FUNCTIONAL SINGLE INDEX MODELS FOR LONGITUDINAL DATA

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A new single-index model that reflects the time-dynamic effects of the single index is proposed for longitudinal and functional response data, possibly measured with errors, for both longitudinal and time-invariant covariates. With appropriate initial estimates of the parametric index, the proposed estimator is shown to be $\sqrt{n}$-consistent and asymptotically normally distributed. We also address the nonparametric estimation of regression functions and provide estimates with optimal convergence rates. One advantage of the new approach is that the same bandwidth is used to estimate both the nonparametric mean function and the parameter in the index. The finite-sample performance for the proposed procedure is studied numerically.

1. Introduction. For univariate response variables $Y$ with multivariate covariate $Z \in \mathbb{R}^p$, the single-index model

$$
    \mathbb{E}(Y|Z) = m(\beta_0^T Z)
$$

(1.1)

is an attractive dimension-reduction method to model the effect of multivariate covariates nonparametrically. Since $m(\cdot)$, known as the link function, is an unknown smooth function, the scale of $\beta_0^T Z$ may be determined arbitrarily. For identifiability reasons, $\beta_0$ is often assumed to be a unit vector with nonnegative first coordinate. The primary parameter of interest is the coefficient $\beta_0$ in the index $\beta_0^T Z$ since $\beta_0$ makes explicit the relationship between the response variable $Y$ and the covariate $Z$. There are several different approaches to estimate $\beta_0$ in (1.1), such as the projection pursuit regression [Friedman and Stuetzle (1981), Hall (1989)], average derivatives [Härdle and Stoker (1989), Ichimura (1993)] and partial least-squares [Naik and Tsai (2000)] methods. Typically, the link function needs to be undersmoothed in order to estimate $\beta_0$ at the $\sqrt{n}$-rate. Härdle, Hall and Ichimura (1993) showed that a $\sqrt{n}$-consistent estimator of $\beta_0$ can be achieved without undersmoothing the link function, that is, the same bandwidth can be used to estimate both the parameter $\beta_0$ and the nonparametric link function $m(\cdot)$. However, their approach relies on a grid search to obtain the estimate for $\beta_0$ and is time consuming when the dimension $p$ is high. To overcome this drawback, and inspired

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by the sliced inverse regression method [Li (1991), Xia et al. (2002)] proposed a
new method, called “conditional minimum average variance estimation” (MAVE).
Unlike most previous methods, MAVE does not need to undersmooth the nonpara-
metric link function estimator to attain the $\sqrt{n}$-rate consistency for the parametric
index estimate. Also, it does not require strong assumptions on the distribution
of the covariates. Theoretical results for this approach to single-index models are
available in Xia (2006) and some extensions have been studied in Xia (2007) and
Kong and Xia (2007), among others. However, none of these works addresses lon-
gitudinal data, which is the focus of this paper.

Our goal is to extend MAVE to the following single-index models for func-
tional/longitudinal response data:

$E(Y(t)|Z(t)) = \mu(t, \beta_0^T Z(t)),$

where $Y(t), t \in T$, is a stochastic process on a compact time interval $T$, $Z$ contains
$p$ covariates, some or all of which may be stochastic functions over the time inter-
val $T$, and, to be identifiable, $\beta_0$ is a unit vector with nonnegative first coordinate.

More specifically,

$Y(t) = \mu(t, \beta_0^T Z(t)) + \epsilon(t, Z(t)),$

where $\mu$ is an unknown bivariate link function and $\epsilon(t, Z(t))$ is a random function
with mean 0 that reflects the within-subject correlations of measurements and poss-
ibly measurement errors at different time points. Thus, there are two distinctive
features in the functional single-index model (1.2), as compared to the traditional
single-index model (1.1) considered in Xia (2006) and Xia et al. (2002). First,
the functional single-index model accommodates longitudinal response and lon-
gitudinal covariates, as well as vector covariates. Second, the effects of the single
index and, consequently, covariates $Z$, may change over the time dynamic through
a bivariate link function and this seems more realistic for longitudinal responses.

Recently, Bai, Fung and Zhu (2009) combined penalized splines and quadratic
inference functions to estimate the index coefficient and unknown link function
in a single-index model for longitudinal data. However, the link function in their
model is univariate and thus does not reflect the dynamic effects of the single
index. Moreover, their approach is restricted to generalized linear models, where
the variance function of the response is a known function of the mean function.
In contrast, the link function in our model is an unknown function of time and
the index, reflecting the dynamic feature of the effect of the single index, and the
structure of the variance function is not restricted in our approach.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 extends the original
MAVE method to longitudinal data. Asymptotic theory for the proposed estima-
tors is described in Section 3, with proofs in the Appendix. Practical implementa-
tions of the new approaches and simulation studies are presented in Section 4.
In Section 5, we apply our method to two AIDS data sets: one with time-invariant
covariate and the other also involving longitudinal covariates. Section 6 contains
our conclusions.
2. Methodology. We begin with the setting of model (1.1) for univariate response \( Y \) and multivariate covariate \( Z \in \mathbb{R}^p \). Let \( \sigma_\beta(\beta^T Z) \) be the conditional variance of \( Y \) given \( \beta^T Z \). The true direction \( \beta_0 \) in (1.1) is the solution of \( \beta \) that minimizes \( \mathbb{E}\{\sigma_\beta(\beta^T Z)\} = \mathbb{E}\{Y - \mathbb{E}(Y|\beta^T Z)\}^2 \).

For a random sample, \( \{(Y_i, Z_i), i = 1, \ldots, n\} \), of \( (Y, Z) \), \( \mathbb{E}(Y|\beta^T Z) \) can be approximated locally at \( \beta^T Z_j \) by a linear expansion, that is, \( \mathbb{E}(Y|\beta^T Z) \approx a_j + b_j^T \beta^T (Z - Z_j) \). Empirically, \( \sigma_\beta(\beta^T Z) \) can be approximated at \( \beta^T Z_j \) by \( \sum_{i=1}^n [(Y_i - (a_j + b_j^T \beta^T (Z_i - Z_j)))]^2 w_{ij} \), where \( w_{ij} \geq 0 \) are weights with \( \sum_{i=1}^n w_{ij} = 1 \), for example, \( w_{ij} = K_h(\beta^T (Z_i - Z_j))/\sum_{i=1}^n K_h(\beta^T (Z_i - Z_j)) \), where \( K_h(\cdot) = h^{-d} K(\cdot/h) \) and \( d \) is the dimension of \( K(\cdot) \). Therefore, we can estimate \( \beta_0 \) by solving the minimization problem

\[
\min_{\beta, a, b} \left( \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{i=1}^n [Y_i - (a_j + b_j^T \beta^T (Z_i - Z_j))]^2 w_{ij} \right),
\]

where \( a = (a_1, \ldots, a_n) \) and \( b = (b_1, \ldots, b_n) \). Given \( \beta \), (2.1) is a local linear smoother of the data \( \{Y_i, \beta^T (Z_i - Z_j)\} \), while, given \( a \) and \( b \), (2.1) is just a weighted least-squares problem for \( \beta \). Consequently, the minimization in (2.1) can be viewed as a combination of nonparametric function estimation and parametric direction estimation. Furthermore, the weights can be updated iteratively via the relation \( \hat{w}_{ij} = K_h(\hat{\beta}^T (Z_i - Z_j))/\sum_{i=1}^n K_h(\hat{\beta}^T (Z_i - Z_j)) \), using the current estimate \( \hat{\beta} \), then updating the estimate of \( \beta_0 \) by minimizing (2.1) with \( w_{ij} \) replaced by \( \hat{w}_{ij} \). This could be repeated until \( \hat{\beta} \) converges and is called refined MAVE (rMAVE) in Xia et al. (2002).

2.1. Estimation. Hereafter, the response will be longitudinal data, which typically consists of random fluctuations or measurement errors. Let \( Y_{ij} = Y_i(T_{ij}) \) be the \( j \)th observation for the \( i \)th subject, made at a random time \( T_{ij} \in T \), where \( T \) is an interval. Along with the responses, we have information on \( p \) covariates, some of which may be longitudinal covariates. Since a univariate covariate can be considered a special case of a longitudinal covariate with constant value, we will adopt the notation for longitudinal covariates and define \( Z_{ij} = Z_i(T_{ij}) \in \mathbb{R}^p \), \( i = 1, \ldots, n \) and \( j = 1, \ldots, N_i \), as the \( p \)-dimensional covariate for the \( i \)th subject evaluated at time \( T_{ij} \). The functional single-index model (1.3) applied to the observed longitudinal and covariates data leads to

\[
Y_{ij} = \mu(T_{ij}, \beta_0^T Z_{ij}) + \epsilon(T_{ij}, Z_{ij}).
\]

For simplicity, we only consider bounded covariates \( Z \) when deriving theoretical properties, even though our simulation study shows that the method could work well for unbounded covariates. The bounded assumption is commonly adopted in the literature, for example, in Härdle, Hall and Ichimura (1993) and Härdle and Stoker (1989). Here, we assume that the measurement times \( T_{ij} \) are a random sample of size \( N_i \), assumed to be i.i.d. and independent of all other random variables.
The two main steps in our approach are to estimate the direction $\beta_0$ and the mean function $\mu$. In particular, we show how to estimate the parametric index $\beta_0$ by adapting rMAVE for longitudinal data. The asymptotic distribution of $\hat{\beta}$ is studied in Section 3 for both longitudinal and time-invariant covariates. The mean function can then be estimated through a two-dimensional scatter plot smoother of $Y_{ij}$ on $(T_{ij}, \hat{\beta}^T Z_{ij})$ when $\hat{\beta}$ is available.

To estimate the parametric index efficiently, we extend rMAVE to longitudinal data. For simplicity, and to avoid the curse of dimensionality, we only consider a single index in our model. Therefore, $\beta$ is a vector instead of a matrix. As in MAVE, for any given $(T_{j\ell}, Z_{j\ell})$, $\mathbb{E}(Y_{ik} | T_{ik}, \beta^T Z_{ik})$ can be approximated by a linear expansion at $(T_{j\ell}, \beta^T Z_{j\ell})$, that is, $\mathbb{E}(Y_{ik} | T_{ik}, \beta^T Z_{ik}) \approx a_{j\ell} + b_{j\ell}(T_{ik} - T_{j\ell}) + d_{j\ell} \beta^T (Z_{ik} - Z_{j\ell})$. Similarly, the conditional covariance, $\sigma_{\beta}(T_{ik}, \beta^T Z_{ik}) = \mathbb{E}(Y_{ik} - \mathbb{E}(Y_{ik} | T_{ik}, \beta^T Z_{ik}))^2$, can be approximated by $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{N_i} [Y_{ik} - (a_{j\ell} + b_{j\ell}(T_{ik} - T_{j\ell}) + d_{j\ell} \beta^T (Z_{ik} - Z_{j\ell}))]^2 w_{ikj\ell}$, where

$$w_{ikj\ell} = \frac{K((T_{ik} - T_{j\ell})/h_t, (\beta^T (Z_{ik} - Z_{j\ell}))/h_z)}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{N_i} K((T_{ik} - T_{j\ell})/h_t, (\beta^T (Z_{ik} - Z_{j\ell}))/h_z)},$$

(2.2)

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{N_i} w_{ikj\ell} = 1.$$

Here, $K(\cdot)$ is a two-dimensional kernel function of order $(0, 2)$ defined in Appendix C with compact support that is also a symmetric density function with finite moments of all orders and bounded derivatives; $h_t$ and $h_z$ are the respective bandwidths for smoothing along the time ($t$) and single-index covariate ($\beta^T z$) direction.

We can then estimate $\beta_0$ by solving the minimization problem

$$\min_{\beta, a, b, d} \left( \sum_{j=1}^{N_j} \sum_{\ell=1}^{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{N_i} [Y_{ik} - (a_{j\ell} + b_{j\ell}(T_{ik} - T_{j\ell}) + d_{j\ell} \beta^T (Z_{ik} - Z_{j\ell}))]^2 w_{ikj\ell} \right).$$

(2.3)

Suppose that we have a current estimator $\hat{\beta}$ of $\beta_0$ and current refined weights $\tilde{w}_{ikj\ell}$. The estimate for $\beta_0$ will be updated by minimizing equation (2.3) with $w_{ikj\ell}$ replaced by $\tilde{w}_{ikj\ell}$. This procedure will be repeated until $\hat{\beta}$ converges. The final estimate, $\hat{\beta}$, can then be used to estimate the mean function $\mu$ via a two-dimensional smoother that has the same bandwidth as the weights in (2.3), that is,

$$\hat{\mu}(t, \hat{\beta}^T z) = \hat{b}_0 \quad \text{where, for } b = (b_0, b_1, b_2),$$

(2.4)

$$\hat{b} = \arg\min_b \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{N_i} K\left\{ \frac{t - T_{ij}}{h_t}, \frac{\hat{\beta}^T (z - Z_{ij})}{h_z} \right\} \times [Y_{ij} - b_0 - b_1(T_{ij} - t) - b_2 \hat{\beta}^T (Z_{ij} - z)]^2.$$
2.2. Algorithm. Let $h_t$ and $h_z$ be the bandwidths for $T$ and $\beta^T Z$, respectively, and let $\hat{\sigma}_\beta^2$ denote the quantity to be minimized in (2.3), which is within the parentheses. Define $K_h(t, z) = K(t/h_t, z/h_z)/(h_th_z)$.

1. Start with an initial value of $\beta$, say $\hat{\beta}(0)$.

2. Use the current estimate $\hat{\beta}(m)$ and weighted least-squares method to obtain

$$(\hat{a}, \hat{b}, \hat{d}) = \arg\min_{a, b, d} \hat{\sigma}_{\beta(m)}^2, \text{ where }$$

$$w_{ikj} = K_h\{(t_{ik} - t_j), \hat{\beta}_T^T(z_{ik} - z_j)\}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{N_i} K_h\{(t_{ik} - t_j), \hat{\beta}_T^T(z_{ik} - z_j)\}}.$$ 

3. Use the estimates $(\hat{a}, \hat{b}, \hat{d})$ from step 2 to obtain the updated estimate $\hat{\beta}(m+1) = \arg\min_{\beta} \hat{\sigma}_\beta^2$.

4. Repeat steps 2 and 3 until $\|\hat{\beta}(m+1) - \hat{\beta}(m)\| < \varepsilon$, where $\varepsilon$ is some given tolerance value.

5. The final estimate of $\beta$ from step 4 is then used to reach the final estimate of

the mean function defined in (2.4).

2.3. Bandwidth selection. Instead of selecting the bandwidths by the leave-one-curve-out cross-validation method suggested in Rice and Silverman (1991), we choose the bandwidths for the mean function estimator via an $m$-fold cross-validation procedure to reduce the computational cost. Below, we describe the $m$-fold cross-validation method for the bandwidth selection for $\mu(t, \beta^T z)$. Supposing that subjects are randomly divided into $m$ groups, $(S_1, S_2, \ldots, S_m)$, the $m$-fold cross-validation bandwidth is

$$h_\mu = \arg\min_h \sum_{\ell=1}^{m} \sum_{i \in S_\ell} \sum_{j=1}^{N_i} \{Y_{ij} - \hat{\mu}(-S_\ell)(T_{ij}, \hat{\beta}^T Z_{ij})\}^2,$$

(2.5) where $\hat{\mu}(-S_\ell)(T_{ij}, \hat{\beta}^T Z_{ij})$ is the estimated mean function at $(T_{ij}, \hat{\beta}^T Z_{ij})$, excluding subjects in $S_\ell$.

3. Asymptotic results. We assume that $(T_{ij}, Z_{ij}, Y_{ij})$ have the same distribution as $(T, Z, Y)$ with joint probability density function $g_3(t, z, y)$ and that the observational times $T_{ij}$ are i.i.d. with probability density function $g(t)$, but dependency is allowed among observations from the same subject. Let $\tilde{z} = \beta^T z$, $\tilde{z}^0 = \beta_0^T \tilde{z}$ and let $f_2(t, \tilde{z})$ and $f_3(t, \tilde{z}, y)$ be the joint densities of $(T, \tilde{Z})$ and $(T, \tilde{Z}, Y)$, respectively. The kernel function is assumed to be symmetric. For simplicity, we also assume that $\int u^2 K(u, v) = \int v^2 K(u, v) = \int u^2 v^2 K(u, v) = 1$ as, without loss of generality, any symmetric density kernel function can be applied after proper normalization. Since we are interested in the asymptotic distribution
of \( \hat{\beta} \), similar to the assumption in Härdle, Hall and Ichimura (1993), we assume that the initial value \( \hat{\beta}(0) \) is in a \( \sqrt{n} \)-neighbor of \( \beta_0 \). This assumption is for technical convenience; in the simulations, an arbitrary initial value was used and it performed well. To be prudent, one may want to try different random initial \( \hat{\beta}(0) \) and choose the final estimate as the one that leads to the smallest value in the minimization problem of (2.3). In the data analysis, we chose ten different initial values for \( \hat{\beta}(0) \) and they all converged to the same estimate \( \hat{\beta} \).

From the iterative algorithm in Section 2.2, the updated \( \hat{\beta} \) from minimizing (2.3) after one iteration will become

\[
\hat{\beta} = \beta_0 + \{D_\beta^\beta\}^{-1} \gamma + o_p(n^{-1/2}) \quad \text{where}
\]

\[
D_\beta^\beta = (nEN)^{-2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^{N_i} \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{\ell=1}^{N_j} \frac{d_\beta^2(T_{ik},Z_{ik})}{\hat{f}_2(T_{ik},\tilde{Z}_{ik})}
\times K_h\{(T_{j\ell} - T_{ik}), (\tilde{Z}_{j\ell} - \tilde{Z}_{ik})\}
\times (Z_{j\ell} - Z_{ik})(Z_{j\ell} - Z_{ik})^T,
\]

\[
\gamma = (nEN)^{-2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^{N_i} \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{\ell=1}^{N_j} \frac{d_\beta(T_{j\ell},Z_{j\ell})}{\hat{f}_2(T_{j\ell},\tilde{Z}_{j\ell})}
\times K_h\{(T_{ik} - T_{j\ell}), (\tilde{Z}_{ik} - \tilde{Z}_{j\ell})\}(Z_{ik} - Z_{j\ell})
\times \{Y_{ik} - a_\beta(T_{j\ell},Z_{j\ell})
- b_\beta(T_{j\ell},Z_{j\ell})(T_{ik} - T_{j\ell})
- d_\beta(T_{j\ell},Z_{j\ell})(\tilde{Z}_{ik}^0 - \tilde{Z}_{j\ell}^0)\},
\]

\( \hat{f}_2(t,z) \) is the estimate of \( f_2(t,z) \) and \( a_\beta's, b_\beta's \) and \( d_\beta's \) are the coefficients of the linear approximation, as defined in Section 2. By means of some tedious calculations [sketches of proofs of (3.3) and (3.4) are in Appendix B with assumptions A.1–A.6 listed in Appendix A], we can obtain the following approximations of \( \{D_\beta^\beta\}^{-1} \) and \( \gamma \):

\[
\{D_\beta^\beta\}^{-1} = \frac{\beta_0\beta_0^T}{\tau} - \frac{h_2^2}{2\tau} (\tilde{G}^+ \tilde{F}^T \beta_0^T + \beta_0 \tilde{F} \tilde{G}^+ + \frac{1}{2} \tilde{G}^+ + O_p(h + \delta_\beta)),
\]

\[
\gamma = \tilde{G}(\beta - \beta_0) - (nEN)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^{N_i} \left\{ v_{\beta_0}(T_{ik},Z_{ik}) \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial z_0} \right\} \epsilon_{ik}
+ o_p(n^{-1/2}),
\]

where \( \tilde{G} = \mathbb{E}\{(\partial \mu/\partial z_0^2)G(Z)\}/2, \tilde{G}^+ = B_0(B_0^T \tilde{G} B_0)^{-1}B_0^T \) is the Moore–Penrose inverse of \( \tilde{G} \) with \( (\beta_0, B_0) \) an orthogonal matrix, \( \tau = \mathbb{E}\{(\partial \mu/\partial z_0^2)\}h_2^2 \),
\[ \bar{F} = \mathbb{E}\{(\partial \mu / \partial \bar{z}^0)^2 F_\beta(T, Z)\}, \quad F_\beta(t, z) = \frac{\beta}{2\tau}\{f_2(t, \bar{z})v_\beta^T(t, \bar{z})\}/f_2(t, \bar{z}), \quad G(z) = \mathbb{E}\{(Z_{ik} - z)(Z_{ik} - z)^T\}, \quad v_{\beta_0}(t, z) = \mathbb{E}(Z|T = t, \beta_{0T}^T Z = \beta_{0T}^T z) - z \text{ and } \delta_\beta = |\hat{\beta} - \beta_0| .\]

After plugging (3.3) and (3.4) into (3.1), we obtain
\[
\hat{\beta} = \beta_0 + \left\{ \frac{\beta_0 \beta_0^T}{\tau} - \frac{h^2}{2\tau} (\tilde{G}^+ \tilde{F}^T \beta_0^T + \beta_0 \tilde{F}^\top \tilde{G}^+) + \frac{1}{2} \tilde{G}^+ + O_p(h + \delta_\beta) \right\} \\
\times \left[ \tilde{G}(\beta - \beta_0) - (n\mathbb{E}N)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^{N_i} \left\{ v_{\beta_0}(T_{ik}, Z_{ik}) \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \bar{z}^0} \right\} \epsilon_{ik} + o_p(n^{-1/2}) \right] \\
+ o_p(n^{-1/2}) \\
= \beta_0(1 + c_n) + \frac{1}{2} (I - \beta_0 \beta_0^T) (\beta - \beta_0) - \frac{\tilde{G}^+}{2n\mathbb{E}N} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^{N_i} \left\{ v_{\beta_0}(T_{ik}, Z_{ik}) \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \bar{z}^0} \right\} \epsilon_{ik} \\
+ o_p(n^{-1/2}),
\]

where \( c_n = h^2 \tilde{F} \tilde{G}^+ (n\mathbb{E}N)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^{N_i} \left\{ v_{\beta_0}(T_{ik}, Z_{ik})(\partial \mu / \partial \bar{z}^0) \right\} \epsilon_{ik} - \tilde{G}(\beta - \beta_0)/(2\tau) .\)

Since \(|\beta| = 1, \hat{\beta}\) needs to be standardized. From the above calculation, \(|\hat{\beta}| = 1 + c_n + o_p(n^{-1/2})\) so
\[
\frac{\hat{\beta}}{|\hat{\beta}|} = \beta_0 + \frac{1}{2} (I - \beta_0 \beta_0^T) (\hat{\beta} - \beta_0) \\
- \frac{\tilde{G}^+}{2n\mathbb{E}N} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^{N_i} \left\{ v_{\beta_0}(T_{ik}, Z_{ik}) \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \bar{z}^0} \right\} \epsilon_{ik} + o_p(n^{-1/2}).
\]

Therefore, in the \((m + 1)\)th iteration,
\[
\hat{\beta}_{(m+1)} = \beta_0 + \frac{1}{2} (I - \beta_0 \beta_0^T) (\hat{\beta}_{(m)} - \beta_0) \\
- \frac{\tilde{G}^+}{2n\mathbb{E}N} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^{N_i} \left\{ v_{\beta_0}(T_{ik}, Z_{ik}) \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \bar{z}^0} \right\} \epsilon_{ik} + o_p(n^{-1/2}) \\
= \beta_0 + \frac{1}{2m} (I - \beta_0 \beta_0^T) (\hat{\beta}_{(1)} - \beta_0) \\
- \left( \sum_{j=1}^m \frac{1}{2j} \right) (n\mathbb{E}N)^{-1} \tilde{G}^+ \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^{N_i} \left\{ v_{\beta_0}(T_{ik}, Z_{ik}) \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \bar{z}^0} \right\} \epsilon_{ik} \\
+ o_p(n^{-1/2}).
\]

Consequently, as the iteration \(m \to \infty\), Lemma D.1 in Appendix D implies the following theorem.
Theorem 3.1. Under assumptions A.1–A.6,
\[ \sqrt{n}(\hat{\beta} - \beta_0) \xrightarrow{D} N_p(0, \Sigma), \]
where \( \Sigma = \hat{G}^+ \Sigma^* \hat{G}^+ \) and \( \Sigma^* = \frac{E(N)-1}{2} \frac{1}{n} E[\left\{ \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \frac{\partial}{\partial z'} v_{\beta_0}(T, Z) \epsilon \right\}^T] \]
\[ + \frac{1}{2} E[\left\{ \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \frac{\partial}{\partial z'} v_{\beta_0}(T, Z) \epsilon \right\}^T]. \]

In practice, the covariance of \( \hat{\beta} \) in Theorem 3.1 is unknown and needs to be estimated to make inference on \( \beta \). The idea is to replace the unknown values with consistent estimates. First, \( \bar{N} = \sum_{i=1}^n N_i/n \) and \( \hat{G} \) can be estimated by
\[ \hat{G} = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^{N_i} \left\{ \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \hat{\mu}(T_{ik}, \hat{\beta}^T Z_{ik}) \right\}^2 \hat{G}(Z_{ik})/(2n\bar{N}), \]
where \( \hat{G}(Z_{ik}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{1}{\bar{N}^i} \sum_{\ell=1}^{N_i} (Z_{j\ell} - Z_{ik})(Z_{j\ell} - Z_{ik})^T \). To estimate \( \Sigma^* \), we estimate \( v_{\beta_0}(T, Z) \) at all \( (T_{ik}, Z_{ik}) \) by (3.5), estimate \( \epsilon \) at \( (T_{ik}, Z_{ik}) \) by the residual, \( Y_{ik} - \hat{\mu}(T_{ik}, \hat{\beta}^T Z_{ik}) \), and average the product terms in \( \Sigma^* \). Therefore,
\[ \hat{\Sigma}^* = \frac{\bar{N} - 1}{N} \left\{ \frac{1}{N^*} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{j \neq k \leq N_i} H_{ik} H_{ij}^T \right\} + \frac{1}{nN} \left\{ \frac{1}{nN} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^{N_i} H_{ik} H_{ik}^T \right\}, \]
where \( H_{ik} = \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \hat{\mu}(T_{ik}, \hat{\beta}^T Z_{ik}) \) \( \hat{v}_{\beta_0}(T_{ik}, Z_{ik}) \hat{\epsilon}_{ik} \) and \( N^* = \sum_{i=1}^n N_i^2 - N_i \). To estimate \( v_{\beta_0}(T_{ik}, Z_{ik}) = E(Z|T = T_{ik}, \beta_0^T Z = \hat{\beta}_0^T Z_{ik}) - Z_{ik} \), we can, for simplicity, apply a weighted average estimator on the observations in the neighborhood of \( (T_{ik}, \beta_0^T Z_{ik}) \), which leads to
\[ \hat{v}_{\beta_0}(T_{ik}, Z_{ik}) = \sum_{j, \ell} \frac{K_h((T_{j\ell} - T_{ik}), \hat{\beta}^T (Z_{j\ell} - Z_{ik}))}{\sum_{j, \ell} K_h((T_{j\ell} - T_{ik}), \hat{\beta}^T (Z_{j\ell} - Z_{ik}))} (Z_{j\ell} - Z_{ik}). \]

More sophisticated procedures might be considered to estimate the above unknown values.

Before showing the asymptotic property of the local linear smoother, \( \hat{\mu}(t, \hat{\beta}^T z(t)) \), we first need the asymptotic property of the local linear smoother, \( \hat{\mu}(t, u(t)) \), where \( u \) is a univariate longitudinal covariate. This is provided in Theorem 3.2 below, with the proof in Appendix C.
It is interesting that the asymptotic bias term in Theorem 3.2 depends on the ratio \( h_z / h_t \). This is due to the assumption that \( n E(N) h_t^6 \rightarrow \tau^2 \) and assumption A.1 in Appendix A, which requires \( h_t \) and \( h_z \) to have the same rate. After some Taylor expansions, these two assumptions on the bandwidths lead to the asymptotic bias term in Theorem 3.2. The assumption that the two bandwidths, \( h_z \) and \( h_t \), have the same rate is natural since the mean function \( \mu(t,z) \) has the same order of smoothness along both the \( t \) and \( z \) coordinates.

Since \( \hat{\beta} \) is a \( \sqrt{n} \)-consistent estimator of \( \beta_0 \) and by Theorem 3.2, the asymptotic properties of the local linear smoothers for the mean can be obtained.

**Theorem 3.3.** Under assumptions A.1–A.6, \( h_z / h_t \rightarrow \rho \) and \( n E(N) h_t^6 \rightarrow \tau^2 \) for some \( 0 < \rho, \tau < \infty \), and

\[
\sqrt{n \tilde{N}} h_t h_z \{ \hat{\mu}(t, \hat{\beta}^T z) - \mu(t, \beta_0^T z) \} \xrightarrow{D} N(\Delta_{\mu}, \Sigma_{\mu}),
\]

where \( \Delta_{\mu} = \frac{\tau^2}{2} \left( \frac{\partial^2 \mu}{\partial t^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \mu}{\partial z^2} \rho^2 \right), \Sigma_{\mu} = \{ \text{var}(Y|t, \beta_0^T z) \|K_2\|^2 \}/f_2(t, \beta_0^T z) \) and \( \|K_2\|^2 = \int K_2^2 \).

**4. Simulation study.** Two simulation schemes are considered in this paper. One considers the case with time-invariant covariates; the other considers longitudinal covariates. In both simulation studies, \( \hat{\beta}(0) = (1/\sqrt{\rho}) \mathbf{1}_p \), where \( \mathbf{1}_p \) is a \( p \)-dimensional vector with entries all equal to 1, was used as the initial value of \( \beta \), the number of runs was 100 and the number of subject for each run was \( n = 100 \).

4.1. **Simulation I: Time-invariant covariate.** The covariate for each subject \( Z_1, Z_2 \) is generated from \( Z_1 \sim \text{Bernoulli} \) (with probability of success 0.5) and \( Z_2 \sim N(0, \Psi) \), where \( \Psi = 0.5 \times I_5 + 0.5 \times I_5 I_5 \). We choose \( \beta_0^T = (2, 1, 0, 3, 0, -1)/\sqrt{15} \). Given a subject with covariate \( \tilde{z} = (z_1, z_2)^T \beta_0 \), the stochastic process \( Y^* \) is generated from a Gaussian process on \([0, 1]\) with mean function \( \mu(t, \tilde{z}) = \sin(\tilde{z}) \sin(t \pi) + \{ 1 - \sin(\tilde{z}) \} \cos(t \pi) \) and covariogram function \( \Gamma(s, t) = (1/4)\phi_1(t) \phi_1(s) + (1/16)\phi_2(t) \phi_2(s) \), where \( \phi_1(t) = -\sin(\pi t) \sqrt{2} \) and \( \phi_2(t) = \cos(\pi t) \sqrt{2} \) are the eigenfunctions of \( \Gamma \), with corresponding eigenvalues 1/4 and 1/16, respectively. The measurement errors are assumed to be normally distributed with mean \( 0 \) and variance \( 0.01 \). Note that the variance of measurement error is not very small compared to the scales of the mean function and the eigenvalues.

For the measurement schedule, we use a “jittered” design with an equally spaced grid \( \{ c_0, \ldots, c_{50} \} \) on \([0, 1]\) \( c_0 = 0 \) and \( c_{50} = 1 \) and then jitter each point \( c_i \) by \( s_i = c_i + \epsilon_i \), where \( \epsilon_i \) are i.i.d. with \( N(0, 0.0001) \), \( s_i = 0 \) if \( s_i < 0 \) and \( s_i = 1 \) if \( s_i > 1 \). This resulted in a jittered schedule that is no longer equally spaced; from there, a random sample of size \( N_i \) is selected from \( \{s_1, \ldots, s_{49} \} \) without replacement to serve as the \( N_i \) measurement schedule for the \( i \)th subject, where \( N_i \) is itself sampled from a discrete uniform distribution \( \{2, \ldots, 10\} \).
TABLE 1
Performances of estimators for 3- and 10-fold CV. (Measures of differences between $\hat{\beta}$ and $\beta$: $\|\cdot\|$ measures the difference in the Euclidean norm and $\cos^{-1}$ in terms of the angle between $\hat{\beta}$ and $\beta$.) The IMSE is the integrated mean squared error, defined as $\int\int [\hat{\mu}(t,u) - \mu(t,u)]^2 dt du$. Note that the IMSE of $\hat{\mu}$ in simulation II is much larger than that in simulation I, due to different scales of $t$ and $\beta^T z$, and different mean function.

| Simulation | CV | $\|\beta - \hat{\beta}\|$ | $\cos^{-1}(\beta^T \hat{\beta})$ | IMSE($\mu$) |
|------------|----|----------------|-----------------|-------|
| I          | 3  | 0.2121 (0.0867) | 12.1900 (5.0161) | 0.0312 |
|            | 10 | 0.2121 (0.0793) | 12.1860 (4.5833) | 0.0237 |
| II         | 3  | 0.2575 (0.1923) | 14.8944 (11.3004) | 0.2723 |
|            | 10 | 0.2501 (0.1914) | 14.4675 (11.2666) | 0.2257 |

We experimented with several $m$-fold cross-validation (CV) methods and found the 10-fold method to be satisfactory. Table 1 reports the results for $m = 3$ and 10. The results for the parametric estimate $\hat{\beta}$ are comparable for 3- and 10-fold CVs with the 10-fold CV being somewhat better. In terms of estimating the mean function, the 10-fold CV performs better. Figure 1 also suggests good performance of the 10-fold CV method in terms of bias. The plot for the 3-fold CV is similar, but is not provided.

4.2. Simulation II: Longitudinal covariates. This simulation scheme is inspired by the CD4+ cell counts data from the Multicenter AIDS Cohort Study or MACS [Kaslow et al. (1987)], which is analyzed in Section 5. There are five covariates in this AIDS data: age at seroconversion and four longitudinal covariates [packs of cigarettes, recreational drug use (1: yes, 0: no), number of sexual partners and mental illness scores (CESD), larger values indicate increased depressive}

![Fig. 1. True mean function, averaged estimated mean function and bias in simulation study I.](image)
symptoms]. In the simulation, the covariate values were based on the five covariates from 100 randomly selected subjects. The mean function, coefficient of the index, two eigenfunctions and two eigenvalues were also chosen to mimic the corresponding values of the real data (see Section 5). Therefore, we choose the mean function

$$\mu(t, \beta_0^T z) = 6 + \frac{\beta_0^T z}{5} + \frac{1}{1 + \exp(t)} + \frac{\exp[-t(\beta_0^T z + 3)]}{1 + \exp[-t(\beta_0^T z + 3)]},$$

where the index coefficient $\beta_0^T = (0.1043, 0.5213, 0.8341, -0.1043, -0.1043)$ and $t \in [-3, 5.5]$. The two eigenfunctions are $\phi_1(t) = \cos((t + 3)\pi/8.5)/\sqrt{4.25}$, and $\phi_2(t) = -\sin((t + 3)\pi/8.5)/\sqrt{4.25}$, with respective eigenvalues $\lambda_1 = 2$ and $\lambda_2 = 0.5$. For each subject, the two principal component scores are generated from $N(0, \lambda_1)$ and $N(0, \lambda_2)$. Also, normally distributed measurement errors with mean zero and variance 0.1 are added.

Consistent with the results in simulation I, where the covariates are time invariant, the results in Table 1 for estimating $\beta$ and mean function $\mu(t, \beta^T z(t))$ are also comparable for the 3-fold and 10-fold CVs, with 10-fold CV slightly better. Again, we only provide the plot of estimates based on the 10-fold CV. Other than the boundary, Figure 2 suggests good performance of the 10-fold CV method in terms of bias. The boundary effect appears to be due to the sparsity of the data and is more prominent than in the previous simulation setting of time-invariant covariates. The observed $\beta^T z$ are very sparse near the boundaries.

5. Application. We illustrate the methodology via CD4+ cell counts data from the Multicenter AIDS Cohort Study or MACS [Kaslow et al. (1987)]. HIV destroys CD4 cells, which play a vital role in the immune system. The CD4 cell count is thus a good marker for disease progress. The number of CD4 cells might
also be related to some subject-specific factors such as smoking, age, etc. In the first example, we apply our approach to the CD4 data analyzed in Wu and Chiang (2000), where the covariates are time invariant. The second example is the CD4 data analyzed in Zeger and Diggle (1994), where longitudinal covariate variables are available.

5.1. Example I: Time-invariant covariates. This data set involves 1817 measurements of CD4 percentages, which are cell counts divided by the total number of lymphocytes, observed for 283 homosexual men who became HIV positive between 1984 and 1991. The measurements were scheduled at each half-yearly visit; however, the actual measurement times may vary and some subjects missed some of their scheduled visits. The resulting measurement times $t_{ij}$ per subject are irregular and sparse. Three time-independent covariate variables are considered in our analysis: smoking status (1: yes, 0: no), age at HIV infection and pre-HIV infection CD4 percentage. To make the scales of different covariates compatible, we standardize age and pre-HIV infection CD4 percentage. Similarly to the simulation study, we use 3-fold and 10-fold CV to choose the bandwidths for the nonparametric procedures.

To avoid being trapped in a local minimum, we choose ten different random initial values for $\hat{\beta}(0) = (\hat{\beta}_1(0), \hat{\beta}_2(0), \hat{\beta}_3(0))^T$, as follows. First, we pick five different values (0.1, 0.3, 0.5, 0.7 and 0.9) for $\hat{\beta}_1(0)$ and generate $\hat{\beta}_2(0)$ from $U(0, \sqrt{1 - \hat{\beta}_1^2(0)})$, then we set $\hat{\beta}_3(0) = \sqrt{1 - \hat{\beta}_1^2(0) - \hat{\beta}_2^2(0)}$ to ensure that $\|\hat{\beta}(0)\| = 1$. The signs of $\hat{\beta}_2(0)$ and $\hat{\beta}_3(0)$ are initially randomly assigned and then flipped to make up for the ten initial $\hat{\beta}(0)$. These ten initial values all lead to the same $\hat{\beta}$.

Several statistical models have been applied to this data set, such as varying coefficient models in Wu and Chiang (2000). In their analysis, only the effect of pre-infection CD4 percentage was found to be significant and positive, but none of the covariate effects seem time-dependent [see Figures 1 and 2 in Wu and Chiang (2000)]. This result is consistent with our findings in Table 2 and Figure 3. We find that people who smoke, who are young when they get the HIV infection and

| TABLE 2 |
| --- |
| Estimated parametric index $\hat{\beta}$ and asymptotic covariance of $\hat{\beta}$ for example I |
| [here, $h_\mu = (h_1, h_2)$ is the bandwidth for estimating $\beta$ and $\mu(t, \beta^T z)$] |
| --- |
| CV | 3 | 10 |
| $h_\mu$ | (2.14, 2.80) | (1.70, 5.00) |
| $\hat{\beta}^T$ | (0.0727, -0.1074, 0.9916) | (0.0877, -0.1076, 0.9903) |
| $\text{Var}(\hat{\beta}) \approx \frac{\hat{\beta}}{\sqrt{\nu}}$ | \begin{pmatrix} 0.4213 & 0.0141 & -0.0796 \\ 0.0141 & 0.0887 & -0.0161 \\ -0.0796 & -0.0161 & 0.0602 \end{pmatrix} | \begin{pmatrix} 0.4137 & 0.0103 & -0.1072 \\ 0.0103 & 0.0898 & -0.0128 \\ -0.1072 & -0.0128 & 0.0932 \end{pmatrix} |
who have higher pre-HIV infection CD4 percentages tend to have higher post-HIV infection CD4 percentages on average. However, only pre-HIV infection CD4 percentage is significant. In the right panel of Figure 3, we observe that, in general, the CD4 percentages deplete rather quickly at the beginning of HIV infection and the rates of depletion during the first 2.5 years are generally higher than in later years. However, the time when the rate of depletion slows down varies with the levels of $\hat{\beta}^T z$. More specifically, when $\hat{\beta}^T z$ is larger, the rate of depletion slows down earlier.

5.2. Example II: Time-invariant and longitudinal covariates. In this data set, 2376 CD4 observations on 369 subjects were made and the times of observation ranged from 3 years before to 6 years after seroconversion. Five covariates considered in this analysis are age, packs of cigarettes, recreational drug use (1: yes, 0: no), number of sexual partners and mental illness scores (CESD) (larger values indicate increased depressive symptoms). Except for age, the other four covariates are longitudinal. As in example I, we applied 3- and 10-fold CVs to choose the bandwidths in nonparametric procedures and adopted the same strategy to select 10 initial values for $\hat{\beta}_0$. It turned out that all ten random initial $\hat{\beta}_0$’s lead to the same $\hat{\beta}$.

Previous analysis for this data includes the semiparametric models in Zeger and Diggle (1994), where age, smoking, recreational drug use and increased numbers of sexual partners are associated with higher CD4 cell numbers, while increased depressive symptoms are associated with decreased CD4 levels, but the effects of age and recreation drug use are not significant.

In our analysis, among these five covariates, the effect of packs of cigarettes smoked per day is the most significant. Moreover, our analysis in Table 3 suggests
that an increasing number of sexual partners is negatively associated with CD4 counts, which seems more reasonable than the previous result. From Table 3 and Figure 4, we also observe higher mean CD4 cell numbers when subjects are older, smoke more, use recreational drugs and have lower CESD. The right panel of
Figure 4 suggests a big decline of CD4 cell counts half a year before the seroconversion and one year after seroconversion. After one year of seroconversion, the decline slows down slightly. The trough at the end might be due to the boundary effect.

6. Discussion and conclusions. The proposed estimate of the single index for longitudinal response data works well in our simulations and data application. It has the advantage that the same bandwidth is used to estimate the nonparametric mean function and the single index without the need to undersmooth the mean function in order to achieve the $\sqrt{n}$-convergence rate, as is often the case in semiparametric regression models with independent response data. This leads to a unified approach to selecting the bandwidth. Additional computational savings are accomplished through the $m$-fold cross-validation methods. The simulation results reported in Section 4 suggest that the performance of the procedure is not very sensitive to the choice of $m$ and the initial value $\hat{\beta}(0)$.

We have derived asymptotic distributions for both the parametric ($\beta$) and nonparametric ($\mu$) components of the model and illustrate its usefulness for statistical inference via an AIDS data set. While it is possible to extend the approach to multiple indices, such an extension would be computationally intensive and subject to the curse of dimensionality.

An additive model

$$\mathbb{E}(Y(t)) = \mu(t, \beta_0^T Z(t)) = \mu_t(t) + \mu_z(\beta_0^T Z(t))$$

can be viewed as a special case of model (1.3), and if the model is actually additive, our approach can be modified to estimate the parametric and nonparametric components easily. To estimate $\beta$ and the two functions $\mu_t(t)$ and $\mu_z(\beta_0^T Z(t))$, we can perform a two-step procedure. First, apply a one-dimensional scatter plot smoother to $\{(Y_{ij}, T_{ij})|i = 1, \ldots, n; j = 1, \ldots, N_i\}$ to estimate $\mu_t(t)$. Then, apply modified rMAVE (2.3) to the residuals to estimate $\beta_0$. Specifically, $\beta_0$ can be estimated by solving the minimization problem

$$\min_{\beta, a, b, d} \left( \sum_{j=1}^{N_j} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{N_i} \left[ Y_{ik}^c - d_{j\ell} \beta^T (Z_{ik} - Z_{j\ell}) \right]^2 w_{ikj\ell} \right),$$

where $Y_{ik}^c = Y_{ik} - \hat{\mu}_t(T_{ik})$ for $1 \leq k \leq N_i$ and $1 \leq i \leq n$.

Model (1.3) extends the popular single-index model from independent univariate to longitudinal response data. Our extension allows both time-independent and longitudinal covariates, but restricts the effect of the covariates to be time invariant. Such a time-invariant approach is in line with the philosophy in linear mixed-effects model, where the covariate effect is time invariant. In this regard, our approach could be viewed as an extension of a parametric linear mixed-effect model to a more flexible semiparametric mixed-effects model. While such an extension may still be considered restrictive, as compared to an approach that adopts
a time-dependent direction $\beta(t)$ to model the covariate effects, the time-invariant direction $\beta$ in our model has a nice interpretation as the averaging covariate effect over time. Thus, $\beta$ as an average of $\beta(t)$ serves as a simple summary measure for the (possibly more complicated) time-dependent covariate effects. Moreover, a time-dependent approach would require a lot more data to correctly estimate the direction $\beta(t)$. When circumstances allow, one way to extend our approach to time-dependent direction $\beta(t)$ is to adopt a two-stage procedure: at the first stage, one bins the data in the direction of time and then applies rMAVE to data that are observed in a bin that contains $t$ to obtain an initial estimate of $\beta(t)$; these are smoothed at the second stage to improve over the initial estimates. This is a subject for future investigation and is beyond the scope of this paper.

Thus far, we have focused on estimation of the unknown components in the functional single-index model. A functional principal component analysis (FPCA) could be added after the covariate-adjusted mean function has been estimated. The mean-adjusted FPCA (mFPCA) proposed in Jiang and Wang (2010) can be used to reconstruct the random trajectories. More specifically, we can first show that the asymptotic properties of the covariance estimator in Theorem 3.5 of Jiang and Wang (2010) hold by exploiting the $\sqrt{n}$-consistency of $\hat{\beta}$. Then, the eigenvalues and eigenfunctions corresponding to the estimated covariance can be estimated by solving the eigenequation, and the PACE method proposed in Yao, Müller and Wang (2005) can be used to estimate the principal component scores and to select the number of components.

APPENDIX A: ASSUMPTIONS

The following type of continuity, as defined in Yao (2007), will be needed: a real function $f(x, y): \mathbb{R}^{n+m} \to \mathbb{R}$ is continuous on $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, uniformly in $y \in \mathbb{R}^m$, if, given any $x \in A$ and $\delta < 0$, there exists a neighborhood of $x$ not depending on $y$, say $U(x)$, such that $|f(x', y) - f(x, y)| < \delta$ for all $x' \in U(x)$ and $y \in \mathbb{R}^m$. Our proofs cover both time-independent and time-dependent covariates with slightly different assumptions and arguments. For both cases, we assume the observation times $T_{ij}$ are i.i.d. with probability density function $f(t)$. For a random design with time-invariant covariates, we assume that $(T_{ij}, \tilde{Z}_i, Y_{ij})$ have the same distribution as $(T, \tilde{Z}, Y)$ with joint probability density function $f_3(t, \tilde{z}, y)$, but dependency is allowed among observations from the same subject. The joint probability density functions of $(T, \tilde{Z})$ and $(T_1, T_2, \tilde{Z}, Y_1, Y_2)$ are denoted as $f_2(t, \tilde{z})$ and $f_5(t_1, t_2, \tilde{z}, y_1, y_2)$, respectively. If the covariate is longitudinal, then we assume that $(T_{ij}, \tilde{Z}_{ij}, Y_{ij})$ have the same distribution as $(T, \tilde{Z}, Y)$ with joint probability density function $f_3(t, \tilde{z}, y)$ and the joint probability density function of $(T_1, T_2, \tilde{Z}_1, \tilde{Z}_2, Y_1, Y_2)$ is $f_6(t_1, t_2, \tilde{z}_1, \tilde{z}_2, y_1, y_2)$.

Below, we describe the various assumptions that appear in the theorems.

A.1 $h_t \asymp h_z \asymp h$, $h \to 0$, $n\mathbb{E}(N)h^2 \to \infty$, $\mathbb{E}(N)h^2 \to 0$ and $n\mathbb{E}(N)h^6 < \infty$. 

A.1’ \( h_t \asymp h_z \asymp h, h \to 0, n\mathbb{E}(N)h^2 \to \infty, \mathbb{E}(N)h \to 0 \) and \( n\mathbb{E}(N)h^6 < \infty \).

A.2 The number of observations \( N_i(n) \) for the \( i \)th subject is a random variable with \( N_i(n) \sim \mathbb{N}(n) \), where \( \mathbb{N}(n) \) is a positive integer-valued random variable such that \( \lim\sup_{n \to \infty} \mathbb{E}(n^2)/[\mathbb{E}(n)]^2 < \infty \) and \( N_i(n), i = 1, \ldots, n \), are i.i.d.

A.3 The conditional mean \( \mu(t, \beta^T z) = \mathbb{E}(Y|T = t, \beta^T Z = \beta^T z) \) and its derivatives up to second order are continuous on \( \{(t, \bar{z})\} \) and its derivatives up to the third order are bounded for all \( \beta : |\beta - \beta_0| < \delta, \) for a \( \delta > 0 \).

A.4 The joint probability density function \( f_2(t, \bar{z}) \) and its derivatives up to third order are bounded, up to second order they are continuous on \( \{(t, \bar{z})\} \) and \( f_2(t, \bar{z}) > 0 \) is bounded away from zero for all \( \beta : |\beta - \beta_0| < \delta, \) for a \( \delta > 0 \).

A.5 The joint probability density function \( f_3(t, \bar{z}, y) \) and its derivatives up to second order exist and are continuous on \( \{(t, \bar{z})\} \), uniformly in \( y \in \mathbb{R} \) for all \( \beta : |\beta - \beta_0| < \delta, \) for a \( \delta > 0 \).

A.6 \( f_6(t_1, t_2, \bar{z}_1, \bar{z}_2, y_1, y_2) \) is continuous on \( \{(t_1, t_2, \bar{z}_1, \bar{z}_2)\} \), uniformly in \( (y_1, y_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \) for all \( \beta : |\beta - \beta_0| < \delta, \) for a \( \delta > 0 \).

A.6’ \( f_5(t_1, t_2, \bar{z}, y_1, y_2) \) is continuous on \( \{(t_1, t_2, \bar{z})\} \), uniformly in \( (y_1, y_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \) for all \( \beta : |\beta - \beta_0| < \delta, \) for a \( \delta > 0 \).

The bandwidth assumption A.1 and the assumption on the measurement schedule A.2 are required to show that the usual local properties of the kernel estimators hold for longitudinal or functional data in the presence of within-subject correlation. Assumptions A.3–A.6 are regularity conditions for joint probability density functions and the mean function. These regularity conditions, along with the bandwidth assumption A.1, are needed for the consistency results. A.1’ and A.6’ are the assumptions when the covariate variables are time invariant. Adopting assumption A.4 is common practice in the theory of regression estimation to study estimators on sets bounded away from the troublesome regions [e.g., Hall (1989), Härdle, Hall and Ichimura (1993) and Xia et al. (2002)].

APPENDIX B: PROOFS OF (3.3) AND (3.4)

PROOF OF (3.3). Let \((\beta, B)\) be an orthogonal matrix and, by Lemma D.2, we obtain

\[
\begin{align*}
\{n\mathbb{E}N \hat{f}_2(t, \bar{z})\}^{-1} & \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{N_i} K_h(T_{ij} - t, \bar{Z}_{ij} - \bar{z})(Z_{ij} - z)(Z_{ij} - z)^T \\
= \{n\mathbb{E}N \hat{f}_2(t, \bar{z})\}^{-1} & \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{N_i} K_h(T_{ij} - t, \bar{Z}_{ij} - \bar{z})(\beta, B) \left( \beta^T B^T \right) \\
\times & (Z_{ij} - z)(Z_{ij} - z)^T (\beta, B) \left( \beta^T B^T \right) \\
= & (\beta, B) \left( \beta^T F_\beta^2(t, \bar{z})h_\beta^2 + F_\beta(t, \bar{z})Bh_\beta^2 + B^T G(z)B + O_p(h^2) \right) \left( \beta^T B^T \right) + O_p(h^3),
\end{align*}
\]

\[(B.1)\]
where \( G(z) = \mathbb{E}\{(Z_{ij} - z)(Z_{ij} - z)^T\} \) and \( F_\beta(t, z) = \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(f_\beta^T(t, z))/f_\beta \).

Next, consider

\[
D_\beta^n = (n\mathbb{E}N)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^{N_i} d_\beta^2(T_{ik}, Z_{ik})(n\mathbb{E}N f_\beta(T_{ik}, Z_{ik}))^{-1}
\]

\[
\times \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{\ell=1}^{N_j} K_h(T_{j\ell} - T_{ik}, \tilde{Z}_{j\ell} - \tilde{Z}_{ik})
\]

\[
\times (Z_{j\ell} - Z_{ik})(Z_{j\ell} - Z_{ik})^T
\]

\[
= (n\mathbb{E}N)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^{N_i} d_\beta^2(T_{ik}, Z_{ik})(\beta, B)
\]

\[
\times \left( B^T \tilde{F}_\beta^T(T_{ik}, Z_{ik}) h_z^2 \begin{pmatrix} F_\beta(T_{ik}, Z_{ik}) B h_z^2 \\ B^T \tilde{G}(Z_{ik}) B + O_p(h^2) \end{pmatrix} \right) \left( \beta^T \begin{pmatrix} B^T \\ h_z^2 \end{pmatrix} \right)
\]

\[+ O_p(h^3)\]

\[
= (\beta, B) \left( \mathbb{E}\{(\frac{\partial \mu}{\partial z})^2\} h_z^2 \begin{pmatrix} B^T \tilde{F} h_z^2 \\ 2B^T \tilde{G} B + O_p(h^2 + \delta_\beta) \end{pmatrix} \right) \left( \begin{pmatrix} \beta^T \\ h_z^2 \end{pmatrix} \right)
\]

\[+ O_p(h^3 + \delta_\beta h^2),\]

where \( \tilde{F} = \mathbb{E}\{((\frac{\partial \mu}{\partial z})^2 F_\beta(T, Z)) \}, \tilde{G} = \frac{1}{2}\mathbb{E}\{((\frac{\partial \mu}{\partial z})^2 G(Z)) \}, \) the second equality follows from (B.1) and the last equality follows from Lemma D.1.

Using the formula for matrix inverse in block form and letting \( \tau = \mathbb{E}\{(\frac{\partial \mu}{\partial z})^2\} h_z^2 \)

and \( \tilde{G}^* = (B^T \tilde{G} B)^{-1} \), we obtain

\[
\{D_\beta^n\}^{-1} = (\beta, B) \left( \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\tau} & -\frac{1}{2\tau} \tilde{G}^* B \tilde{G}^* h_z^2 \\ -\frac{1}{2\tau} B \tilde{G}^* \tilde{F}^T h_z^2 & \frac{1}{2} \tilde{G}^* \end{pmatrix} \right) \left( \begin{pmatrix} \beta^T \\ h_z^2 \end{pmatrix} \right) + O_p(h + \delta_\beta)
\]

\[
= \frac{\beta \beta^T}{\tau} - \frac{h_z^2}{2\tau} (B \tilde{G}^* B^T \tilde{F}^T \tilde{G}^* \beta^T + \beta \tilde{F} B \tilde{G}^* \tilde{F} \beta^T) + \frac{1}{2} B \tilde{G}^* B^T + O_p(h + \delta_\beta)
\]

\[
= \frac{\beta_0 \beta_0^T}{\tau} - \frac{h_z^2}{2\tau} (\tilde{G}^+ \tilde{F}^T \beta_0^T + \beta_0 \tilde{F} \tilde{G}^+) + \frac{1}{2} \tilde{G}^+ + O_p(h + \delta_\beta),
\]

where \( \tilde{G}^+ = B_0 (B_0^T \tilde{G} B_0)^{-1} B_0^T \) is the Moore–Penrose inverse of \( \tilde{G} \). □

**Proof of (3.4).** To prove

\[
\gamma = \tilde{G}(\beta - \beta_0) - (n\mathbb{E}N)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^{N_i} \left\{ v_{\beta_0}(T_{ik}, Z_{ik}) \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial z} \right\} \epsilon_{ik} + o_p(n^{-1/2}),
\]
we work on \( \{ Y_{ik} - a_\beta(T_{j\ell}, Z_{j\ell}) - b_\beta(T_{j\ell}, Z_{j\ell})(T_{ik} - T_{j\ell}) - d_\beta(T_{j\ell}, Z_{j\ell}) \beta_T^T (Z_{ik} - Z_{j\ell}) \} \) first. By Lemma D.3, we have

\[
Y_{ij} - a_\beta(t, z) - b_\beta(t, z)(T_{ij} - t) - d_\beta(t, z) \beta_T^T (Z_{ij} - z)
= -\frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \tilde{z}} \nu_\beta(t, z) \delta_\beta + \epsilon_{ij} - \tilde{\epsilon}_{n,1}
- \frac{\tilde{\epsilon}_{n,2}}{h_t} (T_{ij} - t) - \frac{\tilde{\epsilon}_{n,3}}{h_z} \beta_T^T (Z_{ij} - z)
\]

\[\text{(B.2)}\]

\[
+ \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 \mu}{\partial t^2} ((T_{ij} - t)^2 - h_t^2) + \frac{\partial^2 \mu}{\partial t \partial \tilde{z}} (T_{ij} - t)(\tilde{T}_{ij} - \tilde{z})
+ \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 \mu}{\partial (\tilde{z})^2} ((\tilde{T}_{ij} - \tilde{z})^2 - h_{\tilde{z}}^2)
+ o_p(h^2 + |\delta_\beta| + |\delta_\beta|h + |\delta_\beta|h^2 + |\delta_\beta|^2)
+ O_p(\Delta),
\]

where \( \Delta = \sum_{\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 = 3} |T_{ij} - t|^\alpha_1 |\tilde{Z}_{ij}^0 - z_{ij}^0|^\alpha_2 + |T_{ij} - t||Z_{ij} - z| \delta_\beta + |Z_{ij}^T - z^T| (\delta_\beta + \delta_\beta^2) \). We will now calculate the weighted sum of each term in (3.2). This leads to the following results.

(i) Let

\[
\Sigma_{0n} = (n \mathbb{E} N)^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{\ell=1}^{N_j} \frac{\partial \mu / \partial \tilde{z}}{n \mathbb{E} N} d_\beta(T_{j\ell}, Z_{j\ell})
\]

\[
\times \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{N_i} K_h(T_{ik} - T_{j\ell}, \tilde{Z}_{ik} - \tilde{Z}_{j\ell})
\times (Z_{ik} - Z_{j\ell}) \nu_T^T (T_{j\ell}, Z_{j\ell})
\]

\[
= (n \mathbb{E} N)^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{\ell=1}^{N_j} \frac{\partial \mu / \partial \tilde{z}}{n \mathbb{E} N} d_\beta(T_{j\ell}, Z_{j\ell})
\]

\[
\times (f_2 \nu_\beta(T_{j\ell}, Z_{j\ell}) + O_p(h^2)) \nu_T^T (T_{j\ell}, Z_{j\ell})
\]

\[
= (n \mathbb{E} N)^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{\ell=1}^{N_j} \frac{\partial \mu / \partial \tilde{z}}{n \mathbb{E} N} f_2 \nu_\beta(T_{j\ell}, Z_{j\ell})
\]

\[
\times \nu_T^T (T_{j\ell}, Z_{j\ell}) \left( \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \tilde{z}} + O_p(h + \Delta) \right) + o_p(n^{-1/2})
\]

\[
= \tilde{G} + o_p(n^{-1/2}).
\]
(ii) If we let
\[ N_n = \left( n E N \right)^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \sum_{\ell=1}^{N_j} \frac{d\beta(T_{j\ell}, Z_{j\ell})}{n E N f_2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N_i} K_h(T_{ik} - T_{j\ell}, \tilde{Z}_{ik} - \tilde{Z}_{j\ell}) \]
\[ \times (Z_{ik} - Z_{j\ell})\epsilon_{ik}, \]
then
\[ N_n = \left( n E N \right)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N_i} \frac{\epsilon_{ik}}{n E N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \sum_{\ell=1}^{N_j} K_h(T_{ik} - T_{j\ell}, \tilde{Z}_{ik} - \tilde{Z}_{j\ell}) \]
\[ \times \frac{d\beta(T_{j\ell}, Z_{j\ell})(Z_{ik} - Z_{j\ell})}{f_2} \]
(B.3)
\[ = \left( n E N \right)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N_i} N_{nj}\epsilon_{ik}, \]
where
\[ N_{nj} = \frac{1}{n E N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \sum_{\ell=1}^{N_j} K_h(T_{ik} - T_{j\ell}, \tilde{Z}_{ik} - \tilde{Z}_{j\ell}) \]
\[ \times \frac{d\beta(T_{j\ell}, Z_{j\ell})(Z_{ik} - Z_{j\ell})}{f_2} \]
(B.4)
\[ = \frac{1}{n E N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \sum_{\ell=1}^{N_j} K_h(T_{ik} - T_{j\ell}, \tilde{Z}_{ik} - \tilde{Z}_{j\ell})(Z_{ik} - Z_{j\ell}) \]
\[ \times \frac{(\partial \mu/\partial \tilde{z}) + O_p(h + |\delta \beta|)}{f_2} \]
\[ = (Z_i - E(Z|T = T_{ik}, Z^T \beta = Z_{ik}^T \beta)) \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \tilde{z}} + O_p(h + |\delta \beta|) \]
\[ = -\nu_\beta(T_{ik}, Z_{ik}) \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \tilde{z}} + O_p(h + |\delta \beta|). \]
Plugging (B.4) into (B.3), we will get
\[ N_n = \left( n E N \right)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N_i} \left( -\nu_\beta(T_{ik}, Z_{ik}) \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \tilde{z}} + O_p(h + |\delta \beta|) \right) \epsilon_{ik} \]
\[ = \left( n E N \right)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N_i} \left( -\nu_0(T_{ik}, Z_{ik}) \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \tilde{z}} \right) \epsilon_{ik} + o_p(n^{-1/2}). \]

(iii) From the definitions of \( \tilde{\epsilon}_{n,1} \), \( \tilde{\epsilon}_{n,2} \) and \( \tilde{\epsilon}_{n,3} \), we obtain
\[ \tilde{\epsilon}_{n,1} = O_p(h^2), \quad \tilde{\epsilon}_{n,2} = O_p(h^2) \quad \text{and} \quad \tilde{\epsilon}_{n,3} = O_p(h^2). \]
Let \( R_n = (n \mathbb{E} N)^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{\ell=1}^{N_j} \frac{1}{n \mathbb{E} N} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{N_i} K_h(T_{ik} - T_{j\ell}, \tilde{Z}_{ik} - \tilde{Z}_{j\ell}) \times (Z_{ik} - Z_{j\ell})(\tilde{\epsilon}_{n,1} + \frac{\tilde{\epsilon}_{n,2}}{n \mathbb{E} N}(T_{ik} - T_{j\ell}) + \frac{\tilde{\epsilon}_{n,3}}{h_2} \beta_0^T (Z_{ik} - Z_{j\ell})) \) and thus \( R_n = o_p(n^{-1/2}) \).

(iv)

\[
R_n = (n \mathbb{E} N)^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{\ell=1}^{N_j} \frac{\partial^2 \mu / \partial t / \partial \tilde{z}^0}{n \mathbb{E} N} \frac{d\beta(T_{j\ell}, Z_{j\ell})}{\hat{f}_2} \times \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{N_i} K_h(T_{ik} - T_{j\ell}, \tilde{Z}_{ik} - \tilde{Z}_{j\ell})(Z_{ik} - Z_{j\ell})(T_{ik} - T_{j\ell})^2 - h_2^2 \]

\[
= (n \mathbb{E} N)^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{\ell=1}^{N_j} h_2^2 \frac{\partial^2 \mu}{\partial t^2} \frac{d\beta(T_{j\ell}, Z_{j\ell})}{\hat{f}_2} \times O_p(h^2) = o_p(n^{-1/2}).
\]

(v)

\[
R_n = (n \mathbb{E} N)^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{\ell=1}^{N_j} \frac{\partial^2 \mu / \partial t / \partial \tilde{z}^0}{n \mathbb{E} N} \frac{d\beta(T_{j\ell}, Z_{j\ell})}{\hat{f}_2} \times \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{N_i} K_h(T_{ik} - T_{j\ell}, \tilde{Z}_{ik} - \tilde{Z}_{j\ell})(Z_{ik} - Z_{j\ell})\beta^T (Z_{ik} - Z_{j\ell}) \]

\[
= o_p(n^{-1/2}).
\]

(vi)

\[
R_n = (n \mathbb{E} N)^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{\ell=1}^{N_j} \frac{\partial^2 \mu / \partial \tilde{z}^2}{n \mathbb{E} N} \frac{d\beta(T_{j\ell}, Z_{j\ell})}{\hat{f}_2} \times \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{N_i} K_h(T_{ik} - T_{j\ell}, \tilde{Z}_{ik} - \tilde{Z}_{j\ell})(Z_{ik} - Z_{j\ell})\beta^T (Z_{ik} - Z_{j\ell})\beta^T (Z_{ik} - Z_{j\ell}) \]

\[
= o_p(n^{-1/2}).
\]

From (i)–(vi), the weighted sum of (B.2) becomes

\[
\Upsilon = \tilde{G}(\beta - \beta_0) + N_n + R_n + o_p(n^{-1/2})
\]

\[
= \tilde{G}(\beta - \beta_0) - (n \mathbb{E} N)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{N_i} \left( v_{\beta_0}(T_{ik}, Z_{ik}) \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \tilde{z}^0} \right) \epsilon_{ik} + o_p(n^{-1/2})
\]

and (3.4) is thus proved. \(\square\)
In this Appendix, we consider $Y_{ij}$ as the $j$th observation of $i$th subject made at a random time $T_{ij}$ with a univariate longitudinal covariate $Z_{ij}$, where $i=1,\ldots,n$ and $j=1,\ldots,N_i$. The following definitions are needed to derive the asymptotic normalities of two-dimensional scatter plot smoothers.

A two-dimensional kernel function $K_2: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is of order $(\nu,\kappa)$ if

\[
\int \int u^{k_1}v^{k_2}K_2(u,v)\,du\,dv = \begin{cases} 0, & 0 \leq k_1 + k_2 < \kappa, k_1 \neq \nu_1, k_2 \neq \nu_2, \\ \neq 0, & k_1 = \nu_1, k_2 = \nu_2, \\ \neq 0, & k_1 + k_2 = \kappa, \end{cases}
\]

where $\nu$ is a multi-index $\nu=(\nu_1,\nu_2)$ and $|\nu|=\nu_1+\nu_2$. Also, define the inverse Fourier transform of $K_2(u,v)$ by

\[
\zeta_1(t,z) = \int \int \exp(-iut + iwz)K_2(u,w)\,du\,dw.
\]

Further, given an integer $Q \geq 1$ and for $q=1,\ldots,Q$, let $\psi_q: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfy:

B.1 $\psi_q(t,z,y)$'s are continuous on $\{(t,z)\}$, uniformly in $y \in \mathbb{R}$;

B.2 the functions $\frac{\partial^{p_1}}{\partial t^{p_1}}\frac{\partial^{p_2}}{\partial z^{p_2}}\psi_q(t,z,y)$ exist for all arguments $(t,z,y)$ and are continuous on $\{(t,z)\}$, uniformly in $y \in \mathbb{R}$, for $p_1 + p_2 = p$ and $0 \leq p_1, p_2 \leq p$.

The kernel-weighted averages for two-dimensional smoothers are defined as

\[
\Psi_qn = \frac{1}{n\mathbb{E}N_h^{\nu_1+1}h_z^{\nu_2+1}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{N_i} \psi_q(T_{ij}, Z_{ij}, Y_{ij})K_2\left(\frac{t-T_{ij}}{h_t}, \frac{z-Z_{ij}}{h_z}\right),
\]

where $K_2$ is a kernel function of order $(\nu,\kappa)$ and $h_t$ and $h_z$ are bandwidths associated with $t$ and $z$, respectively. The property of asymptotic normality of the local linear estimator $\hat{\mu}(t,z)$ can be shown by using four specific $\psi_q$ functions. Let

\[
\alpha_q(t,z) = \frac{\partial^{|
u|}}{\partial t^{\nu_1} \partial z^{\nu_2}} \int \psi_q(t,z,y)f_3(t,z,y)\,dy
\]

and

\[
\sigma qr(t,z) = \int \psi_q(t,z,y)\psi_r(t,z,y)f_3(t,z,y)\,dy\|K_2\|^2,
\]

where $f_3(t,z,y)$ is the joint density of $(T, Z, Y)$, $\|K_2\|^2 = \int K_2^2$ and $1 \leq q, r \leq Q$.

**Lemma C.1.** Under assumptions A.2–A.6, B.1–B.2, $h_t \asymp h_z \asymp h$, $h \to 0$, $n\mathbb{E}(N)h^{\nu_1+2} \rightarrow \infty$, $\mathbb{E}(N)h^2 \rightarrow 0$ and $n\mathbb{E}(N)h^{2\kappa+2} < \infty$,

\[
\sqrt{n\mathbb{E}N_h^{2\nu_1+1}h_z^{2\nu_2+1}}[\Psi_{1n}^T, \ldots, \Psi_{Qn}^T - (\mathbb{E}\Psi_{1n}, \ldots, \mathbb{E}\Psi_{Qn})^T] \overset{D}{\rightarrow} N(0, \Sigma).
\]
PROOF. This lemma can be shown by following similar procedures as used to prove Lemma C.1 in Jiang and Wang (2010). The only difference is in the change-of-variable step of showing that $Q_2 = o(1)$. □

The following two lemmas can be justified easily by following the procedures in Jiang and Wang (2010) and thus we omit the proof.

**Lemma C.2.** Let $H : \mathbb{R}^Q \to \mathbb{R}$ be a function with continuous first order derivatives, $DH(v) = (\frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} H(v), \ldots, \frac{\partial}{\partial x_Q} H(v))^T$ and $\bar{N} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n N_i$. Under assumptions A.2–A.6, B.1–B.2, $h_t \asymp h_z \asymp h$, $h \to 0$, $n\mathbb{E}(N)h^{|v|+2} \to \infty$, $\mathbb{E}(N)h^2 \to 0$, $h_z \to \rho \mu$ and $n\mathbb{E}(N)h^{2\kappa+2} \to \tau^2_\mu$ for some $0 < \rho \mu, \tau_\mu < \infty$,

$$\sqrt{n\bar{N}}h_t^{2\nu_1+1}h_z^{2\nu_2+1}[H(\Psi_1, \ldots, \Psi_Q) - H(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_Q)] \overset{D}{\to} N(\beta_H, [DH(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_Q)]^T \Sigma[DH(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_Q)])$$

where $\Sigma = (\sigma_{qr})_{1 \leq q, r \leq l}$ and

$$\beta_H = \sum_{k_1+k_2=\kappa} \frac{(-1)^k}{k_1!k_2!} \left[ \int s_1^{k_1} s_2^{k_2} K_2(s_1, s_2) ds_1 ds_2 \right]$$

$$\times \left\{ \sum_{q=1}^Q \frac{\partial H}{\partial \alpha_q}[(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_Q)^T] \frac{\partial^{k_1+k_2-\nu_1-\nu_2}}{\partial t^{k_1-\alpha_q} \partial z^{k_2-\nu_2}} \alpha_q(t, z) \right\} \tau_\mu \sqrt{\rho^{2\nu_2+1}}.$$

**Lemma C.3.** Under the same assumptions as Lemma C.2, together with the assumption that the inverse Fourier transform $\zeta_1(t, z)$ is absolutely integrable,

$$\sup_{t \in T; z \in Z} |\Psi_{qn} - \alpha_q| = O_p \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{nh^{|v|+2}}} \right) \quad \text{where } h \asymp h_t \asymp h_z.$$

**Proof of Theorem 3.2.** The theorem can be justified easily by employing Lemmas C.2 and C.3, and following the procedures used to prove Theorem 3.2 in Jiang and Wang (2010). □

**Appendix D: Auxiliary Results**

**Lemma D.1.** Suppose $\{T_i, Z_i, Y_i\}$ are from an i.i.d. sample, where $T_i = (T_{i1}, \ldots, T_{iN_i})$, $Z_i = (Z_{i1}, \ldots, Z_{iN_i})$ and $Y_i = (Y_{i1}, \ldots, Y_{iN_i})$. Let $\psi_s(t, z, y)$ be a series of functions and assume that $\mathbb{E}[\psi_s(T, Z, Y)]$ and $\text{var}[\psi_s(T, Z, Y)]$ are both finite. Let $\psi^T = (\psi_1, \ldots, \psi_p)$ and $\bar{\psi}^T = (\bar{\psi}_1, \ldots, \bar{\psi}_p)$, where $\bar{\psi}_s = \frac{1}{n\mathbb{E}(N)} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^{N_i} \psi_s(T_{ik}, Z_{ik}, Y_{ik})$ for $s = 1, \ldots, p$. Under assumptions A.1–A.6, we obtain

$$\sqrt{n}[\bar{\psi} - \mathbb{E}(\bar{\psi})] \overset{D}{\to} N_p(0, \Sigma),$$

(D.1)
where
\[
\Sigma = \frac{1}{\mathbb{E}(N)} \mathbb{E}\{\psi(T, Z, Y)\psi^T(T, Z, Y)\}
\]
\[
+ \frac{\mathbb{E}(N) - 1}{\mathbb{E}(N)} \mathbb{E}\{\psi(T, Z, Y)\psi^T(T', Z', Y')\}
\]
\[- \mathbb{E}\{\psi(T, Z, Y)\}\mathbb{E}\{\psi^T(T, Z, Y)\}.
\]

Equation (D.1) implies that
\[
\frac{1}{n\mathbb{E}N} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{N_i} \psi(T_{ik}, Z_{ik}, Y_{ik}) = \mathbb{E}\{\psi(T, Z, Y)\} + O_p(n^{-1/2}).
\]

**PROOF.** We can prove (D.1) by showing that
\[
\sqrt{n}\{a^T/\Sigma - a^T\mathbb{E}(\Sigma)^{-1}\} \xrightarrow{D} N_p(0, a^T\Sigma a),
\]
where \(a^T = (a_1, \ldots, a_p)\), by the central limit theorem. □

**LEMMA D.2.** Let
\[
\Phi_\beta(t, \tilde{z}) = \frac{1}{n\mathbb{E}N} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{N_i} K_h(T_{ij} - t, \tilde{Z}_{ij} - \tilde{z}) \left(\frac{T_{ij} - t}{h_t}\right)^{\alpha_1} \left(\frac{\tilde{Z}_{ij} - \tilde{z}}{h_z}\right)^{\alpha_2} Y_{ij}.
\]
Suppose that \(\mathbb{E}(Y|T = t, Z^T \beta = \tilde{z}) = m(t, \tilde{z})\) and that assumptions A.1–A.6 hold. Then,
\[
\Phi_\beta(t, \tilde{z}) = m(t, \tilde{z}) f_2(t, \tilde{z}) \xi_{\alpha_1, \alpha_2} + \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \{m(t, \tilde{z}) f_2(t, \tilde{z})\} \xi_{\alpha_1+1, \alpha_2} h_t
\]
\[
+ \frac{\partial}{\partial \tilde{z}} \{m(t, \tilde{z}) f_2(t, \tilde{z})\} \xi_{\alpha_1, \alpha_2+1} h_z + O_p(h^2) \left(\text{or } O_p\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{n\mathbb{E}Nh^2}}\right)\right),
\]
where \(\xi_{\alpha_1, \alpha_2} = \int K(u, v) u^{\alpha_1} v^{\alpha_2} du dv\).

**PROOF.** From the definition of expectation and by the techniques of change-of-variables and Taylor’s expansion, we have
\[
\mathbb{E}\{\Phi_\beta(t, \tilde{z})\} = \int \frac{1}{h_t h_z} K\left(\frac{s-t}{h_t}, \frac{u-\tilde{z}}{h_z}\right) \left(\frac{s-t}{h_t}\right)^{\alpha_1} \left(\frac{u-\tilde{z}}{h_z}\right)^{\alpha_2} \times y f_3(s, u, y) ds du dy
\]
\[
= \int K(v_1, v_2) v_1^{\alpha_1} v_2^{\alpha_2} m(t + v_1 h_t, \tilde{z} + v_2 h_z) \times f_2(t + v_1 h_t, \tilde{z} + v_2 h_z) dv_1 dv_2
\]
\[
= m(t, \tilde{z}) f_2(t, \tilde{z}) \xi_{\alpha_1, \alpha_2} + \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \{m(t, \tilde{z}) f_2(t, \tilde{z})\} \xi_{\alpha_1+1, \alpha_2} h_t
\]
\[
+ \frac{\partial}{\partial \tilde{z}} \{m(t, \tilde{z}) f_2(t, \tilde{z})\} \xi_{\alpha_1, \alpha_2+1} h_z + O(h^2).
\]
The lemma now follows by Lemma C.1.  □

In the following lemma, we study the asymptotic expansions of the weighted least-squares estimator, \( \hat{\theta}^T(t, z) = (\hat{a}_\beta(t, z), \hat{b}_\beta(t, z), \hat{d}_\beta(t, z)) \), of the local linear smoother for mean function \( \mu(t, \beta^T z) \) when an initial single index \( \beta \) is given. Thus,

\[
\hat{\theta}(t, z) = \arg\min_{\theta} \frac{1}{n EN} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{N_i} K_h(T_{ij} - t, \tilde{Z}_{ij} - \tilde{z}) \times (Y_{ij} - a_\beta - b_\beta(T_{ij} - t) - d_\beta(\tilde{Z}_{ij} - \tilde{z}))^2
\]

(D.2)

\[
= \frac{1}{n EN \Sigma^\beta_n(t, z)} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{N_i} K_h(T_{ij} - t, \tilde{Z}_{ij} - \tilde{z}) \times \left(1, \frac{T_{ij} - t}{h_t}, \frac{\tilde{Z}_{ij} - \tilde{z}}{h_z}\right)^T Y_{ij},
\]

where

\[
\Sigma^\beta_n(t, z) = \frac{1}{n EN} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{N_i} K_h(T_{ij} - t, \tilde{Z}_{ij} - \tilde{z}) \times \left(1, \frac{T_{ij} - t}{h_t}, \frac{\tilde{Z}_{ij} - \tilde{z}}{h_z}\right) \left(1, \frac{T_{ij} - t}{h_t}, \frac{\tilde{Z}_{ij} - \tilde{z}}{h_z}\right)^T.
\]

**Lemma D.3.** Under assumptions A.1–A.6,

\[
\hat{a}_\beta(t, z) = \mu(t, \tilde{z}^0) + \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \tilde{z}} v_\beta(t, z) \delta_\beta + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 \mu}{\partial t^2} h_t^2 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 \mu}{\partial \tilde{z}^2} h_z^2 + \tilde{\epsilon}_{n,1}
\]

\[
+ O_p(h^3 + |\delta_\beta|h^2 + |\delta_\beta|h^3 + |\delta_\beta|^2 h),
\]

\[
\hat{b}_\beta(t, z) = \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial t} h_t + \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \tilde{z}} v_\beta(t, z) \delta_\beta h_t + \tilde{\epsilon}_{n,2}
\]

\[
+ O_p(h^3 + |\delta_\beta|h^2 + |\delta_\beta|h^3 + |\delta_\beta|^2 h),
\]

\[
\hat{d}_\beta(t, z) = \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \tilde{z}} h_z + \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \tilde{z}} v_\beta(t, z) \delta_\beta h_z + \tilde{\epsilon}_{n,3}
\]

\[
+ O_p(h^3 + |\delta_\beta|h^2 + |\delta_\beta|h^3 + |\delta_\beta|^2 h),
\]

where \( \delta_\beta = \beta_0 - \beta \), \( \Sigma^\beta_n = \Sigma^\beta_n(t, \tilde{z}) \), \( v_\beta(t, z) = \mathbb{E}(Z|T = t, Z^T \beta = z^T \beta) - z \), all the derivatives of \( \mu(t, \tilde{z}) \) are evaluated at \( (t, \tilde{z}^0) \) and

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
\tilde{\epsilon}_{n,1} \\
\tilde{\epsilon}_{n,2} \\
\tilde{\epsilon}_{n,3}
\end{pmatrix} = (n EN f_2)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{N_i} K_h(T_{ij} - t, \tilde{Z}_{ij} - \tilde{z}) \begin{pmatrix}
1 \\
(T_{ij} - t)/h_t \\
(Z_{ij} - \tilde{z})^T \beta / h_z
\end{pmatrix} \epsilon_{ij}.
\]
PROOF. By Lemma D.2, we obtain
\[
\Sigma_n^\beta(t, z) = \begin{pmatrix} f_2 & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial t} h_t & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial z} h_z \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial t} h_t & f_2 & 0 \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial z} h_z & 0 & f_2 \end{pmatrix} + O_p(h^2),
\]
and
\[
\det\{\Sigma_n^\beta(t, z)\} = (f_2)^3 + O_p(h^2)
\]
and
\[
\{\Sigma_n^\beta(t, z)\}^{-1} = \frac{1}{f_2(t, \tilde{z})} \begin{pmatrix} I - \frac{1}{f_2(t, \tilde{z})} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -\frac{\partial f_2}{\partial t} h_t & -\frac{\partial f_2}{\partial z} h_z \\ -\frac{\partial f_2}{\partial t} h_t & 0 & 0 \\ -\frac{\partial f_2}{\partial z} h_z & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \end{pmatrix} + O_p(h^2).
\]
By Taylor’s expansion at \((t, \tilde{z}^0)\), \(Y_{ij} = \mu(T_{ij}, Z_{ij}^T \beta_0) + \epsilon_{ij}\) can be expressed as
\[
Y_{ij} = \mu(t, \tilde{z}^0) \underbrace{+ \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial t} (T_{ij} - t)}_{E_1} + \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \tilde{z}^0} (\tilde{Z}_{ij} - \tilde{z}) \underbrace{+ \frac{\partial^2 \mu}{\partial t \partial \tilde{z}^0} (T_{ij} - t)}_{E_2} (\tilde{Z}_{ij} - \tilde{z})
\]
\[
+ \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 \mu}{\partial t^2} (T_{ij} - t)^2 \underbrace{+ \frac{\partial^2 \mu}{\partial t \partial \tilde{z}^0} (T_{ij} - t)}_{E_3} (\tilde{Z}_{ij} - \tilde{z})
\]
\[
+ \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 \mu}{\partial (\tilde{z}^0)^2} (\tilde{Z}_{ij} - \tilde{z})^2 \underbrace{+ O_p(E_6)}_{E_4} + \epsilon_{ij},
\]
where \(E_6 = \sum_{\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 = 3} |T_{ij} - t|^{\alpha_1} |\tilde{Z}_{ij}^0 - \tilde{z}^0|^{\alpha_2} + |T_{ij} - t| |Z_{ij} - z| T \delta_\beta| + |Z_{ij}^T - z^T| T \delta_\beta| + |\delta_\beta| + |\delta\beta| \cdot 2^2\) and the derivatives of \(\mu(t, \tilde{z})\) are evaluated at \((t, \tilde{z}^0)\). Therefore, \(\hat{\theta}(t, z)\) in (D.2) is the sum of the weighted averages of \(E_1, \ldots, E_6\) and error \(\epsilon_{ij}\). After evaluating the weighted average of each term, which amounts to smoothing each \(E_i\) and \(\epsilon_{ij}\), the lemma follows by combining all of the smoothing terms. □

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