On empirical likelihood for a semiparametric mixture model

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SUMMARY

Plant and animal studies of quantitative trait loci provide data which arise from mixtures of distributions with known mixing proportions. Previous approaches to estimation involve modelling the distributions parametrically. We propose a semiparametric alternative which assumes that the log ratio of the component densities satisfies a linear model, with the baseline density unspecified. It is demonstrated that a constrained empirical likelihood has an irregularity under the null hypothesis that the two densities are equal. A factorisation of the likelihood suggests a partial empirical likelihood which permits unconstrained estimation of the parameters, and which is shown to give consistent and asymptotically normal estimators, regardless of the null. The asymptotic null distribution of the log partial likelihood ratio is chi-squared. Theoretical calculations show that the procedure may be as efficient as the full empirical likelihood in the regular set-up. The usefulness of the robust methodology is illustrated with a rat study of breast cancer resistance genes.

Some key words: Boundary condition; Breeding experiment; Exponential tilt; Lagrange multiplier; Molecular marker; Profile likelihood; Weak convergence.

1. INTRODUCTION

Our motivation is the identification of genetic loci influencing quantitative traits. This use of molecular marker data in breeding experiments has traditional applications in plant and animal studies, such as improving grain yield in rice and increasing milk production in cows. Recently, animal models have proved useful for complex human diseases. For example, controlled crosses of inbred rat strains (Lan et al., 2001) characterised several genomic regions conferring breast cancer resistance or susceptibility.

The standard method for quantitative trait loci is interval mapping (Lander & Botstein, 1989). Since markers are observed at known locations, the genotypes between the locations are missing. In backcross studies, this leads to a two-component mixture model at putative loci. The component densities, \( f \) and \( g \), are associated with the possible genotypes. The mixing probabilities are determined by the recombination fractions between a locus and the flanking markers (Knapp et al., 1990). The set-up differs from those in which the focus is inference for unknown mixing proportions when some data are from \( f \) and \( g \) (Titterington et al., 1985, Ch. 1). Murray & Titterington (1978) and Hall (1981) discuss nonparametric approaches. With quantitative traits, the proportions are known, they vary among observations, and direct information on the distributions may be unavailable. The emphasis is on testing that a locus has no genetic influence, that is, \( H_0: f = g \).

Following early work on mixture models (Hosmer, 1973), most mapping methods
employ a likelihood analysis with \( f \) and \( g \) specified parametrically (Doerge et al., 1997). Kruglyak & Lander (1995) proposed a rank-based nonparametric test for \( H_0 \). A formal procedure for robust estimation of the distributions does not exist, and a challenge is to relax the usual parametric assumptions. We adopt a semiparametric model subsuming discrete and continuous outcomes. The densities are related by an exponential tilt but are otherwise unspecified (Anderson, 1979); that is
\[
g(x) = \exp(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x)f(x),
\]
where \( (\beta_0, \beta_1) \in \mathcal{H} \), a compact subset of \( \mathbb{R}^2 \). Normal variates with common variance follow \( (1) \), as do exponential, binomial and Poisson distributions. Including \( x^2, x^3, \ldots \) in the log-linear model for \( g/f \) enhances its flexibility.

The exponential tilt model resembles the Cox (1972) regression model in which the ratio of two hazard functions is linear in covariates. A partial likelihood not involving the baseline hazard gives efficient estimators for the coefficients in the proportional hazards model (Cox, 1975). An analogous partial likelihood has yet to be developed for model (1). Qin (1999) used a profile empirical likelihood (Owen, 1988, 1990) to construct confidence intervals for the mixture proportions, and for \( F = \{ f \} \) and \( G = \{ g \} \). However, estimation of \( (\beta_0, \beta_1) \) enforces constraints on \( F \) and \( G \) and is computationally involved. Furthermore, in \( \S \, 2 \), we show that the constraints induce a boundary condition and Theorems 1–4 (Qin, 1999) do not hold under \( H_0 \). That is, the profile likelihood has an irregularity when \( f = g \).

Irregularities in likelihood methodology for parametric mixture models with unknown proportions are well documented (Ghosh & Sen, 1985; McLachlan & Basford, 1988). The likelihood may also have an irregularity with known weights (Goffinet et al., 1992). The irregularity of the profile empirical likelihood for the semiparametric model (1) occurs either with or without known weights; that is, knowledge of the mixture proportions does not eliminate the difficulty under \( H_0 \).

To derive a valid test of the null hypothesis, we factorise the profile empirical likelihood into two pieces. One part involves the constraints while the other, the partial profile empirical likelihood, does not. The partial likelihood gives consistent and asymptotically normal estimators for \((\beta_0, \beta_1) \) regardless of \( f = g \), and the log partial likelihood ratio for testing \( \beta_0 = \beta_1 = 0 \) has a chi-squared distribution. Maximising the partial likelihood is straightforward, avoiding constrained optimisation of the full likelihood. Theoretical calculations show that, when \( f \neq g \), the estimators may be as efficient as those from the full likelihood. New estimators for \( F \) and \( G \) are proved to be uniformly consistent and to converge to Gaussian processes.

In \( \S \, 3 \), simulations show that the partial profile empirical likelihood works well with realistic sample sizes. The semiparametric methods are illustrated on the mammary cancer data in \( \S \, 4 \) and some remarks conclude in \( \S \, 5 \).

### 2. Estimation and inference

#### 2.1. Data and profile empirical likelihood

The data are independent observations from \( K \) mixtures with known proportions and component densities \( f \) and \( g \) satisfying model (1). Let \( X_{kj} \) be the \( j \)th observation from the \( k \)th mixture with density
\[
\lambda_k f(x) + (1 - \lambda_k)g(x) \quad (j = 1, 2, \ldots, n_k, k = 1, 2, \ldots, K).
\]
Assume that \(0 \leq \lambda_k \leq 1\), \(\lambda_1 + \ldots + \lambda_k\), and \(f(x)\) is nondegenerate. If \(K = 1\), then the model is nonidentifiable. To see this, let \(d(x) = \{\lambda_k + (1 - \lambda_k) \exp(\beta_0 + x\beta_1)\} f^*(x)\). Setting \((\beta_0, \beta_1, f)\) in (1) equal to \((\beta_0, \beta_1, f^*)\) and \((0, 0, d)\) yields equivalent models. In the sequel, \(K \geq 2\).

If we define

\[
\omega_k(x, \beta) = \lambda_k + (1 - \lambda_k) \exp(\beta_0 + x\beta_1),
\]

the likelihood is

\[
L(\beta, F) = \prod_{k=1}^{K} \prod_{j=1}^{n_k} dF(x_{kj}) \prod_{k=1}^{K} \prod_{j=1}^{n_k} \omega_k(x_{kj}, \beta) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} dF(z_i) \prod_{k=1}^{K} \prod_{j=1}^{n_k} \omega_k(x_{kj}, \beta),
\]

where \(n = \sum_{k=1}^{K} n_k\), \(z = (z_1, z_2, \ldots, z_n) = (x_{11}, x_{12}, \ldots, x_{Kn_k})\) and \(p_i = dF(z_i)\).

Unconstrained maximisation of \(L(\beta, F)\) does not provide a valid estimate for \(\beta\). To see this, note that the likelihood increases monotonically in \(p_i\) \((i = 1, \ldots, n)\) and \(\beta_0\). For a given \(\beta\), it is natural to constrain \(p\) to the set

\[
C_{\beta} = \left\{ p \mid \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i = 1, p_i \geq 0, \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i \{\exp(\beta_0 + z_i\beta_1) - 1\} = 0 \right\}.
\]

This ensures that the estimators for \(F\) and \(G\) are cumulative distribution functions. To compute the maximum likelihood estimator of \(\beta, \hat{\beta}\) say, one first maximises \(L(\beta, F)\) over \(p \in C_{\beta}\). This yields a profile likelihood in \(\beta\) which is then maximised to obtain \(\hat{\beta} = (\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1)\) (Qin, 1999). The estimators

\[
\hat{F}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{p}_i I(z_i \leq x), \quad \hat{G}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \exp(\hat{\beta}_0 + z_i\hat{\beta}_1) \hat{p}_i I(z_i \leq x)
\]

are evaluated at \(\tilde{\beta} = (\tilde{\beta}_0, \ldots, \tilde{\beta}_n)\), where \(\tilde{\beta}\) maximises \(L(\tilde{\beta}, F)\) over \(p \in C_{\beta}\).

Similarly to Qin & Lawless (1994), for any fixed \(\beta\) such that \(C_{\beta}\) is not empty, maximising \(L(\beta, F)\) over \(C_{\beta}\) gives

\[
p_i = \frac{1}{n} \frac{1}{r(z_i, \beta)\{1 + \alpha h(z_i, \beta)\}},
\]

where \(\alpha\) is the Lagrange multiplier determined by

\[
\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{h(z_i, \beta)}{1 + \alpha h(z_i, \beta)} = 0,
\]

with

\[
h(x, \beta) = \{\exp(\beta_0 + x\beta_1) - 1\} r(x, \beta)^{-1}, \quad r(x, \beta) = 1 + \xi \{\exp(\beta_0 + x\beta_1) - 1\},
\]

\[
\xi = \sum_{k=1}^{K} n^{-1} n_k (1 - \lambda_k).
\]

Plugging (3) into (2) gives the log profile likelihood

\[
\ell(\beta, \beta(\beta)) = \ell_1(\beta, \beta(\beta)) + \ell_2(\beta) - n \log n,
\]
\[ l_1(\beta, \bar{z}(\beta)) = -\sum_{i=1}^{n} \log(1 + \bar{z}(z_i, \beta)), \]
\[ l_2(\beta) = -\sum_{i=1}^{n} \log(r(z_i, \beta)) + \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{j=1}^{n_k} \log(\omega_k(x_{kj}, \beta)) \]
and \( \bar{z}(\beta) \) solves equation (4). Maximising \( l(\beta, \bar{z}) \) in \( (\beta, \bar{z}) \) may be unreliable because the function may have many saddlepoints and the maximiser must satisfy a simplex condition (Qin & Lawless, 1994). Another method evaluates \( \bar{z}(\beta) \) explicitly for each \( \beta \), which may be more computationally intensive. For example, the bisection method may be used to solve the constraint for fixed \( \beta \) and may be coupled with the downhill simplex method to search for the maximiser of \( l \). This contrasts with certain models (Qin, 1998) for which the parameter of interest and the Lagrange multiplier may be treated separately.

2.2. Irregularity of profile empirical likelihood

The issue is that \( C_\beta \) may be empty for some \( \beta \) and the maximiser of \( L(\beta, F) \) may not exist. The problem occurs when the true value of \( \beta \), \( \beta_T = (\beta_{0T}, \beta_{1T}) \), is 0; the irregularity seems to have been overlooked in Theorems 1–4 in Qin (1999). This is precisely stated in the following result; see the Appendix for the proof.

\textbf{Theorem 1.} (i) We have that \( C_\beta \) is not empty
\[ \Rightarrow \beta = (\beta_0, \beta_1) \in J_\beta(z) := \{ (\beta_0, \beta_1) | \min_{i=1}^{n}(\beta_0 + z_i \beta_1) \leq 0 \leq \max_{i=1}^{n}(\beta_0 + z_i \beta_1) \}. \]
(ii) If \( \beta_T \neq 0 \), then there exists a neighbourhood \( N(\beta_T) \) of \( \beta_T \), such that, for every \( \beta \in N(\beta_T), \beta \in J_\beta(z) \) as \( n \to \infty \).
(iii) If \( \beta_T = 0 \), then there exists no such \( N(\beta_T) \).

If \( \beta_T \neq 0 \), then, for \( n \) large enough, there exists a neighbourhood of \( \beta_T \) such that, for every \( \beta \in N(\beta_T), C_\beta \) is not empty. However, there is no neighbourhood of 0 in which every \( \beta \in J_\beta(z) \). This happens because \( \beta = (\beta_0, 0) \) is not in \( J_\beta(z) \) whenever \( \beta_0 \neq 0 \). In essence, the constraints produce a boundary condition at the origin in which all finite \( z \) satisfy (4).

It is helpful to visualise the irregularity geometrically. The set \( J_\beta(z) \) consists of two cones in the \( (\beta_0, \beta_1) \) plane. The cones have a vertex at \( (0, 0) \) and are reflected about this point. In Qin’s (1999) proofs, all \( \beta \) in a nondegenerate ball around \( \beta_T \) must also be in the cones. The problem is that, for \( \beta_T = 0 \), there is always some \( \beta \) in the ball which is outside the cones.

As in Lemmas 1 and 2 of Qin (1993), we can show that when \( \beta_T \neq 0 \) the constraint has an implicit solution \( \bar{z}(\beta) \) in a \( \Omega(n^{-1/3}) \) neighbourhood of \( \beta_T \) and \( \bar{z}(\beta) \) is uniformly \( O(n^{-1/3}) \). Furthermore, it is easy to prove that \( \bar{z} \) is consistent and asymptotically normal. When \( \beta_T = 0 \), there is no guarantee that the implicit solution of (4) is \( O(n^{-1/3}) \) in a \( O(n^{-1/3}) \) neighbourhood of \( \beta_T \). This means that the techniques used to derive the limiting behaviour of \( \bar{z} \) when \( \beta_T \neq 0 \) do not apply under \( H_0 \).

2.3. Partial profile empirical likelihood

The Lagrange multiplier is a nuisance parameter. The irregularity of \( l(\beta, \bar{z}(\beta)) \) occurs because \( \bar{z} \) has known value 0 but is estimated to ensure that \( \bar{F} \) and \( \bar{G} \) are distribution functions in finite samples. The log partial profile empirical likelihood, \( l_2(\beta) \), does not depend on the constraints, while \( l_1(\beta, \bar{z}(\beta)) \) does. Hence, the boundary condition is due to \( l_1 \).
A reasonable estimator for \( \beta \) is \( \hat{\beta} = \arg \max \{ h_{\beta}(\beta) \} \). Since \( l_1 = 0 \) when \( \beta = 0 \), \( \hat{\beta} \) is the unconstrained maximiser of the full profile empirical likelihood. The asymptotic properties of the partial likelihood procedure are given below; see the Appendix for the proof.

**Theorem 2.** Assume that \( \| h \|^3 \) and \( \| \partial h / \partial \beta \| \) are bounded by integrable functions in \( N(\beta_T) \).

(i) For large enough \( n \), with probability 1, \( \partial l_2 / \partial \beta = 0 \) has a solution \( \hat{\beta} \) in the interior of the interval \( |\beta - \beta_T| \leq n^{-1/3} \), that is, \( \hat{\beta} \) is \( n^{1/3} \)-consistent for \( \beta_T \). Furthermore, \( n^{1/2}(\hat{\beta} - \beta_T) \rightarrow N(0, B) \), in distribution, where \( B = S^{-1}V S^{-1} \), \( S = E \{ n^{-1} \partial^2 l_2(\beta_T)/(\partial \beta \partial \beta^T) \} \) and \( V = \text{var} \{ \partial l_2(\beta_T)/(\partial \beta) \} \).

(ii) We have that \( 2 l_2(\hat{\beta}) \rightarrow \chi^2_1 \), in distribution, under \( H_0 \).

The estimator \( \hat{\beta} \) is consistent and asymptotically normal and the partial likelihood ratio test has a chi-squared distribution under \( H_0 \). However, \( B \) may not equal \( -S^{-1} \), as in classical likelihood theory. Inference for \( \beta \) must be based on the sandwich variance estimator \( \hat{B} = \hat{S}^{-1} \hat{V}^{-1} \hat{S}^{-1} \), where \( \hat{S} = n^{-1} \partial^2 l_2(\hat{\beta})/(\partial \beta \partial \beta^T) \),

\[
\hat{V} = n^{-1} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{j=1}^{K_0} \left\{ \frac{\partial^2 r(x_{kj}, \hat{\beta})}{\partial \beta \partial \beta} - \frac{\partial r(x_{kj}, \hat{\beta})}{\partial \beta} \right\} \otimes \frac{\partial \omega_k(x_{kj}, \hat{\beta})}{\partial \beta},
\]

and, for a vector \( v, v \otimes v = vv^T \).

2.4. Theoretical comparison of \( \tilde{\beta} \) and \( \hat{\beta} \)

Since \( \hat{\beta} \) is more easily computed than \( \tilde{\beta} \) and is valid regardless of \( \beta_T \), the relative efficiency of the estimators when \( \beta_T \neq 0 \) is of interest. One might expect that \( l_1 \) and the constraint (4) have extra information about \( \beta \). We show formally that \( \tilde{\beta} \) has variance bounded by that of \( \hat{\beta} \). The result is stated precisely below; see the Appendix for details.

**Theorem 3.** Under the regularity conditions in Theorem 2 and when \( \beta_T \neq 0 \) we have the following.

(i) The estimator \( \tilde{\beta} = (\tilde{\beta}, \tilde{\alpha})^T \) from \( l(\beta, \tilde{\alpha}(\beta)) \) tends to \( (\beta_T, 0)^T \) in probability and

\[
\sqrt{n} \{ \tilde{\beta} - (\beta_T, 0)^T \} \rightarrow N(0, B),
\]

in distribution, where \( B = \hat{S}^{-1} \hat{V} \hat{S}^{-1} \),

\[
\hat{S} = \begin{pmatrix} S & S_{12} \\ S_{21} & S_{22} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \hat{V} = \begin{pmatrix} -S - \delta S_{12} S_{21} & -\delta S_{21} s_{22} \\ -\delta S_{12} s_{22} & s_{22} - \delta S_{22} \end{pmatrix},
\]

and \( S_{12}, S_{21}, s_{22} \) and \( \delta \) are defined in the Appendix. Thus, \( n^{1/2}(\tilde{\beta} - \beta_T) \rightarrow N(0, B_{11}) \), in distribution, where

\[
\hat{B}_{11} = -S^{-1} - \frac{1}{s_{22} - s_{21} S^{-1} S_{12}} S^{-1} S_{12} S_{21} S^{-1}.
\]

(ii) We have that

\[
\hat{B}_{11} - B = \left( \delta - \frac{1}{s_{22} - s_{21} S^{-1} S_{12}} \right) S^{-1} S_{12} S_{21} S^{-1} \leq 0.
\]

For regular \( \beta_T \) and two or more mixtures, \( \hat{\beta} \) has a limiting covariance matrix which equals that for \( \tilde{\beta} \) plus the negative semidefinite matrix in (ii).
The efficiency loss can be quantified in various settings using the formulae for $\hat{B}_{11}$ and $B$ in the Appendix. In all settings, $\var(\hat{B}_{11})/\var(\hat{B}_1) = 1$ after round-off, but not so for $\hat{B}_0$. In Table 1, $\var(\hat{B}_0)/\var(\hat{B}_0) = 1$ is given for normal, exponential and Poisson mixtures. The mixture proportions are $\lambda = (\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_K)$. The probability of an observation with proportion $\lambda_i = \tilde{\rho}_i$, where $\sum_i \tilde{\rho}_i = 1$ and $\tilde{\rho} = (\tilde{\rho}_1, \ldots, \tilde{\rho}_K)$. The relative efficiency is close to 1 when all data are directly from $f$ and $g$, and exceeds 0.95 in most other cases, even when $K = 2$, $\lambda_1 = 0.7$ and $\lambda_2 = 0.5$. The smaller $|\lambda_1 - \lambda_2|$ is, the closer the true model is to $K = 1$.

Table 1. Relative efficiency of $\hat{B}_0$ to $\hat{\beta}_0$ in four scenarios, 
(a) $\tilde{\rho} = (0.5, 0.5)$, $\lambda = (1, 0)$, (b) $\tilde{\rho} = (0.4, 0.2, 0.4)$, $\lambda = (1, 0.5, 0)$, (c) $\tilde{\rho} = (0.33, 0.34, 0.33)$, $\lambda = (0.7, 0.5, 0.3)$, (d) $\tilde{\rho} = (0.5, 0.5)$, $\lambda = (0.7, 0.5)$

<table>
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<tr>
<th>$g(x)$</th>
<th>$f(x)$</th>
<th>$\beta_0$</th>
<th>$\beta_1$</th>
<th>$\rho_0$</th>
<th>$\rho_1$</th>
<th>$\rho_1$</th>
<th>$\rho_{11}$</th>
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<td>N(2, 1)</td>
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<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
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<tr>
<td>N(4, 1)</td>
<td>N(2, 1)</td>
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<td>0.990</td>
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<td>Po(1)</td>
<td>Po(3)</td>
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<td>1.000</td>
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<td>1.000</td>
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<td>Po(3)</td>
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An anomalous result occurs with normal densities when $f(x) = g(-x)$ and $0 < \lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_K < 1$; that is if $f$ and $g$ are reflected about 0. In these cases, the variance ratios may be less than 0.50. An explanation is that $\hat{B}_0 = 0$ but $\hat{B}_1 \neq 0$. This is confirmed by calculations under a variety of distributions meeting the condition. The peculiarity is absent when $f = g$ and both coefficients are roughly zero.

2.5. Estimating $F$ and $G$

To make inference about $F$ and $G$, one may first test $H_0$ using $I_2(\beta)$. If $H_0$ is not rejected, then both $F$ and $G$ may be estimated with the empirical distribution from the pooled data. Otherwise, $\{I_\beta, \delta(\beta)\}$ may be used to obtain the estimates (Qin, 1999). Difficulties are that the inferential properties of this two-step procedure are unclear and estimation of $F$ and $G$ after rejecting $F = G$ requires constrained optimisation. We propose a simple alternative. Setting $x = 0$ and $\beta = \hat{\beta}$ in (3) gives $\hat{p}_i = \{nr(z_i, \hat{\beta})\}^{-1}$. Estimators for $F(x)$ and $G(x)$ are

$$F_n(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{p}_i I(z_i \leq x), \quad G_n(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{p}_i \exp(\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 z_i) I(z_i \leq x).$$

By inspection, the estimators are monotone increasing step functions in $x$, with jumps at the observed values $z_i (i = 1, \ldots, n)$. Since estimation is unconstrained, in small samples $F_n$ and $G_n$ may exceed 1 in the tail. The adjusted estimators $F^*_n(x) = F_n(x)/F_n(\infty)$ and $G^*_n(x) = G_n(x)/G_n(\infty)$ are always distribution functions.

Recall that $\hat{\beta} \rightarrow \beta_T$ in probability and note that $p_l$ and $\exp(\beta_0 + \beta_1 z_i)$ have bounded
derivatives in $\beta$ for bounded $z_i$ and $\beta \in \mathcal{H}$. Thus, it is straightforward to establish that
\[
\sup_{x \in [\tau, \tau_n]} \left| F_n(x) - \sum_i p_i I(z_i \leq x) \right|, \quad \sup_{x \in [\tau, \tau_n]} \left| G_n(x) - \sum_i p_i \exp(\beta_0 + \beta_1 z_i) I(z_i \leq x) \right|
\]
vanish in probability, where $\Pr(z_i < \tau_i) > 0$ and $\Pr(z_i > \tau_n) > 0$. A uniform law of large numbers gives that
\[
\sup_{x \in [\tau, \tau_n]} \left| F(x) - \sum_i p_i I(z_i \leq x) \right| \to 0, \quad \sup_{x \in [\tau, \tau_n]} \left| G(x) - \sum_i p_i \exp(\beta_0 + \beta_1 z_i) I(z_i \leq x) \right| \to 0,
\]
both in probability. As a result, $F_n$ and $G_n$ are uniformly consistent.

The next theorem is helpful in constructing confidence intervals for the distributions; see the Appendix for the proof.

**Theorem 4.** Under the regularity conditions of Theorem 2,
\[
n^{1/2}\{F_n(x) - F(x)\} \to K_F(x), \quad n^{1/2}\{G_n(x) - G(x)\} \to K_G(x),
\]
both weakly, where $K_F(x)$ and $K_G(x)$ are mean zero Gaussian processes with continuous sample paths for $x \in [\tau, \tau_n]$ and covariance functions $\Sigma_F(x, y)$ and $\Sigma_G(x, y)$ given in the Appendix.

Estimators for the covariance functions, $\hat{\Sigma}_F$ and $\hat{\Sigma}_G$, are computed with empirical estimates in place of theoretical quantities in $\Sigma_F$ and $\Sigma_G$. The resulting plug-in formulae are tedious and are omitted. A 0.95 confidence interval for $F(x)$ is $F_n(x) \pm \sqrt{1.96 \hat{\Sigma}_F(x, x)}$ and similarly for $G(x)$.

### 3. Numerical studies

Simulations were run to investigate the small-sample behaviour of $\hat{\beta}$, $\hat{B}$ and $2l_2(\hat{\beta})$ in a genetic experiment. Two homozygous lines, P1 and P2, are mated, yielding heterozygous, F1, children; P1 individuals have genotype a/a at all loci, P2 individuals are A/A at all loci, and F1 individuals are a/A at all loci. Then F1 is bred to P1, yielding backcross progeny, BC, which are either a/a or a/A at a given locus. These breedings are designed in order to study a quantitative trait locus at 30 cM on a hypothetical chromosome. The BC generation is genotyped at markers at 20 cM and 40 cM.

The distribution of the trait is $f(x)$ for individuals a/a at 30 cM and $g(x)$ for individuals a/A. There are four possible genotypes at the flanking markers: aa/aa, aa/Aa, aa/Aa and aa/AA. Each of the recombinant genotypes, aa/Aa and aa/Aa, occurs with probability 0.082. Conditional on these genotypes, the probability of a/a at the trait locus is 0.5. These values are based on recombination fractions from the Haldane (1919) map function. Similarly, the probabilities of aa/aa and aa/AA at the flanking markers are both 0.418, and the conditional probabilities of a/a at 30 cM are 0.99 and 0.01. This gives $\lambda = (0.99, 0.5, 0.01)$ and $\tilde{\rho} = (0.418, 0.164, 0.418)$.

Normal, Poisson and exponential mixtures were investigated. Five hundred samples were simulated for each mixture model with $n = 100$ or 250. In each sample, $\hat{\beta}$, $\hat{B}$ and $2l_2(\hat{\beta})$ were computed, and the average values of $\hat{\beta}$ and $\hat{B}$ are in Table 2. The empirical rejection rates for a nominal 0.05 level test using $2l_2(\hat{\beta})$ and the empirical variance of $\hat{\beta}$ are also provided. The bias is small and the empirical and model-based variances agree. The performance improves as $n$ increases, the test statistic rejects at the nominal level under $H_0$ and it has good power when $\beta_0$ and $\beta_1 \neq 0$. 

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Table 2. Results from simulation study, based on 500 samples

<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>β₀</th>
<th>β₁</th>
<th>n</th>
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<th>var2</th>
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<td>0.083</td>
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</table>

ave, average of β̂; var1, empirical variance of β̂; var2, average of β̂; rr, empirical rejection rate.

4. Mammary carcinoma data

Female rats from the Wistar-Kyoto, WKy, strain resistant to mammary carcinogenesis were crossed with male rats from the Wistar-Furth, WF, strain susceptible to cancer (Lan et al., 2001). Each strain was pure bred, leading to WF/WF or WKy/WKyk at all loci. The progeny were mated to WF animals, producing 383 female rats which were either WF/WF or WKy/WF at each locus. These backcross rats were scored for number of mammary carcinomas and were genotyped at 58 markers on chromosome 5. Using several interval mapping strategies, Lan et al. (2001) found that marker D5Rat22 on chromosome 5 was strongly associated with low tumour counts; that is, female rats with a copy of the WKy allele at DFRat22 had fewer carcinomas than rats with no WKy allele.

The data are reanalysed with our semiparametric method. At a putative locus, let f(x) be the distribution of tumour counts for a WF/WF animal and let g(x) be the distribution for a WKy/WF animal. The mixture is λf(x) + (1 − λ)g(x), where λ is the probability of WF/WF at the locus conditional on flanking marker genotypes. In Fig. 1, the partial likelihood statistic is shown as a function of location on chromosome 5. The likelihood odds score, LOD = log(τ₂(β̂)²{2 log10})⁻¹, the conventional measure of genetic linkage, is also given. For comparison, the profile from a normal mixture using the popular software package MapMarker/QTL (Paterson et al., 1988) is displayed.

A practical issue is that the analysis requires testing H₀ at all loci on the chromosome. The simultaneous type I error probability is inflated from the pointwise level. Lande & Kruglyak (1995) presented critical values for the normal mixture which preserve a genome-wide error rate. The limiting distribution of the test statistic across the genome was approximated by an Ornstein–Uhlenbeck diffusion. The extreme value properties of the process were used to derive the thresholds. Interestingly, we can show that the limiting distribution of 2τ₂(β̂) is exactly identical to that in Lande & Botstein (1989); a detailed proof is available from the authors. This means that the same guidelines apply to the semiparametric model. Computing exact cut-offs with permutation distributions is another approach (Churchill & Doerge, 1994; Doerge & Churchill, 1996).

The curves are quite similar and their peaks are very near D5Rat22 and are well above the usual thresholds. A genome-wide error rate of 0.05 is obtained with cut-offs of 3.3 and
15.2 for the LOD and partial likelihood ratio statistics, respectively (Lander & Kruglyak, 1995). The estimated distribution functions for WKy/WF and WF/WF genotypes were computed at the locus giving the maximum value of LOD under the semiparametric and normal mixtures. These are displayed in Fig. 2 along with 0.95 pointwise confidence intervals using model (1). The plots show that WF/WF rats have higher tumour counts. The estimated means for carcinomas in WKy/WF and WF/WF rats are \( \int x \, d\tilde{G}(x) = 2.69 \) and \( \int x \, d\tilde{F}(x) = 5.45 \), respectively. The estimated distributions from the normal mixture are rather different from the semiparametric estimates and may lie outside the confidence intervals. Other estimates, not shown, from a negative binomial model (Drinkwater & Klotz, 1981) fall entirely within the 0.95 limits.

To assess the goodness of fit of the exponential tilt assumption at the peak locus, we divided the rats into four groups according to flanking marker genotypes. Recombination was infrequent and more than 90% of the rats were either WFWF/WFWF or WKyWKy/WFWF. The empirical distribution functions were calculated for these groups,
and the distributions were also computed using the fitted semiparametric model. In Fig. 3, the model-based and nonparametric estimates match closely, indicating that the model fits well.

![Cumulative distribution plots](image)

Fig. 3. Mammary carcinoma data. Comparison of model-based, solid line, and nonparametric, dashed line, estimates of the cumulative distributions for flanking marker groups.

5 Remarks

The methodology can be adapted to more complicated breeding experiments. For example, in an intercross, F2, mating of heterozygous animals, there are three distributions in the mixture. In theory, the model can accommodate an arbitrary number of components. Another important extension is to incorporate higher powers of $x$ in (1). This is easily accomplished with our approach.

Empirical likelihood may pose computational difficulties (Owen, 1988, 1990). The partial profile empirical likelihood for the exponential tilt model enables unconstrained estimation of the parameters of interest. It would be worthwhile to investigate whether or not empirical likelihood has useful factorizations in other scenarios.

The irregularity occurs with either known or unknown mixing proportions. The partial likelihood is applicable with unknown weights (Qin, 1999) with minor modifications.

Appendix

Proofs of Theorems 1-4

Lemma A1 is needed for the proof of Theorem 1. The proof is trivial and is omitted.

**Lemma A1.** For any given $a = (a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n)$, the set

$$\left\{ p = (p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_n) \mid \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i = 1, p_i \geq 0 \text{ and } \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i a_i = 1 \right\}$$

is nonempty $\iff \min_{a_i - 1} a_i \leq 0 \leq \max_{a_i - 1} a_i - 1$.

**Proof of Theorem 1.** (i) For any given $\beta \in J(z)$,

$$\min_{i} (\beta_0 + z_i \beta_1) \leq 0 \leq \max_{i} (\beta_0 + z_i \beta_1) \implies \min_{i} \{\exp(\beta_0 + z_i \beta_1) - 1\} \leq 0 \leq \max_{i} \{\exp(\beta_0 + z_i \beta_1) - 1\}.$$
By Lemma A1, there exists \( p = (p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_n) \in C_{\beta} \). On the other hand, if \( C_{\beta} \) is not empty, then there exists \( p = (p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_n) \in C_{\beta} \) such that
\[
\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i = 1 \quad (p_i \geq 0), \quad \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i \{\exp(\beta_0 + z_i \beta_1) - 1\} = 0.
\]
Lemma A1 gives that
\[
\min_{i} \{\exp(\beta_0 + z_i \beta_1) - 1\} \leq 0 \leq \max_{i} \{\exp(\beta_0 + z_i \beta_1) - 1\},
\]
or
\[
\min_{i} (\beta_0 + z_i \beta_1) \leq 0 \leq \max_{i} (\beta_0 + z_i \beta_1).
\]
(ii) We first show that \( \beta_T \in J_0(z) \). If \( \beta_T \not\in J_0(z) \), then either all \( \beta_{0T} + z_1 \beta_{1T} > 0 \) or all \( \beta_{0T} + z_2 \beta_{1T} < 0 \). Without loss of generality, assume that \( \beta_{0T} + z_1 \beta_{1T} > 0 \), or \( \exp(\beta_{0T} + z_1 \beta_{1T}) > 1 \), for \( i = 1, 2, \ldots, n \), which indicates that \( \exp(\beta_{0T} + x \beta_{1T}) \geq 1 \) for all \( x \). Since \( F(x) \) is nondegenerate,
\[
1 = \int \exp(\beta_{0T} + x \beta_{1T}) \ dF(x) > \int dF(x) = 1,
\]
but this is a contradiction. Again without loss of generality, assume that \( \exp(\beta_{0T} + z_1 \beta_{1T}) < 1 \) and \( \exp(\beta_{0T} + z_2 \beta_{1T}) > 1 \). Since \( \exp(\beta_0 + z_1 \beta_1) \) and \( \exp(\beta_0 + z_2 \beta_1) \) are continuous with respect to \( \beta = (\beta_0, \beta_1) \), there exists a neighbourhood of \( \beta_T \) such that \( \exp(\beta_0 + z_1 \beta_1) < 1 \) and \( \exp(\beta_0 + z_2 \beta_1) > 1 \).
(iii) If \( \beta_T = 0 \), then, for any \( \beta_0 \neq 0 \), \( C_{\beta_0, 0} \) is empty by (i). Thus, there does not exist an \( N(0) \) in which \( C_{\beta} \) is empty for every \( \beta \).

**Proof of Theorem 2.** (i) Suppose
\[
\beta_0 = \beta_{0T} + t_1 n^{-1/3}, \quad \beta_1 = \beta_{1T} + t_2 n^{-1/3},
\]
where \( (t_1^2 + t_2^2)^{1/2} = 1 \). By Taylor expansion in \( \beta \) around \( \beta_T \), we have
\[
l_2(\beta) = l_2(\beta_T) + \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{j=1}^{n_k} \left\{ \frac{1 - \lambda_k}{\omega_k(x_{kj}, \beta_T)} - \frac{\xi}{r(x_{kj}, \beta_T)} \right\} (t_1 + x_{kj} t_2 \exp(\beta_{0T} + \beta_{1T} x_{kj}) n^{-1/3})
\]
\[
+ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{j=1}^{n_k} \left\{ \frac{\lambda_k (1 - \lambda_k)}{\omega_k(x_{kj}, \beta_T)} - \frac{\xi (1 - \xi)}{r^2(x_{kj}, \beta_T)} \right\} (t_1 + t_2 x_{kj})^2 \exp(\beta_{0T} + \beta_{1T} x_{kj}) n^{-2/3} + o(n^{1/3}).
\]
Define \( \rho_k = \lim_{n \to \infty} (n_k/n) \) (\( k = 1, 2, \ldots, K \)), \( \phi = \lim_{n \to \infty} \xi = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \rho_k (1 - \lambda_k) \) and
\[
R(x, \beta) = \lim_{n \to \infty} r(x, \beta) = 1 + \phi \{\exp(\beta_0 + x \beta_1) - 1\} = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \rho_k \omega_k(x, \beta).
\]
Note that
\[
1 - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{j=1}^{n_k} \left\{ \frac{1 - \lambda_k}{\omega_k(x_{kj}, \beta_T)} - \frac{\xi}{r(x_{kj}, \beta_T)} \right\} (t_1 + x_{kj} t_2 \exp(\beta_{0T} + \beta_{1T} x_{kj})
\]
approaches 0 as \( n \to \infty \). By Theorem 9.6 in Durrett (1991, Ch. 7) and the strong law of large numbers, we have
\[
l_2(\beta) - l_2(\beta_T) = O(n^{1/6} (\log \log n)^{1/2}) + 1 \left[ \int \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^{K} \rho_k (1 - \lambda_k) - \phi (1 - \phi) \right\} R(x, \beta_T) \right]
\]
\[
\times \{\exp(\beta_{0T} + x \beta_{1T}) (t_1 + t_2 x)^2 \} dF(x) \] \( n^{1/3} + o(n^{1/3}) \).
Next, we show that
\[
\Delta(x, \beta_T) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \rho_k (1 - \lambda_k) - \phi (1 - \phi) R(x, \beta_T) < 0
\]
for all \( x \). Define \( \theta = \exp(\beta_{0T} + x \beta_{1T}) - 1 \). After tedious calculations, we obtain
\[
\Delta(x, \beta_T) = \prod_{k=1}^{K} \omega_k (1 - \lambda_k) \omega_k (x, \beta_T) R(x, \beta_T) - \phi(1 - \theta) \prod_{k=1}^{K} \omega_k (x, \beta_T) \\
= (\theta + 1) \left\{ \sum_{i \geq j} \left( -\rho_i \rho_j (\lambda_i - \lambda_j)^2 \prod_{k \neq i, j} (1 + \lambda_k \theta) \right) \right\} < 0,
\]

with unequal \( \lambda_i \) (\( i = 1, \ldots, K \)) so that, for \( n \) large enough, \( l_2(\beta) < l_2(\beta_T) \). It follows that \( l_2(\beta) \) attains a local maximum at a point \( \hat{\beta} \) in the interior of the interval \( |\hat{\beta} - \beta_T| \leq n^{-1/3} \). Solving

\[
0 = \frac{1}{n} \frac{\partial l_2(\hat{\beta})}{\partial \hat{\beta}} = \frac{1}{n} \frac{\partial l_2(\beta_T)}{\partial \hat{\beta}} + \frac{1}{n} \frac{\partial^2 l_2(\beta_T)}{\partial \hat{\beta} \partial \beta} (\hat{\beta} - \beta_T) + o(n^{-1/2}),
\]

we obtain

\[
\hat{\beta} - \beta_T = -S^{-1} Q_n + o(n^{-1/2}),
\]

where

\[
S_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \rho_k \lambda_k (1 - \lambda_k) (1, x_k)^T (1, x_k) \exp(\beta_{OT} + x_k \beta_{IT}) \omega_k (x_k, \beta_T)^2 \\
- \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \geq j} \frac{\xi (1 - \xi) (1, z_i)^T (1, z_i) \exp(\beta_{OT} + z_i \beta_{IT})}{r(z_i, \beta_T)^2}.
\]

As \( n \to \infty \), the matrix \( S_n \) tends to

\[
S = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \rho_k \lambda_k (1 - \lambda_k) \int \frac{\partial^2 \exp(\beta_{OT} + x \beta_{IT})}{\partial \beta \partial \beta^T} \frac{1}{\omega_k (x, \beta_T)} dF(x) - \phi(1 - \theta) \int \frac{\partial^2 \exp(\beta_{OT} + x \beta_{IT})}{\partial \beta \partial \beta^T} \frac{1}{R(x, \beta_T)} dF(x).
\]

The matrix

\[
Q_n = \frac{1}{n} \frac{\partial l_2(\beta_T)}{\partial \beta} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{i \geq j=1}^{n_k} \left( (1 - \lambda_k) \frac{\partial \exp(\beta_{OT} + x_k \beta_{IT})}{\omega_k (x, \beta_T)} - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \geq j=1}^{n_k} \frac{\xi}{r(z_i, \beta_T)} \frac{\partial \exp(\beta_{OT} + z_i \beta_{IT})}{\partial \beta} \right) dF(x)
\]

tends to 0 in probability. By Lindeberg-Feller central limit theorem, \( n^{1/2} Q_n \to N(0, V) \), in distribution, where

\[
V = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{i \geq j} \left[ \left( 1 - \lambda_k \frac{\xi}{r(x, \beta_T)} \right) \frac{\partial \exp(\beta_{OT} + x_k \beta_{IT})}{\partial \beta} \right] \omega_k (x, \beta_T) dF(x)
\]

and \( \delta = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \rho_k (1 - \lambda_k)^2 - \phi^2 > 0 \). Thus, \( n^{1/2} (\hat{\beta} - \beta_T) \to N(0, B) \), in distribution, where \( B = S^{-1} VS^{-1} \).

(ii) A Taylor expansion of \( n^{-1} \frac{\partial l_2(\hat{\beta})}{\partial \hat{\beta}} \) in \( \hat{\beta} \) around \((0, 0)\) gives

\[
0 = \frac{1}{n} \frac{\partial l_2(\hat{\beta})}{\partial \hat{\beta}} = \frac{1}{n} \frac{\partial l_2(0, 0)}{\partial \hat{\beta}} + \frac{1}{n} \frac{\partial^2 l_2(0, 0)}{\partial \hat{\beta} \partial \beta} \hat{\beta} + o(n^{-1/2}) = U - \delta X \hat{\beta} + o(n^{-1/2}),
\]

where

\[
U = (0, n^{-1} \frac{\partial l_2(0, 0)}{\partial \beta_{IT}})^T, \quad X = \int (1, x)^T (1, x) dF(x).
\]
It follows that \( \hat{\beta} = \delta^{-1}X^{-1}U + o(n^{-1/2}) \). Since
\[
0 = 2I_2(0, 0) = 2I_2(\hat{\beta}) + 2 \frac{\partial^2 I_2(\hat{\beta})}{\partial \beta} \hat{\beta} + \hat{\beta}^T R \frac{\partial^2 I_2(\hat{\beta})}{\partial \beta^T} \hat{\beta} + o(1),
\]
we obtain
\[
2I_2(\hat{\beta}) = -\hat{\beta}^T R^{-1} \frac{\partial^2 I_2(\hat{\beta})}{\partial \beta^T} \hat{\beta} + o(1) = n\delta X^T X \hat{\beta} + o(1) = n\delta^{-1}U^T X^T X U + o(1)
\]
\[
= \frac{n}{\delta \sigma^2_{\hat{\beta}}} \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \frac{\partial I_2(0, 0)}{\partial \beta_1} \right\}^2 + o(1) \rightarrow \chi_1^2,
\]
in distribution, where \( \sigma^2_{\hat{\beta}} = \int x^2 dF(x) - \left\{ \int x dF(x) \right\}^2 \). The convergence in distribution occurs because, in distribution,
\[
n^{1/2} \frac{1}{n} \frac{\partial I_2(0, 0)}{\partial \beta_1} = n^{-1/2} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^{n_k} x_{kj} - \sum_{i=1}^{n} z_i \right\} \rightarrow N(0, \delta \sigma^2_{\hat{\beta}}).
\]

Proof of Theorem 3. (i) When \( \beta_T = 0 \), methods similar to those used in the proof of Theorem 2(i) give the consistency and asymptotic normality of \( \hat{\beta} \). The details are omitted.

(ii) When operating on matrices, \( > 0 \) and \( \geq 0 \) denote positive definite and positive semidefinite, and \( < 0 \) and \( \leq 0 \) denote negative definite and negative semidefinite. Define
\[
S_{12} = S_{12}^T = \int \delta \exp(\beta_T + x\beta_T) \frac{1}{R(x, \beta_T)} dF(x), \quad \delta = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \rho_k (1 - \lambda_k)^2 - \phi^2 > 0,
\]

\[
s_{22} = \int \frac{\{1 - \exp(\beta_T + x\beta_T)\}^2}{R(x, \beta_T)} dF(x).
\]

Note that
\[
\bar{V} = \begin{pmatrix} -S - \delta S_{12} S_{21} & -\delta S_{12} S_{22} \\ -\delta S_{21} S_{22} & s_{22} - \delta s_{22} \end{pmatrix} > 0
\]

and
\[
-S - \delta S_{12} S_{21} > 0 = S_{21} S^{-1}(-S - \delta S_{12} S_{21}) S^{-1} S_{12} > 0.
\]

This implies that
\[
-S_{21} S^{-1} S_{12} < \delta S_{21} S^{-1} S_{12} S^{-1} S_{12} S_{12} > 0.
\]

Hence, \( -S_{21} S^{-1} S_{12} (1 + \delta S_{21} S^{-1} S_{12}) > 0 \), since \( -S_{21} S^{-1} S_{12} > 0 \Rightarrow 1 + \delta S_{21} S^{-1} S_{12} > 0 \).

Now, because \( \bar{V} > 0 \), the last element of \( \bar{V}^{-1} \), \( v_{33} \), say, is also positive definite. Calculating \( \bar{V}^{-1} \), we obtain
\[
v_{33} = (s_{22} - \delta s_{22}) - (-\delta s_{21} s_{22})(-S - \delta S_{12} S_{21})^{-1}(-\delta s_{12} s_{22})
\]
\[
= s_{22} - \delta s_{22} + \delta s_{21}^2 s_{21} S^{-1} S_{12} - \frac{\delta s_{21}^2 s_{21} S^{-1} S_{12} s_{21} S^{-1} S_{12}}{1 + \delta s_{21} S^{-1} S_{12}}
\]
\[
= s_{22} + \delta S_{21} S^{-1} S_{12} - s_{22} s_{22} > 0.
\]

Using the first part of the proof and the fact that \( s_{22} > 0 \), we obtain
\[
\delta = \frac{1}{s_{22} - S_{21} S^{-1} S_{12}} < 0.
\]

Thus,
\[
\bar{B}_{11} - B = \left( \delta - \frac{1}{s_{22} - S_{21} S^{-1} S_{12}} \right) S^{-1} S_{12} S_{21} S^{-1} \leq 0.
\]
Proof of Theorem 4. Note that

$$F_{n}(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{r(z_{i}, \hat{\beta})} I(z_{i} \leq x).$$

A Taylor expansion of $r(z_{i}, \hat{\beta})$ at $\beta_{T}$ gives

$$F_{n}(x) - F(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{r(z_{i}, \beta_{T})} I(z_{i} \leq x) - F(x)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{r(z_{i}, \beta_{T})} \frac{\partial r(z_{i}, \beta_{T})}{\partial \beta} I(z_{i} \leq x)(\hat{\beta} - \beta_{T}) + R_{1n}(x)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{r(z_{i}, \beta_{T})} I(z_{i} \leq x) - F(x) + d_{1,T}(x)S^{-1}Q_{n} + R_{2n}(x),$$

where $R_{im}(x) (i = 1, 2)$ satisfies $\sup_{x < x_{n}} |R_{im}(x)| = o(n^{-1/2})$ and

$$d_{1,T}(x) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{r(z_{i}, \beta_{T})} \frac{\partial r(z_{i}, \beta_{T})}{\partial \beta} I(z_{i} \leq x)$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\phi}{R(u, \beta_{T})} \frac{\partial \exp(\beta_{0T} + u\beta_{1T})}{\partial \beta} I(u \leq x) dF(u),$$

almost surely. Let $d_{2,T}(x) = d_{1,T}(x)S^{-1}$,

$$\varepsilon_{G,k}(u, x) = \frac{I(u \leq x)}{r(u, \beta_{T})} - \int_{-\infty}^{x} \frac{\omega_{k}(u, \beta_{T}) dF(u)}{R(u, \beta_{T})} - (1 - \lambda_{k}) \frac{\partial \exp(\beta_{0T} + u\beta_{1T})/\partial \beta}{\omega_{k}(u, \beta_{T})}$$

$$q_{k}(u) = -\xi \frac{\partial \exp(\beta_{0T} + u\beta_{1T})/\partial \beta}{r(u, \beta_{T})} + (1 - \lambda_{k}) \frac{\partial \exp(\beta_{0T} + u\beta_{1T})/\partial \beta}{\omega_{k}(u, \beta_{T})} \quad (k = 1, 2, \ldots, K).$$

Then

$$n^{1/2} \{F_{n}(x) - F(x)\} = n^{-1/2} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \{q_{k}(x_{i,j}, x) + d_{2,T}(x)q_{k}(Y_{j})\} + o_{p}(1).$$

Arguments from Qin (1999) show that $n^{1/2} \{F_{n}(x) - F(x)\} \to K_{T}(x)$ in distribution where $K_{T}(x)$ is a zero-mean Gaussian process with continuous sample paths and covariance structure of the form

$$\Sigma_{T}(x_{1}, x_{2}) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \rho_{k} \text{cov}[\varepsilon_{G,k}(Y_{1}, x_{1}) + d_{2,T}(x_{1})q_{k}(Y_{1}), \varepsilon_{G,k}(Y_{2}, x_{2}) + d_{2,T}(x_{2})q_{k}(Y_{2})],$$

where $Y_{k} \sim \omega_{k}(y, \beta_{T})/f(y)$. Similarly, $n^{1/2} \{G_{n}(x) - G(x)\} \to K_{G}(x)$ in distribution with

$$\Sigma_{G}(x_{1}, x_{2}) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \rho_{k} \text{cov}[\varepsilon_{G,k}(Y_{1}, x_{1}) + d_{2,G}(x_{1})q_{k}(Y_{1}), \varepsilon_{G,k}(Y_{2}, x_{2}) + d_{2,G}(x_{2})q_{k}(Y_{2})],$$

where

$$d_{1,G}(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\phi - 1}{R(u, \beta_{T})} \frac{\partial \exp(\beta_{0T} + u\beta_{1T})}{\partial \beta} I(u \leq x) dF(u), \quad d_{2,G}(x) = d_{1,G}(x)S^{-1},$$

$$\varepsilon_{G,k}(u, x) = \frac{I(u \leq x) \exp(\beta_{0T} + u\beta_{1T})}{r(u, \beta_{T})} - \int_{-\infty}^{x} \frac{\exp(\beta_{0T} + u\beta_{1T})\omega_{k}(u, \beta_{T}) dF(u)}{R(u, \beta_{T})}. \quad \square$$
REFERENCES


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