

Fuzzy sets in semiparametric Bayes Regression

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Abstract

In this paper, we consider semi parametric regression model where the mean function of this model has two part, the parametric (first part) is assumed to be linear function of p -dimensional covariates and nonparametric (second part) is assumed to be a smooth penalized spline. By using a convenient connection between penalized splines and mixed models, we can representation semi parametric regression model as mixed model. Bayesian approach to semi parametric regression is described using fuzzy sets and membership functions. The membership functions are interpreted as likelihood functions for the model. Bayesian approach is employed to making inferences on the resulting mixed model coefficients, and we prove some theorems about posterior and Bayes factor.

Keywords

Mixed models, semi parametric regression, Penalized spline, Fuzzy sets, Membership functions, Bayesian inference, Prior density, Posterior density, Bayes factor.

1. Introduction

Consider the model:

$$y_i = \sum_{j=0}^p \beta_j x_j + m(x_{p+1,i}) + \epsilon_i \quad , i = 1, 2, \dots, n \quad (1)$$

where $y_1, \dots, y_n$ response variables and the unobserved errors are $\epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_n$ are known to be i.i.d. normal with mean 0 and covariance $\sigma_\epsilon^2 I$ with σ_ϵ^2 unknown.

The mean function of the regression model in (1) has two parts. The parametric (first part) is assumed to be linear function of p-dimensional covariates x_j and nonparametric (second part) $m(x_{p+1,i})$ is function defined on some index set $T \subset R^1$. Inferences about model (1) such as its estimation as well as model checking are of interest.

A Bayesian approach to (fully) semi parametric regression problems typically requires specifying prior distributions on function spaces which is rather difficult to handle. The extent of the complexity of this approach can be gauged from sources such as Angers and Delampady (see [1]), Ghosh and Ramamoorthi (see [8]), and Lenk (see [9]), and so on. Furthermore, quantifying useful prior information of model (1) such as “g is close to (a specified function) g^u ” (we will define this function in section 5) is difficult probabilistically,

whereas this seems quite straightforward if instead an appropriate metric on the concerned function space is used. This is where fuzzy sets or membership functions can be made use of.

In this paper, a simple Bayesian approach to semiparametric regression is described using fuzzy sets and membership functions. The membership functions are interpreted as likelihood functions for the model, so that with the help of a reference prior they can be transformed to prior density functions. By using penalized spline for the nonparametric function (second part) of the model (1) we can representation semi parametric regression model (1) as mixed model and Bayesian approach is employed to making inferences on the resulting mixed model coefficients, and we prove some theorems about posterior and Bayes factor.

2. Fuzzy sets and membership functions

A fuzzy subset A of a space G (or just a fuzzy set A) is defined by a membership function:

$$h_A : G \rightarrow [0, 1] \text{ (see [2,3,5,15,16]).}$$

The membership function, $h_A(g)$, is supposed to express the degree of compatibility of g with A .

For example, if G is the real line and A is the set of points "close to 0", then $h_A(0) = 1$ indicates that 0 is certainly included in A , but $h_A(0.07) = 0.03$ says that 0.07 is not really "close" to 0 in this context. Similarly, if G is a set of functions and $A \subset G$ is a set of functions "close" to a given function g^0 , then $h_A(g^0) = 1$ indicates that g^0 is certainly included in A ; however, if $h_A(g^1) = 0.03$ with $g^1(x) = 4g^0(x) + 24$ then g^1 is not really "close" to g^0 in this case. Note that even when $G = \Theta$ is the parameter space, a membership function $h_A(\theta)$ is not a probability density or mass function defined on Θ , and hence cannot be used to obtain a prior distribution directly. Angers and Delampady (see [3]) propose that a reasonable interpretation for a fuzzy subset A of Θ is that it is a likelihood function for θ given A . Another important question is how to define $h_{A \cap B}$ from h_A and h_B for

incorporating h_A and h_B in Bayesian inference. If A and B are independent, then interpreting h_A and h_B as likelihood functions leads to the result that $h_{A \cap B} = h_A h_B$, for this purpose. Further, the qualitative ordering that underlies a membership function can also be investigated with this interpretation, in conjunction with a prior distribution, (see [3]).

3. Mixed Models

The general form of a linear mixed model for the i th subject ($i = 1, \dots, n$) is given as follows (see [14,17]),

$$Y_i = X_i \beta + \sum_{j=1}^r Z_{ij} u_{ij} + \epsilon_i, \\ u_{ij} \sim N(0, G_j), \epsilon_i \sim N(0, R_i) \quad (2)$$

where the vector Y_i has length m_i , X_i and Z_{ij} are, respectively, a $m_i \times p$ design matrix and a $m_i \times q_i$ design matrix of fixed and random effects. β is a p -vector of fixed effects and u_{ij} are the q_i -vectors of random effects. The variance matrix G_j is a $q_i \times q_i$ matrix and R_i is a $m_i \times m_i$ matrix.

We assume that the random effects $\{u_{ij}; i = 1, \dots, n; j = 1, \dots, r\}$ and the

set of error terms $\{\epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_n\}$ are independent. In matrix notation,

$$Y = X + Z + \epsilon \quad (3)$$

Here $Y = (Y_1, \dots, Y_n)^T$ has length $N = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i$, $X = (X_1^T, \dots, X_n^T)^T$ is a $N \times p$ design matrix of fixed effects, Z is a $N \times q$ block diagonal design matrix of random effects, $q = \sum_{j=1}^r q_j$, $u = (u_1^T, \dots, u_r^T)^T$ is a q -vector of random effects, $R = d(R_1, \dots, R_n)$ is a $N \times N$ matrix and $G = d(G_1, \dots, G_r)$ is a $q \times q$ block diagonal matrix.

where

$$Y = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}, \quad \beta = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_p \\ \beta_{p+1} \\ \vdots \\ \beta_{p+q} \end{bmatrix}, \quad u = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ \vdots \\ u_K \end{bmatrix}, \quad Z = \begin{bmatrix} (x_{p+1,1} - k_1)_+^q & \dots & (x_{p+1,1} - k_K)_+^q \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ (x_{p+1,n} - k_1)_+^q & \dots & (x_{p+1,n} - k_K)_+^q \end{bmatrix}$$

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 & \dots & x_{p1} & x_{p+1,1} & \dots & x_{p+1,1}^q \\ 1 & x_1 & \dots & x_{p2} & x_{p+1,2} & \dots & x_{p+1,2}^q \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{1n} & \dots & x_p & x_{p+1,n} & \dots & x_{p+1,n}^q \end{bmatrix}$$

We assume that the function g is:

$$g = X + Z \quad (6)$$

And its prior guess g^0 can be written as:

$$g^0 = X\beta^0 + Zu^0 \quad (7)$$

Further, some of the a priori information penalized spline coefficients can be translated into:

$$E(\epsilon) = 0; \quad v(\epsilon) = \sigma_\epsilon^2 I$$

$$E(\beta) = 0; \quad v(\beta) = \sigma_\beta^2 I \quad (8)$$

4. Semiparametric regression and spline

The model (1) can be expressed as a smooth penalized spline with q degree, then it's become as (see [14]):

$$y_i = \sum_{j=0}^p \beta_j x_j + \sum_{j=1}^q \beta_{p+j} x_{p+1,i}^j + \sum_{k=1}^K \{u_k (x_{p+1,i} - k_k)_+^q + \epsilon_i\} \quad (4)$$

Where $k_1, \dots, k_K$ are inner knots $a < k_1 < \dots < k_K < b$.

By using a convenient connection between penalized splines and mixed models. Model (4) is rewritten as follows (see [11,14])

$$Y = X + Z + \epsilon \quad (5)$$

$$E(u) = 0;$$

The term X in (5) is the pure polynomial component of the spline, and Z is the component with spline truncated functions with covariance $\sigma_u^2 Q$, where $Q = ZZ^T$. Letting $(\beta, u, \sigma_u^2, \sigma_\epsilon^2)$ be the parameter vector, the mixed model specifies a $N(0, \sigma_u^2 I)$ prior on u as well as the likelihood, $f(Y|\beta, u, \sigma_u^2, \sigma_\epsilon^2)$. To specify a complete Bayesian model, we also need a prior distribution on $(\beta, \sigma_u^2, \sigma_\epsilon^2)$. Assuming that little is known about β , it makes sense to put an improper uniform prior on β . Or, if a proper prior is desired, one could use a $N(0, \sigma_\beta^2 I)$ prior with σ_β^2 so large that, for all intents and purposes, the normal distribution is uniform on the range of β . Therefore, we will use $\pi_0(\beta) \equiv 1$. We will assume that the prior on σ_ϵ^2 is inverse gamma with parameters A_ϵ and B_ϵ – denoted $I\Gamma(A_\epsilon, B_\epsilon)$ – so that its density is

$$\pi_0(\sigma_\epsilon^2) = \frac{B_\epsilon^{A_\epsilon}}{\Gamma(A_\epsilon)} (\sigma_\epsilon^2)^{-(A_\epsilon+1)} e^{-\frac{B_\epsilon}{\sigma_\epsilon^2}} \quad (9)$$

Also, we assume that:

$$\sigma_u^2 \sim I\Gamma(A_u, B_u)$$

Here $A_\epsilon, B_\epsilon, A_u$ and B_u are “hyperparameters” that determine the priors

$$v(u) = \sigma_u^2 I$$

and must be chosen by the statistician. These hyperparameters must be strictly positive in order for the priors to be proper. If A_ϵ and B_u were zero, then $\pi_0(\sigma_\epsilon^2)$ would be proportional to the improper prior $\frac{1}{\sigma_\epsilon^2}$, which is equivalent to $\log(\sigma_\epsilon)$ having an improper uniform prior. Therefore, choosing A_ϵ and B_ϵ both close to zero (say, both equal to 0.1) gives an essentially noninformative, but proper, prior. The same reasoning applies to A_u and B_u . The model we have constructed is a hierarchical Bayes model, where the random variables are arranged in a hierarchy such that distributions at each level are determined by the random variables in the previous levels. At the bottom of the hierarchy are the known hyperparameters. At the next level are the fixed effects parameters and variance components whose distributions are determined by the hyperparameters. At the level above this are the random effects, u and ϵ , whose distributions are determined by the variance components. The top level contains the data, y . (see [14])

5. Prior information and Membership functions

We have explained in the previous section that we would like to make use of imprecise prior information such as “g is close to g^0 ” by using a membership function (see [3,7,12]) which translates this into a measure of distance between the corresponding penalized spline coefficients. Let us examine the implications of assuming that the available prior information is quantified in terms of a membership function

$$h_A(g) = \varphi(d(g, g^0)),$$

Where d is a measure of distance in L_2 . Due to the penalized spline decomposition assumed on g as well as g^0 (see section 4), a natural choice for d is the distance given by

$$d^2(g, g^0) = \|g - g^0\|^2 = \|X\beta + Z\gamma - (X\beta^0 + Z\gamma^0)\|^2 = \|C - CF^0\|^2 = \sum (F - F^0)^2$$

Where $C = [X, Z]$ and $F = [\beta, \gamma]^T$

We will use a membership function that will depend only on $d^2(g, g^0)$. Some possibilities for h_A are the following:

(i) The Gaussian membership function given by:

$$h_A(g) = e^{-\alpha d^2(g, g^0)} = e^{-\alpha \sum (F - F^0)^2} \quad (10)$$

This membership function can be explained as follows. Suppose we have available some past data of the form

$$y^* = x^* \beta + z^* u + \epsilon$$

where

$$y^* = \begin{bmatrix} y_1^* \\ \vdots \\ y_n^* \end{bmatrix}, \quad \beta = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_p \\ \beta_{p+1} \\ \vdots \\ \beta_{p+q} \end{bmatrix}, \quad u = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ \vdots \\ u_K \end{bmatrix}, \quad z^* = \begin{bmatrix} (x_{p+1,1}^* - k_1)_+^q & \cdots & (x_{p+1,1}^* - k_K)_+^q \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ (x_{p+1,n^*}^* - k_1)_+^q & \cdots & (x_{p+1,n^*}^* - k_K)_+^q \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x^* = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1^* & \cdots & x_{p1}^* & x_{p+1,1}^* & \cdots & x_{p+1,1}^{*q} \\ 1 & x_1^* & \cdots & x_{p2}^* & x_{p+1,2}^* & \cdots & x_{p+1,2}^{*q} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{1n^*}^* & \cdots & x_{pn^*}^* & x_{p+1,n^*}^* & \cdots & x_{p+1,n^*}^{*q} \end{bmatrix}$$

Suppose $g = x + z$ is estimated from this data by $\hat{g}$. Then the information in this data may be quantified using a membership function of the type

$$h_A(g) = e^{-d^2(g, \hat{g})} = e^{-\|g - \hat{g}\|^2} = \exp(-\|C - \bar{C}\|^2) \\ = \exp(-\alpha \sum (F - \bar{F})^2)$$

g^0 may then be identified with $\hat{g}$. If we have multiple past data sets, we may then have available

$h_{A_1}(g) = e^{-d^2(g, \hat{g}_1)}$, $h_{A_2}(g) = e^{-d^2(g, \hat{g}_2)}$, and soon, which may be combined

into $h_A(g) = h_{A_1 \cap A_2}(g) = h_{A_1}(g)h_{A_2}(g)$

$$= e^{-d^2(g, \hat{g}_1)} e^{-d^2(g, \hat{g}_2)} \\ = \exp(-\alpha_1 \sum (F - \bar{F}_1)^2 - \alpha_2 \sum (F - \bar{F}_2)^2) \\ = \exp(-\alpha_1 \|g - \hat{g}_1\|^2 - \alpha_2 \|g - \hat{g}_2\|^2)$$

As an example one could consider fitting regression lines to two (or more) sets of past data with possibly different error variances and use the fitted regression lines along with the estimated variances for constructing the membership functions. The constants α_1 and α_2 provide additional scope for assigning different weights to the two sources of information, which is another appealing feature of this approach.

The multivariate t membership function

$$h_A(g) = (1 + d^2(g, g^0))^{(n+q)/2} = (1 + (F - F^0)^T V^{-1} (F - F^0) / q)^{(n+q)/2} \quad (11)$$

Where $q > 2$ is the degrees of freedom and n denotes the dimension of F , where $F = [\beta, u]$. This is a continuous scale mixture of Gaussian membership functions with the same g^0 for each of the membership functions. Since this vanishes more slowly than Gaussian membership function, one could expect better robustness with this (see[2,3]).

(iii) The uniform function

$$h_A(g) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } d(g, g^0) \leq \delta \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (12)$$

This is an extreme case where g is restricted to a neighborhood of g^0 (see [2,3]). In order to proceed with Bayesian inference on g , we need to convert the membership function into a prior density. Thus we obtain the prior density

$$\pi(g) \propto h_A(g) \pi_0(g),$$

or, upon utilizing the spline decomposition for g , we have an equivalent prior density

$$\pi(F, \sigma_\epsilon^2, \sigma_u^2) \propto h_A(F) \pi_0(\sigma_\epsilon^2, \sigma_u^2). \quad (13)$$

where $F = [\beta \ u]^T$.

5. Posterior calculations

We have the model

$$Y|F, \sigma_u^2, \sigma_\epsilon^2 \propto N(C, \sigma_\epsilon^2 I_n + \sigma_\beta^2 H + \sigma_u^2 Q). \quad (14)$$

Where $C = [X \ Z]$.

Unless F has a normal prior distribution or a hierarchical prior with a conditionally normal prior distribution, analytical simplifications in the computation of posterior quantities are not expected. For such cases, we have the joint posterior density of the penalized spline coefficients F and the error variances σ_ϵ^2 and σ_u^2 given by the expression.

$$\pi(F, \sigma_u^2, \sigma_\epsilon^2 | Y) \propto f(Y|F, \sigma_u^2, \sigma_\epsilon^2) h_A(F) \pi_0(F, \sigma_u^2, \sigma_\epsilon^2)$$

Where f is the likelihood. From (14), f can be expressed as

$$\begin{aligned} f(Y|F, \sigma_u^2, \sigma_\epsilon^2) \\ \propto |\sigma_\epsilon^2 I_n + \sigma_\beta^2 H + \sigma_u^2 Q|^{-1/2} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(Y - C)^T (\sigma_\epsilon^2 I_n + \sigma_\beta^2 H + \sigma_u^2 Q)^{-1} (Y - C)\right\} \end{aligned}$$

Proceeding further, suppose π_0 of the form

$$\pi_0(F, \sigma_u^2, \sigma_\epsilon^2) = \pi_1(\sigma_u^2, \sigma_\epsilon^2) \quad (15)$$

which is constant in F , is chosen.

Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) based approaches to posterior computations are now readily available. For example, Gibbs sampling is straightforward (see [3,14]).

Note that the conditional posterior densities are given by

$$\pi(F|Y, \sigma_u^2, \sigma_\epsilon^2) \propto \exp\left\{\frac{-1}{2}(Y - C)^T(\sigma_\epsilon^2 I_n + \sigma_\beta^2 H + \sigma_u^2 Q)^{-1}(Y - C)\right\} h_A(F) \quad (16)$$

$$\pi(\sigma_\epsilon^2|Y, F, \sigma_u^2) \propto |\sigma_\epsilon^2 I_n + \sigma_\beta^2 H + \sigma_u^2 Q|^{-1/2} \exp\left\{\frac{-1}{2}(Y - C)^T(\sigma_\epsilon^2 I_n + \sigma_\beta^2 H + \sigma_u^2 Q)^{-1}(Y - C)\right\} \pi_1(\sigma_u^2, \sigma_\epsilon^2) \quad (17)$$

$$\pi(\sigma_u^2|Y, F, \sigma_\epsilon^2) \propto |\sigma_\epsilon^2 I_n + \sigma_\beta^2 H + \sigma_u^2 Q|^{-1/2} \exp\left\{\frac{-1}{2}(Y - C)^T(\sigma_\epsilon^2 I_n + \sigma_\beta^2 H + \sigma_u^2 Q)^{-1}(Y - C)\right\} \pi_1(\sigma_u^2, \sigma_\epsilon^2) \quad (18)$$

However, major simplifications are possible with the Gaussian h_A as in (i) (see section 4). Specifically, assuming that $h_A(F)$ is proportional to the density of $N(F_0, \tau^2 \Gamma)$ with

$$\tau^2 = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_\beta^2 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_u^2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \Gamma = \begin{bmatrix} I_{p+q+1} & 0 \\ 0 & I_{n-(p+q+1)} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \tau^2 \Gamma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_\beta^2 I_{p+q+1} & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_u^2 I_{n-(p+q+1)} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Y|F, \sigma_u^2, \sigma_\epsilon^2 \sim N(C, \sigma_\epsilon^2 I_n + \sigma_\beta^2 H + \sigma_u^2 Q) \quad (19)$$

$$F|\tau^2 \sim N(F_0, \tau^2 \Gamma)$$

Therefore, it follows that

$$Y|\sigma_u^2, \sigma_\epsilon^2 \sim N(CF_0, \sigma_\epsilon^2 I_n + [C\tau^2 \Gamma C^T]) \quad (20)$$

$$F|Y, \sigma_u^2, \sigma_\epsilon^2 \sim N(F_0 + A_1(Y - CF_0), A_2) \quad (21)$$

where

$$A_1 = \{\tau^2 \Gamma C^T\} \{\sigma_\epsilon^2 I_n + [C\tau^2 \Gamma C^T]\}^{-1} \quad (22)$$

$$A_2 = \tau^2 \Gamma - \tau^4 \Gamma C^T \{\sigma_\epsilon^2 I_n + [C\tau^2 \Gamma C^T]\}^{-1} \{C\Gamma\} \quad (23)$$

Now proceeding as in [3], we employ spectral decomposition to obtain $C^T \Gamma C^T = B \tau^2 \Gamma B^T$, where $D = \text{diag}(d_1, \dots, d_n)$ is the matrix of eigenvalues and B is the orthogonal matrix of eigenvectors. Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_\epsilon^2 I_n + [C\tau^2 \Gamma C^T] &= \sigma_\epsilon^2 I_n + B \tau^2 \Gamma B^T = B \sigma_\epsilon^2 I_n B^T + B \tau^2 \Gamma B^T = B \sigma_\epsilon^2 \left(I_n + \frac{\tau^2}{\sigma_\epsilon^2} \Gamma\right) B^T \\ &= \sigma_\epsilon^2 B \left(I_n + \begin{bmatrix} \gamma I_{p+q+1} & 0 \\ 0 & \delta I_{n-(p+q+1)} \end{bmatrix} D\right) B^T \end{aligned}$$

Where $\delta = \sigma_u^2 / \sigma_\epsilon^2$ and $\gamma = \sigma_\beta^2 / \sigma_\epsilon^2$. Then, the first stage (conditional) marginal density of Y given σ_ϵ^2 and δ can be written as

$$\begin{aligned}
& m(Y|\sigma_\epsilon^2, \delta, \gamma) \\
&= \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma_\epsilon^2)^{n/2}} \frac{1}{\det \left[I_n + \begin{bmatrix} \gamma I_{p+q+1} & 0 \\ 0 & \delta I_{n-(p+q+1)} \end{bmatrix} D \right]^{1/2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2\sigma_\epsilon^2} (Y \right. \\
&\quad \left. - CF_0)^T B \left(I_n + \begin{bmatrix} \gamma I_{p+q+1} & 0 \\ 0 & \delta I_{n-(p+q+1)} \end{bmatrix} D \right) B^T (Y - CF_0) \right. \\
&= \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma_\epsilon^2)^{n/2}} \frac{1}{[\prod_{i=1}^{p+q+1} [1+\gamma d_i]]^{1/2} [\prod_{i=p+q+2}^n [1+\delta d_i]]^{1/2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2\sigma_\epsilon^2} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{p+q+1} \frac{s_i^2}{1+\gamma d_i} + \right. \right. \\
&\quad \left. \left. \sum_{i=p+q+2}^n \frac{s_i^2}{1+\delta d_i} \right) \right\} (24)
\end{aligned}$$

where $s = (s_1, \dots, s_n)^T = B^T (Y - CF_0)$. We choose the prior on σ_ϵ^2 , $\delta = \sigma_u^2/\sigma_\epsilon^2$ and $\gamma = \sigma_\beta^2/\sigma_\epsilon^2$, qualitatively similar to the used in [3]. Specifically, we take $\pi_1(\sigma_\epsilon^2, \gamma, \delta)$ to be proportional to the product of an inverse gamma density $\{B_\epsilon^{A_\epsilon}/\Gamma(A_\epsilon)\} e^{-(B_\epsilon/\sigma_\epsilon^2)} (\sigma_\epsilon^2)^{-(A_\epsilon+1)}$ for σ_ϵ^2 and the gamma density for γ and the density of a $F(b, a)$ distribution for δ (for suitable choice of B_ϵ , A_ϵ , b and a). Conditions apply on a and b such that (see [2,3]):

- 1- The prior covariance of γ and $\delta (= \frac{2b^2(a+b-2)}{a(b-4)(b-2)^2})$ is infinite.
- 2- The fisher information number $= (\frac{a^2(b+2)(b+6)}{2(a-4)(a+b+2)})$ is minimum.
- 3- The prior mode $= (\frac{b(a-2)}{a(b+2)})$ is greater than 0.

This can be done by choosing $2 < b \leq 4$ and $a = 8(b+2)/(b-2)$

Once $\pi_1(\sigma_\epsilon^2, \gamma, \delta)$ is chosen as above, we obtain the posterior density of γ, δ given Y , the posterior mean and covariance matrix of F as in the following theorems.

Theorem1: the posterior density of γ, δ given Y is:

$$\begin{aligned}
\pi_2(\gamma, \delta|Y) &\propto \frac{\delta^{(b/2)-1} \gamma^{A_\epsilon-1} e^{-\frac{\gamma}{B_\epsilon}}}{(a+b)^{-(a+b)/2}} \left(\prod_{i=1}^{p+q+1} (1+\gamma d_i) \right)^{-1/2} \left(\prod_{i=p+q+2}^n (1+\delta d_i) \right)^{-1/2} \left(2B_\epsilon + \right. \\
&\quad \left. \sum_{i=1}^{p+q+1} \frac{s_i^2}{1+\gamma d_i} + \sum_{i=p+q+2}^n \frac{s_i^2}{1+\delta d_i} \right)^{-(n+2A_\epsilon+2)/2} \quad (25)
\end{aligned}$$

Proof:

$$\pi_2(\gamma, \delta|Y) = \int m(Y|\sigma_\epsilon^2, \delta, \gamma) f(\gamma, A_\epsilon, B_\epsilon) f(\delta, b, a) f(\sigma_\epsilon^2, A_\epsilon, B_\epsilon) d\sigma_\epsilon^2$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \int \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma_\epsilon^2)^{n/2}} \left(\prod_{i=1}^{p+q+1} (1 + \gamma d_i) \right)^{-1/2} \left(\prod_{i=p+q+2}^n (1 + \delta d_i) \right)^{-1/2} \frac{c}{B_\epsilon \Gamma(A_\epsilon)} \left(\frac{c}{B_\epsilon} \right)^{A_\epsilon-1} \\
&\quad \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2\sigma_\epsilon^2} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{p+q+1} \frac{s_i^2}{1 + \gamma d_i} \right. \right. \\
&\quad \left. \left. + \sum_{i=p+q+2}^n \frac{s_i^2}{1 + \delta d_i} \right) \right\} \exp \frac{c}{B_\epsilon} \frac{b^{b/2} a^{a/2}}{B(b, a)} \frac{\delta^{(b/2)-1}}{(a+b)^{-(a+b)/2}} \\
&\quad \frac{B_\epsilon^{A_\epsilon}}{\Gamma(A_\epsilon)} (\sigma_\epsilon^2)^{-(A_\epsilon+1)} \exp \left(-\frac{B_\epsilon}{\sigma_\epsilon^2} \right) d\sigma_\epsilon^2
\end{aligned}$$

where $c = \sigma_\beta^2$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= (2\pi)^{-n/2} \frac{(c)^{A_\epsilon-1} \exp \frac{c}{B_\epsilon} b^{b/2} a^{a/2}}{(\Gamma(A_\epsilon))^2} \frac{\delta^{(b/2)-1}}{(a+b)^{-(a+b)/2}} \int \left(\prod_{i=1}^{p+q+1} (1 + \gamma d_i) \right)^{-1/2} \left(\prod_{i=p+q+2}^n (1 \right. \\
&\quad \left. + \delta d_i) \right)^{-1/2} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2\sigma_\epsilon^2} \left(2B_\epsilon + \sum_{i=1}^{p+q+1} \frac{s_i^2}{1 + \gamma d_i} \right. \right. \\
&\quad \left. \left. + \sum_{i=p+q+2}^n \frac{s_i^2}{1 + \delta d_i} \right) \right\} (\sigma_\epsilon^2)^{-(n+2A_\epsilon+2)/2} d\sigma_\epsilon^2
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= (2\pi)^{-n/2} \frac{(c)^{A_\epsilon-1} \exp \frac{c}{B_\epsilon} b^{b/2} a^{a/2}}{(\Gamma(A_\epsilon))^2 B(b, a)} \frac{\delta^{(b/2)-1}}{(a+b)^{-(a+b)/2}} (2)^{(n+2A_\epsilon+2)/2} \int \left(\prod_{i=1}^{p+q+1} (1 \right. \\
&\quad \left. + \gamma d_i) \right)^{-1/2} \left(\prod_{i=p+q+2}^n (1 + \delta d_i) \right)^{-1/2} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2\sigma_\epsilon^2} \left(2B_\epsilon + \sum_{i=1}^{p+q+1} \frac{s_i^2}{1 + \gamma d_i} \right. \right. \\
&\quad \left. \left. + \sum_{i=p+q+2}^n \frac{s_i^2}{1 + \delta d_i} \right) \right\} \left(\frac{2B_\epsilon + \sum_{i=1}^{p+q+1} \frac{s_i^2}{1 + \gamma d_i} + \sum_{i=p+q+2}^n \frac{s_i^2}{1 + \delta d_i}}{2\sigma_\epsilon^2} \right)^{(n+2A_\epsilon+2)/2} \left(2B_\epsilon \right. \\
&\quad \left. + \sum_{i=1}^{p+q+1} \frac{s_i^2}{1 + \gamma d_i} + \sum_{i=p+q+2}^n \frac{s_i^2}{1 + \delta d_i} \right)^{-(n+2A_\epsilon+2)/2} d\sigma_\epsilon^2 \\
&\square \frac{\delta^{(b/2)-1} \gamma^{A_\epsilon-1} \exp \frac{c}{B_\epsilon}}{(a+b)^{-(a+b)/2}} \int \left(\prod_{i=1}^{p+q+1} (1 + \gamma d_i) \right)^{-1/2} \left(\prod_{i=p+q+2}^n (1 + \delta d_i) \right)^{-1/2} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2\sigma_\epsilon^2} \left(2B_\epsilon \right. \right. \\
&\quad \left. \left. + \sum_{i=1}^{p+q+1} \frac{s_i^2}{1 + \gamma d_i} \right. \right. \\
&\quad \left. \left. + \sum_{i=p+q+2}^n \frac{s_i^2}{1 + \delta d_i} \right) \right\} \left(\frac{2B_\epsilon + \sum_{i=1}^{p+q+1} \frac{s_i^2}{1 + \gamma d_i} + \sum_{i=p+q+2}^n \frac{s_i^2}{1 + \delta d_i}}{2\sigma_\epsilon^2} \right)^{[(n+2A_\epsilon+4)/2]-1} \left(2B_\epsilon \right. \\
&\quad \left. + \sum_{i=1}^{p+q+1} \frac{s_i^2}{1 + \gamma d_i} + \sum_{i=p+q+2}^n \frac{s_i^2}{1 + \delta d_i} \right)^{-(n+2A_\epsilon+2)/2} d\sigma_\epsilon^2 \\
&\square \frac{\delta^{(b/2)-1} \gamma^{A_\epsilon-1} \exp \frac{c}{B_\epsilon}}{(a+b)^{-(a+b)/2}} \Gamma((n+2A_\epsilon+4)/2) \left(\prod_{i=1}^{p+q+1} (1 + \gamma d_i) \right)^{-1/2} \left(\prod_{i=p+q+2}^n (1 + \delta d_i) \right)^{-1/2} \\
&\quad \left(2B_\epsilon + \sum_{i=1}^{p+q+1} \frac{s_i^2}{1 + \gamma d_i} + \sum_{i=p+q+2}^n \frac{s_i^2}{1 + \delta d_i} \right)^{-(n+2A_\epsilon+2)/2}
\end{aligned}$$

$$\square \frac{\delta^{(b/2)-1} \gamma^{A_{\epsilon}-1} \exp \frac{c}{B_{\epsilon}}}{(a+b)^{-(a+b)/2}} \left(\prod_{i=1}^{p+q+1} (1 + \gamma d_i) \right)^{-1/2} \left(\prod_{i=p+q+2}^n (1 + \delta d_i) \right)^{-1/2} \left(2B_{\epsilon} + \sum_{i=1}^{p+q+1} \frac{s_i^2}{1 + \gamma d_i} + \sum_{i=p+q+2}^n \frac{s_i^2}{1 + \delta d_i} \right)^{-(n+2A_{\epsilon}+2)/2}$$

Theorem2: The posterior mean and covariance matrix of F are:

$$E(F|Y) = F_0 + \Gamma C^T B \left\{ \left(I_n + \begin{bmatrix} \gamma I_{p+q+1} & 0 \\ 0 & \delta I_{n-(p+q+1)} \end{bmatrix} D \right)^{-1} | Y \right\} s \quad (26)$$

And

$$v(F|Y) = \frac{1}{n+2A_{\epsilon}+2} E \left[\left(2B_{\epsilon} + \left(\sum_{i=1}^{p+q+1} \frac{s_i^2}{1+\gamma d_i} + \sum_{i=p+q+2}^n \frac{s_i^2}{1+\delta d_i} \right) \right) | Y \right] \Gamma - \frac{1}{n+2A_{\epsilon}+2} \Gamma C^T B \left[\left(2B_{\epsilon} + \left(\sum_{i=1}^{p+q+1} \frac{s_i^2}{1+\gamma d_i} + \sum_{i=p+q+2}^n \frac{s_i^2}{1+\delta d_i} \right) \right) \left[I_n + \begin{bmatrix} \gamma I_{p+q+1} & 0 \\ 0 & \delta I_{n-(p+q+1)} \end{bmatrix} D \right]^{-1} | Y \right] B^T C + E[R(\gamma, \delta) R(\gamma, \delta)^T | Y], \quad (27)$$

$$\text{where } R(\gamma, \delta) = \Gamma C^T B \left(I_n + \begin{bmatrix} \gamma I_{p+q+1} & 0 \\ 0 & \delta I_{n-(p+q+1)} \end{bmatrix} D \right)^{-1} s$$

Proof:

From (21):

$$\begin{aligned} E(F|Y) &= F_0 + A_1(Y - CF_0) \\ &= F_0 + \{\tau^2 I_n \Gamma C^T\} \{\sigma_{\epsilon}^2 I_n + \tau^2 I_n C C^T\}^{-1} (Y - CF_0) \\ &= F_0 + \tau^2 I_n \Gamma C^T \left\{ \sigma_{\epsilon}^2 I_n + \sigma_{\epsilon}^2 B \left(I_n + \begin{bmatrix} \gamma I_{p+q+1} & 0 \\ 0 & \delta I_{n-(p+q+1)} \end{bmatrix} D \right) B^T \right\}^{-1} (Y - CF_0) \\ &= F_0 + \frac{\tau^2}{\sigma_{\epsilon}^2} I_n \Gamma C^T B^T^{-1} \left(I_n + \begin{bmatrix} \gamma I_{p+q+1} & 0 \\ 0 & \delta I_{n-(p+q+1)} \end{bmatrix} D \right)^{-1} B^{-1} (Y - CF_0) \end{aligned}$$

□ B is the orthogonal matrix of eigenvectors, then $B^{-1} = B^T$ and $B^T^{-1} = B$

Therefore

$$E(F|Y) = F_0$$

$$+ \Gamma C^T B \begin{bmatrix} \gamma I_{p+q+1} & 0 \\ 0 & \delta I_{n-(p+q+1)} \end{bmatrix} \left(I_n + \begin{bmatrix} \gamma I_{p+q+1} & 0 \\ 0 & \delta I_{n-(p+q+1)} \end{bmatrix} D \right)^{-1} B^T (Y - CF_0))$$

$$= F_0 + \Gamma C^T B E \left\{ \left(I_n + \begin{bmatrix} \gamma I_{p+q+1} & 0 \\ 0 & \delta I_{n-(p+q+1)} \end{bmatrix} D \right)^{-1} \mid Y \right\} s$$

Where the expectation $E \left\{ \left(I_n + \begin{bmatrix} \gamma I_{p+q+1} & 0 \\ 0 & \delta I_{n-(p+q+1)} \end{bmatrix} D \right)^{-1} \mid Y \right\}$ is taken with respect to $\pi_2(\gamma, \delta|Y)$ (see theorem 1 above). And by same way can prove the variance of F given Y .

6. Model checking and Bayes factors

An important and useful model checking problem in the present setup is checking the two models

$$H_0 : g = X\beta^0 + Zu^0 = g^0 \text{ versus } H_1 : g = X\beta + Z\epsilon \neq g^0.$$

Under H_1 , $(g = g(F), \sigma_u^2, \sigma_\epsilon^2)$ is given the prior $h_A(F)\pi_0(F, \sigma_u^2, \sigma_\epsilon^2) I(g \neq g^0)$, whereas under H_0 , $\pi_0(\sigma_\epsilon^2)$ induced by $\pi_0(F, \sigma_u^2, \sigma_\epsilon^2)$ is the only part needed. In order to conduct the model checking, we compute the Bayes factor, B_0 , of H_0 relative to H_1 :

$$B_0(Y) = \frac{m(Y|H_0)}{m(Y|H_1)} \quad (28)$$

where $m(Y|H_i)$ is the predictive (marginal) density of y under model H_i , $i = 0, 1$.

We have

$$m(Y|H_0) = \int f(Y|g^0, \sigma_\epsilon^2) \pi_0(\sigma_\epsilon^2) d\sigma_\epsilon^2$$

and

$$m(Y|H_1) = \int f(Y|F, \sigma_u^2, \sigma_\epsilon^2) h_A(F) \pi_0(F, \sigma_u^2, \sigma_\epsilon^2) d\sigma_u^2 d\sigma_\epsilon^2$$

As in the previous section $\pi_0(\sigma_u^2, \sigma_\epsilon^2)$ will be constant in F , while σ_ϵ^2 is inverse gamma and is independent of $v_1 = \sigma_\epsilon^2/\sigma_u^2$ which is given the $F_{u,b}$ prior distribution and $v_2 = \sigma_\epsilon^2/\sigma_\beta^2$ which is given the inverse gamma prior distribution. (Equivalently, $\delta = \sigma_u^2/\sigma_\epsilon^2$ and $\gamma = \sigma_\beta^2/\sigma_\epsilon^2$ is given

the $F_{b,a}$, Gamma prior as before.) Specifically, $\pi_0(\sigma_\epsilon^2) = \frac{B_\epsilon^{A_\epsilon}}{\Gamma(A_\epsilon)} (\sigma_\epsilon^2)^{-(A_\epsilon+1)} e^{-\frac{B_\epsilon}{\sigma_\epsilon^2}}$, where A_ϵ and B_ϵ (small) are suitably chosen. Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}
 m(Y|H_0) &= \int f(Y|g^0, \sigma_\epsilon^2) \pi_0(\sigma_\epsilon^2) d\sigma_\epsilon^2 \\
 &= (2\pi)^{-n/2} \frac{B_\epsilon^{A_\epsilon}}{\Gamma(A_\epsilon)} \int (\sigma_\epsilon^2)^{-n/2} \exp\left(-\frac{B_\epsilon}{\sigma_\epsilon^2}\right) (\sigma_\epsilon^2)^{-(A_\epsilon+1)} \exp\left(-\frac{(Y - g^0(x))^2}{2\sigma_\epsilon^2}\right) d\sigma_\epsilon^2 \\
 &= (2\pi)^{-n/2} \frac{B_\epsilon^{A_\epsilon}}{\Gamma(A_\epsilon)} \int (\sigma_\epsilon^2)^{-(n/2+A_\epsilon+1)} \exp\left(-\frac{B_\epsilon + \frac{1}{2}(y_l - g^0(x_l))^2}{\sigma_\epsilon^2}\right) d\sigma_\epsilon^2 \\
 &= (2\pi)^{-n/2} \frac{B_\epsilon^{A_\epsilon}}{\Gamma(A_\epsilon)} \int (\sigma_\epsilon^2)^{-\left(\frac{n}{2}+A_\epsilon+1\right)} \left(B_\epsilon + \frac{1}{2}(y_l - g^0(x_l))^2\right)^{\frac{n}{2}+A_\epsilon+1} \left(B_\epsilon + \frac{1}{2}(y_l - g^0(x_l))^2\right)^{-\left(\frac{n}{2}+A_\epsilon+1\right)} \exp\left(-\frac{B_\epsilon + \frac{1}{2}(y_l - g^0(x_l))^2}{\sigma_\epsilon^2}\right) d\sigma_\epsilon^2 \\
 &= (2\pi)^{-n/2} \frac{B_\epsilon^{A_\epsilon}}{\Gamma(A_\epsilon)} \int \frac{\left(B_\epsilon + \frac{1}{2}(y_l - g^0(x_l))^2\right)^{\frac{n}{2}+A_\epsilon+1}}{(\sigma_\epsilon^2)^{\left(\frac{n}{2}+A_\epsilon+1\right)}} \exp\left(-\frac{B_\epsilon + \frac{1}{2}(y_l - g^0(x_l))^2}{\sigma_\epsilon^2}\right) \left(B_\epsilon + \frac{1}{2}(y_l - g^0(x_l))^2\right)^{-\left(\frac{n}{2}+A_\epsilon+1\right)} d\sigma_\epsilon^2 \\
 &= (2\pi)^{-n/2} \frac{B_\epsilon^{A_\epsilon}}{\Gamma(A_\epsilon)} \int \left(\frac{B_\epsilon + \frac{1}{2}(y_l - g^0(x_l))^2}{\sigma_\epsilon^2}\right)^{\left(\frac{n}{2}+A_\epsilon+2\right)-1} \exp\left(-\frac{B_\epsilon + \frac{1}{2}(y_l - g^0(x_l))^2}{\sigma_\epsilon^2}\right) \left(B_\epsilon + \frac{1}{2}(y_l - g^0(x_l))^2\right)^{-\left(\frac{n}{2}+A_\epsilon+1\right)} d\sigma_\epsilon^2 \\
 &= (2\pi)^{-n/2} \frac{B_\epsilon^{A_\epsilon}}{\Gamma(A_\epsilon)} \Gamma\left(\frac{n}{2} + A_\epsilon + 1\right) \left(B_\epsilon + \frac{1}{2}(y_l - g^0(x_l))^2\right)^{-\left(\frac{n}{2}+A_\epsilon+1\right)} d\sigma_\epsilon^2 \quad (29)
 \end{aligned}$$

Further, using (20) it follows that:

$$\begin{aligned}
 m(Y|H_1, \sigma_\epsilon^2, \gamma, \delta) &= (2\pi\sigma_\epsilon^2)^{-\frac{n}{2}} \left(\prod_{i=1}^{p+q+1} (1 + \gamma d_i)\right)^{-1/2} \left(\prod_{i=p+q+2}^n (1 + \delta d_i)\right)^{-1/2} \\
 &\exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma_\epsilon^2} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{p+q+1} \frac{s_i^2}{1+\gamma d_i} + \sum_{i=p+q+2}^n \frac{s_i^2}{1+\delta d_i}\right)\right\} \quad (30)
 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$m(Y|H_1) = \int m(Y|H_1, \sigma_\epsilon^2, \gamma, \delta) \pi_0(\sigma_\epsilon^2, \gamma, \delta) d\sigma_\epsilon^2 d\gamma d\delta$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \int \frac{B_{\epsilon}^{A_{\epsilon}}}{\Gamma(A_{\epsilon})} (\sigma_{\epsilon}^2)^{-(A_{\epsilon}+1)} \exp\left(-\frac{B_{\epsilon}}{\sigma_{\epsilon}^2}\right) (2\pi\sigma_{\epsilon}^2)^{-n/2} \left(\prod_{i=1}^{p+q+1} (1 + \gamma d_i)\right)^{-1/2} \left(\prod_{i=p+q+2}^n (1 + \delta d_i)\right)^{-1/2} \\
 &\quad \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma_{\epsilon}^2} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{p+q+1} \frac{s_i^2}{1 + \gamma d_i} + \sum_{i=p+q+2}^n \frac{s_i^2}{1 + \delta d_i}\right)\right\} \pi_0(\gamma, \delta) d\sigma_{\epsilon}^2 d\gamma d\delta \\
 &= \frac{B_{\epsilon}^{A_{\epsilon}}}{\Gamma(A_{\epsilon})} (2\pi)^{-n/2} \int \left(\prod_{i=1}^{p+q+1} (1 + \gamma d_i)\right)^{-1/2} \left(\prod_{i=p+q+2}^n (1 + \delta d_i)\right)^{-1/2} \pi_0(\gamma, \delta) \\
 &\quad \left\{ \int \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{\sigma_{\epsilon}^2} \left(B_{\epsilon} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{p+q+1} \frac{s_i^2}{1 + \gamma d_i} + \sum_{i=p+q+2}^n \frac{s_i^2}{1 + \delta d_i}\right)\right\} d\sigma_{\epsilon}^2 \right\} d\gamma d\delta \\
 &= \frac{B_{\epsilon}^{A_{\epsilon}}}{\Gamma(A_{\epsilon})} (2\pi)^{-n/2} \Gamma(n/2 + A_{\epsilon}) \int \left(\prod_{i=1}^{p+q+1} (1 + \gamma d_i)\right)^{-1/2} \left(\prod_{i=p+q+2}^n (1 + \delta d_i)\right)^{-1/2} \\
 &\quad \pi_0(\gamma, \delta) \left(B_{\epsilon} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{p+q+1} \frac{s_i^2}{1 + \gamma d_i} + \sum_{i=p+q+2}^n \frac{s_i^2}{1 + \delta d_i}\right)^{-(n/2 + A_{\epsilon} - 1)} d\gamma d\delta \quad (31)
 \end{aligned}$$

6.1. Prior robustness of Bayes factors

Note that the most informative part of the prior density that we have used is contained in the membership function h_A . Since a membership function $h_A(F)$ is to be treated only as a likelihood for F , any constant multiple $ch_A(F)$ also contributes the same prior information about F . Therefore, a study of the robustness of the Bayes factor that we obtained above with respect to a class of priors compatible with h_A is of interest. Here we consider a sensitivity study using the density ratio class defined as follows. Since the prior π that we use has the form

$$\pi(F, \sigma_u^2, \sigma_{\epsilon}^2) \propto h_A(F) \pi_0(F, \sigma_u^2, \sigma_{\epsilon}^2),$$

we consider the class of priors

$$\mathcal{C}_A = \{ \pi \mid c_1 h_A(F) \pi_0(F, \sigma_u^2, \sigma_{\epsilon}^2) \leq \alpha \pi(F, \sigma_u^2, \sigma_{\epsilon}^2) \leq c_2 h_A(F) \pi_0(F, \sigma_u^2, \sigma_{\epsilon}^2), \alpha > 0 \}$$

For specified $0 < c_1 < c_2$. We would like to investigate how the Bayes factor (28) behaves as the prior π varies in $\mathcal{C}_A$. We note that for any $\pi \in \mathcal{C}_A$, the Bayes factor B_0 has the form

$$B_0 = \frac{\int f(Y|g^0, \sigma_\epsilon^2) \pi(F, \sigma_u^2, \sigma_\epsilon^2) d\sigma_u^2 d\sigma_\epsilon^2}{\int f(Y|F, \sigma_u^2, \sigma_\epsilon^2) \pi(F, \sigma_u^2, \sigma_\epsilon^2) d\sigma_u^2 d\sigma_\epsilon^2}$$

Even though the integration in the numerator above need not involve F, σ_u^2 , we do so to apply the following result (see [1, 2, 3, 6, 8]).

Consider the density-ratio class

$$\Gamma_D = \{\pi \mid L(\eta) \leq \alpha(\eta) \leq U(\eta) \text{ f.s.c. } \alpha > 0\}$$

,for specified non-negative functions L and U . Further, let $q \equiv q^+ + q^-$ be the usual decomposition of q into its positive and negative parts, i.e., $q^+(u) = \max\{q(u), 0\}$ and $q^-(u) = -\min\{-q(u), 0\}$. Then we have the following theorem.

Theorem 3: For functions q_1 and q_2 such that $\int q_i(\eta) |U(\eta)| d\pi < \infty$, for $i = 1, 2$, and with q_2 positive a.s. with respect to all $\pi \in \Gamma_D$, (see [3])

$$i_D = \frac{\int q_1(\eta) \pi(\eta) d\pi}{\int q_2(\eta) \pi(\eta) d\pi}$$

is the unique solution ϑ of

$$\int (q_1(\eta) - \vartheta q_2(\eta))^- U(\eta) d\pi + \int (q_1(\eta) - \vartheta q_2(\eta))^+ L(\eta) d\pi = 0 \quad (32)$$

$$S_i = \frac{\int q_1(\eta) \pi(\eta) d\pi}{\int q_2(\eta) \pi(\eta) d\pi}$$

is the unique solution ϑ of

$$\int (q_1(\eta) - \vartheta q_2(\eta))^+ U(\eta) d\pi + \int (q_1(\eta) - \vartheta q_2(\eta))^- L(\eta) d\pi = 0 \quad (33)$$

Proof: (This prove follow to researchers)

To prove part one

$$\int q_1(\eta)^- U(\eta) d\pi + \int q_1(\eta)^+ L(\eta) d\pi - \vartheta \int q_2(\eta)^- U(\eta) d\pi - \vartheta \int q_2(\eta)^+ L(\eta) d\pi = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \int (q_1(\eta)^- U(\eta) + q_1(\eta)^+ L(\eta)) d\pi - \vartheta \int (q_2(\eta)^- U(\eta) + q_2(\eta)^+ L(\eta)) d\pi = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \vartheta = \frac{\int (q_1(\eta)^- U(\eta) + q_1(\eta)^+ L(\eta)) d\pi}{\int (q_2(\eta)^- U(\eta) + q_2(\eta)^+ L(\eta)) d\pi}$$

By theorem 4.1. in DeRobertis and Hartigan (1981) (see [6]).

$(q_1(\eta)^- U(\eta) + q_1(\eta)^+ L(\eta)) = \int_{\pi \square I_D} K q_1(\eta) \pi(\eta) d\eta$, where $K \square I(L, U)$, then

$$\Rightarrow \vartheta = \frac{\int_{\pi \square I_D} K q_1(\eta) \pi(\eta) d\eta}{\int_{\pi \square I_D} K q_2(\eta) \pi(\eta) d\eta}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vartheta = \int_{\pi \square I_D} \frac{q_1(\eta) \pi(\eta) d\eta}{q_2(\eta) \pi(\eta) d\eta}$$

Then the $\int_{\pi \square I_D} \frac{q_1(\eta) \pi(\eta) d\eta}{q_2(\eta) \pi(\eta) d\eta}$ is the solution ϑ , now to prove unique solution suppose

$$\vartheta_0 = \int_{\pi \square I_D} \frac{q_1(\eta) \pi(\eta) d\eta}{q_2(\eta) \pi(\eta) d\eta}, c_1 = \int_{\pi \square I_D} q_2(\eta) \pi(\eta) d\eta \text{ and } c_2 = \int_{\pi \square I_D} q_2(\eta) \pi(\eta) d\eta. \text{ Then}$$

$0 < c_1 < c_2 < \infty$ and $|\vartheta_0| < \infty$ it follows that $\vartheta_0 \geq \vartheta$ if and only if

$$\int (q_1(\eta) - \vartheta q_2(\eta))^- U(\eta) d\eta + \int (q_1(\eta) - \vartheta q_2(\eta))^+ L(\eta) d\eta \geq 0. \text{ Moreover, for any } \epsilon \geq 0,$$

$$\vartheta + \epsilon/c_1 \leq \vartheta_0 \text{ implies } \int (q_1(\eta) - \vartheta q_2(\eta))^- U(\eta) d\eta + \int (q_1(\eta) - \vartheta q_2(\eta))^+ L(\eta) d\eta \geq \epsilon$$

which in turn implies $\vartheta + \epsilon/c_2 \leq \vartheta_0$; thus ; $\vartheta_0 > \vartheta$ if and only if

$$\int (q_1(\eta) - \vartheta q_2(\eta))^- U(\eta) d\eta + \int (q_1(\eta) - \vartheta q_2(\eta))^+ L(\eta) d\eta > 0. \text{ Hence, then } \vartheta \text{ is the unique solution.}$$

Now to prove part two

$$\int q_1(\eta)^+ U(\eta) d\eta + \int q_1(\eta)^- L(\eta) d\eta - \vartheta \int q_2(\eta)^+ U(\eta) d\eta - \vartheta \int q_2(\eta)^- L(\eta) d\eta = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \int (q_1(\eta)^+ U(\eta) + q_1(\eta)^- L(\eta)) d\eta - \vartheta \int (q_2(\eta)^+ U(\eta) + q_2(\eta)^- L(\eta)) d\eta = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \vartheta = \frac{\int (q_1(\eta)^+ U(\eta) + q_1(\eta)^- L(\eta)) d\eta}{\int (q_2(\eta)^+ U(\eta) + q_2(\eta)^- L(\eta)) d\eta}$$

Also by theorem 4.1.in DeRobertis and Hartigan (1981),

$(q_1(\eta)^+ U(\eta) + q_1(\eta)^- L(\eta)) = \int_{\pi \square I_D} K q_1(\eta) \pi(\eta) d\eta$, where $K \square I(L, U)$, then

$$\Rightarrow \vartheta = \frac{\int_{\pi \square I_D} K q_1(\eta) \pi(\eta) d\eta}{\int_{\pi \square I_D} K q_2(\eta) \pi(\eta) d\eta}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vartheta = \int_{\pi \square I_D} \frac{q_1(\eta) \pi(\eta) d\eta}{q_2(\eta) \pi(\eta) d\eta}$$

By same way of proof the unique of first part above (the proof complete).

Now we shall discuss this result for the Gaussian membership function only. Then, since the prior π that we use has the form $\pi_0(F, \sigma_u^2, \sigma_\epsilon^2) \propto h_A(\theta) \pi_0(\sigma_u^2, \sigma_\epsilon^2)$, and we don't intend to vary $\pi_0(\sigma_u^2, \sigma_\epsilon^2)$ in our analysis, we redefine C_A as

$$C_A = \{ \pi(F) \mid c_1 h_A(F) \leq \alpha \pi(F) \leq c_2 h_A(F), \alpha > 0 \}$$

For specified $0 < c_1 < c_2$. Now, we express B_0 as

$$B_0 = \frac{\int \{ \int f(Y|g^0, \sigma_\epsilon^2) \pi_0(\sigma_\epsilon^2) d\sigma_\epsilon^2 \} \pi(F) d}{\int \{ \int f(Y|F, \sigma_u^2, \sigma_\epsilon^2) \pi_0(\sigma_u^2, \sigma_\epsilon^2) d\sigma_u^2 d\sigma_\epsilon^2 \} \pi(F) d} = \frac{\int q_1(F) \pi(F) d}{\int q_2(F) \pi(F) d}$$

where

$$q_1(F) = \int f(Y|g^0, \sigma_\epsilon^2) \pi_0(\sigma_\epsilon^2) d\sigma_\epsilon^2$$

$$q_2(F) = \int f(Y|F, \sigma_u^2, \sigma_\epsilon^2) \pi_0(\sigma_u^2, \sigma_\epsilon^2) d\sigma_u^2 d\sigma_\epsilon^2$$

Then by theorem 3 is readily applicable, and we obtain the following theorem:

Theorem 4: (see[3])

$\inf_{\pi \in C_A} B_0(\pi)$ is the unique solution ϑ of

$$c_2 \int (q_1(F) - \vartheta q_2(F))^- h_A(F) d + c_1 \int (q_1(F) - \vartheta q_2(F))^+ h_A(F) d = 0 \quad (34)$$

$\sup_{\pi \in C_A} B_0(\pi)$ is the unique solution ϑ of

$$c_2 \int (q_1(F) - \vartheta q_2(F))^+ h_A(F) d + c_1 \int (q_1(F) - \vartheta q_2(F))^- h_A(F) d = 0 \quad (35)$$

Proof: (This prove follow to researchers)

To prove part one

$$c_2 \int q_1(F)^- U(F) d + c_1 \int q_1(F)^+ L(F) d - \vartheta c_2 \int q_2(F)^- U(F) d - \vartheta c_1 \int q_2(F)^+ L(F) d = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \int (c_2 q_1(F)^- U(F) + c_1 q_1(F)^+ L(F)) d - \vartheta \int (c_2 q_2(F)^- U(F) + c_1 q_2(F)^+ L(F)) d = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \vartheta = \frac{\int (c_2 q_1(F)^- U(F) + c_1 q_1(F)^+ L(F)) d}{\int (c_2 q_2(F)^- U(F) + c_1 q_2(F)^+ L(F)) d}$$

Then,

$$(c_2 q_1(F)^- U(F) + c_1 q_1(F)^+ L(F)) = \inf_{\pi \in I_D} c \cdot q_1(F), \text{ where } K \in I(L, U), c \leq c_1 + c_2, \text{ then}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vartheta = \frac{\int \inf_{\pi \in \mathcal{C}_A} c \ q_1(F) \ h_A(F) \ d}{\int \inf_{\pi \in \mathcal{C}_A} c \ q_2(F) \ h_A(F) \ d}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vartheta = \inf_{\pi \in \mathcal{C}_A} \frac{\int q_1(F) \ h_A(F) \ d}{\int q_2(F) \ h_A(F) \ d}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vartheta = \inf_{\pi \in \mathcal{C}_A} B_0(\pi)$$

To prove part two

$$c_2 \int q_1(F)^+ U(F) d + c_1 \int q_1(F)^- L(F) d - \vartheta c_2 \int q_2(F)^+ U(F) d - \vartheta c_1 \int q_2(F)^- L(F) d = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \int (c_2 q_1(F)^+ U(F) + c_1 q_1(F)^- L(F)) d - \vartheta \int (c_2 q_2(F)^+ U(F) + c_1 q_2(F)^- L(F)) d = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \vartheta = \frac{\int (c_2 q_1(F)^+ U(F) + c_1 q_1(F)^- L(F)) d}{\int (c_2 q_2(F)^+ U(F) + c_1 q_2(F)^- L(F)) d}$$

Then,

$$(c_2 q_1(F)^+ U(F) + c_1 q_1(F)^- L(F)) = S_{\pi \in \mathcal{I}_D} c \ q_1(F), \text{ where } K \in I(L, U), c \leq c_1 + c_2,$$

then

$$\Rightarrow \vartheta = \frac{\int S_{\pi \in \mathcal{I}_D} c \ q_1(F) \ h_A(F) \ d}{\int S_{\pi \in \mathcal{I}_D} c \ q_2(F) \ h_A(F) \ d}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vartheta = S_{\pi \in \mathcal{I}_D} \frac{\int q_1(F) \ h_A(F) \ d}{\int q_2(F) \ h_A(F) \ d}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vartheta = \sup_{\pi \in \mathcal{I}_D} B_0(\pi)$$

By same as the unique prove to part first in theorem 2.

7. Simulation results

In this section, we illustrate the effectiveness of the our methodology. We generated observations from the model (1) with the following regression functions which represent a variety of shapes:

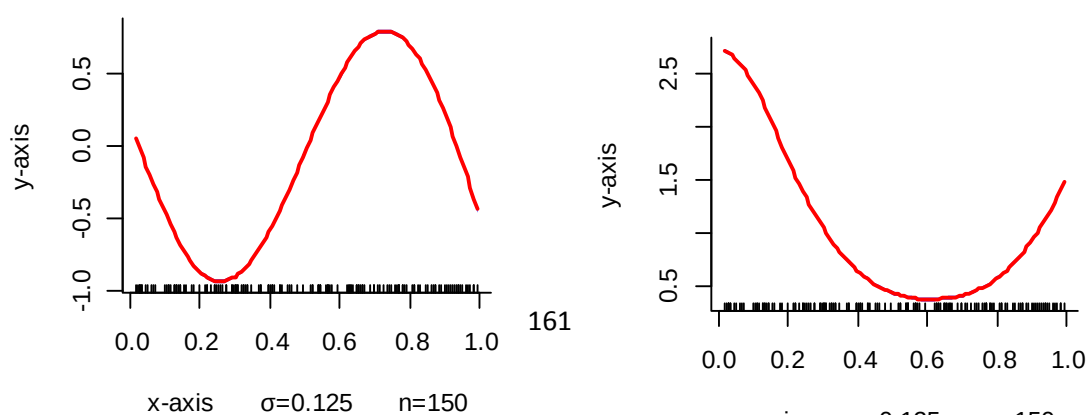
$$(i) \quad y_1 = 1 - 3x_1 + e^{(2\pi x_2 + 2x_2)}, \quad (36)$$

$$(ii) \quad y_2 = 2x_1 - \sin(2\pi x_2) + 0.3(x_2 - 0.75)^2 - \frac{1}{2}x_2^3. \quad (37)$$

The settings for the simulation study are as follows. The observations for the design variable are generated from uniform distribution on the interval $[-1,1]$, for various sample sizes. These values are kept fixed for all settings to reduce simulation variability. The sample size taken is $n=150$.

For the error distribution we used normal distribution $N(0, \sigma_\epsilon^2)$, where $\sigma = 0.125, 0.25$ and 0.5 . We have tried with different choices of K as well. The penalty parameter λ is chosen by minimizing the generalized cross validation (GCV) criterion.

To give an impression on the variability of the obtained estimators, we plot in figure (1) a scatter plot of the randomly generated data sets together with the fitted values from the penalized LS. regression spline estimation method.



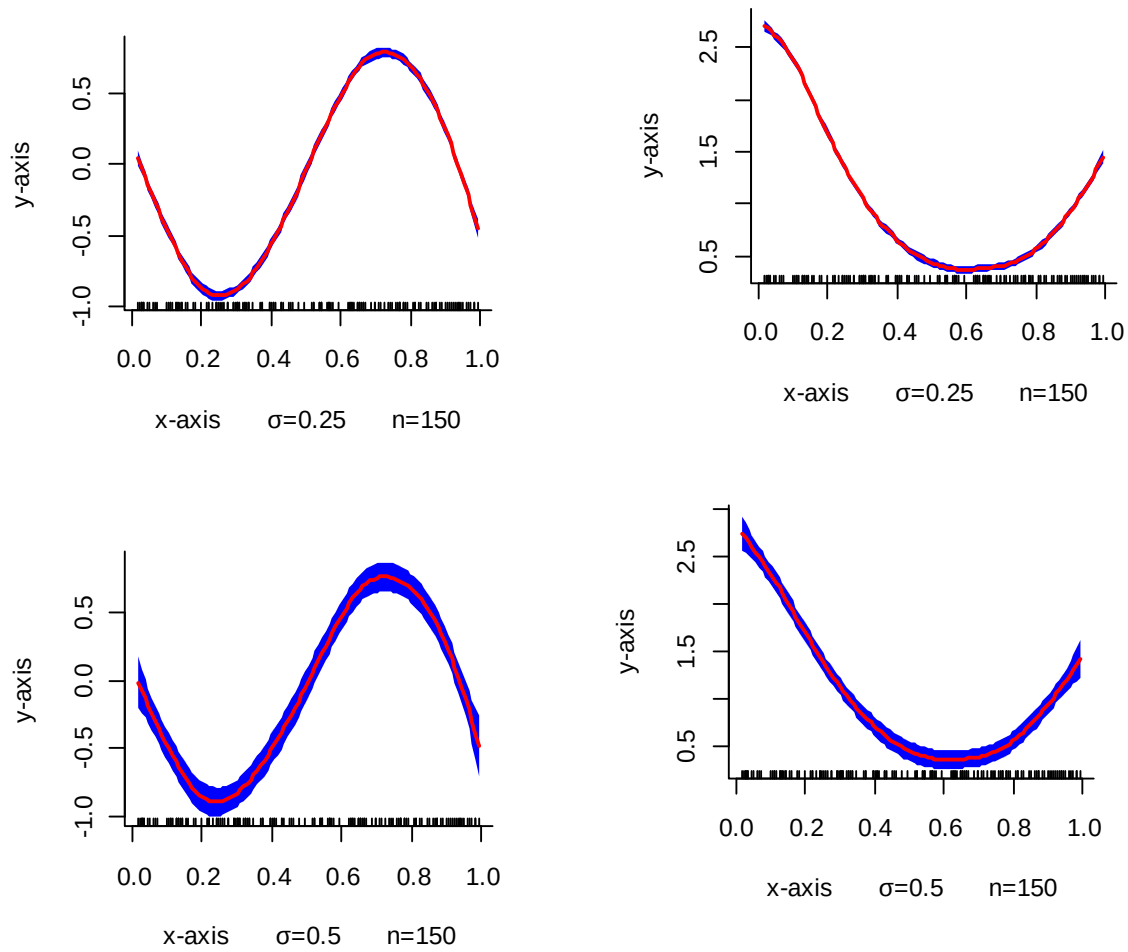


Figure (1) fitted curves from penalized regression spline estimation of first (right side) and second test function (left side) with design variable X distributed uniform distribution $[-1,1]$ with the error distributed normal distribution $(0, \sigma^2)$, $\sigma = 0.1$, 0.2 and 0.5 , and sample size $n=150$

In all examples we have used Gaussian membership functions $h_A(g)$ proportional to the density of $N(F_U, \sigma_u^2 \Gamma)$, where F_U is obtained from the penalized spline decomposition of g^0 . The hyper-parameters

a and b (see (25) and (27)) are $b = 3, 3.2, 3.4$ and 3.5 and $a = 8(b + 2)/(b - 2)$ as in table (5.4). The values of the other hyper-parameters A_ϵ and B_ϵ (see (25) and (27)) are $A_\epsilon = B_\epsilon = 0.1$. From the table (1)

it can be seen that the posterior density of γ, δ given Y (see (25)) corresponding to the test functions and values of $(b, A_{\epsilon}$ and $B_{\epsilon})$. As well as we considered two different prior guesses for g^0 :

(i) $g^0(x) = 1 - 3x_1$

(ii) $g^0(x) = 2x_1$

We have displayed the posterior of (γ, δ) given Y see (21), in figure (2), where red curve represent the posterior of the first test function while blue curve represent the posterior of the second test function.

The model checking approach based on Bayes factors see (28) has been tested on simulated examples. These Bayes factors are given in Table (2). From this table, it can be seen that the model corresponding to the second test function obtains the largest Bayes factor followed by that the first test function and the Bayes factor favors H_1 with strong evidence for two test functions.

Table (1)
result of
posterior
density of
given Y

	b= 3	b= 3.2	b= 3.3	b= 3.5
a	a= 40	a= 34.66667	a= 32.61538	a= 29.33333
y_1	2.125341	0.5452288	0.05967334	0.003914634
y_2	1.748961	0.3811545	0.03844471	0.00214147

the
 γ, δ

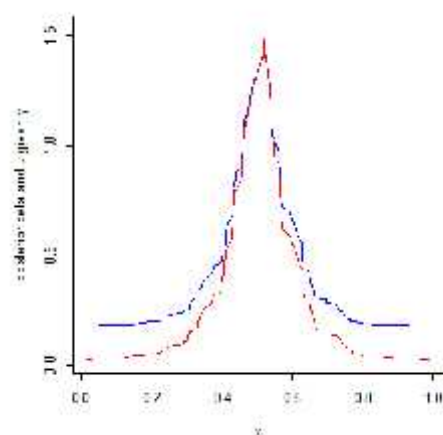


Figure (2) posterior F given Y for first and second test functions

اكتب المعادلة هنا

Test functions	$B_0(y)$	Evidence
y_1	5.850938×10^{-2}	very strongly favors H_1
y_2	7.543237×10^{-1}	strongly favors H_1

Table (2) Bayes factor for

$$H_0: g = g^0 \text{ versus } H_1: g \neq g^0$$

8. Conclusions

In this paper we suggest approach to semi parametric regression by proposing an alternative to dealing with complicated analyses on function spaces. The proposed technique uses fuzzy sets to quantify the available prior information on a function space by starting with a “prior guess” baseline regression function g^0 . First the penalized spline is used for the model and by using a convenient connection between penalized splines and mixed models, we can representation semi parametric regression model as mixed model. The penalized spline assumed on g as well as

prior g^0 . Then prior of g relative to distance from g^0 specified in the form of a membership function which translates this distance into a measure of distance between the corresponding mixed model coefficients. Furthermore we obtain the posterior density of γ, δ given Y , the posterior mean and covariance matrix of F (theorem 1, 2), and a Bayesian test is proposed to check whether the baseline function g^0 is compatible with the data or not and we proved the prior robustness of Bayes factors (theorem 3, 4).

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المجموعات الضبابية في الانحدار شبه المعلمي البيزي

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الخلاصة

في هذا البحث تم دراسة التحليل البيزي لنموذج الانحدار شبه المعلمي بوجود مجموعات ضبابية ودوال انتماء . ان دوال الانتماء استخدمت كدوال ترجيح للنموذج . التحليل البيزي استخدم للوصول الى استدلالات حول نتائج معالم النموذج المختلط ، وبرهنا بعض النظريات الخاصة بالتوزيع اللاحق وعامل بيز.