Estimation of the marginal location under a partially linear model with missing responses

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Abstract

In this paper, we consider a semiparametric partially linear regression model where missing data occur in the response. We propose robust Fisher–consistent estimators for the regression parameter, the regression function and for the marginal location parameter of response variable. A robust cross–validation method is briefly discussed, even when, from our numerical results, the marginal estimators seem to be not sensitive to the bandwidth parameter. Finally, a Monte Carlo study is carried out to compare the performance of the robust proposed estimators among them and also with the classical ones, in normal and contaminated samples, under different missing data models. An example based on a real data set is also discussed.

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1 Introduction

Partially linear regression models assume that the regression function can be modeled linearly on some covariates, while it depends nonparametrically on some others. To be more precise, assume that we have a response $y_i \in \mathbb{R}$ and covariates or design points $(x^T_i, t_i)$ such that $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^p$, $t_i \in [0, 1]$ satisfying

$$y_i = m(x_i, t_i) + \epsilon_i = x^T_i \beta_0 + g_0(t_i) + \sigma_0 \epsilon_i, \quad 1 \leq i \leq n,$$

with the errors $\epsilon_i$ i.i.d., independent of $(x^T_i, t_i)$ such that $E(\epsilon_i) = 0$ and $\text{VAR}(\epsilon_i) = 1$. Note that $m$ stands for the regression function which is modeled linearly on $x$ and nonparametrically on $t$.

As it is well known, most of the statistical methods in nonparametric and semiparametric regression models are designed for complete data sets and problems arise when missing observations are present. This is a common situation in biomedical or socioeconomic studies, for instance. Typical examples are found in the field of social sciences where non-responses in sample surveys occur very often and also, in physics and genetics (Meng, 2000), among others. Even if there are many situations in which both the response and the explanatory variables are missing, we will focus our attention on those cases where missing data occur only in the responses. This situation arises in many biological experiments where the explanatory variables can be controlled. This pattern is common, for example, in the scheme of double sampling proposed by Neyman (1938), where first a complete sample is obtained and then some additional covariate values are computed since perhaps this is less expensive than to obtain more response values. In this paper, we will thus assume that missing occurs only on the responses variables.

In the regression setting, a common method is to impute the incomplete observations and then proceed to carry out the estimation of the conditional or unconditional mean of the response variable with the complete sample. The methods considered include linear regression (Yates, 1933), kernel smoothing (Cheng, 1994; Chu and Cheng, 1995) nearest neighbor imputation (Chen and Shao, 2000), semiparametric estimation (Wang et al., 2004), nonparametric multiple imputation (Aerts et al., 2002), empirical likelihood over the imputed values (Wang and Rao, 2002), among others. For a nonparametric regression model, González–Manteiga and Pérez–Gonzalez (2004) considered an approach based on local polynomials to estimate the regression function when the response variable $y$ is missing but the covariate $x$ is totally observed. Wang et al. (2004) considered inference on the mean of $y$ under regression imputation of missing responses based on the semiparametric regression model (1). Under the setting considered in this paper, the missingness of $y$ is allowed to depend on $(x^T, t)$. All the proposals considered up to now are very sensitive to anomalous observations since they are based on a local least squares approach. Recently, Boente et al. (2009) introduced a robust proposal to estimate the regression function under missingness in the response.

The goal of this paper is to introduce resistant estimators for the marginal location of $y$, say $\theta$, under the partially linear model (1), when the response variable has missing observations but the covariates $(x^T, t)$ are totally observed. The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces the robust semiparametric estimators. An algorithm to compute the given estimators is described in Section 3, while their consistency is discussed in Section 4. A simulation study is described in Section 5 while an example based on a real data set is discussed in Section 6. Concluding remarks are provided in Section 7. Finally, technical proofs are given in the Appendix.
2 Proposals

We will consider inference with an incomplete data set \( (y_i, x_i^T, t_i, \delta_i) \), 1 \( \leq i \leq n \) where \( \delta_i = 1 \) if \( y_i \) is observed and \( \delta_i = 0 \) if \( y_i \) is missing and

\[
y_i = x_i^T \beta_0 + g_0(t_i) + \sigma_0 \epsilon_i \quad 1 \leq i \leq n ,
\]

with errors \( \epsilon_i \) independent, identically distributed with symmetric distribution \( F_0(\cdot) \).

Let \( (Y, X^T, T, \delta) \) be a random vector with the same distribution as \( (y_i, x_i, t_i, \delta_i) \). Our aim is to estimate, with the data set at hand, the regression parameter and the regression function robustly to provide a robust estimator for the marginal location parameter. An ignorable missing mechanism will be imposed by assuming that \( Y \) is missing at random (MAR), i.e., \( \delta \) and \( Y \) are conditionally independent given \( (X, T) \), i.e.,

\[
P(\delta = 1| (Y, X, T)) = P(\delta = 1| (X, T)) = P(\delta = 1| X, T) .
\]

We will consider kernel smoothers weights for the nonparametric component given by

\[
w_i(t) = \frac{K \left( \frac{t_i - t}{h_n} \right) \delta_i}{\sum_{j=1}^n K \left( \frac{t_j - t}{h_n} \right) \delta_j},
\]

with \( K \) a kernel function, i.e., a nonnegative integrable function on \( \mathbb{R} \) and \( h_n \) the bandwidth parameter. Note that the kernel weights are modified multiplying by the indicator of the missing variables in order to adapt to the complete sample and avoid bias.

For the sake of completeness, we remind the classical proposals. The least squares regression estimators are defined by considering preliminary kernel estimators, \( \hat{\eta}_n(t) \) and \( \hat{\eta}_{0,n}(t) \), of the quantities \( \eta(t) = E(\delta X|T = t)/E(\delta|T = t) \) and \( \eta_0(t) = E(\delta Y|T = t)/E(\delta|T = t) \), respectively. Note that using (3), \( \delta \) is conditionally independent of \( Y \) and so we have that \( \eta_0(t) = E(Y|T = t) \). Since \( \delta Y = \delta X^T \beta_0 + \delta g_0(T) + \delta \sigma_0 \epsilon \), taking conditional expectation, we get \( \eta_0(t) = \eta(t)^T \beta_0 + g_0(t) \) if \( E(\epsilon|x,t) = 0 \) and so, \( \delta_i (y_i - \eta_0(t_i)) = \delta_i (x_i - \eta(t_i))^T \beta_0 + \delta_i \sigma_0 \epsilon_i , 1 \leq i \leq n \). Then, the estimator of the regression parameter \( \beta_0 \), introduced by Wang et al. (2004), is defined as the value minimizing \( \sum_{i=1}^n \delta_i \left( (y_i - \hat{\eta}_{0,n}(t_i)) - (x_i - \hat{\eta}_{n}(t_i))^T \beta \right)^2 \). This estimator is based on weighted means of the response variables and so, it is highly sensitive to anomalous data. This suggests that some resistant estimation procedure needs to be considered.

It is worth noticing that Wang et al. (2004) assumed only that \( E(\epsilon_i|x_i,t_i) = 0 \) instead of the independence between the errors and the covariates. However, the stronger independence assumption stated in (1) will be needed to obtain robust consistent estimators of \( \beta \) as in linear regression models.

2.1 Robust estimators of the regression parameter and regression function

The estimation of the robust location conditional functional related to each component of \( x_i \) causes no problem since all covariates are complete, while that of the response \( y_i \) is problematic since there
are missing responses. We will consider the approach given in Boente et al. (2009) to estimate the regression functions. The simplified local $M$–smoother defined therein uses the information at hand and defines the estimator with the complete observations only. The main problem is that if we proceed as in Bianco and Boente (2004) with the complete sample, the conditions needed to ensure Fisher–consistency entail that $p(X, T) = p(T)$, which eliminates many situations arising in practice. Thus, to guarantee Fisher–consistency, a robust profile–likelihood approach will be considered.

Let $\psi_1$ be an odd and bounded score function and $\rho$ be a rho–function as defined in Maronna et al. (2006, Chapter 2), i.e., a function $\rho$ such that

- $\rho(x)$ is a nondecreasing function of $|x|$,
- $\rho(0) = 0$,
- $\rho(x)$ is increasing for $x > 0$ when $\rho(x) < \|\rho\|_\infty$,
- if $\rho$ is bounded, it is also assumed that $\|\rho\|_\infty = 1$.

To define a robust estimator, we can proceed as follows

- **Step 1** For each $t$ and $\beta$, define $g_\beta(t)$ and its related estimate $\hat{g}_\beta(t)$ using the simplified local $M$–smoothers defined in Boente et al. (2009). That is, $g_\beta(t)$ and $\hat{g}_\beta(t)$ are, respectively, the solutions of

$$
E \left[ \delta \psi_1 \left( \frac{Y - X^T \beta - g_\beta(t)}{\sigma} \right) \bigg| T = t \right] = 0 , \quad (5)
$$

$$
\sum_{i=1}^n w_i(t) \psi_1 \left( \frac{y_i - x_i^T \beta - \hat{g}_\beta(t)}{\hat{s}(t)} \right) = 0 , \quad (6)
$$

where $\hat{s}(t)$ is a preliminary robust consistent scale estimator.

- **Step 2** The functional $\beta(F)$, where $F$ is the distribution of $(\delta, Y, X^T, T)$, is defined as

$$
\beta(F) = \arg\min_{\beta} E \left[ \delta \rho \left( \frac{Y - X^T \beta - g_\beta(T)}{\sigma} \right) v(X) \right]
$$

and its related estimate as

$$
\hat{\beta} = \arg\min_{\beta} \sum_{i=1}^n \delta_i \rho \left( \frac{y_i - x_i^T \beta - \hat{g}_\beta(t_i)}{\hat{\sigma}} \right) v(x_i) ,
$$

with $\hat{\sigma}$ a preliminary estimate of the scale $\sigma_0$, i.e., a robust $M$–scale computed using an initial (possible inefficient) estimate of $\beta$ with high breakdown point. Therefore, if $\psi = \rho'$ denotes the derivative of $\rho$, the estimator is the solution of

$$
\sum_{i=1}^n \delta_i \psi \left( \frac{y_i - x_i^T \hat{\beta} - \hat{g}_\beta(t_i)}{\hat{\sigma}} \right) v(x_i) \left( x_i + \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} \hat{g}_\beta(t_i) \bigg|_{\beta=\hat{\beta}} \right) = 0 . \quad (7)
$$
• **Step 3** Then, the functional \( g(t, F) \) is defined as \( g(t, F) = g_B(F)(t) \), while the estimate of the nonparametric component is \( \hat{g}_n(t) = \hat{g}_B(t) \).

An estimator of the regression function \( m \) is thus given by \( \hat{m}(x, t) = x^T \hat{\beta} + \hat{g}_n(t) \).

In the Appendix, it is shown that, under mild conditions, these functionals are Fisher–consistent since the errors \( \epsilon \) are independent of \((\delta, T)\). Moreover, it will be shown that Fisher–consistency is preserved under the heteroscedastic model \( y_i = x_i^T \beta_0 + g_0(t_i) + \sigma_0(x_i, t_i) \epsilon_i \), 1 \( \leq \) \( i \) \( \leq \) \( n \), where the errors \( \epsilon_i \) are i.i.d. and independent of the covariates.

**Remark 2.1.1.** As in nonparametric regression without missing observations, the aim of a robust smoother, as the local \( M \)– estimator, is to provide reliable estimations when outliers observations are present in the responses \( y_i \). Indeed, the researcher is seeking for consistent estimators of the regression functions \( g_B(t) \) and \( m(x, t) \) without requiring moment conditions on the errors \( \epsilon_i \). This includes the well–known \( \alpha \)-contaminated neighborhood for the errors distribution. More precisely, in a robust framework, one seeks procedures that remain valid when \( \epsilon_i \sim F_0 \in \mathcal{F}_\alpha = \{G : G(y) = (1 - \alpha)G_0(y) + \alpha H(y)\} \), with \( H \) any symmetric distribution and \( G_0 \) a central model with possible first or second moments. In fact, the same framework can be considered in this paper. In these neighborhoods, no moment conditions are required to the errors and outliers correspond to deviations on the errors distribution. Moreover, the condition that \( \psi_1 \) is an odd function and the errors have a symmetric distribution, can be replaced by \( E(\psi_1(\epsilon/\sigma)) = 0 \) and \( E(\psi_\epsilon(\epsilon/\sigma)) = 0 \), for any \( \sigma > 0 \) which are standard conditions in robustness in order to guarantee Fisher consistency of the location or regression parameters. Further discussion can be found in He et al. (2002), Bianco et al. (2006) and Boente et al. (2009). Otherwise, if this assumption is not fulfilled the regression and location estimators are asymptotically biased, see for instance, Maronna et al. (2006, Chapter 4).

On the other hand, as in any regression model, leverage points in the explanatory variables \( x \), can cause breakdown. To overcome this problem, \( G \)– and \( S \)–estimators have been introduced, see for instance, Maronna et al. (2006). In **Step 2**, we have considered a score function \( \rho \) combined with a weight \( v \) to include both families of estimators. Our proposal is thus resistant against outliers in the residuals and in the carriers \( x \) as well.

### 2.2 Estimation of the marginal location

Let us denote by \( \theta \) the marginal location of \( Y \), for instance, we are interested in the \( M \)–location parameter of \( Y \) solution of \( \lambda(a, \sigma) = E\psi_2((Y - a)/\sigma) = 0 \) for all \( \sigma \), where \( \psi_2 \) is an odd and bounded score function. When \( \psi_2(u) = sg(u) = I_{(0,\infty)}(u) - I_{(-\infty,0)}(u) \), \( \theta \) is the median of \( Y \). The same score functions \( \psi_1 \) and \( \psi_2 \) can be considered both in **Step 1** and when computing the marginal parameter estimators defined below.

Denote by \( \hat{\sigma}, \hat{\sigma}_w \) and \( \hat{\sigma}_L \) robust consistent estimators of the marginal scale of the variables involved, such as the MAD. Since we only have the responses at hand, the unknown values can be predicted by \( x_i^T \hat{\beta} + \hat{g}_n(t_i) \), where \( \hat{g}_n(t) \) and \( \hat{\beta} \) are defined in Section 2.1. Besides, to correct the bias caused in the estimation by the missing mechanism, an estimator of the missingness probability needs to be considered. Denote by \( p_n(x, t) \) any estimator of \( p(x, t) \), such as the nonparametric
kernel estimator

\[ p_n(x, t) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} K_1 \left( \frac{x_i - x}{\lambda_n} \right) K_2 \left( \frac{t_i - t}{h_n} \right) \delta_i}{\sum_{j=1}^{n} K_1 \left( \frac{x_j - x}{\lambda_n} \right) K_2 \left( \frac{t_j - t}{h_n} \right)}, \]  

(8)

where \( K_1 : \mathbb{R}^p \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) and \( K_2 : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) are kernel functions and \( \lambda_n \) and \( h_n \) denote the smoothing parameters. If a parametric model is assumed, other choices for estimating \( p(x, t) \) can be considered.

- **Weighted Simplified \( M \)-estimate.** This estimate uses the complete sample and is the solution, \( \hat{\theta}_{ws} \), of

\[ \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\delta_i}{p_n(x_i, t_i)} \psi_2 \left( \frac{y_i - \hat{\theta}_{ws}}{\hat{\sigma}} \right) = 0. \]

- **Averaged \( M \)-estimate.** This estimator uses the predicted values to compute the marginal parameter estimator. If the errors distribution is symmetric, as assumed, and \( Z = m(X, T) = X^T \beta_0 + g_0(T) = \theta + u \) with \( u \) having symmetric distribution, we get that the median of the distribution of \( Y \) equals the median of \( Z \). The same will happen when considering an \( M \)-functional, that is, \( Y \) and \( Z \) will have the same \( M \)-location, and so we get the estimator, \( \hat{\theta}_\lambda \) as the solution of

\[ \sum_{i=1}^{n} \psi_2 \left( \frac{x_i^T \beta + \hat{g}_n(t_i) - \hat{\theta}_\lambda}{\hat{\sigma}_\lambda} \right) = 0. \]

- **Weighted Imputed \( M \)-estimate.** This estimator combines the ideas of the previous ones by imputing the missing responses. The estimate \( \hat{\theta}_{wi} \) is the solution of

\[ \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\delta_i}{p_n(x_i, t_i)} \psi_2 \left( \frac{y_i - \hat{\theta}_{wi}}{\hat{\sigma}_{wi}} \right) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( 1 - \frac{\delta_i}{p_n(x_i, t_i)} \right) \psi_2 \left( \frac{x_i^T \beta + \hat{g}_n(t_i) - \hat{\theta}_{wi}}{\hat{\sigma}_{wi}} \right) = 0. \]  

(9)

The Fisher–consistency of the related functionals is derived in the Appendix.

### 2.2.1 On the strong robustness

In the classical setting, the target parameter is the mean \( \theta = E(Y) \). When considering \( \psi_2(t) = \text{sg}(t) \) the target is now the median of the response \( Y \). For general score functions \( \psi_2 \), the target is the robust \( M \)-location functional related to \( \psi_2 \), as introduced in Huber (1981).

It is worth noticing that the assumption of symmetry required to the error’s distribution is needed if we want to guarantee that we are estimating the same quantity when using all robust location functionals. As discussed in Remark 2.1.1, it can be replaced by \( E(\psi_2(\epsilon/\sigma)) = 0, \) for any \( \sigma > 0 \). Furthermore, the weak continuity of these robust location functionals for bounded score functions can be seen in Huber (1981). Therefore, by applying this functional to weak consistent estimators of the distribution of \( Y \), we obtain consistent and asymptotically strongly robust estimators of \( \theta \). These results can, thus, be applied in our missing setting by defining suitable empirical distributions.
Note that all the estimators introduced in Section 2.2 can be written as $M$-functionals applied to some modified empirical distribution. In fact, we have

- $\hat{\theta}_{WS}$, is the solution of $\hat{\lambda}_n(a, \hat{\sigma}) = 0$ with

$$
\hat{\lambda}_n(a, \sigma) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\delta_i}{p_n(x_i, t_i)} \psi_2 \left( \frac{y_i - a}{\sigma} \right) = \int \psi_2 \left( \frac{y - a}{\sigma} \right) d\hat{F}_n(y),
$$

$$
\hat{F}_n(y) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\delta_i}{p_n(x_i, t_i)} I_{(-\infty, y]}(y_i).
$$

From the above discussion and since $\hat{F}_n(y)$ provides weak consistent estimators of $F(y)$ under mild conditions, the weighted simplified $M$-estimator provides asymptotically strongly robust estimators.

- Denote by $\hat{m}_i$ the predicted values using the partially linear model (1), $\hat{m}_i = \hat{m}(x_i, t_i) = x_i^T \hat{\beta} + \hat{g}_n(t_i)$. Then, $\hat{\theta}_\lambda$ is the solution of $\hat{\lambda}_n(a, \hat{\sigma}_\lambda) = 0$

$$
\hat{\lambda}_n(a, \sigma) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \psi_2 \left( \frac{\hat{m}_i - a}{\sigma} \right) = \int \psi_2 \left( \frac{z - a}{\sigma} \right) d\hat{F}_n(z),
$$

$$
\hat{F}_n(z) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} I_{(-\infty, z]}(\hat{m}_i).
$$

In this case, if $\hat{\beta}$ and $\hat{g}$ are robust consistent estimators of $\beta_0$ and $g_0$, $\hat{F}_n$ will be a weak consistent estimator of the distribution, $F_Z$, of $Z = m(X, T)$. Thus, the average $M$-estimators are a sequence of asymptotically strongly robust estimators.

- $\hat{\theta}_{W_1}$ is the solution of $\hat{\lambda}_n(a, \hat{\sigma}_{W_1}) = 0$ with

$$
\hat{\lambda}_n(a, \sigma) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\delta_i}{p_n(x_i, t_i)} \psi_2 \left( \frac{y_i - a}{\sigma} \right) + \left( 1 - \frac{\delta_i}{p_n(x_i, t_i)} \right) \psi_2 \left( \frac{\hat{m}_i - a}{\sigma} \right) = \int \psi_2 \left( \frac{y - a}{\sigma} \right) d\hat{F}_n(y),
$$

$$
\hat{F}_n(y) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[ \frac{\delta_i}{p_n(x_i, t_i)} I_{(-\infty, y]}(y_i) + \left( 1 - \frac{\delta_i}{p_n(x_i, t_i)} \right) I_{(-\infty, y]}(\hat{m}_i) \right].
$$

As it will be shown, $\hat{F}_n$ is a weak consistent estimator of $F$ if $p_n(x, t)$ is a consistent estimator of $p(x, t) = P(\delta = 1|X, T) = (x, t)$. Thus, the weighted imputed $M$-estimators provide a sequence of asymptotically strongly robust estimators.

### 2.2.2 Selection of the smoothing parameter

Even when the bias and variance of the marginal location estimators is less sensitive to the bandwidth than in other semiparametric settings, see for instance, Cheng (1994) and Wang and Sun (2007), a least squares cross-validation scheme to choose the smoothing parameter is usually considered. Besides, the sensitivity of $L^2$ cross-validation methods in nonparametric regression was
pointed out, among others, by Wang and Scott (1994) and Cantoni and Ronchetti (2001) who also proposed robust alternatives, while Boente et al. (2009) considered the case when missing responses are present.

The ideas of robust cross-validation can be adapted to the present situation. Let \( \hat{\theta} \) be the robust estimator to be considered, i.e., the average or the weighted imputed one. Denote by \( \hat{\theta}^{(i)}(h) \) the estimator computed with bandwidth \( h \) using all the data except \((y_i, x_i^T, t_i)\). Taking into account that the \( L^2 \) cross-validation criterion tries to measure both bias and variance, it would be sensible to introduce, as in Bianco and Boente (2007), a new measure that establishes a trade-off between robust measures of bias and variance. Let \( \mu_n \) and \( \sigma_n \) denote robust estimators of location and scale, respectively. A robust cross-validation criterion can be defined by minimizing on \( h \)

\[
RCV_n(h) = \mu_n^2(\hat{r}_n(h), w(t_i)) + \sigma_n^2(\hat{r}_n(h), w(t_i)),
\]

where the weight function \( w \) may be chosen so as to protect against boundary effects, \( \hat{r}_n(h) = y_i - \hat{\theta}^{(i)}(h) \) are the residuals and \( \mu_n(u_i, w_i) \) and \( \sigma_n(u_i, w_i) \) indicates that to compute the robust location and scale, respectively, each observation \( u_i \) receives a weight \( w_i \). As location estimator, \( \mu_n \), one can consider the median while \( \sigma_n \) can be taken as the bisquare –scale estimator or the Huber \( \tau \) – scale estimator. For the situation we are dealing with, it is enough, to compute \( RCV_n \) with the observations at hand, i.e., to compute \( RCV_n \) we use only the observed residuals \( \{\hat{r}_i\}_{i: \delta_i = 1} \) and discard the incomplete vectors.

3 Algorithm

3.1 Computation of the parametric and nonparametric components

We will consider kernel smoothers weights for the nonparametric component which are given by (4). In this section, we describe an algorithm, which is a slight modification of the procedure described in Maronna et al. (2006, Chapter 5). Let \( \rho_0 \) and \( \rho \) be two bounded rho–functions such that \( \rho_0 \geq \rho \).

When \( \beta \in \mathbb{R}^p \), \( p = 1, 2 \), the algorithm to compute the estimator \( \hat{\beta} \) defined in Step 2 may be based on a search over a grid of points as follows.

- **Step A0** Take a net \( \beta_j \) of possible values for \( \beta_j \), \( j = 1, \ldots, J \).

- **Step A1** Fix \( 1 \leq j \leq J \). We first compute the regression function estimate \( \hat{g}_j(t) \) for each \( \beta = \beta_j \) of the net and each \( t_i \) and also, an estimator for the scale \( \sigma_0 \).

  * For any \( 1 \leq i \leq n \), evaluate \( \hat{g}_{j,i} = \hat{g}_j(t_i) \) using the simplified \( M \)– estimator introduced by Boente et al. (2009) applied to \( \{(y_k - x_k^T \beta_j, t_k, \delta_k)\}_{1 \leq k \leq n} \) i.e., as the solution of

    \[
    \sum_{k=1}^{n} w_k(t_i) \psi_1 \left( \frac{y_k - x_k^T \beta_j - \hat{g}_{j,i}}{s(t_i)} \right) = 0 ,
    \]

    where \( s(t_i) \) is a preliminary robust scale estimator, such as, the local MAD, i.e., \( s(t) = \text{mad}_{k \in \mathcal{I}(h_n)} |r_{k,j} - \text{median}_{\ell \in \mathcal{I}(h_n)} (r_{\ell,j})| \) with \( r_{k,j} = y_k - x_k^T \beta_j \) and \( \mathcal{I}(h_n) = \{ \ell : 1 \leq \ell \leq n \text{ and } |t_\ell - t_i| \leq h_n \} \).
Compute

\[ L_0(\beta_j) = \text{median}_{1 \leq i \leq n; \delta_i = 1} \left( (y_i - x_i^T \beta_j - \tilde{g}_{j,i})^2 \right) . \]

- **Step A2** In order to define the residuals scale estimator, let \( \hat{\beta}_{\text{ini}} = \beta_{j_0} \) be the preliminary estimator of \( \beta \) such that

\[ \hat{\beta}_{\text{ini}} = \arg\min_j L_0(\beta_j) = L_0(\beta_{j_0}), \]

and, for each \( 1 \leq i \leq n \), let \( \hat{g}_{\text{ini},i} \) be the solution of (11) when using \( \hat{\beta}_{\text{ini}} \). Note that there is no need to evaluate again the solution \( \hat{g}_{\text{ini},i} \), since they were already computed in **Step A1** for all the values of \( \beta \) in the grid.

Let \( m = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta_i \). The estimator of the scale \( \sigma, \hat{\sigma} \), is then defined as the solution of

\[ \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta_i \rho_0 \left( \frac{y_i - x_i^T \hat{\beta}_{\text{ini}} - \hat{g}_{\text{ini},i}}{\hat{\sigma}} \right) = \frac{1}{2}. \] (12)

- **Step A3** To compute the final estimator of \( \beta \), let

\[ L(\beta_j) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta_i \rho \left( \frac{y_i - x_i^T \beta_j - \hat{g}_{j,i}}{\hat{\sigma}} \right) u(x_i), \]

where \( \hat{g}_{j,i} \) are obtained in **Step A1** as the solution of (11). Note that, as in **Step A2**, \( \hat{g}_{j,i} \) do not need to be computed again since we have already calculated them in **Step A1**. A common choice is \( u \equiv 1 \), since \( \rho \) is bounded.

Let \( \hat{\beta} \) be the value minimizing \( L \) over the grid, i.e., \( \hat{\beta} = \arg\min_{1 \leq j \leq J} L(\beta_j) \).

- **Step A4** The estimator of the nonparametric component is the solution \( \hat{g}_n(t) = \hat{g}_n(t) \) of

\[ \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i(t) \psi_1 \left( \frac{y_i - x_i^T \hat{\beta} - \hat{g}_n(t)}{\hat{s}(t)} \right) = 0. \]

When \( p > 2 \), a subsampling scheme must be considered as is usual in robust linear regression when computing, for instance, \( S \)-estimators. The algorithmic complexity involved in this setting is mainly due to the fact that we cannot ensure that a reweighted procedure will decrease the objective function, as it does in linear regression, since we follow now a robust profile–likelihood approach. To be more precise, in order to find an approximate solution to (7), we can compute the objective function over a “large” finite set of candidate solutions, and replace the minimization over \( \beta \in \mathbb{R}^p \) in **Step 2** by minimizing \( L(\beta) \) over that finite set. The main problem is how to obtain a set of candidate solutions and a possible way is to adapt the well known subsampling methods used in linear regression models. Let us assume that initial estimates of the regression function \( g_0 \) are available, denoted by \( \tilde{g}_{\text{ini}} \). Among the complete data, i.e., those with \( \delta_i = 1 \), one may take subsamples of size \( p \), \( \{(y_{i_1}, x_{i_1}, t_{i_1}) : 1 \leq j \leq p\} \), where \( i_1 < \ldots < i_p \) and \( I = \{i_1, \ldots, i_p\} \) \( \in \{i : \delta_i = 1\} \). Clearly, more than \( p \) observed responses are needed. For each \( I \) find \( \beta_{I} \) that satisfies the
exact fit on the adjusted responses $y_i - \tilde{g}_{ini}(t_i) = x_i^T \beta_I$ for $i \in I$. If a subsample is collinear, it is replaced by another. Then, the problem of minimizing $L(\beta)$ for $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^p$ is replaced by the finite problem of minimizing $L(\beta_I)$ over $I$. Since choosing all $\binom{m}{p}$ subsamples where $m = \#\{i : \delta_i = 1\}$ would be prohibitive unless both $m$ and $p$ are rather small, we choose $N$ of them at random.

To improve the computational time, the initial estimator $\tilde{g}_{ini}$ of the regression function $g_0$ can be computed as $(\tilde{\beta}(t), \tilde{g}_{ini}(t)) = \arg\min_{(\beta,a)} \sum_{i=1}^n \delta_i K((t - t_i)/h) \rho \left( (y_i - x_i^T \beta - a)/\hat{\sigma} \right) \nu(x_i)$. Note that these estimators correspond to define weighted regression estimators over the complete data set, where the weights are higher if the observation $(y_i, x_i, t_i)$ is such that $t_i$ is close to $t$. It is worth noticing that in order to compute these preliminary estimators the uniform kernel $K(u) = I_{[-1, 1]}(u)/2$ can be considered so that any routine for computing a high breakdown point estimator can be used locally, i.e., for the observations lying in the neighborhood of $t$. Moreover, in order to guarantee the computation of the initial estimators, one needs to ensure that a large enough number of observations is available at each neighborhood of $t_i$. Besides, similar arguments to those considered in Section 8.2 allow to show that the functionals related to $(\tilde{\beta}(t), \tilde{g}_{ini}(t))$ are Fisher–consistent if condition c) stated therein holds. Note that this preliminary estimator of $\beta$ depends on $t$, since it is computed locally and so, it may have a nonparametric rate of convergence.

### 3.2 Computation of the robust marginal location estimators

To compute $\hat{\theta}_{WS}$ and $\hat{\theta}_\Lambda$, any standard algorithm to compute $M-$estimators can be used. For instance, they can be computed iteratively using reweighting, as described in the location setting in Chapter 2 of Maronna et al. (2006). On the other hand, the following algorithm can be used to compute $\hat{\theta}_{ WI }$. Using that $\hat{\theta}_{ WI }$ is the solution of (9) and denoting by $W_2(u) = \psi_2(u)/u$, $p_i = p_n(x_i, t_i)$ and $\hat{m}_i = x_i^T \hat{\beta} + g_n(t_i)$, we get that

$$
\sum_{i=1}^n \delta_i \psi_2 \left( \frac{y_i - \hat{\theta}_{ WI }}{\hat{\sigma}_{ WI }} \right) + \sum_{i=1}^n \left( 1 - \frac{\delta_i}{p_i} \right) \psi_2 \left( \frac{\hat{m}_i - \hat{\theta}_{ WI } }{\hat{\sigma}_{ WI } } \right) = 0
$$

and so

$$
\hat{\theta}_{ WI } = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \left[ \frac{\delta_i}{p_i} W_2 \left( \frac{y_i - \hat{\theta}_{ WI } }{\hat{\sigma}_{ WI } } \right) y_i + \left( 1 - \frac{\delta_i}{p_i} \right) W_2 \left( \frac{\hat{m}_i - \hat{\theta}_{ WI } }{\hat{\sigma}_{ WI } } \right) \hat{m}_i \right]}{\sum_{i=1}^n \left[ \frac{\delta_i}{p_i} W_2 \left( \frac{y_i - \hat{\theta}_{ WI } }{\hat{\sigma}_{ WI } } \right) + \left( 1 - \frac{\delta_i}{p_i} \right) W_2 \left( \frac{\hat{m}_i - \hat{\theta}_{ WI } }{\hat{\sigma}_{ WI } } \right) \right]}. 
$$

Let $\theta^{(0)} = \hat{\theta}_{\Lambda}$ and $\hat{\sigma}_{\Lambda} = \text{mad} (\hat{m}_i)$. The algorithm can be defined as follows

- For $k = 0, 1, \ldots$, given $\theta^{(k)}$ define

  $$
  \theta^{(k+1)} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \left[ \frac{\delta_i}{p_i} W_2 \left( \frac{y_i - \theta^{(k)} }{\hat{\sigma}_{ WI } } \right) y_i + \left( 1 - \frac{\delta_i}{p_i} \right) W_2 \left( \frac{\hat{m}_i - \theta^{(k)} }{\hat{\sigma}_{ WI } } \right) \hat{m}_i \right]}{\sum_{i=1}^n \left[ \frac{\delta_i}{p_i} W_2 \left( \frac{y_i - \theta^{(k)} }{\hat{\sigma}_{ WI } } \right) + \left( 1 - \frac{\delta_i}{p_i} \right) W_2 \left( \frac{\hat{m}_i - \theta^{(k)} }{\hat{\sigma}_{ WI } } \right) \right]}
  $$

- Iterate until convergence or for a fixed number of steps $k_{\text{max}}$. 

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4 Main results

In this section, we will derive the strong consistency of the marginal location \( M \)-estimators under the following conditions:

**A1** \( \psi_2 : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R} \) is a bounded, differentiable function with bounded derivative \( \psi_2' \), such that \( \int |\psi_2'(u)| \, du < \infty \).

**A2** \( \inf_{(x,t)} p(x, t) = A > 0 \).

**A3** \( \sup_{(x,t)} |p_n(x, t) - p(x, t)| \xrightarrow{a.s.} 0 \).

Assumption **A1** is a standard condition on the score function \( \psi_1 \), while **A2** states that response variables are observed, which is a common assumption in the literature.

**Theorem 4.1.** Assume that **A2** and **A3** hold. Then,

a) \( \| \hat{F}_n - F \|_\infty = \sup_y |\hat{F}_n(y) - F(y)| \xrightarrow{a.s.} 0 \).

b) If in addition \( \tilde{\sigma} \xrightarrow{a.s.} \sigma_0 \), **A1** holds and in a neighborhood of \( \theta \), the function \( \lambda(a, \sigma_0) \) has a unique change of sign, there exists a solution \( \hat{\theta}_{ws} \) of \( \hat{\lambda}_n(a, \tilde{\sigma}) = 0 \), such that \( \hat{\theta}_{ws} \xrightarrow{a.s.} \theta \).

**Theorem 4.2.** Denote by \( \Pi(Q, P) \) the Prohorov distance between the probability measures \( Q \) and \( P \). Let \( \tilde{m}(x, t) \) be an estimator of \( m(x, t) \) such that for any compact set \( K_1 \subset \mathbb{R}^p, K_2 \subset \mathbb{R} \)

\[
\sup_{x \in K_1, t \in K_2} |\tilde{m}(x, t) - m(x, t)| \xrightarrow{a.s.} 0 .
\]

Then,

a) \( \Pi(\tilde{P}_n, P_Z) \xrightarrow{a.s.} 0 \) where \( P_Z \) is the probability measure induced by \( Z = m(X, T) \) and

\[
\tilde{P}_n(A) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} I_A(\tilde{m}(x_i, t_i)) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} I_A(\tilde{m}_i) .
\]

b) If in addition \( \tilde{\sigma} \) is an estimator of the scale \( \sigma_Z \) of \( Z \) such that \( \tilde{\sigma} \xrightarrow{a.s.} \sigma_Z \), **A1** holds and in a neighborhood of \( \theta \), the function \( \lambda(a, \sigma_Z) \) has a unique change of sign, there exists a solution \( \tilde{\theta} \) of \( \tilde{\lambda}_n(a, \tilde{\sigma}) = 0 \), such that \( \tilde{\theta} \xrightarrow{a.s.} \theta \) where

\[
\tilde{\lambda}_n(a, \sigma) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \psi_2 \left( \frac{\tilde{m}_i - a}{\sigma} \right) = \int \psi_2 \left( \frac{z - a}{\sigma} \right) d\tilde{F}_n(z)
\]

\[
\tilde{m}_i = \tilde{m}(x_i, t_i)
\]

\[
\tilde{F}_n(z) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} I_{(-\infty, z]}(\tilde{m}_i) .
\]
Note that Theorem 4.2 entails the following result.

**Corollary 4.1.** Assume that

i) \( \hat{\beta} \xrightarrow{a.s.} \beta_0 \).

ii) For any compact set \( K \), \( \sup_{t \in K} |\hat{g}_n(t) - g_0(t)| \xrightarrow{a.s.} 0 \).

If in addition \( \hat{\sigma}_\lambda \xrightarrow{a.s.} \sigma_Z \), \( A1 \) holds and in a neighborhood of \( \theta \), the function \( \lambda(a, \sigma_Z) \) has a unique change of sign, there exists a solution \( \hat{\theta}_\lambda \) of \( \hat{\lambda}_n(a, \hat{\sigma}_\lambda) = 0 \), such that \( \hat{\theta}_\lambda \xrightarrow{a.s.} \theta \).

**Theorem 4.3.** Assume that \( A2 \) and \( A3 \) hold. Then,

a) \( \| \hat{F}_n - F \|_\infty = \sup_y |\hat{F}_n(y) - F(y)| \xrightarrow{a.s.} 0 \).

b) If in addition \( \hat{\sigma}_{wi} \xrightarrow{a.s.} \sigma_0 \), \( A1 \) holds and in a neighborhood of \( \theta \), the function \( \lambda(a, \sigma_0) \) has a unique change of sign, there exists a solution \( \hat{\theta}_{wi} \) of \( \hat{\lambda}_n(a, \hat{\sigma}_{wi}) = 0 \), such that \( \hat{\theta}_{wi} \xrightarrow{a.s.} \theta \).

### 4.1 Some comments

It is worth noticing that Theorem 4.3 entail that \( \hat{\theta}_{wi} \xrightarrow{a.s.} \theta \) even if the estimators of the regression function are not consistent when we estimate consistently the probability of missing. Obviously, the same happens with \( \hat{\theta}_{ws} \) that uses the observations at hand. Besides, \( \hat{\theta}_\lambda \) is consistent if the regression model is correct without any need of estimating the probability of missing.

One could try to combine both proposals in order to get the double–protected property in the sense of Scharfstein et al. (1999). Let

\[
\hat{\theta} = \hat{\theta}_\lambda + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\delta_i}{p_n(x_i, t_i)} (\hat{\theta}_{ws} - \hat{\theta}_{wa})
\]

with \( \hat{\theta}_{wa} \) the solution of

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\delta_i}{p_n(x_i, t_i)} \psi_2 \left( x_i^T \hat{\beta} + \hat{g}_n(t_i) - \hat{\theta}_{wa} \right) \frac{\hat{\sigma}_{wa}}{\hat{\sigma}_{wa}} = 0,
\]

where \( \hat{\sigma}_{wa} \) is a preliminary robust scale estimator. It is clear that, if \( A3 \) holds, \( \hat{\theta} \xrightarrow{a.s.} \theta \) since

- \( \hat{\theta}_{ws} \xrightarrow{a.s.} \theta \)
- \( \hat{\theta}_{wa} \xrightarrow{a.s.} \theta_{wa}(F) \)
- \( \hat{\theta}_\lambda \xrightarrow{a.s.} \theta_\lambda(F) \)
- \( \theta_\lambda(F) = \theta_{wa}(F) \),

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where \( \theta_a(F) \) and \( \theta_{wa}(F) \) stand for the functionals related to each proposal (see Section 8.3).

However, if \( \sup_{(x,t)} |p_n(x,t) - p^*(x,t)| \xrightarrow{a.s.} 0 \) with \( p^*(x,t) \neq p(x,t) \) but \( m(x,t) = x^T \beta_0 + g_0(t) \), from the consistency of \( \hat{\theta}_a \), we get that \( \hat{\theta}_a \xrightarrow{a.s.} \theta + E(p(X,T)/p^*(X,T)) (\theta_{ws}(F) - \theta_{wa}(F)) \) and we cannot ensure that both location functionals, \( \theta_{ws}(F) \) and \( \theta_{wa}(F) \), will be equal. However, note that, when \( \psi_2 \) is the identity function, this equality holds due to the linearity of the expectation.

Moreover, assume that there exists a \( M \)-functional \( \theta(F) \) such that if \( \hat{\theta} \) is the corresponding estimator then, \( \hat{\theta} \) satisfies the double–protected property. Hence, assuming that scale \( \sigma \) is known, we must have

a) If \( \sup_{(x,t)} |p_n(x,t) - p(x,t)| \xrightarrow{a.s.} 0 \), then \( \theta(F) \) should be equal to \( \theta_{ws}(F) \), i.e., it should satisfy
\[
E \frac{\delta}{p(X,T)} \psi_2 \left( \frac{Y - \theta(F)}{\sigma} \right) = 0.
\]

b) If \( \sup_{(x,t)} |\hat{m}_n(x,t) - m(x,t)| \xrightarrow{a.s.} 0 \), then \( \theta(F) \) should be equal to \( \theta_a(F) \), i.e., it should satisfy
\[
E \psi_2 \left( \frac{m(X,T) - \theta(F)}{\sigma} \right) = 0.
\]

Thus, if one wants to obtain a robust and double–protected \( M \)-estimator, both equations should be satisfied. Clearly, when \( \psi_2 \equiv id \), this is fulfilled when the errors \( \epsilon \) are independent of \( (x,t) \) and have symmetric distribution. So, if \( \sup_{(x,t)} |p_n(x,t) - p^*(x,t)| \xrightarrow{a.s.} 0 \) and \( \sup_{(x,t)} |\hat{m}(x,t) - m^*(x,t)| \xrightarrow{a.s.} 0 \), we need that

a) If \( p^*(x,t) = p(x,t) \), then \( \theta(F) \) will satisfy
\[
E \frac{\delta}{p^*(X,T)} \psi_2 \left( \frac{Y - \theta(F)}{\sigma} \right) = E \frac{p^*(X,T)}{p^*(X,T)} \psi_2 \left( \frac{m(X,T) + \sigma_0 \epsilon - \theta(F)}{\sigma} \right) = 0,
\]
or equivalently in this situation
\[
E \psi_2 \left( \frac{m(X,T) + \sigma_0 \epsilon - \theta(F)}{\sigma} \right) = 0.
\]

b) On the other hand, if \( m^*(x,t) = m(x,t) \), \( \theta(F) \) should satisfy
\[
E \psi_2 \left( \frac{m(X,T) - \theta(F)}{\sigma} \right) = 0.
\]

For the regular score functions used in robustness this seems difficult to be attained due to the non–linearity of \( \psi_2 \).
Another possibility could be to consider the solution \( \hat{\theta} \) of \( \lambda^*_n(\hat{\theta}, \sigma_{\lambda}) = 0 \) with
\[
\lambda^*_n(a, \sigma) = \tilde{\lambda}_n(a, \sigma) + \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\delta_i}{p_n(x_i, t_i)} \right) \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\delta_i}{p_n(x_i, t_i)} \left[ \psi_2 \left( \frac{y_i - a}{\sigma} \right) - \psi_2 \left( \frac{\hat{m}_i - a}{\sigma} \right) \right] = 0 ,
\]
where \( \hat{m}_i \) are the predicted values using the partially linear model \( (1) \), \( \hat{m}_i = \hat{m}(x_i, t_i) = x_i^T \hat{\beta} + \hat{g}_n(t_i) \) and \( \tilde{\lambda}_n(a, \sigma) \) was defined in Section 2.2.1 as
\[
\tilde{\lambda}_n(a, \sigma) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \psi_2 \left( \frac{\hat{m}_i - a}{\sigma} \right) .
\]
Note that if \( \sup_{(x,t)} | p_n(x, t) - p^*(x, t) | \xrightarrow{a.s.} 0 \) and \( \sup_{(x,t)} | \hat{m}(x, t) - m^*(x, t) | \xrightarrow{a.s.} 0 \), \( \hat{\theta} \) will be consistent to the solution \( \theta^*(F) \) of \( \lambda^*(a, \sigma) = 0 \) with
\[
\lambda^*(a, \sigma) = \lambda_Z(a, \sigma) + \left( E \frac{p(X, T)}{p^*(X, T)} \right) E \left\{ \frac{p(X, T)}{p^*(X, T)} \left[ \psi_2 \left( \frac{Y - a}{\sigma} \right) - \psi_2 \left( \frac{Z - a}{\sigma} \right) \right] \right\} ,
\]
where \( \lambda_Z(a, \sigma) = E \psi_2((Z - a)/\sigma), Z = m^*(X, T) \). Again,

a) If \( p^*(x, t) = p(x, t) \), then \( \lambda^*(a, \sigma) = E \psi_2((Y - a)/\sigma) \) and so \( \theta^*(F) = \theta_{ws}(F) \), attaining the desired Fisher–consistency.

b) If \( m^*(x, t) = m(x, t) \), then, if \( R(X, T) = p(X, T)/p^*(X, T) \), we have
\[
\lambda^*(a, \sigma) = E \psi_2 \left( \frac{m(X, T) - a}{\sigma} \right) + (ER(X, T)) E \left( R(X, T) \left[ \psi_2 \left( \frac{m(X, T) + \sigma_0 \epsilon - a}{\sigma} \right) - \psi_2 \left( \frac{m(X, T) - a}{\sigma} \right) \right] \right) .
\]
Thus, using that \( m(X, T) \) has a symmetric distribution around \( \theta \), we obtain
\[
\lambda^*(\theta, \sigma) = (ER(X, T)) E \left( R(X, T) \left[ \psi_2 \left( \frac{m(X, T) + \sigma_0 \epsilon - \theta}{\sigma} \right) - \psi_2 \left( \frac{m(X, T) - \theta}{\sigma} \right) \right] \right) .
\]
So, if we want that \( \theta^*(F) = \theta_{\lambda}(F) = \theta \) we need that
\[
E \left( R(X, T) \left[ \psi_2 \left( \frac{m(X, T) + \sigma_0 \epsilon - \theta}{\sigma} \right) - \psi_2 \left( \frac{m(X, T) - \theta}{\sigma} \right) \right] \right) = 0 . \tag{13}
\]
Equation (13) will be fulfilled for instance if the ratio \( R(X, T) \) is an even function of \( m(X, T) - \theta \). This assumption seems unnatural and that is why these estimators where not considered in this paper. Again, if \( \psi_2 \) is the identity function, (13) is automatically fulfilled.

Analogous conclusions can be obtained if we define, as in Wang and Sun (2007), the \( M \)-location estimator of the weighted responses \( (\delta_i/p_n(x_i, t_i)) y_i + (1 - \delta_i/p_n(x_i, t_i)) \left( x_i^T \hat{\beta} + \hat{g}_n(t_i) \right) \).
5 Monte Carlo study

A simulation study was carried out when the regression parameter has dimension 1. The S–code is available upon request to the authors.

In all Tables and Figures $WSE_{ls}$, $AE_{ls}$ and $WIE_{ls}$ denote the classical estimates obtained using the weighted simplified estimate, the averaged estimate and the weighted imputed estimate, respectively. On the other hand, the corresponding robust estimates are denoted as $WSE_{r}$, $AE_{r}$ and $WIE_{r}$.

The aims of this study are to compare

- the behavior of the classical and robust estimators under contamination and under normal samples, for different missing probabilities.
- the performance of the robust proposals, the weighted simplified, the averaged and the weighted imputed estimators, between them and also with that of the robust estimator that would be computed if the complete data set were available ($WSE_{r}$). Note that this estimator, which corresponds to $p(x, t) \equiv 1$, cannot be computed in practice. The goal is to detect which of the proposals would give mean square errors closer to those obtained if there were no missing responses.

In both, the classical and robust smoothing procedures, we have used the gaussian kernel with standard deviation 0.37 such that the interquartile range is 0.5. The robust smoothing procedure used local $M$–estimates with score function $\psi_1$ the bisquare function with tuning constant 4.685, using local medians as initial estimates. The chosen tuning constant for the local $M$–estimator gives a 95% efficiency with respect to its linear relative. The same score function was used to compute the marginal estimators, that is, we choose $\psi_2 = \psi_1$.

The robust estimator of the regression parameter $\beta$ was computed as described in Section 3 using as $\rho$–functions the bisquare function, that is,

$$
\rho_0(x) = \rho_1\left(\frac{x}{c_0}\right) \quad \text{and} \quad \rho(x) = \rho_1\left(\frac{x}{c_1}\right)
$$

with $c_0 = 1.56$, $c_1 \geq c_0$ and $\rho_1(x) = \min(1, 1 - (1 - x^2)^3)$. The value selected for $c_0$ ensures Fisher–consistency of the scale when the errors are gaussian, while $c_1 = 4.68$ guarantees that under a regression model the $MM$–estimates will achieve 95% efficiency.

Two different models have been considered to study the behavior of the proposed methods. In both of them, due to the expensive computing time when evaluating the robust estimators, we only performed 500 replications generating independent samples of size $n = 100$.

5.1 Model I

Under this model, we first generate observations as

$$
z_i = \beta_0 x_i + 2 \sin(4\pi(t_i - 0.5)) + \sigma_0 e_i \quad 1 \leq i \leq n, \quad (14)
$$
where \( \beta_0 = 2 \), \( (x_t^T, t_i)^T \sim N(\mu, \Sigma) \) with 
\[
\mu = (0, \frac{1}{2})^T \quad \text{and} \quad \Sigma = \begin{pmatrix}
1 & 1/(6\sqrt{3}) \\
1/(6\sqrt{3}) & 1/36
\end{pmatrix},
\]
and \( \epsilon_i \sim N(0, 1) \) with \( \sigma_0^2 = 0.25 \) in the non–contaminated case.

The results for normal data sets will be indicated by \( C_0 \) in Tables 1 to 7, while \( C_1 \) to \( C_4 \) will denote the following contaminations:

- **\( C_1 \):** \( \epsilon_1, \ldots, \epsilon_n \), are i.i.d. \( 0.9N(0, 1) + 0.1N(0, 25) \). This contamination corresponds to inflating the errors and thus, will only affect the variance of the location estimates.

- **\( C_2 \):** \( \epsilon_1, \ldots, \epsilon_n \), are i.i.d. \( 0.9N(0, 1) + 0.1N(0, 25) \) and artificially 10 observations of the response \( z_i \) but not of the carriers \( x_i \), were modified to be equal to 20 at equally spaced values of \( t \). This case corresponds to introduce outliers with high–residuals. The aim of this contamination is to study changes in bias in the estimation of the location parameter.

- **\( C_3 \):** \( \epsilon_1, \ldots, \epsilon_n \), are i.i.d. \( 0.9N(0, 1) + 0.1N(0, 25) \) and artificially 10 observations of the carriers \( x_i \) but not of the response \( z_i \), were modified to be equal to 20 at equally spaced values of \( t \). This case corresponds to introduce high–leverage points. The aim of this contamination is to study changes in bias in the estimation of the location parameter when using the averaged and the weighted imputed estimates, since this contamination affects mainly the estimation of the regression parameter.

- **\( C_4 \):** \( \epsilon_1, \ldots, \epsilon_n \), are i.i.d. \( 0.9N(0, 1) + 0.1N(0, 25) \) and artificially 5 observations of the carriers \( x_i \) and 5 of the response \( z_i \), were modified to be equal to 20 and \(-20\), respectively at equally spaced values of \( t \). The modified observations at the response were not allocated at the same \( t \) as those of the carriers. This case corresponds to introduce both high–leverage points and high–residuals. The aim of this contamination is to study changes in bias in the different estimators of the location parameter since this contamination affects the regression parameter and also the marginal one.

In a first step, when computing the marginal estimators, the missing probabilities are not estimated but assumed to be known, i.e., we have taken \( p_n(x, t) = p(x, t) \). This decision was taken in order to avoid increasing biases due to the estimation of the missing probability (see, for instance, Chen et al. (2006)). Moreover, as discussed in Wang et al. (1998), it seems natural to argue that the weighted estimators using the estimated probabilities are at least as efficient as those using the true model and this phenomenon will also be studied below.

The missing models considered can be described as follows. Let \( \pi(u) = 0.4 + 0.5(\cos(2u + 0.4))^2 \). We define \( y_i = z_i \) if \( \delta_i = 1 \), and missing otherwise, where \( \delta_i \) are generated according to the following missingness mechanism (see (3))

a) \( p(x, t) \equiv 1 \) that corresponds to the complete data situation. As in nonparametric regression with missing responses, in this case, the \( WSE_{ls} \) and \( WIE_{ls} \) give the same results. However, even if \( WSE_r \) and \( WIE_r \) also should be identical, they provide slightly different results since the algorithms used to compute them where not identical. To compute \( WSE_r \) we have used the S–plus routine \textit{location.m} with 20 iterations, while to compute the \( WIE_r \), we used the
The classical least squares cross-validation method constructs an asymptotically optimal data-driven bandwidth and thus, adaptive data-driven estimators, by minimizing

$$CV_{\text{ls}}(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta_i \left( y_i - \hat{\theta}^{(i)}(h) \right)^2 w^2(t_i).$$

In our study, the function $w$ was chosen equal to 1. In order to study the sensitivity of the resulting estimator to the bandwidth, Table 1 shows the minimum, mean and maximum values of $CV_{\text{ls}}$ as a function of $h$ for the missing models b) to e), for the average and weighted average estimators and for one of the samples generated as above. We have generated the sample according to $C_0$ and $C_2$ to show the sensitivity of the least squares procedure and we have computed the cross-validation errors for a grid of 20 equally spaced values of $h$ between 0.05 and 1. As it could be seen, when considering both the classical or the robust procedures, for non-contaminated samples, the cross-validation error of all the estimators is almost constant on its domain showing the lack of sensitivity of the marginal estimators to the smoothing parameter. It is also clear that the least-squares cross-validation error is highly sensitive to anomalous data, since its values are almost 7 times those obtained with the non-contaminated samples. The robust procedure has a behavior similar to that described for the least squares method, under $C_0$. For instance, when considering $p(x, t) = 0.4 + 0.5(\cos(2t + 0.4))^2$, the minimum (m) and maximum values (M) of the robust cross-validation function related to $AE_R$ and $WIE_R$ are $m_{AE_R} = 7.3511$, $M_{AE_R} = 7.3953$ and $m_{WIE_R} = 7.3601$ and $M_{WIE_R} = 7.3943$, respectively. The robust cross-validation function $RCV_R(h)$, defined in (10), is much more stable under contamination. Effectively, under $C_2$, the minimum (m) and maximum values (M) of the robust cross-validation function are $m_{AE_R} = 12.0666$, $M_{AE_R} = 12.1572$ and $m_{WIE_R} = 11.9976$ and $M_{WIE_R} = 12.0888$ and the shape of the function is almost the same as in the non-contaminated situation.

Considering the above discussion, a robust cross-validation procedure was not performed in this preliminary study, taking into account that it is very expensive computationally when it is combined with the robust profile procedure and since it was clear from the results obtained that, in all situations, the bandwidth choice did not seem crucial for the estimation of the marginal location parameter. Even when we have performed the simulation with bandwidths $h = 0.1$, $0.2$ and $0.4$, we only present in this paper the results for $h = 0.2$. In fact, all the considered bandwidths lead to the same conclusions.

The performance of the location estimators was measured using the bias, standard deviation and mean square error (bias, sd and MSE, respectively) in Tables 2 to 6. Also, boxplots are given in Figures 1 to 5.
The results reported in Tables 2 to 6 show that when there is no contamination, the linear estimators perform better than the robust ones (both in bias and mean square error) showing the loss of efficiency related to the score function used to compute the location $M$-estimators. On the other hand, the robust estimators show their advantage over the classical ones when outliers with high residuals are present having a similar performance when contaminating the errors. In fact, the MSE of the classical estimators is more than 20 times larger than the one observed under no contamination and also than the MSE of the robust estimators which are much more stable under $C_2$ or $C_4$. Note that this is mainly due to the increased bias of the classical estimators using any of the methods (weighted simplified, averaged or weighted imputed one). This explains the better efficiency of the robust estimators under $C_2$ and $C_4$. This is also reflected in Figures 1 to 5. It is worth noticing that the classical estimators seem stable with respect to contaminating only the carriers with high leverage points ($C_3$). This is natural when using the weighted simplified estimator since responses with large residuals were not included in this contamination, but it could seem unnatural when using the average or weighted imputed estimators, since it could be expected that large values of the covariates $x$ would lead the classical estimate to explode. However, the good performance observed is mainly due to the fact that the least squares regression parameter estimates $\hat{\beta}$ almost as 0, in all the missingness schemes. Effectively, under $C_3$ the median of $\hat{\beta}_{ls}$ is close to 0 while $\hat{\beta}_{r}$ is close to 2 as it should be (see, Figure 6). The same behavior is observed also under $C_4$, where the classical estimates of $\beta$ exhibit a large bias which decreases the influence of the leverage points when using the average or the weighted imputed estimators. In both cases, the classical regression parameter estimators are useless and in this sense, the least squares procedures seem not reliable to estimate the marginal parameter.

It is worth noticing that, when there is no contamination, except for the complete data estimators, the weighted imputed estimators (linear or robust) perform better than the two other competitors leading to smaller mean square errors. Their advantage over the weighted simplified is specially reflected when the missing probability depends on $x$, $t$ or in both variables. In this situation, see Tables 4 to 6, the weighted simplified estimators have almost twice mean square errors than the weighted imputed. The worst situation for the weighted simplified procedure is when $p(x,t)$ only depends on $t$. This fact can be explained since it gives the larger proportion of missing data in each sample, near 70%, while in the two other situations the proportion of missing data is about 65%. The same conclusion holds under $C_1$. However, under $C_2$ to $C_4$ a different behavior is observed for the classical and robust estimators. As expected, the weighted imputed $M$-estimators perform much better than the weighted simplified method leading to almost the same ratios between the mean square error of the weighted simplified $M$-estimator and the weighted imputed $M$-estimator as in the non–contaminated situation. On the contrary, when using the linear estimators, the mean square errors of the three estimators are almost the same due to the bias of all procedures. Note also that, under $C_2$ and $C_4$, when using the robust estimators the smallest mean square errors are attained by the averaged $M$-estimators, even if they are almost of the same order than the weighted imputed $M$-estimator.

In order to evaluate the impact of the estimation of the missing probabilities on the final marginal estimator, we have performed a moderate simulation study for some of the situations discussed above. We have considered the setting in which the missing probability is given by $p(x,t) = \pi(t)$ since the results for the other missing schemes lead to similar conclusions. We have
estimated $\pi(t)$ using a kernel density estimator with bandwidth $\gamma = 0.2$ and gaussian kernel $K$ as described above. Table 7 reports summary measures for the marginal location estimators. It is worth noticing that the results corresponding to $AE_{LS}$ and $AE_{R}$ are not given since these estimators do not depend on estimators of the missing probabilities. The results obtained for other choices for the smoothing parameter $\gamma$ are similar to those reported here. The comparison between the behavior of the robust and linear estimators in this case is similar to that observed when the missing probability is assumed to be known. On the other hand, as expected, when estimating $p(x,t)$ the bias of the estimators increase, in particular, in most cases $WSE_{LS}$ ($WSE_{R}$) has a larger bias than $AE_{LS}$ ($AE_{R}$), in spite of what happens when $p(x,t)$ is known. However, mean square errors reported in Table 7 are smaller to those given in Table 4 due to a reduction on the standard deviation. This surprising fact has been observed, for instance, by Wang et al. (1997) in the classical setting.

5.2 Model II

As in Robins et al. (1994) in some situations a parametric model, $p_\alpha(x,t)$, $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^q$, for the missing probabilities can be assumed. The goal of the following simulation study is to analyze the impact of estimating the unknown parameters $\alpha$ on the final marginal estimators. Again the observations $z_i$ satisfy model (14) where $\beta_0 = 2$, but the covariates were generated as $x_i \sim N(0,1)$ and $t_i \sim U(0,1)$, while the errors are $\epsilon_i \sim N(0,1)$ with $\sigma^2 = 0.25$ in the non–contaminated case. The results for normal data sets will be indicated by $C_{0,l}$ in the Tables, while $C_{1,l}$ refers to the following contamination:

- $C_{1,l}$: $\epsilon_1, \ldots, \epsilon_n$, are i.i.d. $0.9 N(0,1) + 0.1 N(0,25)$ and artificially 5 observations of the carriers $x_i$ and 5 of the response $z_i$, were modified to be equal to 5 and $-20$, respectively at equally spaced values of $t$. The modified observations at the response were not allocated at the same $t$ as those of the carriers.

Note that $C_{1,l}$ is similar to $C_4$. The subscript $l$ indicates the fact that the missing scheme considered is a logistic model, where $p(x,t) = 1/(1 + \exp(-2x - 12(t - 0.5)))$. As above, we then define $y_i = z_i$, if $\delta_i = 1$, and missing otherwise to obtain the missing responses. This missing model is analogous to that considered by Croux and Haesbroeck (2003) who studied the behavior of robust estimators under a logistic regression model. In Tables 8 and 9 we summarize the results obtained under Model II for non–contaminated samples and under $C_{1,l}$, when the true probability or the estimated one is used to compute the marginal estimators, respectively. As in Wang et al. (1997), the missing probability was estimated using the parametric model and using a smoothed estimator. The nonparametric estimator was computed, using a product gaussian kernel, as defined in (8) with $b_n = 0.2$ and $\lambda_n = 0.4$. On the other hand, when computing the classical marginal location estimators, $\alpha$ was estimated using the maximum likelihood method, while for the robust marginal procedures the robust estimators implemented by Croux and Haesbroeck (2003) were used. As in Section 5.1, the classical and robust estimators of $\theta$ perform similarly under $C_{0,l}$ while under $C_{1,l}$ the robust procedures show their advantage, either when the missing probability is assumed to be known or when it is estimated. Moreover, as in Section 5.1, the standard deviations of the classical estimators are reduced when estimating parametrically the missing probabilities or when using the Nadaraya–Watson estimator. However, this phenomenon is not observed for the robust
estimators when estimating parametrically the missing probabilities. It is worth noticing that when \( \alpha \) is estimated, biases are also reduced under \( C_{0,l} \) for both the classical and robust methods. This fact was already pointed out by Wang et al. (1997) when the missing probabilities depend on both covariates, for the estimators defined therein. Besides, when the missing probabilities are estimated non-parametrically biases are enlarged. In all cases, except when \( \alpha \) is estimated using a robust procedure, estimating \( p \) reduces mean square errors of the marginal location estimators under \( C_{0,l} \), the lower values correspond to estimating the missing probability with the kernel estimator.

6 An example

Daniel and Wood (1980) studied a data set obtained in a process variable study of a refinery unit. The response variable \( y \) is the octane number of the final product, while the covariates \( x = (x_1, x_2, x_3)^T \) represent the feed compositions and the covariate \( t \) is the logarithm of a combination of process conditions scaled to \([0, 1] \). We computed the estimators with bandwidth \( h = 0.06 \). In order to avoid boundary effects and to improve the performance of the regression function estimator, we used Gasser and M"uller’s weights with boundary kernels, as described in González–Manteiga and Aneiros–Pérez (2003).

We first compute the estimates of the marginal location \( \theta \) for this data set. The robust estimators were computed as in Section 5, but we use the rho-function with tuning constant \( c_1 = 3.44 \) that guarantees, under a regression model, an 85% efficiency. In this case, due to the dimension of the covariates, we have selected a smaller tuning constant to make a trade-off between bias and efficiency. The obtained values are \( \hat{\theta}_{\text{WS,LS}}^{(\text{ALL})} = 91.855 \), \( \hat{\theta}_{\text{A,LS}}^{(\text{ALL})} = 91.901 \), \( \hat{\theta}_{\text{W,LS}}^{(\text{ALL})} = 91.855 \), \( \hat{\theta}_{\text{WS,R}}^{(\text{ALL})} = 91.667 \), \( \hat{\theta}_{\text{A,R}}^{(\text{ALL})} = 91.670 \) and \( \hat{\theta}_{\text{W,R}}^{(\text{ALL})} = 91.668 \). It is worth noticing that, in all cases, the robust procedures lead to smaller values than the classical ones.

Daniel and Wood (1980) discussed the presence of three anomalous observations (labeled 75 to 77) which correspond to high values of octanes associated with high leverage points. We repeat the analysis for the classical procedure excluding these three observations and we also compute standard deviations of the least squares estimates, reported between brackets, through jackknife. The obtained values are \( \hat{\theta}_{\text{WS,LS}} = 91.674 \) (0.118), \( \hat{\theta}_{\text{A,LS}} = 91.716 \) (0.130), \( \hat{\theta}_{\text{W,LS}} = 91.674 \) (0.118) which are quite similar to the values obtained with the related robust method. Moreover, we compute the standardized absolute differences, \( SAD \), between the classical estimates computed with all data and without the outliers, where the standardization was done with respect to the deviations reported above, for example, \( SAD_{\text{WS,LS}} \) stands for \( SAD_{\text{WS,LS}} = \left| \hat{\theta}_{\text{WS,LS}}^{(\text{ALL})} - \hat{\theta}_{\text{WS,LS}} \right| / \sigma_{\hat{\theta}_{\text{WS,LS}}} \). We also compute the standardized absolute difference between the robust estimates computed with all data and the classical without the outliers. The obtained values are \( SAD_{\text{WS,LS}} = 1.533 \), \( SAD_{\text{A,LS}} = 1.428 \), \( SAD_{\text{W,LS}} = 1.533 \), \( SAD_{\text{WS,R}} = 0.060 \), \( SAD_{\text{A,R}} = 0.352 \), \( SAD_{\text{W,R}} = 0.058 \) showing the high sensitivity of the classical procedure to anomalous data.

Missing responses were introduced completely at random with probability \( p(x, t) \equiv 0.8 \) and the described analysis was repeated. The values of the estimators with outliers are \( \hat{\theta}_{\text{WS,LS}} = 92.013 \), \( \hat{\theta}_{\text{A,LS}} = 91.905 \), \( \hat{\theta}_{\text{W,LS}} = 91.888 \), \( \hat{\theta}_{\text{WS,R}} = 91.782 \), \( \hat{\theta}_{\text{A,R}} = 91.678 \) and \( \hat{\theta}_{\text{W,R}} = 91.690 \). As with the complete data set, the robust procedures lead to smaller values than the classical ones. When
excluding the three outliers identified by Daniel and Wood (1980), the results are \( \hat{\theta}_{\text{WS},\text{LS}} = 91.795 \) (0.130), \( \hat{\theta}_{\text{AS},\text{LS}} = 91.711 \) (0.122), \( \hat{\theta}_{\text{WLS},\text{LS}} = 91.697 \) (0.110) which are quite similar to the values obtained with the related robust method. Besides, the standardized absolute differences are \( SAD_{\text{WS},\text{LS}} = 1.687 \), \( SAD_{\text{AS},\text{LS}} = 1.604 \), \( SAD_{\text{WS},\text{LS}} = 1.739 \), \( SAD_{\text{WS},\text{R}} = 0.099 \), \( SAD_{\text{AS},\text{R}} = 0.274 \), \( SAD_{\text{WLS},\text{R}} = 0.065 \) and so, the resistance to anomalous data of the robust proposals is preserved under this missing scheme.

7 Final comments

We have introduced three robust procedures to estimate the marginal location parameter under a partially linear model when there are missing observations in the response variable and it can be suspected that anomalous observations are present in the sample. All procedures are Fisher–consistent and thus they lead to strongly consistent estimators.

Under the contaminations considered, they show their advantage over the classical estimators. Moreover, the average and weighted imputed \( M \)–estimators, even if they are computationally more expensive, should be used since they perform better than the weighted simplified \( M \)–estimator in all situations. Both the classical and robust procedures do not seem to be very sensitive to the choice of the smoothing parameter and so an exhaustive bandwidth search can be avoided. As mentioned by Wang and Sun (2007) the selection of bandwidths is not so critical if one is only interested in estimation of parametric components.

The results of our simulation study suggest that smaller mean square errors can be attained using a smooth estimator of the missing probabilities instead of a parametric one, if the dimension of the covariates and the number of observations allow to compute the kernel estimator.

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8 Appendix

In Section 8.1 we give the proofs of the Theorems stated in Section 4, while in Sections 8.2 and 8.3, we will study the Fisher–consistency of the given proposals.
8.1 Proofs

Proof of Theorem 4.1. a) It is enough to show that for any borelian set \( B \), \( \hat{\phi}(B) \overset{a.s.}{\longrightarrow} P(Y \in B) \) where

\[
\hat{\phi}(B) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\delta_i}{p_n(x_i, t_i)} I_B(y_i).
\]

Note that \( \hat{\phi}(B) = S_{1n} + S_{2n} \) where

\[
S_{1n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[ \frac{1}{p_n(x_i, t_i)} - \frac{1}{p(x_i, t_i)} \right] \delta_i I_B(y_i)
\]

\[
S_{2n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{p(x_i, t_i)} \delta_i I_B(y_i).
\]

Using A2 and A3, we have that \( |S_{1n}| \overset{a.s.}{\longrightarrow} 0 \). On the other hand, using the strong law of large numbers and the MAR assumption, we have that \( S_{2n} \overset{a.s.}{\longrightarrow} P(Y \in B) \), concluding the proof.

The proof of b) follows easily using a), the following bound

\[
\sup_{a \in \mathbb{R}, \sigma \in [\sigma_0/2, 2\sigma_0]} |\tilde{\lambda}(a, \sigma) - \lambda(a, \sigma)| \leq \int |\psi_2'(u)| du \| \hat{F}_n - F \|_{\infty},
\]

the continuity of \( \lambda(a, \sigma) \) as a function of \( \sigma \) and the fact that in a neighborhood of \( \theta \), the function \( \lambda(a, \sigma_0) \) has a unique change of sign. \( \square \)

Proof of Theorem 4.2. a) It is enough to show that \( \Pi(\tilde{P}_n, \tilde{P}_n) \) \( \overset{a.s.}{\longrightarrow} 0 \) with

\[
\tilde{P}_n(A) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} I_A(x_i^T \beta_0 + g_0(t_i)).
\]

This result follows if we show that for any bounded and continuous function \( f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) we have that

\[
\left| E_{\tilde{P}_n}(f) - E_{\tilde{P}_n}(f) \right| \overset{a.s.}{\longrightarrow} 0,
\]

which follows using analogous arguments to those considered in Lemma 1 of Bianco and Boente (2004).

The proof of b) is derived as in Theorem 4.1 using the following bound

\[
\sup_{a \in \mathbb{R}, \sigma \in [\sigma_0/2, 2\sigma_0]} |\tilde{\lambda}_n(a, \sigma) - \lambda_Z(a, \sigma)| \leq 2\|\psi_2'\|_{\infty} \Pi(\tilde{P}_n, P_Z)
\]

with \( \lambda_Z(a, \sigma) = E_{\psi_2'}((Z - a)/\sigma) \). \( \square \)

Proof of Theorem 4.3. a) It is enough to show that for any borelian set \( B \), \( \hat{\phi}(B) \overset{a.s.}{\longrightarrow} P(Y \in B) \) where

\[
\hat{\phi}(B) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\delta_i}{p_n(x_i, t_i)} I_B(y_i) + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[ \left( 1 - \frac{\delta_i}{p_n(x_i, t_i)} \right) I_B(x_i^T \beta + g_0(t_i)) \right].
\]

\[
\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\delta_i}{p_n(x_i, t_i)} I_B(y_i) + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[ \left( 1 - \frac{\delta_i}{p_n(x_i, t_i)} \right) I_B(x_i^T \beta + g_0(t_i)) \right].
\]
Note that \( \hat{\phi}(B) = \hat{\phi}(B) + S_{1n} + S_{2n} \) where \( \hat{\phi}(B) \) is defined in the proof of Theorem 4.1 and

\[
S_{1n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[ \frac{1}{p_n(x_i, t_i)} - \frac{1}{p(x_i, t_i)} \right] \delta_i I_B(x_i^T \hat{\beta} + \hat{g}_n(t_i))
\]

\[
S_{2n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[ 1 - \frac{\delta_i}{p(x_i, t_i)} \right] I_B(x_i^T \hat{\beta} + \hat{g}_n(t_i)).
\]

In the proof of Theorem 4.1 it was shown that \( \hat{\phi}(B) \xrightarrow{a.s.} P(Y \in B) \). Using A2, we have that

\[
|S_{1n}| \leq \frac{1}{\inf_{(x,t)} p_n(x,t)} \sup_{(x,t)} |p_n(x,t) - p(x,t)|
\]

which together with A3 entail that \( S_{1n} \xrightarrow{a.s.} 0 \). Besides,

\[
|S_{2n}| \leq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[ 1 - \frac{\delta_i}{p(x_i, t_i)} \right]
\]

and so, using the strong law of large numbers, we have that \( S_{2n} \xrightarrow{a.s.} 0 \), concluding the proof.

The proof of b) follows as in Theorem 4.1. \( \square \)

### 8.2 Fisher–consistency of the parametric and nonparametric components

Fisher–consistency will be derived under the more general heteroscedastic model \( y_i = x_i^T \beta_0 + g_0(t_i) + \sigma_0(x_i, t_i) \epsilon_i, 1 \leq i \leq n \), with the errors \( \epsilon_i \) i.i.d. and independent of the covariates. Moreover, we will assume that for any \( \sigma > 0 \),

a) \( E(\psi_1(\epsilon/\sigma)) = 0 \)

b) \( E(\psi_1((\epsilon - a)/\sigma)) = 0 \Rightarrow a = 0 \)

c) \( E(\rho((\epsilon - a)/\sigma)) \geq E(\rho(\epsilon/\sigma)) \).

For a discussion on condition a) see Remark 2.1.1. Note that, condition b) is fulfilled for instance, if \( \psi_1 \) is strictly monotone. On the other hand, using that \( \rho \) is a rho–function, from well–known results on robust location estimation, we have that the symmetry of the errors distribution imply c).

We first consider the functionals defined in Section 2.1. Note that

\[
E \left[ \delta \psi_1 \left( \frac{Y - X^T \beta - g_0(T)}{\sigma} \right) | T \right] = E \left[ p(X, T) \psi_1 \left( \frac{Y - X^T \beta - g_0(T)}{\sigma} \right) | T \right]
\]

\[
= E \left\{ p(X, T) E \left[ \psi_1 \left( \frac{X^T (\beta_0 - \beta) + (g_0(T) - g_0(T)) + \sigma_0(X, T) \epsilon}{\sigma} \right) | (X, T) \right] | T \right\}.
\]
Thus, it is easy to see that condition b) entails that $g_{\beta_0}(t) \equiv g_0(t)$. On the other hand, we get easily that

$$
E\left[ \delta \rho \left( \frac{Y - X^T \beta - g_{\beta}(T)}{\sigma} \right) v(X) \right] = E\left[ p(X, T) \rho \left( \frac{Y - X^T \beta - g_{\beta}(T)}{\sigma} \right) v(X) \right]
$$

$$
= E\left[ p(X, T) \rho \left( \frac{X^T \beta_0 + g_0(T) + \sigma_0(X, T) \epsilon - X^T \beta - g_{\beta}(T)}{\sigma} \right) v(X) \right]
$$

$$
= E\left[ p(X, T) v(X) E\left\{ \rho \left( \frac{\sigma_0(X, T) \epsilon + X^T (\beta_0 - \beta) + g_0(T) - g_{\beta}(T)}{\sigma} \right) \right\} |(X, T) \right] \right]
$$

From the independence between the errors and the covariates and condition c), we get

$$
E\left\{ \rho \left( \frac{\sigma_0(x, t) \epsilon + x^T (\beta_0 - \beta) + g_0(t) - g_{\beta}(t)}{\sigma} \right) \right\} |(X, T) = (x, t)
$$

$$
= E\left\{ \rho \left( \frac{\sigma_0(x, t) \epsilon + x^T (\beta_0 - \beta) + g_0(t) - g_{\beta}(t)}{\sigma} \right) \right\}
$$

$$
\geq E\left\{ \rho \left( \frac{\sigma_0(x, t) \epsilon}{\sigma} \right) \right\}.
$$

and so $\beta(F) = \beta_0$, which concludes the proof.

8.3 Fisher–consistency of the marginal location functionals

For the sake of simplicity, throughout this section we assume that the errors distribution is symmetric and $x^T \beta_0 + g_0(t_i) = \theta + u_i$ where $u_i$ has a symmetric distribution too. The functionals related to the proposed estimators are given by

• **Weighted Simplified functional** This functional is the solution, $\theta_{ws}(F)$, of

$$
E \frac{\delta}{p(X, T) \psi_2} \left( \frac{Y - \theta_{ws}(F)}{\sigma} \right) = 0.
$$

Note that, by taking conditional expectation and using that we have a MAR missingness scheme, we have

$$
E \frac{\delta}{p(X, T) \psi_2} \left( \frac{Y - \theta_S(F)}{\sigma} \right) = E \frac{p(X, T)}{p(X, T) \psi_2} \left( \frac{Y - \theta_S(F)}{\sigma} \right)
$$

$$
= E \psi_2 \left( \frac{Y - \theta_S(F)}{\sigma} \right),
$$

and so $\theta_{ws}(F) = \theta$ if $u + \sigma_0 \epsilon$ has a symmetric distribution.

• **Averaged $M$–functional** The functional $\theta_{\lambda}(F)$ is the solution of

$$
E \psi_2 \left( \frac{X^T \beta(F) + g_{\beta}(F)(T) - \theta_{\lambda}(F)}{\sigma} \right) = 0.
$$
Using that $\epsilon$ has a symmetric distribution, from Section 8.2 we get $\beta(F) = \beta_0$ and $g_{\beta(F)} = g_0$. Thus,
\[
E\psi_2\left(\frac{X^T\beta(F) + g_{\beta(F)}(T) - \theta_{\text{MA}}(F)}{\sigma}\right) = E\psi_2\left(\frac{X^T\beta_0 + g_0(T) - \theta_{\text{MA}}(F)}{\sigma}\right) = E\psi_2\left(\frac{u + \theta - \theta_{\text{MA}}(F)}{\sigma}\right).
\]
Since we have assumed that $u$ has a symmetric distribution, we obtain that $\theta_{\text{A}} = \theta$.

- **Weighted Imputed functional.** The functional $\theta_{\text{SI}}(F)$ solves
\[
E\left[\frac{\delta}{p(X,T)}\psi_2\left(\frac{Y - \theta_{W}(F)}{\sigma}\right) + \left(1 - \frac{\delta}{p(X,T)}\right)\psi_2\left(\frac{X^T\beta(F) + g_{\beta(F)}(T) - \theta_{W}(F)}{\sigma}\right)\right] = 0.
\]
As above, we get
\[
E\left[\frac{\delta}{p(X,T)}\psi_2\left(\frac{Y - \theta_{W}(F)}{\sigma}\right) + \left(1 - \frac{\delta}{p(X,T)}\right)\psi_2\left(\frac{X^T\beta(F) + g_{\beta(F)}(T) - \theta_{W}(F)}{\sigma}\right)\right] = E\psi_2\left(\frac{Y - \theta_{W}(F)}{\sigma}\right)
\]
and so $\theta_{\text{SI}}(F) = \theta$.

**References**


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Table 1: Minimum, mean value and maximum of least squares cross-validation error, under $C_0$ and $C_2$, for Model I.

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Table 2: Biases, standard deviations and mean square errors of the classical and robust procedures, under $C_0$ to $C_4$, when $h = 0.2$ and $p(x,t) = 1$, for Model I.
Table 3: Biases, standard deviations and mean square errors of the classical and robust procedures, under $C_0$ to $C_4$, when $h = 0.2$ and $p(x, t) = 0.8$, for Model I.

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Table 4: Biases, standard deviations and mean square errors of the classical and robust procedures, under $C_0$ to $C_4$, when $h = 0.2$ and $p(x, t) = 0.4 + 0.5 \cos^2(2t + 0.4)$, for Model I.

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Table 5: Biases, standard deviations and mean square errors of the classical and robust procedures, under $C_0$ to $C_4$, when $h = 0.2$ and $p(x, t) = 0.4 + 0.5 \cos^2(2x + 0.4)$, for Model I.

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Table 6: Biases, standard deviations and mean square errors of the classical and robust procedures, under $C_0$ to $C_4$, when $h = 0.2$ and $p(x, t) = 0.4 + 0.5 \cos^2(2x + 0.4)$, for Model I.

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Table 7: Biases, standard deviations and mean square errors of the classical and robust procedures, under $C_0$ to $C_4$, when $h = 0.2$ and $p(x, t) = 0.4 + 0.5 \cos^2(2t + 0.4)$ is estimated using a kernel estimator with bandwidth $\gamma = 0.2$, for Model I.

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<td>-0.0309</td>
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<td>0.1273</td>
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<td>0.4008</td>
<td>0.3225</td>
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<td>4.5414</td>
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<td>bias</td>
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<td>-0.0111</td>
<td>$C_3$</td>
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<td>0.1632</td>
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<td>0.0980</td>
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<tr>
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<td>-0.0306</td>
<td>-0.0266</td>
<td>$C_4$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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Table 8: Biases, standard deviations and mean square errors of the classical and robust procedures, under $C_{0,l}$ and $C_{1,l}$, when $h = 0.2$ and the missing probability is assumed to be known, for Model II.

|       | $WSE_{LS}$ | $AE_{LS}$ | $WIE_{LS}$ | $WSE_{R}$ | $AE_{R}$ | $WIE_{R}$ | $WSE_{LS}$ | $AE_{LS}$ | $WIE_{LS}$ | $WSE_{R}$ | $AE_{R}$ | $WIE_{R}$ | $WSE_{LS}$ | $AE_{LS}$ | $WIE_{LS}$ | $WSE_{R}$ | $AE_{R}$ | $WIE_{R}$ |       |
|-------|------------|------------|------------|------------|----------|----------|------------|------------|------------|------------|----------|----------|------------|------------|------------|------------|----------|----------|----------|-------|
| bias  | 0.2896     | -0.0920    | -0.0735    | 0.2177     | -0.0843  | -0.0702  | C_{0,l}    | 0.2896     | -0.0920    | -0.0735    | 0.2177     | -0.0843  | -0.0702  | C_{1,l}    | 0.2896     | -0.0920    | -0.0735    | 0.2177     | -0.0843  | -0.0702  |       |
| sd    | 0.5710     | 0.3089     | 0.3387     | 0.6350     | 0.2972   | 0.3000   |           | 0.4009     | 0.1393     | 0.1201     | 0.4770     | 0.0954   | 0.1139   |           | 0.4009     | 0.1393     | 0.1201     | 0.4770     | 0.0954   | 0.1139   |       |
| MSE   | 0.4099     | 0.1393     | 0.1201     | 0.4770     | 0.0954   | 0.1139   |           | 0.4099     | 0.1393     | 0.1201     | 0.4770     | 0.0954   | 0.1139   |           | 0.4099     | 0.1393     | 0.1201     | 0.4770     | 0.0954   | 0.1139   |       |
| bias  | -0.5423    | -0.7951    | -0.9004    | 0.2569     | -0.1896  | -0.2088  | C_{1,l}    | -0.5423    | -0.7951    | -0.9004    | 0.2569     | -0.1896  | -0.2088  |           | -0.5423    | -0.7951    | -0.9004    | 0.2569     | -0.1896  | -0.2088  |       |
| sd    | 1.1216     | 0.8471     | 1.2317     | 0.6709     | 0.4937   | 0.7005   |           | 1.1216     | 0.8471     | 1.2317     | 0.6709     | 0.4937   | 0.7005   |           | 1.1216     | 0.8471     | 1.2317     | 0.6709     | 0.4937   | 0.7005   |       |
| MSE   | 1.9674     | 1.3497     | 2.3344     | 0.5214     | 0.2797   | 0.5344   |           | 1.9674     | 1.3497     | 2.3344     | 0.5214     | 0.2797   | 0.5344   |           | 1.9674     | 1.3497     | 2.3344     | 0.5214     | 0.2797   | 0.5344   |       |

Table 9: Biases, standard deviations and mean square errors of the classical and robust procedures, under $C_{0,l}$ and $C_{1,l}$, when $h = 0.2$ and the missing probability is estimated parametrically or nonparametrically, for Model II.

<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$WSE_{LS}$</th>
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<th>$WSE_{R}$</th>
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<td>0.7388</td>
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Parametric estimator of $p(x, t)$  
Nadaraya-Watson estimator of $p(x, t)$
Figure 1: Boxplots for the estimates of the marginal location parameter for the classical and robust proposals with bandwidth $h = 0.2$ when $p(x, t) \equiv 1$, for Model I.
Figure 2: Boxplots for the estimates of the marginal location parameter for the classical and robust proposals with bandwidth $h = 0.2$ when $p(x, t) \equiv 0.8$, for Model I.
Figure 3: Boxplots for the estimates of the marginal location parameter for the classical and robust proposals with bandwidth $h = 0.2$ when $p(x, t) \equiv 0.4 + 0.5 \cos^2(2t + 0.4)$, for Model I.
Figure 4: Boxplots for the estimates of the marginal location parameter for the classical and robust proposals with bandwidth \( h = 0.2 \) when \( p(x, t) \equiv 0.4 + 0.5 \cos^2(2x + 0.4) \), for Model I.
Figure 5: Boxplots for the estimates of the marginal location parameter for the classical and robust proposals with bandwidth $h = 0.2$ when $p(x, t) = 0.4 + 0.5 \cos^2(2x + 0.4)\), for Model I.
Figure 6: Boxplots for the estimates of the regression parameter $\beta$ with bandwidth $h = 0.2$, for Model I.