NONPARAMETRIC PRIORS FOR VECTORS OF SURVIVAL FUNCTIONS

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Abstract: The paper proposes a new nonparametric prior for two-dimensional vectors of survival functions \((S_1, S_2)\). The definition is based on the Lévy copula and it is used to model, in a nonparametric Bayesian framework, two-sample survival data. Such an application yields a natural extension of the more familiar neutral to the right process of Doksum (1974) adopted for drawing inferences on single survival functions. We then obtain a description of the posterior distribution of \((S_1, S_2)\), conditionally on possibly right-censored data. As a by-product, we find that the marginal distribution of a pair of observations from the two samples coincides with the Marshall–Olkin or the Weibull distribution according to specific choices of the marginal Lévy measures.

Key words and phrases: Bayesian nonparametrics, completely random measures, dependent stable processes, Lévy copulas, posterior distribution, right-censored data, survival function.

1. Introduction

A typical approach to nonparametric priors is in the use of completely random measures, namely random measures inducing independent random variables when evaluated on pairwise disjoint measurable sets. The Dirichlet process introduced by Ferguson (1974) is a noteworthy example being generated, in distribution, by the normalization of a gamma random measure. Other well-known examples appear in the survival analysis literature. In Doksum (1974), a prior for the survival function is given by

\[ S(t|\mu) = \mathbb{P}[Y > t | \mu] = \exp\{-\mu(0,t]\} \quad \forall t \geq 0, \tag{1.1} \]

where \(\mu\) is a completely random measure defined on some probability space \((\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})\) such that \(\mathbb{P}[\lim_{t \to \infty} \mu((0,t]) = \infty] = 1\). As shown in Doksum (1974), (1.1) defines a neutral to the right (NTR) prior, namely a random probability measure such that the random variables

\[ 1 - S(t_1|\mu), 1 - \frac{S(t_2|\mu)}{S(t_1|\mu)} \ldots, 1 - \frac{S(t_n|\mu)}{S(t_{n-1}|\mu)} \]
are mutually independent for any choice of $0 < t_1 < \cdots < t_n < \infty$. When referring to (1.1) for a survival time $Y$, we henceforth use the notation $Y|\mu \sim \text{NTR}(\mu)$. According to an alternative approach of Hjort [1990], a beta completely random measure is used to define a prior for the cumulative hazard function

$$\Lambda(t|\mu) = \int_0^t \mathbb{P}[s \leq Y \leq s + ds|Y \geq s, \mu] = \mu(0,t]. \quad (1.2)$$

These two constructions are equivalent. As shown in Hjort [1990], a prior for the survival function is NTR if and only if its corresponding cumulative hazard is a completely random measure. Moreover, if $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n$ are the first $n$ elements of a sequence of exchangeable survival times, one can explicitly evaluate the posterior distribution of the survival function and of the cumulative hazard as defined in (1.1) and in (1.2). The former can be found in Ferguson [1973] and in Ferguson and Phadia [1979], and the latter in Hjort [1990].

Here we introduce priors for vectors of dependent survival $(S_1, S_2)$ or cumulative hazard $(\Lambda_1, \Lambda_2)$ functions. This is accomplished by resorting to vectors of completely random measures $(\mu_1, \mu_2)$, with fixed margins, such that each gives rise to a univariate NTR prior. The dependence between $\mu_1$ and $\mu_2$ is devised in such a way that the vector measure $(\mu_1, \mu_2)$ is completely random, that is, for any pair of disjoint measurable sets $A$ and $B$, the vectors $(\mu_1(A), \mu_2(A))$ and $(\mu_1(B), \mu_2(B))$ are independent. An appropriate tool to achieve this goal is the Lévy copula, see Tankov [2003], Cont and Tankov [2004], and Kallsen and Tankov [2006].

A typical application where this model is useful concerns survival, or failure, times related to statistical units drawn from two separate groups such as, e.g., in the analysis of time-to-response outcomes in group-randomized intervention trials. Suppose, for example, that statistical units are patients suffering from a certain illness, and that they are split into two groups according to the treatment received. Let $Y^{(1)}_{i1}, \ldots, Y^{(1)}_{in_1}$ and $Y^{(2)}_{i1}, \ldots, Y^{(2)}_{in_2}$ be the survival times related to $n_1$ and $n_2$ units drawn from the first and the second group, respectively. Then, one can assume that

$$S(u,v) = \mathbb{P} \left[ Y^{(1)}_i > u, Y^{(2)}_j > v \bigg| (\mu_1, \mu_2) \right] = \exp\{-\mu_1(0,u) - \mu_2(0,v)\}, \quad (1.3)$$

$$\mathbb{P} \left[ Y^{(i)}_1 > t_1, \ldots, Y^{(i)}_n > t_n \bigg| (\mu_1, \mu_2) \right] = \prod_{j=1}^n \exp\{-\mu_i(0,t_j)\}, \quad i = 1, 2, \quad (1.4)$$

for any $u, v, t_1, \ldots, t_n$ positive. According to (1.3) and (1.4), we assume exchangeability in each group; this seems natural since patients sharing the same
treatment might be thought of as homogeneous. Given the marginal random survival functions, the lifetimes, or times-to-event, are assumed independent among the two groups. This is similar to frailty models where, conditional on the frailty, the two survival times are independent. The dependence among the data, reasonable since people from the two groups share the same kind of illness, is induced indirectly by the dependence between the two marginal survival functions. This approach has some interesting advantages: (i) it leads to a representation of the posterior distribution of \((S_1, S_2)\), or of \((\Lambda_1, \Lambda_2)\), which is an extension of the univariate case; (ii) the resulting representation of the Laplace functional of the bivariate process suggests the definition of a new measure of dependence between survival functions; (iii) for appropriate choices of \(\mu_1\) and \(\mu_2\), the marginal distribution of \((Y^{(1)}, Y^{(2)})\) coincides with some well–known bivariate survival functions, such as the Marshall–Olkin and the Weibull distributions. Recently, Ishwaran and Zarepour (2009) gave a definition of vectors of completely random measures based on series representations, termed bivariate \(G\)–measures.

Our results also connect to an active area of research in Bayesian nonparametric statistics. Indeed, exchangeable models commonly used in Bayesian inference are not well suited for dealing with regression problems, and new priors that incorporate covariates information have been recently proposed. These are referred to as dependent processes, the most prominent example being the dependent Dirichlet process introduced by MacEachern (1999, 2000, 2001). Later developments on dependent Dirichlet processes can be found in De Iorio et al. (2004), Griffin and Steel (2004), Rodríguez, Dunson and Gelfand (2008), Dunson, Xue and Carin (2008), and Dunson and Park (2008). The idea in these papers is to construct a family \(\{\tilde{P}_z : z \in Z\}\) of random probability measures indexed by a covariate (or vector of covariates) \(z\) taking values in some set \(Z\). Hence, one defines \(\tilde{P}_z\) as a discrete random probability measure \(\sum \pi_i(z) \delta_{X_i(z)}\) with both random masses \(\pi_i\) and atoms \(X_i\) depending on the \(z\) values, with the \(\pi_i\)’s determined through a stick–breaking procedure. The nonparametric prior we propose here can be seen as a dependent process with \(Z\) consisting of two points \(\{z_1, z_2\}\), the dependence structure between \(\tilde{P}_{z_1}\) and \(\tilde{P}_{z_2}\) being determined by a Lévy copula. The main advantage of our model is the possibility of deriving closed form expressions for Bayesian estimators that, at least to our knowledge, cannot be found by resorting to dependent stick–breaking processes. Another prior that fits into this framework is the bivariate Dirichlet process of Walker and Muliere (2003).

The structure of the paper is as follows. In Section 2 we recall some elementary facts concerning completely random measures. In Section 3 we describe the Lévy copula. Section 4 illustrates the new prior and some of its relevant
properties. In Section 5, a description of the posterior distribution is provided. Section 6 connects our work with the analysis of cumulative hazards. Section 7 illustrates an application with a data set of right-censored samples. Section 8 contains some concluding remarks. All proofs are deferred to the Appendix.

2. Some Preliminaries

In this section we briefly recall the notion of completely random measure (CRM). A completely random measure $\mu$ on a complete and separable metric space $X$ is a measurable function defined on a probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and taking values in the space of all measures on $X$, such that for any choice of sets $A_1, \ldots, A_n$ in the $\sigma$-field $\mathcal{F}$ of Borel subsets of $X$ such that $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ for any $i \neq j$, the random variables $\mu(A_1), \ldots, \mu(A_n)$ are mutually independent. It is well–known that $\mu = \mu_c + \sum_{i=1}^q J_i \delta_{x_i}$, where $\mu_c$ is a CRM such that, for some measure $\nu$ on $X \times \mathbb{R}^+$,

$$E \left[ e^{-\lambda \mu_c(A)} \right] = e^{-\int_{A \times \mathbb{R}^+} (1-e^{-\lambda x}) \nu(dx,dx)} \quad \forall A \in \mathcal{F}, \quad \forall \lambda > 0, \quad (2.1)$$

$x_1, \ldots, x_q$ are fixed points of discontinuity in $X$, and the jumps $J_1, \ldots, J_q$ are independent and non–negative random variables independent of $\mu_c$. With no loss of generality we omit the consideration of the fixed jump points and take $\mu = \mu_c$.

The measure $\nu$ in (2.1) is the Lévy measure. See Kingman (1993) for an elegant and deep account on CRMs. As anticipated in the previous section, when $X = \mathbb{R}^+$ a NTR process is defined as a random probability measure whose distribution function $\{F(t) : t \geq 0\}$ has the same distribution as $\{1 - e^{-\mu(0,t)} : t \geq 0\}$.

If we wish to make use of (1.3) and (1.4), it would be desirable that the probability distribution of $(\mu_1, \mu_2)$ be characterized by

$$E \left[ e^{-\lambda_1 \mu_1(0,t)-\lambda_2 \mu_2(0,t)} \right] = e^{-\int_{(0,t) \times \mathbb{R}^+} [1-e^{-\lambda_1 x_1-\lambda_2 x_2}] \nu(dx,dx_1,dx_2)}$$

for any $t \geq 0$ and $\lambda_1, \lambda_2 > 0$. Hence the vector $(\mu_1, \mu_2)$ has independent increments and the measure $\nu$ is the associated Lévy measure. Given its importance in later discussion, for the sake of simplicity we let

$$\psi_t(\lambda_1, \lambda_2) := \int_{(0,t) \times \mathbb{R}^+} [1-e^{-\lambda_1 x_1-\lambda_2 x_2}] \nu(dx,dx_1,dx_2), \quad \forall \lambda_1, \lambda_2 > 0, \quad (2.2)$$

denote the Laplace exponent of the (vector) random measure $(\mu_1, \mu_2)$. Introduce the function $h_{t_1,t_2}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2) = \psi_{t_1\wedge t_2}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2) - \psi_{t_1\wedge t_2}(\lambda_1, 0) - \psi_{t_1\wedge t_2}(0, \lambda_2)$, with $a \wedge b := \min\{a, b\}$ for any $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$. Note that using the independence of the increments one has, for any $t_1 > 0, t_2 > 0$,

$$E \left[ e^{-\lambda_1 \mu_1(0,t_1)-\lambda_2 \mu_2(0,t_2)} \right] = e^{-\psi_{t_1}(\lambda_1) - \psi_{t_2}(\lambda_2) - h_{t_1,t_2}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2)}, \quad (2.3)$$
where
\[
\psi_{i,t}(\lambda) := \int_{[0,t] \times \mathbb{R}^+} [1 - e^{-\lambda x}] \tilde{\nu}_i(dx,ds) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^+} [1 - e^{-\lambda x}] \tilde{\nu}_{i,t}(dx),
\]
\tilde{\nu}_i is the (marginal) Lévy measure of \( \mu_i \), and \( \tilde{\nu}_{i,t}(dx) := \tilde{\nu}_i((0,t] \times dx) \), for \( i \in \{1,2\} \). Note that the marginal Lévy measures \( \tilde{\nu}_1 \) and \( \tilde{\nu}_2 \) can be deduced from \( \nu \) since, for example, \( \tilde{\nu}_1(dx,ds) = \tilde{\nu}(ds \times dx \times \mathbb{R}^+) \). Consequently, one has \( \psi_{1,t}(\lambda) = \psi_{1}(\lambda,0) \) and \( \psi_{2,t} = \psi_{2}(0,\lambda) \). It is further assumed that
\[
\tilde{\nu}_t(dx_1, dx_2) := \tilde{\nu}((0,t] \times dx_1 \times dx_2) = \gamma(t) \nu(x_1,x_2) \, dx_1 \, dx_2 \tag{2.4}
\]
for some increasing and non-negative function \( \gamma : \mathbb{R}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+ \) such that \( \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \gamma(t) = \infty \); in this case we say that the vector measure \( (\mu_1,\mu_2) \) is homogeneous \cite{Ferguson and Phadia (1979)} and for simplicity we refer to \( \nu \) in \eqref{2.4} as the corresponding bivariate Lévy density. It is immediate to check that, in this case, \( \psi_t = \gamma(t) \psi \). Whenever \( \tilde{\nu}_t \) is not representable as in \eqref{2.4}, i.e. it cannot be expressed as a product of a factor depending only on \( t \) and another depending only on \((x_1,x_2)\), we say that \((\mu_1,\mu_2)\) is non–homogeneous. Finally, in the sequel we write \((\mu_1,\mu_2) \sim \mathcal{M}_2(\nu;\gamma)\) to denote a homogeneous vector of completely random measures characterized by \eqref{2.3} with Lévy intensity representable as in \eqref{2.4}.

3. Lévy Copulae

The notion of a Lévy copula parallels the concept of distribution copulas and enables one to define a vector of completely random measures \((\mu_1,\mu_2)\) on \((\mathbb{R}^+)^2\) starting from marginal CRMs \(\mu_1\) and \(\mu_2\) with respective Lévy intensities \(\{\tilde{\nu}_{1,t} : t \geq 0\}\) and \(\{\tilde{\nu}_{2,t} : t \geq 0\}\). We explicitly consider the case where the Lévy measure can be represented as
\[
\tilde{\nu}_{i,t}(dx) = \gamma(t) \nu_i(x) \, dx \quad i = 1,2 \tag{3.1}
\]
for any \( t \geq 0 \), where \( t \mapsto \gamma(t) \) is a non–negative, increasing and differentiable function on \([0,\infty)\) such that \( \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \gamma(t) = \infty \) and \( \gamma(0) \equiv 0 \). The function \( \nu_i : \mathbb{R}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+ \) is called the Lévy density and it is such that \( \int_0^\infty (x \wedge 1) \nu_i(x) \, dx < \infty \). Correspondingly one has \( \psi_{i,t} = \gamma(t) \psi_i \), where \( \psi_i(\lambda) = \int_0^\infty [1 - e^{-\lambda x}] \nu_i(x) \, dx \) for \( i = 1,2 \). Moreover, the function
\[
x \mapsto U_i(x) = \int_x^\infty \nu_i(s) \, ds
\]
defines the tail–integral corresponding to \( \nu_i, i \in \{1,2\} \), which is continuous and monotone decreasing on \( \mathbb{R}^+ \). If the bivariate Lévy density \( \nu \), as displayed in
Combining (3.3) with the Clayton copula $C$, we shall see, the parameter $\theta$ yielding a completely dependent bivariate process with independent increments is

There are some examples of Lévy copulas whose form is reminiscent of copulas $(i)$ $i = 1$ is positive the independence copula. The case of complete dependence arises when, for any $A$ $\mu$ and later extended in Kallsen and Tankov (2006) to encompass Lévy processes with jumps of any sign. A full account of Lévy copulas, with applications to financial modelling, can be found in Cont and Tankov (2004).

**Definition 1.** A positive Lévy copula is a function $C : [0, \infty]^2 \rightarrow [0, \infty]$ such that

- (i) $C(x_1, 0) = C(0, x_2) = 0$;
- (ii) for all $x_1 < y_1$ and $x_2 < y_2$, $C(x_1, x_2) + C(y_1, y_2) - C(x_1, y_2) - C(y_1, x_2) \geq 0$;
- (iii) $C(x_1, \infty) = x_1$ and $C(\infty, x_2) = x_2$.

There are some examples of Lévy copulas whose form is reminiscent of copulas for distributions. As a first case, consider a vector $(\mu_1, \mu_2)$ of CRMs with $\mu_1$ and $\mu_2$ independent. By virtue of Proposition 5.3 in Cont and Tankov (2004) one has $\nu(A) = \nu_1(A_1) + \nu_2(A_2)$, where $A_1 = \{x_1 : (x_1, 0) \in A\}$ and $A_2 = \{x_2 : (0, x_2) \in A\}$. The corresponding copula turns out to be $C_{\perp}(x_1, x_2) = x_1 \mathbb{1}_{x_2=\infty} + x_2 \mathbb{1}_{x_1=\infty}$, the independence copula. The case of complete dependence arises when, for any positive $s$ and $t$, one has either $\mu_i(0, s] - \mu_i(0, s-) > \mu_i(0, t] - \mu_i(0, t-)$ for any $i = 1, 2$, or $\mu_i(0, s] - \mu_i(0, s-) < \mu_i(0, t] - \mu_i(0, t-)$, for any $i = 1, 2$. A copula yielding a completely dependent bivariate process with independent increments is $C_{\parallel}(x_1, x_2) = x_1 \wedge x_2$. Apart from these two extreme cases, there are intermediate cases of dependence that can be attained, for example, by means of the Clayton copula

$$C_{\theta}(x_1, x_2) = \left\{ x_1^{-\theta} + x_2^{-\theta} \right\}^{-\frac{1}{\theta}}, \quad \theta > 0. \quad (3.2)$$

As we shall see, the parameter $\theta$ regulates the degree of dependence between $\mu_1$ and $\mu_2$.

When the copula $C$ and the tail integrals are sufficiently smooth the bivariate Lévy density $\nu$, with fixed marginals $\nu_1$ and $\nu_2$, can be recovered from

$$\nu(x_1, x_2) = \left. \frac{\partial^2}{\partial u \partial v} C(u, v) \right|_{u=U_1(x_1), v=U_2(x_2)} \nu_1(x_1) \nu_2(x_2). \quad (3.3)$$

Combining (3.3) with the Clayton copula $C_{\theta}$ in (3.2), one has the following.
Proposition 1. Let \( \nu_1 \) and \( \nu_2 \) be two univariate Lévy densities such that, if \( \nu(\cdot, \cdot; \theta) \) is obtained from \( \mathcal{B} \) with \( C = C_\theta \) given in \( \mathcal{B} \), one has \( \int_{\|x\| \leq 1} \|x\| \nu(x_1, x_2; \theta) \, dx_1 \, dx_2 < \infty \). Then

\[
\psi(\lambda_1, \lambda_2; \theta) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^+} \left[ 1 - e^{-\lambda_1 x_1 - \lambda_2 x_2} \right] \nu(x_1, x_2; \theta) \, dx_1 \, dx_2
\]

\[
= \psi_\perp(\lambda_1, \lambda_2) - \lambda_1 \lambda_2 \int_{\mathbb{R}^+} e^{-\lambda_1 x_1 - \lambda_2 x_2} C_\theta(U_1(x_1), U_2(x_2)) \, dx_1 \, dx_2 , \tag{3.4}
\]

where \( \psi_\perp(\lambda_1, \lambda_2) = \psi_1(\lambda_1) + \psi_2(\lambda_2) \) is the Laplace exponent corresponding to the independence case.

According to \( \mathcal{B} \), the term responsible for the dependence is

\[
\kappa(\theta; \lambda_1, \lambda_2) := \lambda_1 \lambda_2 \int_{\mathbb{R}^+} e^{-\lambda_1 x_1 - \lambda_2 x_2} C_\theta(U_1(x_1), U_2(x_2)) \, dx_1 \, dx_2 ,
\]

and this will be used to introduce a novel measure of association between \( \mu_1 \) and \( \mu_2 \). In \( \text{Tankov} \, 2003 \) it is shown that, as \( \theta \to 0 \), one approaches the situation of independence, \( \nu(x_1, x_2) = \nu_1(x_1)\delta_{[0]}(x_2) + \nu_2(x_2)\delta_{[0]}(x_1) \), and the corresponding Laplace exponent reduces to \( \psi(\lambda_1, \lambda_2) = \psi_\perp(\lambda_1, \lambda_2) \). On the other hand, as \( \theta \to \infty \), the limiting two-dimensional Lévy measure is concentrated on the set \( \{ (x_1, x_2) : U_1(x_1) = U_2(x_2) \} \). In this case the limiting Lévy measure does not have a density with respect to Lebesgue measure on \( \mathbb{R}^2 \), but is still of finite variation. See Section A2 in Appendix for a proof. The structure achieved through this limiting process is that of complete dependence. When \( \psi_1 = \psi_2 = \psi^* \), the Laplace exponent with complete dependence coincides with \( \psi(\lambda_1, \lambda_2) = \psi^*(\lambda_1) + \psi^*(\lambda_2) - \psi^*(\lambda_1 + \lambda_2) \).

Many common measures of association depend monotonically on \( \theta \) through the function \( \kappa(\theta) := \kappa(\theta; 1, 1) \). This will become apparent in the next section. Here we confine ourselves to pointing out a few properties of the function \( \kappa(\theta) \).

Proposition 2. Let \( \nu_1 \) and \( \nu_2 \) be two Lévy densities such that if \( \nu \) is obtained from \( \mathcal{B} \) with \( C = C_\theta \), one has \( \int_{\|x\| \leq 1} \|x\| \nu(x_1, x_2) \, dx_1 \, dx_2 < \infty \). Then

(i) \( \lim_{\theta \to 0} \kappa(\theta) = 0 \);

(ii) \( \lim_{\theta \to \infty} \kappa(\theta) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^+} e^{-x_1 - x_2} \min\{U_1(x_1), U_2(x_2)\} \, dx_1 \, dx_2 \);

(iii) \( \theta \mapsto \kappa(\theta) \) is a non decreasing function.
One can thus note that, setting $\kappa(\infty) := \lim_{\theta \to \infty} \kappa(\theta)$, 
\[
\kappa(\theta) = \frac{\kappa(\theta)}{\kappa(\infty)} \in (0, 1).
\] (3.5)
Values of $\kappa(\theta)$ close to 0 suggest a weak dependence between $\mu_1$ and $\mu_2$. On the other hand, values of $\kappa(\theta)$ close to 1 suggest the presence of a strong dependence among the jumps of the underlying random measures. If $\mu_1$ and $\mu_2$ are used to define NTR priors according to (1.3) and (1.4), the dependence between survival functions can be measured through $\kappa$ independent of the point $t$ at which the survival functions $S_1$ and $S_2$ can be evaluated. This is a straightforward consequence of the homogeneity of $(\mu_1, \mu_2)$.

4. Priors for Dependent Survival Functions

Our model can be described as follows. Suppose there are two distinct groups of individuals and denote by $Y_i^{(1)}$ and $Y_i^{(2)}$ the survival times for individuals in the first group and the second group, respectively. It is assumed that
\[
Y_j^{(i)} \mid (\mu_1, \mu_2) \sim \text{NTR}((\mu_i), \ i = 1, 2, \ (\mu_1, \mu_2) \sim \mathcal{M}_2(\nu; \gamma). (4.1)
\]
Hence, each sequence $(Y_j^{(i)})_{j \geq 1}$ is exchangeable and governed by a NTR($\mu_i$) prior, $i \in \{1, 2\}$. Given $(\mu_1, \mu_2)$, any two observations $Y_j^{(1)}$ and $Y_l^{(2)}$ are independent. But they are marginally dependent in the sense that dependence, generated via a Lévy copula, arises when integrating out the vector $(\mu_1, \mu_2)$. It is worth noting that, by Proposition 3 of Dey, Erickson and Ramamoorthi (2003), if each marginal Lévy measure in (3.1) is such that $\gamma(t) > 0$ for any $t > 0$ and $\nu_i$ is supported by $\mathbb{R}^+$, then the support of $t \mapsto S_i(t) = 1 - \exp\{-\mu_i(0, t]\}$, with respect to the topology of weak convergence, coincides with the whole space $S$ of survival functions on $\mathbb{R}^+$. Hence, the support of the vector $(S_1, S_2)$, with respect to the usual product topology, coincides with the space $S^2$ of bivariate vectors of survival functions.

A consequence of the proposed model is the form of such a marginal distribution for the vector of survival times $(Y^{(1)}, Y^{(2)})$. Indeed, one obtains an expression which encompasses some well–known bivariate distributions used in survival analysis, such as the Marshall–Olkin and the Weibull.

**Proposition 3.** Suppose $Y^{(1)}$ and $Y^{(2)}$ are survival times modeled as at (4.1). Then
\[
P \left[ Y^{(1)} > s, Y^{(2)} > t \right] = \exp\{-\gamma(s) \xi_1 - \gamma(t) \xi_2 - \gamma(s \vee t) \xi_{1,2}\}, (4.2)
\]
where \( a \lor b = \max\{a, b\} \), \( \xi_1 = \psi(1, 1) - \psi(0, 1) > 0 \), \( \xi_2 = \psi(1, 1) - \psi(1, 0) > 0 \), and \( \xi_{1,2} = \psi(1,0) + \psi(0,1) - \psi(1,1) > 0 \).

The expression on the right-hand side of (4.2) is a typical representation for a bivariate survival distribution, in fact \( \gamma(t) \xi_1 \) and \( \gamma(t) \xi_2 \) are the marginal cumulative hazard functions, whereas \( \gamma(s \lor t) \xi_{1,2} \) defines the association structure. If \( \gamma(t) \equiv t^\theta \), then (4.2) reduces to the Marshall–Olkin model, and if \( \gamma(t) \equiv t^\alpha \), one has a bivariate Weibull distribution. For the Clayton copula, in (4.2) one has

\[
\xi_{1,2} = \int_{(\mathbb{R}^+)^2} e^{-x_1-x_2} C_\theta(U_1(x_1), U_2(x_2)) \, dx_1 \, dx_2 = \kappa(\theta).
\]

The random probability distribution arising from the specification in (4.1) can also be described in terms of random partitions in the same spirit of the characterization of the univariate NTR priors in [Doksum (1974)].

**Proposition 4.** Let \( F \) be a bivariate random distribution function on \((\mathbb{R}^+)^2\) and \( \mu_{i,t} = \mu_i(0,t] \), for \( i \in \{1, 2\} \) and \( t > 0 \). Then \( F(s,t) \) has the same distribution as \( \{1 - e^{-\mu_1.s}\} \{1 - e^{-\mu_2.t}\} \) for some bivariate completely random measure \((\mu_1, \mu_2)\), if and only if, for any choice of \( k \geq 1 \) and \( 0 < t_1 < \cdots < t_k \), there exist \( k \) independent random vectors \((V_{1,1}, V_{2,1}), \ldots, (V_{1,k}, V_{2,k})\) such that

\[
(F(t_1,t_1), F(t_2,t_2), \ldots, F(t_k,t_k)) \equiv (V_{1,1}, V_{2,1}, [1 - \bar{V}_{1,1}][1 - \bar{V}_{2,1}], \ldots, [1 - \prod_{j=1}^k \bar{V}_{1,j}][1 - \prod_{j=1}^k \bar{V}_{2,j}]). \tag{4.3}
\]

where \( \bar{V}_{i,j} = 1 - V_{i,j} \) for any \( i \) and \( j \).

One can use \( \bar{k}(\theta) \) as a measure of dependence between \( \mu_1 \) and \( \mu_2 \). The statistical meaning of the association measure \( \bar{k}(\theta) \) becomes apparent if we compare it with the traditional correlation \( \rho_\theta(t) \) between the marginal NTR survival functions \( S_1(t) = \mathbb{P}[Y^{(1)} > t \mid \mu_1] \) and \( S_2(t) = \mathbb{P}[Y^{(2)} > t \mid \mu_2] \).

**Proposition 5.** Let \( \kappa_i := \int_0^{\infty} (1 - e^{-x})^2 \nu_i(x) \, dx \) for each \( i \in \{1, 2\} \). Then

\[
\rho_\theta(t) = \frac{e^{\gamma(t)\kappa(\theta)} - 1}{\sqrt{[e^{\gamma(t)\kappa_1} - 1][e^{\gamma(t)\kappa_2} - 1]}} \tag{4.4}
\]

for any \( t > 0 \) and \( \theta > 0 \). Moreover if \( \nu_1 = \nu_2 = \nu^* \), then \( \kappa(\infty) = \int_0^{\infty} (1 - e^{-x})^2 \nu^*(x) \, dx \) and \( \rho_\theta(t) < \bar{k}(\theta) \) for any \( t > 0 \) and \( \theta > 0 \).
The merit of resorting to Lévy copulas, with the Clayton family \( \{C_\theta : \theta > 0\} \), is that it enables one to specify and compare situations of complete dependence with the actual structure of dependence between the marginal random survival functions.

Turning attention to the concordance between survival times \( Y^{(1)} \) and \( Y^{(2)} \) from the two samples, one can prove the following.

**Proposition 6.** If \( \rho_\theta(Y^{(1)}, Y^{(2)}) \) is the correlation coefficient between survival times \( Y^{(1)} \) and \( Y^{(2)} \), one has, for any \( \theta > 0 \),

\[
\rho_\theta(Y^{(1)}, Y^{(2)}) = \frac{\int_0^\infty \int_0^\infty e^{-\gamma(t)} \psi_1(s) \psi_2(t) \{e^{\gamma(s\wedge t)} \kappa(\theta) - 1\} ds dt}{\prod_{i=1} \sqrt{2} \int_0^\infty t e^{-\gamma(t)} \psi_i(t) dt - \left(\int_0^\infty e^{-\gamma(t)} \psi_i(t) dt\right)^2},
\]

where \( \psi_i(\lambda) = \int_0^\infty [1 - e^{-\lambda x}] \nu_i(x) dx \) for any \( i \in \{1, 2\} \).

In the special case that \( \gamma(t) \equiv t \), it is immediate from (4.5) that \( \rho_\theta(Y^{(1)}, Y^{(2)}) = \kappa(\theta)/[\psi_1(1) + \psi_2(1) - \kappa(\theta)] \) for any \( \theta > 0 \). Hence, one can express the correlation between \( Y^{(1)} \) and \( Y^{(2)} \) in terms of \( \kappa(\theta) \), which contributes to measuring the dependence between the random measures \( \mu_1 \) and \( \mu_2 \). Moreover, as expected, \( \theta \mapsto \rho_\theta(Y^{(1)}, Y^{(2)}) \) is an increasing function.

We close the present section with an example of a prior for nonparametric inference that is employed in the illustrative section.

**Example 1.** (Stable processes). Let \( \mu_1 \) and \( \mu_2 \) be \( \alpha_1 \)-stable and \( \alpha_2 \)-stable random measures, respectively. Thus \( \mu_i \) is characterized by the Lévy density \( \nu_i(x) = Ax^{-1-\alpha_i}/\Gamma(1-\alpha_i) \), where \( \alpha_i \) is a parameter in \( (0, 1) \), \( i \in \{1, 2\} \), and \( A > 0 \) is a constant. The \( t \)th tail integral is \( U_i(x) = Ax^{-\alpha_i}/[\alpha_i \Gamma(1-\alpha_i)] \) for any \( x > 0 \). Using the copula \( C_\theta \) described in (3.2), one can determine the two-dimensional Lévy density on \( \mathbb{R}^+ \times \mathbb{R}^+ \):

\[
\nu(x_1, x_2; \theta) = A(1 + \theta)(\alpha_1 \alpha_2)^{\theta+1} \Gamma(1-\alpha_1) \Gamma(1-\alpha_2)^{\theta} \times
\frac{x_1^{\alpha_1\theta-1} x_2^{\alpha_2\theta-1}}{\left\{\alpha_1^\theta \Gamma(1-\alpha_1) x_1^{\alpha_1\theta} + \alpha_2^\theta \Gamma(1-\alpha_2) x_2^{\alpha_2\theta}\right\}^{1/\theta+2}}.
\]

If \( \alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \alpha \), (4.6) reduces to

\[
\nu(x_1, x_2; \theta) = A(1 + \theta)\alpha \Gamma(1-\alpha)^{\theta} \times \frac{x_1^{\alpha\theta-1} x_2^{\alpha\theta}}{\left\{x_1^{\alpha\theta} + x_2^{\alpha\theta}\right\}^{1/\theta+2}}.
\]

The correspondence between the triplet \((\nu_1, \nu_2, C_\theta)\) and \( \nu \) is one-to-one, and it is easy to see that the two-dimensional Lévy density on \((\mathbb{R}^+)^2 \) given in (4.6) is of
finite variation. Indeed, using polar coordinates, the integral $\int_{\|x\| \leq 1} \|x\| \nu(x_1, x_2) dx_1 dx_2$ is proportional to

$$\int_0^1 d\rho \int_0^{\pi/2} du \frac{\theta^{\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 - 1} \cos(u) \sin(u)^{\alpha_2 - 1}}{[\alpha_1 \Gamma(1-\alpha_1)(\rho \cos(u))^{\alpha_1} + \alpha_2 \Gamma(1-\alpha_2)(\rho \sin(u))^{\alpha_2}]^{1/\theta+2}}$$

which is finite for any $\theta > 0$. As for the Laplace exponent corresponding to $\nu$ in (4.6), one finds that $\psi(\lambda_1, \lambda_2; \theta)/A$ is

$$\frac{\lambda_1^{\alpha_1}}{\alpha_1} + \frac{\lambda_2^{\alpha_2}}{\alpha_2} - \lambda_1 \lambda_2 \int_{\mathbb{R}^+} e^{-\lambda_1 x_1 - \lambda_2 x_2} \left( \alpha_1 \Gamma(1-\alpha_1) x_1^{\alpha_1} + \alpha_2 \Gamma(1-\alpha_2) x_2^{\alpha_2} \right)^{-1/\theta} dx_1 dx_2.$$

Hence, in this case

$$\kappa(\theta) = A \int_{\mathbb{R}^+} e^{-x_1 - x_2} \left( \alpha_1 \Gamma(1-\alpha_1) x_1^{\alpha_1} + \alpha_2 \Gamma(1-\alpha_2) x_2^{\alpha_2} \right)^{-1/\theta} dx_1 dx_2,$$

an expression that can only be evaluated numerically or via simulation. As for the Laplace exponent $\psi(\lambda_1, \lambda_2; \theta)$, letting $\theta \to \infty$ one finds that $\psi(\lambda_1, \lambda_2; \infty)/A$ is

$$\frac{\lambda_1^{\alpha_1}}{\alpha_1} + \frac{\lambda_2^{\alpha_2}}{\alpha_2} - \frac{\lambda_2}{\alpha_2 \Gamma(1-\alpha_2)} \int_{\mathbb{R}^+} e^{-\lambda_2 (\alpha_2 \Gamma(1-\alpha_2)/\alpha_1 \Gamma(1-\alpha_1))^{1/\alpha_1} x_1^{\alpha_1} - \lambda_2 x} x^{-\alpha_2} dx$$

$$- \frac{\lambda_1}{\alpha_1 \Gamma(1-\alpha_1)} \int_{\mathbb{R}^+} e^{-\lambda_1 (\alpha_1 \Gamma(1-\alpha_1)/\alpha_2 \Gamma(1-\alpha_2))^{1/\alpha_2} x_2^{\alpha_2} - \lambda_1 x} x^{-\alpha_1} dx.$$

If further $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \alpha$, then $\psi(\lambda_1, \lambda_2; \infty) = A \{\lambda_1^{\alpha} + \lambda_2^{\alpha} - (\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)^{\alpha}\}/\alpha$. In Figure 1 we depict the behavior of the correlation coefficient $t \mapsto \rho(t)$ for different values of $\theta > 0$ and for $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = 0.5$. One notices an ordering of the curves describing the correlations between the marginal survival functions: the curve at the top corresponds to the largest value of $\theta$ being considered, and the lowest is associated to the smallest value for $\theta$.

Some simplification of $\kappa(\theta)$ and $\psi(\lambda_1, \lambda_2; \theta)$ (with $\theta < \infty$) arises when $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \alpha$ and $\theta = 1/\alpha$. For $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$,

$$\frac{\kappa(1/\alpha; \lambda_1, \lambda_2)}{A} = \frac{\lambda_1 \lambda_2}{\alpha \Gamma(1-\alpha) \Gamma(\alpha)} \int_0^\infty \frac{u^{\alpha-1}}{(\lambda_1 + u)(\lambda_2 + u)} du$$

$$= \frac{\lambda_1 \lambda_2}{\alpha \Gamma(1-\alpha) \Gamma(\alpha)} \pi \cosec(\alpha \pi) \frac{\lambda_1^{\alpha-1} - \lambda_2^{\alpha-1}}{\lambda_2 - \lambda_1} = \frac{\lambda_1 \lambda_2}{\alpha} \frac{[\lambda_1^{\alpha-1} - \lambda_2^{\alpha-1}]}{[\lambda_2 - \lambda_1]}$$,

since $\pi \cosec(\alpha \pi) = \Gamma(1-\alpha) \Gamma(\alpha)$. On the other hand, if $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \lambda > 0$, then $\kappa(1/\alpha; \lambda, \lambda) = A \alpha^{-1} (1 - \alpha) \lambda^\alpha$ and $\psi(\lambda, \lambda; 1/\alpha) = A \alpha^{-1} (1 + \alpha) \lambda^\alpha$. When
Figure 1. Correlation coefficient $\rho_\theta(t)$ corresponding to $\alpha = 0.5$ and $\theta = 1$ (first line from the top), $\theta = 1$ (second line), $\theta = 0.5$ (third line), $\theta = 0.3$ (fourth line).

$\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \alpha$ and $\theta = 1/\alpha$ one can also deduce from Proposition 5 the (prior) correlation between $S_1(t)$ and $S_2(t)$ that takes the form

$$
\rho_{1/\alpha}(t; A) = \frac{e^{(A(1-\alpha)/\alpha)t} - 1}{e^{(A(2-2\alpha)/\alpha)t} - 1}
$$

for any $t > 0$. Note that, given $A > 0$ and $t > 0$, the function $\alpha \mapsto \rho_{1/\alpha}(t; A)$ is decreasing with

$$
\lim_{\alpha \to 0} \rho_{1/\alpha}(t; A) = 1 \quad \lim_{\alpha \to 1} \rho_{1/\alpha}(t; A) = \frac{1}{2 \log 2}.
$$

Hence, this prior specification leads to a linear correlation between $S_1(t)$ and $S_2(t)$. Furthermore, one finds out that $A \mapsto \rho_{1/\alpha}(t; A)$ is decreasing for any $t$ and $\alpha$, with

$$
\lim_{A \to 0} \rho_{1/\alpha}(t; A) = \frac{1 - \alpha}{2 - 2\alpha} = \kappa\left(\frac{1}{\alpha}\right).
$$

Hence, a prior opinion reflecting strong correlation between $S_1(t)$ and $S_2(t)$ suggests a low value of $A$.

5. Posterior Analysis

We now tackle the determination of the posterior distribution of $(\mu_1, \mu_2)$ given possibly right-censored data; this will also allow us to determine Bayesian estimates of the survival functions $S_1$ and $S_2$ and to evaluate the dependence structure in light of the observations.

The data consist of survival times from the two groups of individuals, $\{Y_{(1)}^{(1)}\}_{j=1}^{n_1}$ and $\{Y_{(2)}^{(2)}\}_{j=1}^{n_2}$. We let $\{c_j^{(1)}\}_{j=1}^{n_1}$ and $\{c_j^{(2)}\}_{j=1}^{n_2}$ be the sets of censoring
times corresponding to the first and second group of survival times, respectively. If \( T_j^{(i)} = \min\{Y_j^{(i)}, c_j^{(i)}\} \) and \( \Delta_j^{(i)} = \mathbb{I}_{(0,c_j^{(i)})}(Y_j^{(i)}) \) for \( i \in \{1, 2\} \), the data are 
\[
D = \bigcup_{i=1}^{2} \{(T_j^{(i)}, \Delta_j^{(i)})\}_{j=1}^{n_i}.
\]
Clearly, \( \sum_{i=1}^{2} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \Delta_j^{(i)} = n_e \) is the number of exact observations being recorded, whereas \( n_e = n_1 + n_2 - n_c \) is the number of censored observations regardless of the originating group. Among the observations there might be ties so that we introduce \( \{(T_j^{(1)*}, \Delta_j^{(1)*})\}_{j=1}^{k_1} \) and \( \{(T_j^{(2)*}, \Delta_j^{(2)*})\}_{j=1}^{k_2} \) as the sets of distinct values of the observations relative to each group’s survival data. Since some of the distinct and unique data might be shared by both groups, the total number of distinct observations \( k \) in the full sample might be less than \( k_1 + k_2 \).

For our purposes it is useful to consider the order statistic \( (T_{(1)}, \ldots, T_{(k)}) \) of the \( k_1 + k_2 \) observations \( \bigcup_{i=1}^{2} \{T_1^{(i)}, \ldots, T_{k_i}^{(i)}\} \) regardless of the group of survival times they come from. Consider then the functions
\[
A \mapsto \kappa_i(A) = \sum_{r=1}^{n_i} \Delta_r^{(i)} \mathbb{I}_A(T_r^{(i)}) \quad A \mapsto \kappa_i^c(A) = \sum_{r=1}^{n_i} (1 - \Delta_r^{(i)}) \mathbb{I}_A(T_r^{(i)})
\]
for \( i \in \{1, 2\} \). Their meaning is apparent: \( \kappa_i(A) \) and \( \kappa_i^c(A) \) are the numbers of exact and censored (respectively) observations from group \( i \) belonging to set \( A \). With these we define \( \tilde{N}_i(s) := \kappa_i((s, \infty)) \), \( \tilde{N}_i^c(s) := \kappa_i^c((s, \infty)) \) and, for any \( j \in \{1, \ldots, k\} \) and \( i \in \{1, 2\} \), \( n_{j,i} = \kappa_i(\{T_{(j)}\}) \) and \( n_{j,i}^c = \kappa_i^c(\{T_{(j)}\}) \). These two last quantities denote the number of exact and censored (respectively) observations from group \( i \) coinciding with \( T_{(j)} \). For example, if \( \max\{n_{j,1}, n_{j,2}\} = 0 \), then it must be that \( \min\{n_{j,1}^c, n_{j,2}^c\} \geq 1 \) and \( T_{(j)} \) is a censored observation for group 1 or group 2 or for both groups. We also need the cumulative frequencies \( \tilde{n}_{j,i} = \sum_{r=j}^{k} n_{r,i} \) and \( \tilde{n}_{j,i}^c = \sum_{r=j}^{k} n_{r,i}^c \) for any \( j \in \{1, \ldots, k\} \). Complete these definitions by setting \( \tilde{n}_{k+1,i} = 0 \).

We can describe the posterior distribution of \( (\mu_1, \mu_2) \) given the data \( D \). Going forward, if \( t \mapsto \nu_t(x_1, x_2) \) is differentiable at \( t = t_0 \), we set
\[
\nu_t'(x_1, x_2) = \frac{\partial \nu_t(x_1, x_2)}{\partial t}\bigg|_{t=t_0}.
\]

**Proposition 7.** Let \( (\mu_1, \mu_2) \) be a two–dimensional completely random measure whose Lévy intensity is such that \( t \mapsto \nu_t(x_1, x_2) \) is differentiable on \( \mathbb{R}^+ \), and suppose that \( \mu_1 \) and \( \mu_2 \) are dependent. Then the posterior distribution of \( (\mu_1, \mu_2) \), given data \( D \), is the distribution of the random measure
\[
(\mu_1^*, \mu_2^*) + \sum_{\{r: \max\{\Delta_r^{(1)}, \Delta_r^{(2)}\} = 1\}} (J_{r,1} \Delta_r, J_{r,2} \Delta_r),
\]
where
(i) \((\mu^*_1, \mu^*_2)\) is a bivariate completely random measure with the Lévy intensity
\[
\nu^*_t(x_1, x_2) = \int_{(0, t]} e^{-(\tilde{N}_c^1(s)+\bar{N}_1(s))x_1-(\tilde{N}_c^2(s)+\bar{N}_2(s))x_2} \nu_s(x_1, x_2) \, ds,
\]

(ii) the vectors of jumps \((J_{r,1}, J_{r,2})\), for \(r \in \{i : \max\{\Delta_i^{(1)}, \Delta_i^{(2)}\} = 1\}\), are mutually independent and the \(r(j)\)th jump corresponding to the exact observation \(y_{r(j)}^e = T_{r(j)}\) has density
\[
\nu^e_{y_{r(j)}^e}(x_1, x_2) \propto \nu_{y_{r(j)}^e}(x_1, x_2) \prod_{i=1}^2 e^{-\tilde{n}_i^e + \bar{n}_j^{(i)} + 1} x_i (1 - e^{-x_i})^{n_j^e},\tag{5.2}
\]

(iii) the random measure \((\mu^*_1, \mu^*_2)\) is independent of the jumps \(\{(J_{r,1}, J_{r,2}) : r = 1, \ldots, k_e\}\), where \(k_e\) is the number of exact (distinct) observations in the sample.

Proposition 7 points out a conjugacy property: the bivariate survival function is again of the type (4.1), and it is induced by a vector of CRMs arising as the sum of (i) a vector of CRMs with an updated Lévy intensity and without fixed jumps, and (ii) a set of jumps corresponding to the exact observations. Thus we are able to preserve the conjugacy property known to hold for univariate NTR priors. See Doksum (1974). Note that when \(\nu_t\) is generated via a copula with marginals as in (3.1), in Proposition 7 one just needs \(t \mapsto \gamma(t)\) to be differentiable and \(\nu^e_{y_{r(j)}^e}(x_1, x_2) = \gamma'(t_0) \nu(x_1, x_2)\).

The assumption of dependence between \(\mu_1\) and \(\mu_2\) can be removed. In this case, however, a slightly different representation of the posterior distribution of \((\mu_1, \mu_2)\) holds. Indeed, one has that, conditional on the observed data, \(\mu_1\) and \(\mu_2\) are still independent with
\[
P[\mu_1 \in A_1, \mu_2 \in A_2 | D] = P[\mu_1 \in A_1 | D_1] P[\mu_2 \in A_2 | D_2],
\]
where \(D_1 := \{(T_i^{(1)}, \Delta_i^{(1)})\}_{i=1}^{n_1}\) and \(D_2 := \{(T_i^{(2)}, \Delta_i^{(2)})\}_{i=1}^{n_2}\), and one can easily verify that the representation of each marginal posterior coincides with the one provided in Doksum (1974). See also Ferguson (1974) and Ferguson and Phadia (1979).

6. Cumulative Hazards

Our approach to dependent survival functions in Sections 4 and 5 can be easily adapted to deal with vectors of cumulative hazards. A Bayesian nonparametric prior for a single cumulative hazard \(\Lambda\) was first proposed by Hjort (1990), namely the celebrated beta process with independent increments. Moreover,
as shown in Hjort (1990), a prior for the cumulative hazard coincides with an independent increments process if and only if the corresponding cumulative distribution function is neutral to the right. This correspondence holds true when one considers vectors of survival or cumulative hazard functions. Following Basu (1971), let

\[
\lambda(s, t) := \lim_{\Delta s \to 0, \Delta t \to 0} P \left[ s \leq Y^{(1)} \leq s + \Delta s, t \leq Y^{(2)} \leq t + \Delta t \mid Y^{(1)} \geq s, Y^{(2)} \geq t \right]
\]

be the hazard rate function of the vector \((Y^{(1)}, Y^{(2)})\) and take

\[
\Lambda(s, t) := \int_{0}^{s} \int_{0}^{t} \lambda(u, v) \, du \, dv
\]

to be the cumulative hazard. By mimicking the construction at (1.3), one can assess a prior for \(\Lambda\) as

\[
\Lambda(s, t \mid \mu_{1,H}, H, \mu_{2,H}) = \mu_{1,H}(0, s] \mu_{2,H}(0, t],
\]

where \((\mu_{1,H}, \mu_{2,H})\) is a vector of CRMs whose dependence is specified through a copula that gives a Lévy measure \(\bar{\nu}_{H}\). We suppose that \(\bar{\nu}_{H}((0, t], dx_{1}, dx_{2}) = \gamma(t) \nu_{H}(x_{1}, x_{2}) dx_{1} dx_{2}\), where \(\gamma\) is a non-decreasing and continuous function on \(\mathbb{R}^{+}\). The corresponding bivariate survival function is

\[
S(s, t \mid \mu_{1,H}, \mu_{2,H}) = \prod_{u \in (0, s]} \{1 - \mu_{1,H}(du)\} \prod_{v \in (0, t]} \{1 - \mu_{2,H}(dv)\},
\]

where \(\prod_{u \in (0, s]}(1 - \mu(du))\) is the usual notation for the integral product, see Gill and Johansen (1990). In order to establish the relationship between (1.3) and (6.1), suppose \(s < t\) and take \(\{u_{m,j}\}_{j=1}^{k_{m}}\) to be an arbitrary sequence of ordered points \(0 = u_{m,1} < \cdots < u_{m,k_{m}} = t\) such that \(\lim_{m \to \infty} \max_{1 \leq j \leq k_{m}-1} (u_{m,j+1} - u_{m,j}) = 0\). In this notation, (6.1) is

\[
S(s, t) = \lim_{m \to \infty} \prod_{j; u_{m,j} \in (0, s]} \{1 - \mu_{1,H}(I_{m,j})\} \{1 - \mu_{2,H}(I_{m,j})\}
\times \lim_{m \to \infty} \prod_{j; u_{m,j} \in (s, t]} \{1 - \mu_{2,H}(I_{m,j})\},
\]

and for simplicity we have dropped the dependence of \(S\) on \((\mu_{1,H}, \mu_{2,H})\), and \(I_{m,j} = \{u_{m,j-1}, u_{m,j}\}\). Given the independence of the increments of \((\mu_{1,H}, \mu_{2,H})\), the evaluation of \(E[S^{n}(s, t)]\) can be accomplished if one determines moments of the type \(E[(1 - \mu_{1,H}(I_{m,j}))^{n}(1 - \mu_{2,H}(I_{m,j}))^{n}]\). The latter can be deduced from the Lévy–Khintchine representation of the Laplace transform of \((\mu_{1,H}, \mu_{2,H})\) which yields
Dykstra and Laud (1981) with dependent increments. For the univariate case, this approach was taken by

$$\int \nu$$

In our setting, \( \{ \) apparent that the bivariate process \( S \) the random survival function \( \Lambda \)

An alternative model for the marginal cumulative hazards consists in

Remark 1. An alternative model for the marginal cumulative hazards consists in using kernel mixtures of completely random measures. Thus if \( k_i : \mathbb{R}^+ \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+, i = 1, 2 \), are the kernel functions, one can set marginal cumulative hazards \( \Lambda_i(t) \) as

\[
\Lambda_i(t) = \int_0^t \int_{\mathbb{R}^+} k_i(x, s) \mu_i(ds) \, dx,
\]

where \( \mu_i \) is a CRM with intensity measure of the form in 3.1. This yields the random survival function \( S(t_1, t_2) = \exp\{-\Lambda_1(t_1) - \Lambda_2(t_2)\} \), where it is apparent that the bivariate process \( \{ (\Lambda_1(t), \Lambda_2(t)) : t \geq 0 \} \) does not have independent increments. For the univariate case, this approach was taken by Dykstra and Laud (1981) with \( k(x, s) = \mathbb{I}_{[0, \infty)}(x) \), which yields monotone increasing hazard rates. A general kernel was considered by Lo and Wang (1989).

In our setting, \( (\int k(x, s) \mu_1(ds), \int k(x, s) \mu_2(ds)) \) defines a prior for a vector of hazard rates which allows one to draw inferences on the corresponding vector of survival functions. Note that if one uses the kernel in Dykstra and Laud (1981), one has \( \Lambda_i(t) = \int_0^t (t - s) \mu_i(ds) \), and

\[
\text{E} [S(t_1, t_2)] = \exp \left\{ - \int_0^{t_1} \psi_1(t_1 - s) \gamma'(s) \, ds - \int_0^{t_2} \psi_2(t_2 - s) \gamma'(s) \, ds \right\} 
\times \exp \left\{ - \int_0^{t_1} \zeta(t_1 - s, t_2 - s) \gamma'(s) \, ds \right\},
\]
where \( \zeta(u, v) = \int_0^\infty \int_0^\infty (1 - e^{-ux_1}) (1 - e^{-vx_2}) \nu(x_1, x_2) \, dx_1 \, dx_2 \) for any \( u, v > 0 \).

This model selects an absolutely continuous distribution for each component of the vector of survival functions, thus leading to smoother posterior estimates of the marginal survival functions. One can also deduce the posterior distribution of \((\mu_1, \mu_2)\) given right-censored data, thus extending a result obtained in [James (2005)]. It is however expected that, as in the univariate case, one should resort to simulation to obtain numerical evaluations of Bayesian estimates of quantities of interest. We leave this as an issue to be dealt with in future work.

7. Estimate of the Survival Functions

We now have Bayesian estimates of the survival functions \( S_1 \) and \( S_2 \) and the correlation between them. The starting point is the Bayesian estimate of the survival function \( S(t_1, t_2) \) defined in [153], taken to be the posterior mean of \( \mathbb{P}[Y(\cdot) > t_1, Y(\cdot) > t_2 | (\mu_1, \mu_2)] \). This enables us to estimate \( S_1 \) and \( S_2 \) and to evaluate the posterior correlation.

**Corollary 1.** Let \( \mathcal{I}_t = \{ j : \Delta_j^{(1)} \land \Delta_j^{(2)} = 1 \} \cap \{ j : T(j) \leq t \} \) be the set of indices corresponding to the exact observations recorded up to time \( t \), and let \( T(k+1) = \infty \). For any \( t > 0 \), the posterior mean \( \hat{S}(t, t) \) of \( \mathbb{P}[Y(\cdot) > t, Y(\cdot) > t | (\mu_1, \mu_2)] \), given data \( D \), is

\[
\exp \left\{ - \sum_{j=1}^{k+1} \left[ \gamma(t \land T(j)) - \gamma(T(j-1)) \right] \mathbb{1}_{[T(j-1), \infty)}(t) \psi_j^*(1, 1) \right\} \times \prod_{j \in \mathcal{I}_t} \int_{(R^+)^2} e^{-x_1-x_2} f_{T(j), j}(x_1, x_2) \, dx_1 \, dx_2, \quad (7.1)
\]

where \( \psi_j^*(\lambda_1, \lambda_2) = \int_{(R^+)^2} \left[ 1 - e^{-\lambda_1 x_1 - \lambda_2 x_2} \right] e^{-\sum_{i=1}^2 (\bar{\nu}_{j,i} + \bar{\nu}_{j,i+1}) x_i} \nu(x_1, x_2) \, dx_1 \, dx_2 \), and the \( f_{T(j), j} \) are the density functions of the jumps as described in [152].

Setting \( \mathcal{I}_{1,t} = \{ j : \Delta_j^{(1)} = 1 \} \cap \{ j : T(j) \leq t \} \), one has from the expression \( \hat{S}(t, t) \) at \((1,1)\) that

\[
\hat{S}(t, 0) = \exp \left\{ - \sum_{j=1}^{k+1} \left[ \gamma(t \land T(j)) - \gamma(T(j-1)) \right] \mathbb{1}_{[T(j-1), \infty)}(t) \psi_j^*(1, 0) \right\} \times \prod_{j \in \mathcal{I}_{1,t}} \int_{(R^+)^2} e^{-\sum_{i=1}^2 (\bar{\nu}_{j,i} + \bar{\nu}_{j,i+1}) x_i} \left( 1 - e^{-x_1} \right)^{\nu_{j,1}} \left( 1 - e^{-x_2} \right)^{\nu_{j,2}} \nu(x_1, x_2) \, dx_1 \, dx_2.
\]
With appropriate modifications, one has an expression for $\hat{S}(0, t)$ as well. Then, using the independence of the increments of the random measure in (5.1) and supposing that $s > t$, one has $\hat{S}(s, t) = \hat{S}(t, t) \hat{S}(s, 0)/\hat{S}(t, 0)$. A similar expression can be found for the case where $s < t$.

The posterior second moment of the marginal survival $S_1$ can be estimated as

$$
\hat{S}_{12}(t) = \exp \left\{ - \sum_{j=1}^{k+1} \left[ \gamma(t \wedge T(j)) - \gamma(T(j-1)) \right] \mathbb{I}_{[T(j-1), \infty)}(t) \psi^*_j(2, 0) \right\}
$$

and to

$$
\hat{S}_{12}(t) = \prod_{j \in T, t} \int_{(R^+)^2} e^{-\sum_{j=1}^{n_j} \left[ (2+n_j^c+n_j^{c^2}+n_j^{c^0}) \xi_j(1-e^{-x_1})n_j^1(1-e^{-x_2})n_j^2 \nu(x_1, x_2) \right]} d\xi_1 d\xi_2.
$$

It then follows that an estimate of the correlation between $S_1, S_2$ is

$$
\hat{\rho}(S_1(t), S_2(t)) = \frac{\hat{S}(t, t) - \hat{S}(t, 0)\hat{S}(0, t)}{\sqrt{\hat{S}_{12}(t) - \hat{S}_{12}(0, 0)}} \quad (7.2)
$$

From a computational point of view, one can usefully resort to the identity

$$
\psi^*_j(\lambda_1, \lambda_2) = \psi(\lambda_1 + \bar{n}_j^c + \bar{n}_j^c, \lambda_2 + \bar{n}_j^c + \bar{n}_j^c) - \psi(\bar{n}_j^c, \bar{n}_j^c, \bar{n}_j^c, \bar{n}_j^c),
$$

and to

$$
\int_{(R^+)^2} e^{-q_1 x_1 - q_2 x_2 (1-e^{-x_1})n_j^1(1-e^{-x_2})n_j^2 \nu(x_1, x_2) d\xi_1 d\xi_2}
$$

Then the only difficulty in evaluating posterior estimates, given the (possibly right–censored) data, lies in the evaluation of the bivariate Laplace exponent $\psi(\lambda_1, \lambda_2)$ for a set of non–negative integer values of $(\lambda_1, \lambda_2)$. In particular, if the two–dimensional completely random measure $(\mu_1, \mu_2)$ is constructed by means of a Clayton copula $C_{\theta}$, Proposition 1 suggests that $\psi(\lambda_1, \lambda_2)$ can be easily evaluated either numerically, or through simulation. It is unlikely that one can obtain
a closed analytic form for $\kappa(\theta; \lambda_1, \lambda_2)$, but again one can evaluate it by numerical integration or via simulation. As for the latter, one just needs to generate a sample $\{(x_1^{(i)}, x_2^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^M$ from the distribution of a vector of independent and exponentially distributed random variables with rate parameters $\lambda_1$ and $\lambda_2$, respectively. Then

$$
\hat{\kappa}_M(\theta; \lambda_1, \lambda_2) = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M C_\theta(U_1(x_1^{(i)}), U_2(x_2^{(i)}))
$$

(7.3)

is an approximate evaluation of $\kappa(\theta; \lambda_1, \lambda_2)$ that can be used to compute $\psi(\lambda_1, \lambda_2; \theta)$.

With the $\alpha_1$ and $\alpha_2$ marginal stable processes with a Clayton copula $C_\theta$, as in Example 1, one has

$$
C_\theta(U_1(x_1), U_2(x_2)) = A \left\{ \frac{\lambda_1^{\alpha_1}}{\alpha_1} + \frac{\lambda_2^{\alpha_2}}{\alpha_2} - \frac{A}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M \left[ \frac{\lambda_1^{\alpha_1}}{\alpha_1} \right]^{\alpha_1} + \left[ \frac{\lambda_2^{\alpha_2}}{\alpha_2} \right]^{\alpha_2} \right\}^{-1/\theta},
$$

so that an approximate evaluation of $\psi(\lambda_1, \lambda_2; \theta)$ is

$$
\psi(\lambda_1, \lambda_2; \theta) = \frac{A}{\alpha} \left\{ \frac{\lambda_1^{\alpha_1}}{\alpha_1} + \frac{\lambda_2^{\alpha_2}}{\alpha_2} - \frac{A}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M \left[ \frac{\lambda_1^{\alpha_1}}{\alpha_1} \right]^{\alpha_1} + \left[ \frac{\lambda_2^{\alpha_2}}{\alpha_2} \right]^{\alpha_2} \right\}^{-1/\theta}.
$$

(7.4)

When $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \alpha = 1/\theta$, as highlighted in Example 1, one has the closed form

$$
\psi(\lambda_1, \lambda_2; \frac{1}{\alpha}) = \frac{A}{\alpha} \left\{ \frac{\lambda_1^{\alpha_1} - \lambda_2^{\alpha_2}}{\lambda_2 - \lambda_1} \right\}^{1/\alpha} \mathbf{1}_{\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2} + (1 + \alpha) \lambda^{\alpha} \mathbf{1}_{\lambda_1 = \lambda_2}.
$$

(7.5)

We deal next with an illustrative example where we point out a possible MCMC sampling scheme.

**Example 2. (Skin grafts data).** The dataset has been studied in the literature by Woolson and Lachenbruch (1980), Lin and Ying (1993), and Bulla, Muliere, and Walker (2007). They are survival times of closely matched and poorly matched skin grafts, with both grafts applied to the same burn patient. The strength of matching between donor and recipient was evaluated in accordance with the HL-A transplantation antigen system. The data can be split into two groups $\mathcal{Y}^{(1)}$ and $\mathcal{Y}^{(2)}$ corresponding to the days of survival of closely matched and poorly matched skin grafts on burn patients. One finds $\mathcal{Y}^{(1)} = \{37, 19, 57^+, 93, 16, 22, 20, 18, 63, 29, 60^+ \}$ and $\mathcal{Y}^{(2)} = \{29, 13, 15, 26, 11, 17, 26, 21, 43, 15, 40 \}$, where times denoted by $t^+$ are right-censored. We consider the model with

$$
\nu_1(x) = \nu_2(x) = \frac{A}{\Gamma(1-\alpha)} x^{-\alpha-1}
$$
and the Clayton copula $C_{1/\alpha}$, hence the bivariate Lévy intensity is
\[
\nu(x_1, x_2) = \frac{A(1 + \alpha)}{\Gamma(1 - \alpha)} (x_1 + x_2)^{-\alpha - 2}.
\]
According to Proposition 3, the prior guess at the shape of the survival function, conditional on a specific value of $\alpha$, is
\[
E \left[ \mathbb{P} \left[ Y^{(1)} > s, Y^{(2)} > t \mid (\mu_1, \mu_2) \right] \right] = e^{-A[s + t + [(1 - \alpha)/\alpha] (t \wedge s)]}
\]
for any $s, t \geq 0$. If a prior for $\alpha$ is specified, one can adopt a Metropolis–Hastings algorithm to evaluate the posterior estimate
\[
\hat{S}(t_1, t_2) = \int_{(0,1)} E \left[ e^{-\mu_1(0,t_1)-\mu_2(0,t_2)} \mid D, \alpha \right] \pi(d\alpha \mid D),
\]
\pi(\cdot \mid D) denoting the posterior distribution of $\alpha$ given the data $D$. Hence, one generates a sample $\{\alpha^{(1)}, \ldots, \alpha^{(M)}\}$ from the posterior distribution $\pi(\cdot \mid D)$ of $\alpha$, given the data $D$, and evaluates $\hat{S}(t_1, t_2) \approx (1/M) \sum_{i=1}^{M} E \left[ e^{-\mu_1(0,t_1)-\mu_2(0,t_2)} \mid D, \alpha^{(i)} \right]$. In this case the implementation of the Metropolis–Hastings algorithm is straightforward. Indeed the likelihood turns out to be equal to
\[
\exp \left\{ -\sum_{j=1}^{N} \left[ \gamma(T_j) - \gamma(T_{j-1}) \right] \psi(\bar{n}_{j,1} + \bar{n}_{j,1}, \bar{n}_{j,2} + \bar{n}_{j,2}) \right\}
\times \prod_{j \in \mathcal{I}} \gamma'(T_j) \int_{(\mathbb{R}^+)^2} e^{-\sum_{i=1}^{2}(\bar{n}_{j,i} + \bar{n}_{j+1,i})x_i(1-e^{-x_1})^{n_{j,1}}(1-e^{-x_2})^{n_{j,2}} \nu(x_1, x_2)dx_1 dx_2,
\]
and it can be computed exactly since the Laplace exponent $\psi$ has a very simple form, see [13]. In order to implement the simulation scheme we fixed a prior beta(0.5, 5), which is highly concentrated around zero and reflects a strong prior opinion of a high degree of correlation between the marginal survival functions $S_1$ and $S_2$. We chose a uniform distribution on (0, 1) as the proposal of the algorithm and set $A = 0.01$. Of course, one could also set a prior for $A$ and incorporate it into the sampling scheme, but we did not address that issue here. We performed 10,000 iterations, the first 2,000 of which were dropped as burn–in moves. The first interesting thing about the results we obtained is that, despite the particular structure of the prior of $\alpha$, the posterior estimate of $\hat{\alpha} = (1/M) \sum_{i=1}^{M} \alpha^{(i)}$ is $\hat{\alpha} \approx 0.7306$. The plots of sections of the estimates of the survival functions $t_1 \mapsto \hat{S}(t_1, t_2)$ for $t_2 \in \{0, 11, 40, 93\}$ are depicted on the left side of Figure 2, whereas the plots of the function $t_2 \mapsto \hat{S}(t_1, t_2)$ for $t_1 \in \{0, 13, 26, 43, 93\}$ are given on the right side of Figure 2. We also examined the correlation structure
Figure 2. The estimated marginal survival functions of $Y^{(1)}$ and $Y^{(2)}$ arising from the application of a MCMC algorithm for the skin grafts data. On the left side the plots of $t_1 \mapsto \hat{S}(t_1, t_2)$ for $t_2 = 0$ (solid line) and $t_2 \in \{11, 40, 93\}$ (dashed lines in decreasing order). On the right side the plots of $t_2 \mapsto \hat{S}(t_1, t_2)$ for $t_1 = 0$ (solid line) and $t_1 \in \{13, 26, 43, 93\}$ (dashed lines in decreasing order).

Figure 3. Plots of the correlation between $S_1(t)$ and $S_2(t)$ for values of $t$ coinciding with the observed data, both exact and censored. Dashed lines for prior correlations and continuous line for posterior correlations.

as modified by the data. In particular, (a) there is a sensible reduction of the magnitude of the correlation at any value of $t$, from values in $[0.77, 0.95]$ to values ranging between 0.37 and 0.64; (b) the correlation function is not monotone. See Figure 3, where plots of the correlations between survival functions $S_1$ and $S_2$ are depicted for values of $t$ up to 93. The prior correlation was evaluated, for any $t$, by drawing a sample of $\alpha$’s from the beta(0.5, 5) distribution and then averaging the expression in (4.8). As for the posterior correlations, we used the output of the MCMC algorithm to evaluate mixed and marginal posterior moments of $S_1$ and $S_2$ according to (7.2). As expected, the prior correlation is
a decreasing function of \( t \) with values close to 1, the prior for \( \alpha \) is concentrated around 0 which signals complete dependence in the Clayton copula with \( \theta = 1/\alpha \). Given the data, one notes that there is no monotonicity, and the points where the correlation is decreasing identify time intervals where \( Y^{(1)} \) and \( Y^{(2)} \) differ. For example, in [11, 16] one observes only failures for \( Y^{(2)} \); the correlation then reaches a local minimum at \( t = 26 \), where two exact observations for \( Y^{(3)} \) were recorded. Other local minima are at \( t = 57 \) and \( t = 60 \), censored data for \( Y^{(1)} \).

8. Concluding Remarks

Our results allow for Bayesian inference on vectors of survival, or cumulative hazard, functions. Nonetheless, the idea of using Lévy copulas for building vectors of completely random measures might also be the starting point for defining nonparametric priors for vectors of paired survival data \((Y^{(1)}, Y^{(2)})\). While there is a wealth of papers on Bayesian nonparametric estimation of univariate survival functions, we are not aware of many contributions to inference for bivariate survival functions. An example is given by Bulla, Muliere, and Walker (2007), where a generalized Pólya urn scheme is used to obtain a bivariate reinforced process that, in turn, can be applied to obtain an estimator of a bivariate survival function. In Nieto-Barajas and Walker (2007), the authors assume conditional independence between lifetimes and nonparametrically model each marginal density; the bivariate density is then obtained as a mixture. In Ghosh et al. (2006), a nonparametric prior based on beta processes is adopted and the updating rule is described, the authors show it does not lead to inconsistencies analogous to those of some frequentist nonparametric estimators.

An important issue we did not consider concerns the properties of consistency of the prior we have proposed. For this, one supposes the data are independently generated by survival function \( S_{1,0} \) and \( S_{2,0} \) and checks whether the posterior distribution of \((S_1, S_2)\) concentrates on a suitable neighbourhood of \((S_{1,0}, S_{2,0})\) as the sample size increases. It is expected that one can extend results similar to those achieved in Kim and Lee (2001) for NTR priors, or results in Draghici and Ramamoorthi (2003) and De Blasi, Peccati, and Prünster (2009) for the mixture models mentioned in Remark 1. This will be pursued in future work.

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Appendix

A1. Proof of Proposition 1. Set

\[ C^{(2)}(U_1(x_1), U_2(x_2)) := \frac{\partial^2}{\partial u \partial v} C(u, v) \bigg|_{u=U_1(x_1), v=U_2(x_2)}. \]

Since the Lévy intensity \( \nu(x_1, x_2) \) in (3.3) is of finite variation, the Laplace exponent is

\[ \psi(\lambda_1, \lambda_2) = \int_{(\mathbb{R}^+)^2} \left[ 1 - e^{-\lambda_1 x_1 - \lambda_2 x_2} \right] C^{(2)}(U_1(x_1), U_2(x_2)) \nu_1(x_1) \nu_2(x_2) dx_1 dx_2 \]

\[ = (\theta + 1) \int_{(\mathbb{R}^+)^2} \left[ 1 - e^{-\lambda_1 x_1 - \lambda_2 x_2} \right] \frac{U_1^\theta(x_1) U_2^\theta(x_2) \nu_1(x_1) \nu_2(x_2)}{\{U_1^\theta(x_1) + U_2^\theta(x_2)\}^{1/\theta+2}} dx_1 dx_2. \]

Integrating by parts, one obtains (3.4).

A2. Proof of Proposition 2. As \( \theta \to 0 \), the Lévy density tends to the independence case, and in (3.4) one has \( \psi(\lambda_1, \lambda_2) = \psi_\perp(\lambda_1, \lambda_2) \) for any \( \lambda_1 > 0 \) and \( \lambda_2 > 0 \). This implies (i). Moreover, \( C_\theta(U_1(x_1), U_2(x_2)) \leq \min\{U_1(x_1), U_2(x_2)\} \) for any \( \theta > 0 \). The Lévy measure \( \nu(dx_1, dx_2; \infty) \) corresponding to the perfect dependence case does not admit a density on \((\mathbb{R}^+)^2\) but it still of finite variation. Indeed, if \( U_i^{-1} \) denotes the inverse of the \( i \)th tail integral \((i = 1, 2)\), one has

\[ \int_{\|x\| \leq 1} \|x\| \nu(dx_1, dx_2; \infty) = \int_{\{\|x\| \leq 1\} \cap \{U_1(x_1) = U_2(x_2)\}} (x_1^2 + x_2^2)^{1/2} \nu_1(x) \nu_2(x) dx \]

\[ = \int_{\{x \leq U_1^{-1}(U_2(1/\sqrt{2}))\}} x \nu_1(x) dx + \sqrt{2} \int_{\{x \leq U_2^{-1}(U_1(1/\sqrt{2}))\}} U_2^{-1}(U_1(x)) \nu_1(x) dx \]

\[ \leq \sqrt{2} \int_{\{x \leq U_1^{-1}(U_2(1/\sqrt{2}))\}} x \nu_1(x) dx + \sqrt{2} \int_{\{x \leq U_2^{-1}(U_1(1/\sqrt{2}))\}} U_2^{-1}(U_1(x)) \nu_2(x) dx < \infty, \]

finite since both \( \nu_1 \) and \( \nu_2 \) are of finite variation. Consequently, the Laplace functional transform of the two-dimensional independent increments process corresponding to the complete dependence case admits a Lévy–Khintchine representation. This implies that \( \min\{U_1(x_1), U_2(x_2)\} \) is integrable on \((\mathbb{R}^+)^2\) with respect to \( e^{-x_1^2 - x_2^2} \). A simple application of the Dominated Convergence Theorem now yields (ii). Finally, (iii) holds since \( \theta \to C_\theta(x, y) \) is an increasing function for any \( x, y > 0. \)
A3. Proof of Proposition 3. By virtue of the adopted model $P(Y^{(1)} > s, Y^{(2)} > t) = E \{e^{-\mu_1(0,s]-\mu_2(0,t]} \}. If s \leq t, as noted at (2.3), the independence of the increments of $(\mu_1, \mu_2)$ implies

$$P[Y^{(1)} > s, Y^{(2)} > t] = E \{e^{-\mu_1(0,s]-\mu_2(0,t]} \} E \{e^{-\mu_2(s,t]} \}
= \exp\{-\gamma(s) \psi(1,1) - (\gamma(t) - \gamma(s)) \psi_2(1)\} .$$

A similar representation holds for $s > t$, and the conclusion stated in (4.2) follows. The positivity of the coefficients $\xi_1$, $\xi_2$, and $\xi_{1,2}$ follows from the definition of the Laplace exponent $\psi$.

A4. Proof of Proposition 4. If $(F_1(s), F_2(t)) \overset{d}{=} (1 - e^{-\mu_1.s}, 1 - e^{-\mu_2.t})$, then it is easy to show that $F = F_1 F_2$ satisfies (1.3), with $V_{i,j} = 1 - e^{-(\mu_{i,t} - \mu_{i,j})}$, for $i \in \{1, 2\}, j = 1, \ldots, k$, and $t_0 = 0$. Conversely, let $\mu_{i,t} = -\log(1 - F_i(t))$, for $i \in \{1, 2\}$ and suppose that for any choice of $k \geq 1$ and $0 < t_1 < \cdots < t_k$ there exist $k$ independent random vectors $(V_{1,1}, V_{2,1}), \ldots, (V_{1,k}, V_{2,k})$ such that (4.3) holds. It follows by Theorem 3.1 in Doksum (1974) that both marginal processes $\mu_{1,s}$ and $\mu_{2,t}$ start from $(0,0)$ and are stochastically continuous, almost surely non-decreasing and transient. Furthermore, $(\mu_{1,t_j} - \mu_{1,t_{j-1}}, \mu_{2,t_j} - \mu_{2,t_{j-1}}) = (-\log(1 - V_{1,j}), -\log(1 - V_{2,j}))$, for $j = 1, \ldots, k$. Hence, the process $(\mu_{1,t}, \mu_{2,t})_{t \geq 0}$ has independent increments. We conclude that $(\mu_1, \mu_2)$ is a completely random measure.

A5. Proof of Proposition 5. First of all, it can be easily seen that

$$\text{Cov}(F_1(t), F_2(t)) = \text{Cov}(S_1(t), S_2(t)) = e^{-\gamma(t) \psi(1,1)} \{e^{-\gamma(t) \psi(1,1) - \psi(1,1)} - 1\}$$

and $\text{Var}(F_1(t)) = e^{-2\gamma(t) \psi(1)} \{e^{-\gamma(t) \psi(2) - 2\psi(1)} - 1\}$, so that (1.3) follows by noting that $\psi(1,1) - \psi(1,1) = -\kappa(\theta)$ and $\psi(2) - 2\psi(1) = -\kappa_i$. Moreover, if $\nu_1 = \nu_2 = \nu^*$, then one has

$$\kappa(\infty) = \int_{(R^+)^2} e^{-x_1-x_2} \min\{U_1(x_1), U_2(x_2)\} \, dx_1 \, dx_2
= \int_{(R^+)^2} e^{-x_1-x_2} U^*(x_1 \wedge x_2) \, dx_1 \, dx_2
= 2 \int_0^\infty (1 - e^{-x}) e^{-x} U^*(x) \, dx = \int_0^\infty (1 - e^{-x})^2 \nu^*(dx) = \kappa_1 = \kappa_2,$$

where $U^*(x) = \int_x^\infty \nu^*(s) \, ds$ for any $x > 0$. From this representation of $\kappa(\infty)$ and (1.1), one has $\rho_\theta(t) = [e^{\gamma(t) \kappa(\theta)} - 1]/[e^{\gamma(t) \kappa(\infty)} - 1]$. Recalling the properties of the function $\gamma$, one has that $\lim_{t \to 0} \rho_\theta(t) = \bar{\kappa}(\theta)$. On the other hand, $t \to \rho_\theta(t)$ is a decreasing function since $\kappa(\theta) < \kappa(\infty)$, for any $\theta > 0$, with $\lim_{t \to \infty} \rho_\theta(t) = 0$. Hence $\rho_\theta(t) < \bar{\kappa}(\theta)$.
A6. Proof of Proposition 6. Proposition 3 gives \( P(Y_i > t) = \exp\{-\gamma(t)\psi_1(1)\} \). From this one deduces that \( \mathbb{E}[Y_i] = \int_0^\infty P(Y_i > t) \, dt = \int_0^\infty e^{-\gamma(t)\psi_1(1)} \, dt \) and

\[
\text{Var}[Y_i] = 2 \int_0^\infty t P(Y_i > t) \, dt - (\mathbb{E}[Y_i])^2 = 2 \int_0^\infty t e^{-\gamma(t)\psi_1(1)} \, dt - \left( \int_0^\infty e^{-\gamma(t)\psi_1(1)} \, dt \right)^2.
\]

Finally,

\[
\mathbb{E}[Y_1 Y_2] = \int_0^\infty \int_0^\infty P(Y_1 > s, Y_2 > t) \, ds \, dt = \int_0^\infty \int_0^\infty e^{-\gamma(s)\xi_1 - \gamma(t)\xi_2 - \gamma(s\vee t)\xi_{1,2}} \, ds \, dt = \int_0^\infty \int_0^\infty e^{-\gamma(t)\psi_1(1) - \gamma(s)\psi_2(1) + \gamma(s\wedge t)\kappa(\theta)} \, ds \, dt.
\]

The expression in [115] now follows easily.

A7. Proof of Proposition 7. We adopt a technique similar to the one exploited in [Lijoi, Prünster, and Walker 2008]. We need a preliminary lemma.

Lemma A.1. Let \((\mu_1, \mu_2)\) be a bivariate completely random measure, and suppose that \(\mu_1\) and \(\mu_2\) are not independent. Let the Lévy intensity \(\nu_t(x_1, x_2)\) of \((\mu_1, \mu_2)\) be differentiable with respect to \(t\) on \(\mathbb{R}^+\). If \(s_1\) and \(s_2\) are two integers such that \(\max\{s_1, s_2\} \geq 1\), and \(r_1, r_2\) are two non-negative numbers with \(\min\{r_1, r_2\} \geq 1\), then

\[
\mathbb{E} \left[ e^{-r_1\mu_1(A_s) - r_2\mu_2(A_s)} \left( 1 - e^{-\mu_1(A_s)} \right)^{s_1} \left( 1 - e^{-\mu_2(A_s)} \right)^{s_2} \right] = \varepsilon \int_{(\mathbb{R}^+)^2} e^{-r_1x_2 - r_2x_1} (1 - e^{-x_1})^{s_1} (1 - e^{-x_2})^{s_2} \nu_t'(x_1, x_2) \, dx_1 \, dx_2 + o(\varepsilon)
\]

as \(\varepsilon \downarrow 0\), where \(A_\varepsilon = \{t > 0 : t_0 - \varepsilon < t \leq t_0\}\).

Proof. Note that the left side above can be written as

\[
\sum_{j_1=0}^{s_1} \sum_{j_2=0}^{s_2} \binom{s_1}{j_1} \binom{s_2}{j_2} (-1)^{j_1+j_2} e^{-\psi_0(r_1+j_1, r_2+j_2)} e^{-\psi_0(r_1+j_1, r_2+j_2) + \psi_{t_0-\varepsilon}(r_1+j_1, r_2+j_2)}
\]

\[
= e^{-\psi_0(r_1, r_2) + \psi_{t_0-\varepsilon}(r_1, r_2)} + e^{-\psi_0(r_1, r_2) + \psi_{t_0-\varepsilon}(r_1, r_2)}
\]

\[
\times \left\{ \sum_{j_1=1}^{s_1} \sum_{j_2=1}^{s_2} \binom{s_1}{j_1} \binom{s_2}{j_2} (-1)^{j_1+j_2} \exp \left\{ -\Delta_{t_0-\varepsilon}^{\psi_t} [\psi_t(r_1+j_1, r_2+j_2) - \psi_t(r_1, r_2)] \right\} \right. 
\]

\[
+ \sum_{j_1=1}^{s_1} \binom{s_1}{j_1} (-1)^{j_1} \exp \left\{ -\Delta_{t_0-\varepsilon}^{\psi_t} [\psi_t(r_1+j_1, r_2) - \psi_t(r_1, r_2)] \right\} \right\}
\]

Finally, we deduce that...
Define the set $\varepsilon$ the statement of Lemma A.1. The result would be slightly modified, and one has

$$\psi(x)$$

where $\psi$ and that as $\varepsilon \downarrow 0$,

$$\exp \{-\Delta_{t_0-\varepsilon}^{(x)} [\psi_t(r_1 + j_1, r_2 + j_2) - \psi_t(r_1, r_2)]\} = 1 - \varepsilon \int e^{-r_1x_1-r_2x_2}(1 - e^{-j_1x_1-j_2x_2}) \nu_0(x_1, x_2) dx_1 dx_2 + o(\varepsilon).$$

Furthermore we have $\sum_{i=1}^n \left(\begin{array}{c} n \\ i \end{array}\right) (-1)^i (1 - e^{-ix}) = -(1 - e^{-x})^n$ and

$$\sum_{j_1=1}^{s_1} \sum_{j_2=1}^{s_2} \left(\begin{array}{c} s_1 \\ j_1 \end{array}\right) \left(\begin{array}{c} s_2 \\ j_2 \end{array}\right) (-1)^{j_1+j_2} (1 - e^{-j_1x_1-j_2x_2}) = (1 - e^{-x_1})^{s_1} + (1 - e^{-x_2})^{s_2} - (1 - e^{-x_1})^{s_1} (1 - e^{-x_2})^{s_2}. \quad (A.1)$$

This yields, as $\varepsilon \downarrow 0$, the desired result.

Note that the case of independence between $\mu_1$ and $\mu_2$ can be included in the statement of Lemma A.1. The result would be slightly modified, and one has

$$E \left[ e^{-r_1\mu_1(A_0) - r_2\mu_2(A_0)} \left(1 - e^{-\mu_1(A_0)}\right)^{s_1} \left(1 - e^{-\mu_2(A_0)}\right)^{s_2} \right] = \varepsilon^2 \left( \int_{R^+} e^{-r_1x_1}(1 - e^{-x_1})^{s_1} \nu_0(x_1) dx_1 \right) \left( \int_{R^+} e^{-r_2x_2}(1 - e^{-x_2})^{s_2} \nu_0(x_2) dx_2 \right) + o(\varepsilon^2)$$

as $\varepsilon \downarrow 0$, where $A_\varepsilon = \{ t > 0 : t_0 - \varepsilon < t \leq t_0 \}$.

Define the set

$$\Gamma_{n,\varepsilon} := \bigcap_{i=1}^{k} \bigcap_{j=1}^{k} \left\{ (i^{(i)}, \Delta^{(i)}_1, \ldots, i^{(i)}_{n_i}, \Delta^{(i)}_{n_i}) : \kappa_i(A_{j,\varepsilon}) = n_{j,i}, \kappa_i^{c}(\{T_{(j)}\}) = n_{j,i}^c \right\},$$

where $A_{j,\varepsilon} = (T_{(j)} - \varepsilon, T_{(j)}]$. The value of $\varepsilon$ is chosen in such a way that the sets $A_{j,\varepsilon}$ are pairwise disjoint. It follows from the partial exchangeability of samples
Proof of Proposition 7. The proof consists in the determination of the posterior Laplace transform of \((\mu_1, \mu_2)\), given data \(D\), we have to evaluate

\[
E \left[ e^{-\lambda_1 \mu_1(0,t) - \lambda_2 \mu_2(0,t)} \mid D \right] = \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \frac{E \left[ e^{-\lambda_1 \mu_1(0,t) - \lambda_2 \mu_2(0,t)} 1_{\Gamma_n \hat{\varepsilon}(D)} \right]}{P(D \in \Gamma_n \hat{\varepsilon})}. \tag{A.2}
\]

If we define \(\sum_{j=1}^{k} e^{-n_{j,i} \mu_1(0,T(j)) - n_{j,2} \mu_2(0,T(j))} \prod_{i=1}^{2} (e^{-\mu_i(0,T(j)-\varepsilon)} - e^{-\mu_i(0,T(j))})^{\eta_{j,i}}\)

\[
e^{-\lambda_1 \mu_1(0,t) - \lambda_2 \mu_2(0,t)} \prod_{j=1}^{k} e^{-n_{j,1} \mu_1(0,T(j)) - n_{j,2} \mu_2(0,T(j))} \prod_{i=1}^{2} (e^{-\mu_i(0,T(j)-\varepsilon)} - e^{-\mu_i(0,T(j))})^{\eta_{j,i}}
\]

\[
\times \prod_{i=1}^{2} e^{-n_{j,i} \mu_i(0,T(j)-\varepsilon)} \left(1 - e^{-\mu_i(A_{j,\varepsilon})}\right)^{\eta_{j,i}}.
\]

If we suppose that \(t \in [T(j), T(j+1))\), then \(\mu_i(0,t) = \sum_{j=1}^{l} \{\mu_i(A_{j,\varepsilon}) + \mu_i(C_j)\} + \mu_i(T(j),t)\),

\[\mu_i(0,T(j) - \varepsilon) = \mu_i(C_1)\]

and \(\mu_i(0,T(j) - \varepsilon) = \sum_{j=1}^{j-1} \mu_i(A_{r,\varepsilon}) + \sum_{j=1}^{j} \mu_i(C_r)\), for \(j \geq 2\). These also imply that

\[
\sum_{j=1}^{k} n_{j,1} \mu_i(0,T(j)) = \sum_{j=1}^{k} \bar{n}_{j,1} \mu_i(A_{j,\varepsilon}) + \sum_{j=1}^{k} \bar{n}_{j,1} \mu_i(C_j),
\]

\[
\sum_{j=1}^{k} n_{j,i} \mu_i(0,T(j) - \varepsilon) = \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \bar{n}_{j+1,i} \mu_i(A_{j,\varepsilon}) + \sum_{j=1}^{k} \bar{n}_{j,i} \mu_i(C_j).
\]

If we define \(C_{\varepsilon} = R^+ \setminus \bigcup_{j=1}^{k} A_{j,\varepsilon}\), it is easily seen that

\[
E \left[ e^{-\lambda_1 \mu_1(0,t) - \lambda_2 \mu_2(0,t)} 1_{\Gamma_n \hat{\varepsilon}(\{(T_j^{(i)}, \Delta_j^{(i)})\}_{j=1,\ldots,n_{i,j}=1,2})} \right] = E[I_{1,\varepsilon}] E[I_{2,\varepsilon}],
\]

where

\[
I_{1,\varepsilon} = \prod_{j=1}^{k} \prod_{i=1}^{2} e^{-[\lambda_1 1_{(a,t)}(T(j)) + \bar{n}_{j,i} + \bar{n}_{j+1,i}] \mu_i(A_{j,\varepsilon}) \left(1 - e^{-\mu_i(A_{j,\varepsilon})}\right)^{\eta_{j,i}}, \bar{n}_{k+1,i} = 0,
\]
Hence, if one considers the ratio of the two terms just determined and lets $\varepsilon \to 0$, one obtains that the posterior Laplace transform in (A.2) is

$$\mathbb{E}[I_{1,\varepsilon}] = \prod_{j=1}^{k} \mathbb{E} \left[ \prod_{i=1}^{2} e^{-\lambda_i \mathbbm{1}_{(0,\varepsilon)}(T_{(j)}) + \bar{n}_{j,i} + \bar{n}_{j,i+1,1}} \mu_i(A_{j,\varepsilon}) \left(1 - e^{-\mu_i(A_{j,\varepsilon})}\right)^{\bar{n}_{j,i}} \right].$$

In order to simplify the notation, let $\zeta(x, n_j) := \prod_{i=1}^{2} (1 - e^{-x_i})^{\bar{n}_{j,i}}$, where $x = (x_1, x_2) \in (\mathbb{R}^+)^2$ and $n_j = (n_{j,1}, n_{j,2})$ is vector of non-negative integers. If $I = \{j: T_{(j)} \text{ is an exact observation}\}$, for any $j \in I$ one has $\max\{n_{j,1}, n_{j,2}\} \geq 1$ and Lemma A.1 applies, i.e., as $\varepsilon \downarrow 0$

$$\mathbb{E} \left[ \prod_{i=1}^{2} e^{-\lambda_i \mathbbm{1}_{(0,\varepsilon)}(T_{(j)}) + \bar{n}_{j,i} + \bar{n}_{j,i+1,1}} \mu_i(A_{j,\varepsilon}) \left(1 - e^{-\mu_i(A_{j,\varepsilon})}\right)^{\bar{n}_{j,i}} \right] = \varepsilon \int_{(\mathbb{R}^+)^2} e^{-\sum_{i=1}^{2} (\lambda_i \mathbbm{1}_{(0,\varepsilon)}(T_{(j)}) + \bar{n}_{j,i} + \bar{n}_{j,i+1,1})x_1} \zeta(x, n_j) \nu_{T_{(j)}}(x_1, x_2) \, dx_1 \, dx_2 + o(\varepsilon).$$

If $j \notin I$, then $n_{j,i} = 0$ and the continuity of $\nu_t(x, y)$ implies

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \downarrow 0} \mathbb{E} \left[ \prod_{i=1}^{2} e^{-\lambda_i \mathbbm{1}_{(0,\varepsilon)}(T_{(j)}) + \bar{n}_{j,i} + \bar{n}_{j,i+1,1}} \mu_i(A_{j,\varepsilon}) \left(1 - e^{-\mu_i(A_{j,\varepsilon})}\right)^{\bar{n}_{j,i}} \right] = 1.$$

Reasoning along the same lines, it is immediate that

$$\mathbb{E}[I_{2,\varepsilon}] = e^{-\int_{\mathbb{R}^+} \psi_s(\lambda_1 \mathbbm{1}_{(0,\varepsilon)} + \bar{N}_1 + \bar{N}_2) \, ds} = e^{-\int_{\mathbb{R}^+} \psi_s(\lambda_1 \mathbbm{1}_{(0,\varepsilon)} + \bar{N}_1 + \bar{N}_2) \, ds}.$$

As concerns the denominator in (A.2), one finds

$$e^{-\int_{\mathbb{R}^+} \psi_s(\bar{N}_1 + \bar{N}_2) \, ds} \times \varepsilon^{k_{\varepsilon}} \prod_{j \in \bar{I}} \left\{ \int_{(\mathbb{R}^+)^2} e^{-\sum_{i=1}^{2} (\bar{n}_{j,i} + \bar{n}_{j,i+1,1})x_i} \zeta(x, n_j) \nu_{T_{(j)}}(x_1, x_2) \, dx_1 \, dx_2 + o(1) \right\},$$

where $k_{\varepsilon}$ denotes the total number of exact (distinct) observations in the sample. Hence, if one considers the ratio of the two terms just determined and lets $\varepsilon$ tend to 0, one obtains that the posterior Laplace transform in (A.2) is
\begin{align*}
e^{-\int_0^\infty \left[ \psi_s(\lambda_1 \mathbb{1}_{(0,a]} + \tilde{N}_1^s + \bar{N}_1) + \lambda_2 \mathbb{1}_{(0,a]} + \tilde{N}_2^s + \bar{N}_2) - \psi_s(\tilde{N}_1^s + \bar{N}_1, \tilde{N}_2^s + \bar{N}_2) \right] ds} & \\
\times \prod_{j \in I} \int_{(R^+)^2} e^{-\sum_{i=1}^2 \left( \lambda_i \mathbb{1}_{(0,a]} (T_{(i)} + \tilde{n}_{j,i} + \bar{n}_{j,i}) x_i \right) \zeta(x, n_j) \nu'_{T_{(i)}}(x_1, x_2) dx_1 dx_2} & \\
\int_{(R^+)^2} e^{-\sum_{i=1}^2 \left( \tilde{n}_{j,i} + \bar{n}_{j,i} \right) x_i \zeta(x, n_j) \nu'_{T_{(i)}}(x_1, x_2) dx_1 dx_2} & ,
\end{align*}

and this proves the statement.

References


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