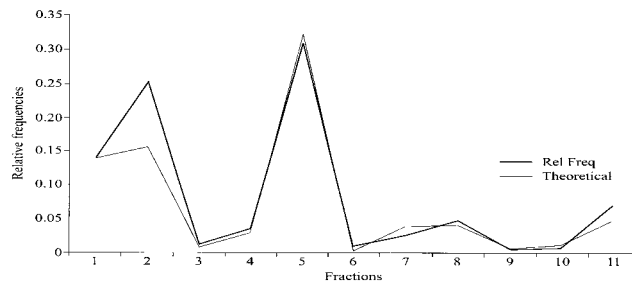


FIG. 3. Theoretical and experimental fractional frequency distributions (case of $i = 3$).

8. $f(1) > f\left(\frac{3}{2}\right)$
9. $f\left(\frac{2}{3}\right) < f\left(\frac{5}{6}\right) \Leftrightarrow \mu < 1.52$ (and, hence, $f\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) < f\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \Rightarrow f\left(\frac{2}{3}\right) < f\left(\frac{5}{6}\right)$).
10. $\lim_{\mu \rightarrow \infty} f(q) \begin{cases} = 0, q \neq \frac{n}{3}, n \in \mathbb{N} \\ = \frac{\pi^2}{6n^2}, q = \frac{n}{3} \end{cases}$

The explanation for this last regularity is as follows: for extremely high μ , the chance to have a paper with less than three authors is very small. In this case, one can only receive a fractional score of $1/3$ per paper. Hence, the only overall scores that are possible are $q = n/3$ if an author has n papers. The probability for this last event is $\varphi(n) = \pi^2/6n^2$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

The Case $i = 4$: Allowing an Author Score of $1/4$, $1/3$, $1/2$, or 1 in One Paper

We are heading now towards increasing refinement: more fractional scores are obtained (and, hence, their probability must be determined) and—on the corresponding experimental side—more but smaller intervals are used to group data. So, for any data set, there comes a time where extra refinements lead to too few data in the groupings and, hence, to the comparison of many very small numbers. This will be experienced from $i = 5$ on (see next section). It is our feeling that for the Rao data, the present case $i = 4$ is the most interesting one.

In this case an author receives a score 1 if he/she is an author in a single-authored paper, a score $1/2$ if he/she is an author in a two-authored paper, a score $1/3$ if he/she is an author in a three-authored paper, and a score $1/4$ if he/she is an author in a j -authored paper, for all $j \geq 4$. Now we have

$$g_1(1) = f_1(1) = \frac{6}{\pi^2\mu} \tag{31}$$

$$g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = f_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \frac{3}{\pi^2\mu} \quad (32)$$

$$g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) = f_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) = \frac{2}{\pi^2\mu} \quad (33)$$

$$g_1\left(\frac{1}{4}\right) = 1 - \left(f_1(1) + f_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) + f_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\right) = 1 - \frac{11}{\pi^2\mu} \quad (34)$$

Possible overall fractional scores (in]0, 2]) are 1/4, 1/3, 1/2, 7/12, 2/3, 3/4, 5/6, 11/12, 1, 13/12, 7/6, 5/4, 4/3, 17/12, 3/2, 19/12, 5/3, 7/4, 11/6, 23/12, 2 (theoretical) to be compared with grouped data (from the table in the Appendix) in the intervals]0, 7/24],]7/24, 9/24],]9/24, 13/24],]13/24, 15/24],]15/24, 17/24],]17/24, 19/24],]19/24, 21/24],]21/24, 23/24],]23/24, 25/24],]25/24, 27/24],]27/24, 29/24],]29/24, 31/24],]31/24, 33/24],]33/24, 35/24],]35/24, 37/24],]37/24, 39/24],]39/24, 41/24],]41/24, 43/24],]43/24, 45/24],]45/24, 47/24],]47/24, 49/24].

We have the following formulas from which the theoretical fractional frequency distribution can be calculated.

$$f\left(\frac{1}{4}\right) = g_1\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)\varphi(1) \quad (35)$$

$$f\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) = g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\varphi(1) \quad (36)$$

$$f\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\varphi(1) + \left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)\right)^2\varphi(2) \quad (37)$$

$$f\left(\frac{7}{12}\right) = 2g_1\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\varphi(2) \quad (38)$$

$$f\left(\frac{2}{3}\right) = \left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\right)^2\varphi(2) \quad (39)$$

$$f\left(\frac{3}{4}\right) = 2g_1\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\varphi(2) + \left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)\right)^3\varphi(3) \quad (40)$$

$$f\left(\frac{5}{6}\right) = 2g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\varphi(2) + 3\left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)\right)^2g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\varphi(3) \quad (41)$$

$$f\left(\frac{11}{12}\right) = 3\left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\right)^2g_1\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)\varphi(3) \quad (42)$$

$$f(1) = g_1(1)\varphi(1) + \left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\right)^2\varphi(2) + 3\left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)\right)^2g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\varphi(3) + \left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)\right)^4\varphi(4) \quad (43)$$

$$f\left(\frac{13}{12}\right) = 6g_1\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\varphi(3) + 4\left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)\right)^3g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\varphi(4) \quad (44)$$

$$f\left(\frac{7}{6}\right) = 3\left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\right)^2g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\varphi(3) + 6\left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\right)^2\left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)\right)^2\varphi(4) \quad (45)$$

$$f\left(\frac{5}{4}\right) = 2g_1(1)g_1\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)\varphi(2) + 3\left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\right)^2g_1\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)\varphi(3) + 4g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)\right)^3\varphi(4) + 4g_1\left(\frac{1}{4}\right) \times \left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\right)^3\varphi(4) + \left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)\right)^5\varphi(5) \quad (46)$$

$$f\left(\frac{4}{3}\right) = 2g_1(1)g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\varphi(2) + 3g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\right)^2\varphi(3) + 12\left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)\right)^2g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\varphi(4) + \left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\right)^4\varphi(4) + 5\left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)\right)^4g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\varphi(5) \quad (47)$$

$$f\left(\frac{17}{12}\right) = 12g_1\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)\left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\right)^2g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\varphi(4) + 10\left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)\right)^3\left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\right)^2\varphi(5) \quad (48)$$

$$f\left(\frac{3}{2}\right) = 2g_1(1)g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\varphi(2) + 3\left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)\right)^2g_1(1)\varphi(3) + \left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\right)^3\varphi(3) + 6\left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)\right)^2\left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\right)^2\varphi(4) + 4\left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\right)^3g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\varphi(4) + 5\left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)\right)^4g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\varphi(5) + 10\left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)\right)^2\left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\right)^3\varphi(5) + \left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)\right)^6\varphi(6) \quad (49)$$

$$f\left(\frac{19}{12}\right) = 6g_1\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)g_1(1)\varphi(3) + 12g_1\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) \times \left(g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\right)^2\varphi(4)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& + 20 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) \right)^3 g_1 \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) g_1 \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) \varphi(5) + 5 g_1 \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) \\
& \times \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) \right)^4 \varphi(5) + 6 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) \right)^5 g_1 \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) \varphi(6)
\end{aligned} \tag{50}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
f \left(\frac{5}{3} \right) &= 3 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) \right)^2 g_1(1) \varphi(3) \\
& + 6 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) \right)^2 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) \right)^2 \varphi(4) \\
& + 30 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) \right)^2 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) \right)^2 g_1 \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) \varphi(5) \\
& + \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) \right)^5 \varphi(5) + 15 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) \right)^4 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) \right)^2 \varphi(6)
\end{aligned} \tag{51}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
f \left(\frac{7}{4} \right) &= 6 g_1 \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) g_1 \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) g_1(1) \varphi(3) + 4 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) \right)^3 g_1(1) \varphi(4) \\
& + 4 g_1 \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) \right)^3 \varphi(4) \\
& + 10 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) \right)^3 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) \right)^2 \varphi(5) + 20 g_1 \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) \\
& \times \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) \right)^3 g_1 \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) \varphi(5) \\
& + 20 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) \right)^3 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) \right)^3 \varphi(6) \\
& + 6 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) \right)^5 g_1 \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) \varphi(6) + \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) \right)^7 \varphi(7)
\end{aligned} \tag{52}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
f \left(\frac{11}{6} \right) &= 6 g_1 \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) g_1 \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) g_1(1) \varphi(3) \\
& + 12 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) \right)^2 g_1 \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) g_1(1) \varphi(4) + 4 g_1 \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) \\
& \times \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) \right)^3 \varphi(4) + 30 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) \right)^2 g_1 \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) \\
& \times \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) \right)^2 \varphi(5) + 5 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) \right)^4 g_1 \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) \varphi(5) \\
& + 30 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) \right)^4 g_1 \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) g_1 \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) \varphi(6) \\
& + 15 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) \right)^2 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) \right)^4 \varphi(6) \\
& + 7 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) \right)^6 g_1 \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) \varphi(7)
\end{aligned} \tag{53}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
f \left(\frac{23}{12} \right) &= 12 g_1 \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) \right)^2 g_1(1) \varphi(4) + 30 g_1 \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) \\
& \times \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) \right)^2 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) \right)^2 \varphi(5) \\
& + 60 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) \right)^3 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) \right)^2 g_1 \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) \varphi(6) \\
& + 6 g_1 \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) \right)^5 \varphi(6) \\
& + 21 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) \right)^5 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) \right)^2 \varphi(7)
\end{aligned} \tag{54}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
f(2) &= (g_1(1))^2 \varphi(2) + 3 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) \right)^2 g_1(1) \varphi(3) \\
& + 12 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) \right)^2 g_1 \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) g_1(1) \varphi(4) \\
& + 4 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) \right)^3 g_1(1) \varphi(4) + \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) \right)^4 \varphi(4) \\
& + 5 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) \right)^4 g_1(1) \varphi(5) \\
& + 10 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) \right)^2 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) \right)^3 \varphi(5) \\
& + 10 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) \right)^3 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) \right)^2 \varphi(5) \\
& + 15 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) \right)^4 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) \right)^2 \varphi(6) \\
& + 60 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) \right)^2 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) \right)^3 g_1 \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) \varphi(6) \\
& + \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) \right)^6 \varphi(6) + 7 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) \right)^6 g_1 \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) \varphi(7) \\
& + 35 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) \right)^4 \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) \right)^3 \varphi(7) + \left(g_1 \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) \right)^8 \varphi(8).
\end{aligned} \tag{55}$$

The parameter μ is determined by

$$\begin{aligned}
f \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) &= \left(1 - \frac{11}{\pi^2 \mu} \right) \frac{6}{\pi^2} = \frac{\# \text{ in } \left] 0, \frac{7}{24} \right]}{\text{total } \#} \\
&= \frac{1,698}{46,853}
\end{aligned}$$

yielding $\mu = 1.1851868311$. We obtain the following—again remarkable—table and graph (Table 3 and Figure 4).

We can say that, again, the agreement between the theoretical and experimental results is remarkable. In this

TABLE 3. Distribution of overall fractional scores (case of $i = 4$).

q	Theoretical (f)	Experimental
1/4	0.036241009	0.036241009
1/3	0.1039555	0.102233051
1/2	0.1564714	0.250570935
7/12	0.0030927	0.003052099
2/3	0.0044441	0.01274198
3/4	0.0046533	0.00420464
5/6	0.013455	0.019827973
11/12	0.0003526	0.001323288
1	0.3220503	0.309905449
13/12	0.0010631	0.001686125
7/6	0.0015435	0.005698675
5/4	0.0100909	0.003905833
4/3	0.0290481	0.018654088
17/12	0.000205	0.001899558
3/2	0.0417575	0.053358376
19/12	0.0024309	0.000661644
5/3	0.0035013	0.003478966
7/4	0.0033829	0.001430004
11/6	0.0093664	0.007000619
23/12	0.0004929	0.000277464
2	0.0476329	0.0697428726

model we can prove the following inequalities (the proofs are straightforward and left to the reader) (nonexhaustive list).

$$1. f\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) > \frac{3}{2}f\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)$$

$$2. f\left(\frac{7}{12}\right) \leq \frac{1}{\pi^2}f\left(\frac{1}{4}\right) \text{ and equality is valid } \Leftrightarrow \mu = 1$$

(i.e. \Leftrightarrow every paper has one author)

$$3. f\left(\frac{2}{3}\right) < \frac{1}{2\pi^2}f\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)$$

$$4. f(1) > 3f\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)$$

$$5. f\left(\frac{3}{2}\right) > \frac{9}{2}f\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)$$

$$6. f\left(\frac{7}{6}\right) < \frac{6}{\pi^4}f\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)$$

$$7. f\left(\frac{5}{4}\right) > 3f\left(\frac{7}{12}\right)$$

$$8. f\left(\frac{13}{12}\right) > 3f\left(\frac{11}{12}\right)$$

$$9. f\left(\frac{11}{12}\right) < \frac{4}{3\pi^2}f\left(\frac{7}{12}\right)$$

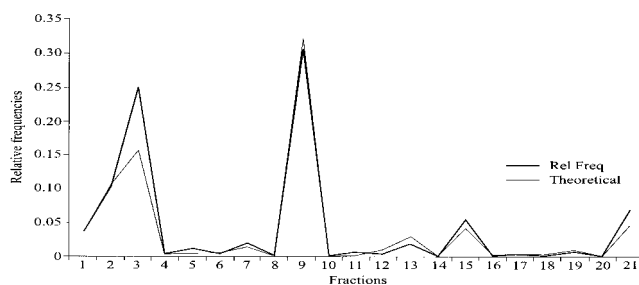


FIG. 4. Theoretical and experimental fractional frequency distributions (case of $i = 4$).

$$10. f\left(\frac{3}{4}\right) > \frac{3}{2}f\left(\frac{7}{12}\right)$$

$$11. f\left(\frac{3}{4}\right) < \frac{1}{2}f\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)$$

$$12. f\left(\frac{17}{12}\right) < \frac{16}{5\pi^2}f\left(\frac{13}{12}\right)$$

$$13. f\left(\frac{13}{12}\right) < \frac{9}{2\pi^2}f\left(\frac{3}{4}\right), \text{ and hence,}$$

$$14. f\left(\frac{17}{12}\right) < \frac{72}{5\pi^4}f\left(\frac{3}{4}\right).$$

$$15. \lim_{\mu \rightarrow \infty} f(q) \begin{cases} = 0, q \neq \frac{n}{4}, n \in \mathbb{N} \\ = \frac{\pi^2}{6n^2}, q = \frac{n}{4} \end{cases}$$

The argument given in the Case $i = 3$ section for the similar result also applies here.

The Case $i = 5$: Allowing an Author Score of 1/5, 1/4, 1/3, 1/2, or 1 in One Paper

This case is very complex, as we will describe below. Happily, it turns out that this case is a bit “overkill” w.r.t. to the Rao data in the Appendix. Nevertheless, we describe it here (briefly) so that it can be used for larger datasets, to be produced in the future. That this case is a bit “overkill” for our data is not a drawback for the model: one could compare this with the case in statistics where one is graphing a set of continuous data, be means of a histogram where too many bars are used (i.e., where the abscissa intervals are too small w.r.t. the number of data that one has).

We repeat that in this case an author receives a score $1/j$ if he/she is an author in an j -authored paper ($j \leq 5$) and where an author receives a score $1/5$ if he/she is an author in an j -authored paper ($j \geq 5$). Now we have

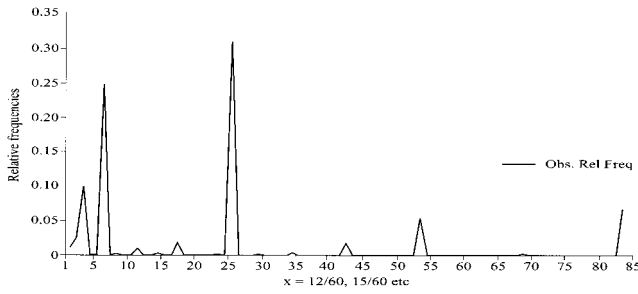


FIG. 5. Frequency curve for the experimental data (case of $i = 5$).

$$g_1(1) = f_1(1) = \frac{6}{\pi^2 \mu} \quad (56)$$

$$g_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = f_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \frac{3}{\pi^2 \mu} \quad (57)$$

$$g_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) = f_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) = \frac{2}{\pi^2 \mu} \quad (58)$$

$$g_1\left(\frac{1}{4}\right) = f_1\left(\frac{1}{4}\right) = \frac{3}{2\pi^2 \mu} \quad (59)$$

$$\begin{aligned} g_1\left(\frac{1}{5}\right) &= 1 - \left(f_1(1) + f_1\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) + f_1\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) + f_1\left(\frac{1}{4}\right) \right) \\ &= 1 - \frac{25}{2\pi^2 \mu} \end{aligned} \quad (60)$$

The complete list of possible fractional scores comprises 83 rational numbers (in $]0, 2[$) and the same number of half-open intervals for the groupings in the experimental data set in the Appendix. For each possible q we determined analytical formulae for $f(q)$, based again on the g_1 -variant of Equation 3. They can be calculated as before, but the 83 formulae are, relatively speaking, more intricate. Nevertheless, they still contain only one parameter μ , which we determined as $\mu = 1.2899744688$ based on our requirement that the value $f(1/5)$ must be exact. We can provide the reader with the formulae for $f(q)$, and with the necessary intervals for the groupings. We omit it here, because it would consume several pages. For the same reason we omit the table giving the experimental and theoretical values for the case of $i = 5$. We only provide the experimental and theoretical curves. Experimental and theoretical curves are so similar that they practically overlap if they are shown on a single XY-plane; it is thus difficult to identify the two different curves in a single XY-plane. Therefore, experimental and theoretical frequency distributions are shown in Figures 5 and 6 separately. However, an attempt has been made to show both the curves on a single XY-plane in Figure 7. One can see from Figure 7 that the model fits the experimental data remarkably well.

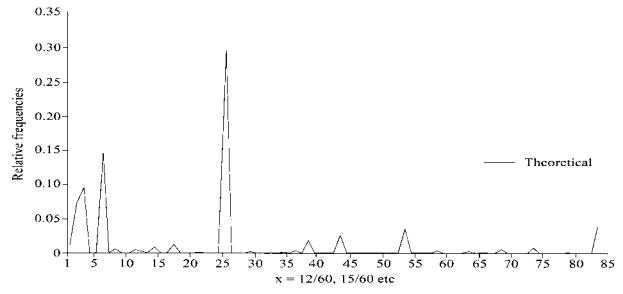


FIG. 6. Frequency curve for the theoretical values (case of $i = 5$).

Conclusions and a Remark on the Case $q = 1/2$

We applied the model

$$f(z) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \underbrace{(f_1 \otimes \dots \otimes f_1)}_{i \text{ times}}(z) \varphi(i) \quad (3)$$

of Egghe (1993), where f is the overall fractional frequency distribution, f_1 is the fractional frequency distribution in one paper, and φ is the distribution of the number of papers per author (total count). We obtained the exact discrete result that

$$f_1(z) = \frac{\psi\left(\frac{1}{z}\right)}{\mu z}, \quad (2)$$

where ψ is the distribution of the number of authors per paper. The distributions φ and ψ are each others dual (cf. Egghe, 1989, 1990), and in this article we use the simplest frequency distribution, known in informetrics, namely the discrete Lotka law with exponent 2:

$$\varphi(n) = \psi(n) = \frac{6}{\pi^2 n^2} \quad (4), (6)$$

(cf. Egghe and Rousseau, 1990).

To model the very irregular fractional frequency distributions [of the overall fractional scores of authors in a

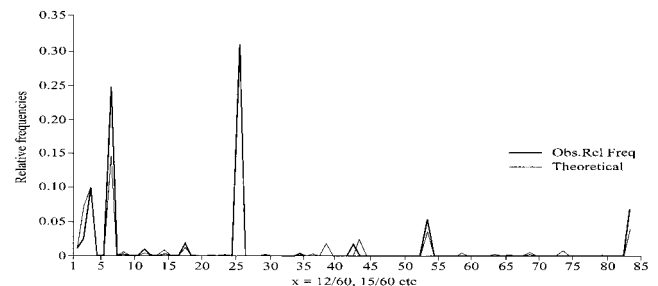


FIG. 7. Frequency curves for experimental and theoretical values (case of $i = 5$).

(large) bibliography], we use a variant of the fractional scoring system: fix $i \in \mathbb{N}$. An author receives a score of $1/j$ if he/she has a paper with j authors in total ($j \leq i$) and receives a score of $1/i$ if he/she has a paper with j authors in total ($j \geq i$). Per fixed i , a new fractional scoring distribution g_1 in one paper is derived (based on f_1) that can be used in our scoring system.

For $i = 2, 3, 4$, and 5 we have determined the overall theoretical fractional frequency distribution that has the advantage that it contains only one parameter (which we estimated in each case). We then compared with the corresponding experimental fractional frequency graph of the (accordingly) grouped data, based on the data of Rao (1995), reproduced in the Appendix. The agreement is remarkable. For the Rao dataset the cases $i = 3$ and $i = 4$ appear to be best. The case $i = 5$ is a good model, but requires a grouping of data in very small intervals so that, for the Rao data, this case is a bit “overkill,” comparable with the case of the use of a histogram in statistics with too many bars w.r.t. the given data.

One remark on the fraction $q = 1/2$ is in order. As is clear from the graphs in Figures 3, 4, and 7, the agreement between the theoretical and the experimental graphs is the poorest in $q = 1/2$. This is—most probably—due to the fact that we used Lotka’s law for ψ , the fraction of papers with a certain number n of authors:

$$\psi(n) = \frac{6}{\pi^2 n^2} \quad (6)$$

Although such a choice is good for its dual φ , there are many cases where there are relatively more papers with two authors than given by Equation 6 (R. Rousseau, oral communication). In fact, Equation 6 gives $\psi(2) = 1/4 \psi(1)$ and is, most probably, the reason for our underestimation of $f(1/2)$ in all cases $i = 3, 4, 5$, because in our data, as mentioned earlier, we have $\psi(1) \approx \psi(2)$.

In a forthcoming article we will investigate this further, but we can report here on first attempts by replacing ψ in Equation 6 by a Poisson distribution. We noticed already that a Poisson distribution, if the parameter λ is chosen in the appropriate way, is better capable of describing the distribution of the number of authors per paper. Using this ψ in our fractional frequency model we indeed obtained an improvement in $q = 1/2$ and even in $q = 2$, although now $q = 1$ is more poorly modeled. We will investigate this further and see whether an overall improvement of the model obtained in this article can be obtained.

We further conclude that two features of our model are:

1. The resulting theoretical frequency curve clearly shows several ups and downs that are exactly similar to the ups

and downs in the experimental frequency curve; both the curves are so similar that it is difficult to distinguish between each other if they are shown on a single XY-plane.

2. As i increases, the required number of formulae to compute theoretical values increases considerably, and it may become difficult to compute the theoretical values. In such circumstances an easy approach to derive the formulae to compute the theoretical values is absent. To get the solution for these problems, further investigation is required.

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Appendix: Table of experimental fractional frequency distribution of author scores in mathematics.

X: Fraction of papers	No. of authors	X: Fraction of papers	No. of authors	X: Fraction of papers	No. of authors	X: Fraction of papers	No. of authors	X: Fraction of papers	No. of authors
0.02	1	1.11	2	2.28	2	3.98	1	6.87	3
0.04	1	1.12	2	2.29	1	4	386	6.92	1
0.06	9	1.13	2	2.33	288	4.08	9	7	18
0.07	2	1.14	22	2.36	1	4.12	2	7.08	2
0.08	1	1.15	2	2.37	1	4.14	1	7.17	3
0.09	13	1.16	15	2.38	1	4.16	2	7.2	1
0.1	17	1.17	189	2.4	2	4.17	20	7.33	2
0.13	12	1.2	37	2.41	3	4.24	1	7.5	12
0.14	35	1.23	2	2.42	20	4.25	1	7.53	1
0.16	3	1.25	177	2.44	1	4.33	3	7.58	1
0.17	93	1.28	3	2.45	4	4.4	1	7.67	2
0.2	341	1.29	1	2.5	789	4.41	1	7.83	4
0.25	1,166	1.3	1	2.55	2	4.42	5	8	22
0.29	4	1.32	2	2.58	34	4.5	143	8.11	2
0.33	4,772	1.33	868	2.63	1	4.51	1	8.33	5
0.35	16	1.37	2	2.66	6	4.53	2	8.5	6
0.38	1	1.38	1	2.67	55	4.58	2	8.58	1
0.39	2	1.4	2	2.7	9	4.67	22	8.67	1
0.41	17	1.41	2	2.73	1	4.7	2	8.83	6
0.42	2	1.42	19	2.75	25	4.72	1	9	7
0.43	1	1.45	6	2.83	130	4.75	7	9.08	1
0.45	6	1.48	4	2.86	1	4.83	37	9.17	1
0.46	1	1.5	2,547	2.87	3	7.87	1	9.53	4
0.48	2	1.53	9	2.9	1	4.95	1	9.5	7
0.5	11,673	1.55	1	2.91	1	5	117	9.83	3
0.53	36	1.57	1	2.92	9	5.04	1	10	4
0.56	1	1.58	27	2.95	1	5.08	4	10.03	1
0.58	136	1.6	1	3	1,191	5.09	1	10.33	1
0.59	3	1.62	1	3.03	3	5.14	1	10.5	1
0.62	2	1.64	1	3.08	10	5.17	8	10.57	1
0.63	1	1.65	1	3.1	1	5.2	2	10.67	1
0.64	5	1.66	1	3.11	1	5.25	4	11	4
0.65	2	1.67	149	3.17	42	5.26	1	11.33	1
0.66	17	1.7	11	3.2	9	5.33	27	11.42	1
0.69	474	1.73	1	3.23	1	5.4	1	11.5	1
0.72	23	1.75	65	3.25	29	5.42	2	11.67	1
0.74	1	1.79	1	3.33	126	5.5	60	11.75	1
0.76	170	1.83	328	3.36	1	5.58	4	11.83	1
0.78	3	1.9	2	3.42	4	5.67	14	12	1
0.82	2	1.91	1	3.45	2	5.7	1	12.17	1
0.84	919	1.92	9	3.48	1	5.75	4	12.23	1
0.86	7	1.95	1	3.5	33	5.83	17	12.5	1
0.88	1	1.98	6	3.53	1	5.88	1	12.67	1
0.9	6	2	3,255	3.58	5	5.92	1	12.83	11
0.92	2	2.03	6	3.6	2	6	70	13	1
0.94	48	2.06	1	3.66	2	6.08	2	13.67	1
0.96	6	2.07	1	3.67	33	6.17	2	14.34	1
0.98	1	2.08	47	3.7	2	6.2	4	15	1
0.99	1	2.09	1	3.72	1	6.25	3	15.5	1
1	14,507	2.12	2	3.75	13	6.28	1	15.83	1
1.02	9	2.14	2	3.78	1	6.33	14	16	1
1.04	2	2.15	1	3.8	1	6.5	26	17.06	1
1.06	2	2.16	2	3.83	80	6.58	1	17.2	1
1.08	66	2.17	70	3.91	1	6.67	8	17.58	1
1.09	3	2.2	26	3.92	1	6.75	1	18	1
1.1	2	2.25	50	3.95	1	6.83	8	Total	46,853