



Modelling sparse generalized longitudinal observations with latent Gaussian processes

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Summary. In longitudinal data analysis one frequently encounters non-Gaussian data that are repeatedly collected for a sample of individuals over time. The repeated observations could be binomial, Poisson or of another discrete type or could be continuous. The timings of the repeated measurements are often sparse and irregular. We introduce a latent Gaussian process model for such data, establishing a connection to functional data analysis. The functional methods proposed are non-parametric and computationally straightforward as they do not involve a likelihood. We develop functional principal components analysis for this situation and demonstrate the prediction of individual trajectories from sparse observations. This method can handle missing data and leads to predictions of the functional principal component scores which serve as random effects in this model. These scores can then be used for further statistical analysis, such as inference, regression, discriminant analysis or clustering. We illustrate these non-parametric methods with longitudinal data on primary biliary cirrhosis and show in simulations that they are competitive in comparisons with generalized estimating equations and generalized linear mixed models.

Keywords: Binomial data; Eigenfunction; Functional data analysis; Functional principal component; Prediction; Random effect; Repeated measurements; Smoothing; Stochastic process

1. Introduction

1.1. Preliminaries

When undertaking prediction in longitudinal data analysis, irregularly spaced and infrequent measurements, relative to the information of an available abundance of observations, are often encountered. Irregularly spaced measurements for individual subjects are an inherent difficulty of such data. The effect is especially important when the information can be accessed. This is the case for a model where the information between measurements has already been made available at a certain point. We aim at a flexible non-parametric functional data analysis approach, which is in contrast to the commonly used parametric models such as generalized linear mixed models (GLMM) or generalized estimating equations.

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(GEE) (see, for example, Heagerty (1999) for a recent discussion on applying such models to repeated binary measurements, Pollock and Yamani (2000) for a detailed aspect of covariance modelling and Heagerty and Zeger (2000), Heagerty and Kurland (2001) and Chio and Mullah (2005) for discussion on limitations, modification and feasibility of the underlying parameters and assumptions).

A non-parametric functional approach for the analysis of longitudinal data, in his philosophy, is the data as a peak for hemoglobin and its increase in flexibility, is a predicted optimal behavior than the parametric GEE or GLMM approaches in many situations. However, it faces difficulties due to the potentially large gaps between repeated measurements in typical longitudinal data. The parametric method of estimating the parameters of the underlying functional form of the underlying function. In contrast, in the presence of such gaps, the classical non-parametric approach is more straightforward, as it does not require a fixed number of observations (Yao *et al.*, 2005). The problem has already been addressed by gap-aware methods in the common literature of non-Gaussian longitudinal, especially, for example, binomial or Poisson, responses (see Section 5).

We demonstrate how one can overcome the difficulties that are posed by such data for non-parametric approaches, by applying a modified method of functional data analysis. Functional data analysis methods have been previously developed for smooth and dense sampled data (Ramona and Silerman, 2002, 2005). The basic idea of connecting the data has been the analysis of functional data analysis methods in order to produce an underlying longitudinal Gaussian process (LGP) (for example, of latent processes modelling for longitudinal disease counts, for example, Diggle *et al.* (1998), Johansen and Sutherland (2002), Hahemi *et al.* (2003) and Pöhl *et al.* (2006)). Specifically, the Gaussian process makes it possible to estimate parameters by conditioning arguments. Relevant features of the observed data are the mean and covariance functions of the LGP. Simulation indicates that the method is in practice in the case of the Gaussian process for the latent process.

Since efficient flexible parameter estimation of the underlying Gaussian process is often difficult, from a large number of parameters, making corresponding maximum likelihood approaches computationally demanding and unstable, we propose instead to connect the LGP to an undirected acyclic graph of independent variables, which means of a link function. The respective specific acyclic corresponding to the probability of a response in the binary response case. Wherever the link function is a well-known, the mean and covariance of the Gaussian process are a well-known smooth function. This proposition is a natural extension of flexibility, but it is also the challenging problem of constructing appropriate estimation.

The methodological proposed is a flexible empirical functional data analysis technology of the case of non-Gaussian repeated measurements. Prominent examples for such data are repeated binary measurements, repeated continuous. The method proposed is motivated by several considerations: the estimation of the underlying random coefficients may be difficult, and in his case a simple Taylor approximation may be simple, explicit and non-parametric mean and covariance function estimation; and here estimation of the elements of the complete specification of the hierarchical estimation is a fixed one. The simple, low-dimensional estimation has the proposed estimation, which is an ongoing effort for flexibility and numerical simplicity.

The analysis of continuous Gaussian process longitudinal data by functional methods has been considered previously (e.g. Shi *et al.* (1996), Rice and Wu (2000), James *et al.* (2001) and James and Sgambati (2003)). Our main goal from functional data analysis is functional principal component (FPC) analysis, which is observed variables are decomposed into a mean function and eigenfunctions (e.g. Rice and Silerman (1991) and Boente and Faiman (2000)). Various aspects of the hierarchical behavior of functional and longitudinal data are discussed in Sanjiv and Lee (1998), Rice (2004) and Zhao *et al.* (2004); an excellent overview of modelling longitudinal

ajec o ier in biological applica ion, i h FPC, i Ki kpa, ick and Heckman (1989). FPC anal, i allo, o achie e h ee majo goal:

- (a) dimension, ed c ion of f nc ional da a b, mma i ing he da a in a fe FPC;
- (b) he p dication of indi id al, ajec o ier, f om, pa, e da a, b, e ima ing he FPC, co, e of he, ajec o ier;
- (c) f, he, a i ical anal, i of longi dinal da a ba ed on he FPC, co, e.

In he ne, brec ion, e in, od ce he LGP model; hen in Sec ion 2 he p opo ed e i ma e, follo ed b applica ion, o p dication (Sec ion 3). The, e l, f om a, im la ion, d, incl ding a compa i on of he me hod p opo ed i h GLMM, and GEE, a e, epo ed in Sec ion 4. The anal, i of non-Ga, ian, pa, e longi dinal da a i ill, a ed in Sec ion 5, i h he longi dinal anal, i of he occ, uence of hepa omegal in p ima, bila, ci, ho, i. Thi, i follo ed b a b ief d i c, ion (Sec ion 6) and an appen di, hich con ain, de i a ion, and some heq e ical, e l, abo e ima ion.

1.2. Latent Gaussian process model

Gene all, deno ing he gene ali ed, e pon, e b Y_{ij} , e ob e e independen copie, of Y , b, in each ca e, onl fo a fe, pa, e ime poin. In pa ic la, he da a a e pa i, (T_{ij}, Y_{ij}) , fo $1 \leq i \leq n$ and $1 \leq j \leq m_i$, he e $Y_{ij} = Y_i(T_{ij})$ fo an nde l ing, andom, ajec o, Y_i , and each $T_{ij} \in \mathcal{I} = [0, 1]$. The, pa, e and, ca e ed na, e of he ob e a ion ime, T_{ij} ma be e p e ed heq e icall b no ing ha he m_i a e nifo ml b onded, if he e an i e, ha e a de e min-ic o igin, o ha he, e p e en he al e of independen and iden icall di, ib ed, andom a iable, i h, fficien l ligh ail, if he m_i o igin a e, ocha, icall. We a e aiming a he, eem ingl diffic l a k of making, ch, pa, e de ign, amenable o f nc ional me hod, hich ha e been p ima il aimed a den el collec ed, moo h da a.

A cen, al a, mp ion fo o, appoach i, ha he dependence be een he ob e a ion, Y_{ij} i in he i ed f om an nde l ing nob e ed Ga, ian p o ce, X : le $Y(t)$, fo $t \in \mathcal{T}$, he e \mathcal{T} i a compa cin e, al, deno e a, ocha, ic p o ce, a i f ing

$$E\{Y(t_1) \dots Y(t_m) | X\} = \prod_{j=1}^m g\{X(t_j)\}, \tag{1}$$

$$E\{Y(t)^2 | X\} \leq g_1\{X(t)\}$$

fo $0 \leq t_1 < \dots < t_m \leq 1$ and $0 < t < 1$. He e, X deno e a Ga, ian p o ce, on \mathcal{I} , g i a, moo h, mono one inc ea ing link f nc ion, f om he, eal line o he, ange of he di, ib ion of he Y_{ij} , and g_1 i a b onded f nc ion. Al ho gh e ob e e independen copie, of Y , he e a e acc e, ible onl fo a fe, pa, e ime poin fo each, bjec. The Ga, ian p o ce, e X_i and mea, emen ime, T_{ij} , fo $1 \leq i \leq n$ and $1 \leq j \leq m_i$, a e a, med o be o all independen, he T_{ij} a e aken o be iden icall di, ib ed a, \mathcal{T} , a, i h, ppo \mathcal{I} and he X_i a e, ppo ed o be iden icall di, ib ed a, X . When in e p e ed fo he da a (T_{ij}, Y_{ij}) , model (1) implie, ha

$$E\{Y_i(T_{i1}) \dots Y_i(T_{im_i}) | X_i(T_{i1}), \dots, X_i(T_{im_i})\} = \prod_{j=1}^{m_i} g\{X_i(T_{ij})\}. \tag{2}$$

The a, mp ion ha X a model (1) i Ga, ian p o ide a pla, ible a of linking, ocha, ic p o pe, ie, of $Y(t)$ fo al e, t in diffe en pa, o of \mathcal{I} , o ha da a ha a e ob e ed a each ime poin can be, ed fo inf e nce abo f, e al e of $Y(t)$ fo an, p e cific al e of t . The idea of pooling da a a c o, bjec, o o e come he, pa, e ne, p oblem i mo i a ed a, in Yao

et al. (2005). The link function g is assumed known; for example we might select the logit link in the binomial case, $g(x) = \frac{e^x p(x)}{1 + e^x p(x)}$, and the log-link for count data; indeed, some classical models, the link can also be estimated non-parametrically. An important special case of model (1) is the binomial case, i.e. $0 \leq l_t \leq 1$ data, hence the fixed identity in model (1), implies

$$P\{Y(t_1) = l_1, \dots, Y(t_m) = l_m | X\} = \prod_{j=1}^m g\{X(t_j)\}^{l_j} [1 - g\{X(t_j)\}]^{1-l_j}, \tag{3}$$

for all sequences l_1, \dots, l_m of 0's and 1's. In this case, the link function g could be chosen as a distribution function and the meteorological population, corresponds to an extension of functional data analysis of longitudinal binomial data.

2. Estimating mean and covariance of latent Gaussian processes

To fit model (1) to make prediction and inference about the realizations of $Y(t)$, we need to estimate the defining characteristics of the process X , i.e. its mean and covariance structure. In assessing the distribution of Y can be completely specified, e.g. in the binomial model (3), one possible approach would be maximum likelihood. This is, however, a difficult proposition in the longitudinal case, hence it would necessitate the specification of a large number of parameters for the unknown mean and covariance structure, a difficult task which can only be overcome by introducing some simplifying assumptions, limiting the flexibility of the approach. Moreover, we are considering a non-stationary case, and the number of parameters would need increase with n , hence asymptotically. Finally, another major motivation is to extend the functional approach to non-Gaussian longitudinal data. To sustain the non-parametric framework, we prefer not to make strong assumptions than model (1), and in particular we do not wish to make the simplifying assumptions would be necessary to employ maximum likelihood methods.

Our approach is based on the proposition that the realization of X_i about its mean is relatively small. In particular, we assume

$$X_i(t) = \mu(t) + \delta Z_i(t), \quad \mu = E(X_i), \tag{4}$$

Z_i is a Gaussian process with zero mean and bounded covariance and $\delta > 0$ is an unknown small constant. In this case, assuming g has a bounded derivative, and using (X, Z) for a generic pair (X_i, Z_i) , we have

$$g(X) = g(\mu) + \delta Z g^{(1)}(\mu) + \frac{1}{2} \delta^2 Z^2 g^{(2)}(\mu) + \frac{1}{6} \delta^3 Z^3 g^{(3)}(\mu) + O_p(\delta^4), \tag{5}$$

$$E[g\{X(t)\}] = g(\mu) + \frac{1}{2} \delta^2 E\{Z^2(t)\} g^{(2)}\{\mu(t)\} + O(\delta^4) \tag{6}$$

and

$$\text{co}[g\{X(s)\}, g\{X(t)\}] = \delta^2 g^{(1)}\{\mu(s)\} g^{(1)}\{\mu(t)\} \text{co}\{Z(s), Z(t)\} + O(\delta^4). \tag{7}$$

Hence and hence to make the assumption that $g^{(1)}$ does not vanish, and has $\inf_{s \in D} \{g^{(1)}(s)\} > 0$, hence D is the (compact) range of the mean function μ . Setting

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \alpha(t) &= E[g\{X(t)\}], \\ \nu(t) &= g^{-1}\{\alpha(t)\}, \\ \tau(s, t) &= \text{co}[g\{X(s)\}, g\{X(t)\}] / g^{(1)}\{\mu(s)\} g^{(1)}\{\mu(t)\}, \end{aligned} \right\} \tag{8}$$

we obtain

$$\mu(t) = E\{X(t)\} = g^{-1}(E[g\{X(t)\}]) + O(\delta^2) = \nu(t) + O(\delta^2), \tag{9}$$

$$\sigma(s, t) = \text{cov}\{X(s), X(t)\} = \frac{\text{cov}\{g\{X(s)\}, g\{X(t)\}\}}{g^{(1)}\{\mu(s)\}g^{(1)}\{\mu(t)\}} + O(\delta^4) = \tau(s, t) + O(\delta^4). \tag{10}$$

Therefore from the immediate asymptotic expansion of μ and σ , if we are willing to neglect the effect of $O(\delta^2)$. Indeed, the main expansion is

$$\alpha(t) = E\{Y(t)\} = E[E\{Y(t)|X(t)\}] = E[g\{X(t)\}], \tag{11}$$

by pairing asymptotically homogeneous data (T_{ij}, Y_{ij}) , and the main expansion is

$$\beta(s, t) = E\{Y(s)Y(t)\} = E[g\{X(s)\}g\{X(t)\}] \tag{12}$$

(by using model (1)) by pairing a bi-variate asymptotically homogeneous data $((T_{ij}, T_{ik}), Y_{ij}Y_{ik})$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$, which has $m_i \geq 2$, and $1 \leq j, k \leq m_i$ with $j \neq k$. It is necessary to omit the diagonal elements in this asymptotic expansion, since according to model (1) we have

$$E\{Y^2(t)\} = E[E\{Y^2(t)|X(t)\}] > E[E\{Y(t)|X(t)\}]^2 = E[g\{X(t)\}]^2,$$

hence the $E\{Y(t)|X(t)\} > 0$, so the expansion along the diagonal in general will have an error, a component, leading to a covariance surface that has a discontinuity along the diagonal. More details about this phenomenon can be found in Yao *et al.* (2005). Implementation of these asymptotic expansions, by using local least squares expansion, is discussed in Appendix A.

From the expansion of the main expansion α and β of α and β , respectively, we obtain the main expansion

$$\begin{aligned} \nu(t) &= g^{-1}\{\alpha(t)\}, \\ \tau(s, t) &= \{\beta(s, t) - \alpha(s)\alpha(t)\} / g^{(1)}\{\nu(s)\}g^{(1)}\{\nu(t)\} \end{aligned} \tag{13}$$

for

$$\begin{aligned} \nu(t) &= g^{-1}\{\alpha(t)\}, \\ \tau(s, t) &= \{\beta(s, t) - \alpha(s)\alpha(t)\} / g^{(1)}\{\nu(s)\}g^{(1)}\{\nu(t)\} \end{aligned} \tag{14}$$

respectively. By the use of asymptotic expansion (9) and (10) we obtain the main expansion of μ and σ , respectively, i.e. we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mu(t) &= \nu(t), \\ \sigma(s, t) &= \tau(s, t). \end{aligned} \tag{15}$$

Therefore the main expansion does not depend on the constant δ , which has effect does not need to be known asymptotically. Although the main expansion $\tau(s, t)$ is symmetric, it will generate all non-enjoyable properties of semidefiniteness properties that are inherited from a covariance function. This deficiency can be overcome by implementing a method that are described in Yao *et al.* (2003), which is of importance for the spectral decomposition of τ whose main expansion has corresponding negative eigenvalues. In each case, however, in doing so, the main expansion of τ is implicitly imposed by imposing a main expansion corresponding to a negative eigenvalue; details can be found in Appendix B. In the following, we will discuss the expansion of τ defined in Appendix B. Properties of the main expansion α and β , and ν and τ , which are defined as expansion (32), (33) and (13), respectively, and of the main expansion μ and σ as expansion (15) are discussed in Appendix C.

3. Predicting individual trajectories and random effects

3.1. Predicting functional principal component scores

One of the main purposes of the functional data analysis model proposed in dimension-reduction is to reduce the dimensionality of the data. The leading principal components of the underlying hidden Gaussian process form the basis in a standard. Specifically, the principal components provide a mean function and a covariance function, and can be used for inference, dimensionality reduction, and prediction.

The starting point is the Karhunen-Loève expansion of random effects X_i of the LGP,

$$X_i(t) = \mu(t) + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \xi_{ij} \psi_j(t), \tag{16}$$

where ψ_j are the orthonormal eigenfunctions of the linear integral operator B in H with kernel $\sigma(s, t)$, having an L^2 -functional form $Bf(s) = \int \sigma(s, t) f(t) dt$, i.e. the solution of

$$\int \text{cov}\{X(s), X(t)\} \psi_j(t) ds = \theta_j \psi_j(t),$$

where θ_j is the eigenvalue associated with the eigenfunction ψ_j . The $\xi_{ij} = \int \{X_i(t) - \mu(t)\} \psi_j(t) dt$ are the FPC scores and have the property of random effects, i.e. $E(\xi_{ij}) = 0$ and $\text{cov}(\xi_{ij}) = \theta_j$, where θ_j is the eigenvalue corresponding to eigenfunction ψ_j . Once the covariance function $\sigma(s, t)$ (15) has been determined, the corresponding eigenvalues θ_j and ψ_j of eigenvalues and eigenfunctions of the integral operator B are obtained by standard discrete eigenvalue problems, where the eigenvalues and eigenfunctions are determined from the discrete principal component analysis.

We aim to estimate the linear principal component

$$E\{X_i(t) | Y_{i1}, \dots, Y_{im}\} = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} E(\xi_{ij} | Y_{i1}, \dots, Y_{im}) \psi_j(t) \tag{17}$$

of the random effects X_i , given the data Y_{i1}, \dots, Y_{im} . Here a necessary condition of the expansion is to include only the first M components are needed. Then, focusing on the first M conditional FPC scores will allow us to reduce the dimension of the problem and also, importantly, the high-dimensional data. According to equation (17), the task of estimation and prediction of individual random effects can be reduced to the estimation of $E(\xi_{ij} | Y_{i1}, \dots, Y_{im})$. In the following, we develop a simple approach to estimate the non-Gaussian case by means of a moment-based approach, as follows. The expected mean function $\mu(t)$ and covariance function $\sigma(s, t)$ are assumed to be given by

$$Y_{ik} = Y_i(T_{ik}) = g\{X_i(T_{ik})\} + e_{ik}, \tag{18}$$

where independent random variables e_{ik} are assumed to be

$$\begin{aligned} E(e_{ik}) &= 0, \\ \text{cov}(e_{ik}) &= \gamma^2 v[g\{X_i(T_{ik})\}]. \end{aligned} \tag{19}$$

Here, γ^2 is an unknown variance (or dispersion) parameter and $v(\cdot)$ is a known smooth variance function, which is determined by the characteristics of the data. For example, in the case of a repeated binary observation, one could choose $v(u) = u(1-u)$. In the following, we implicitly assume the mean function $\mu(t)$ and covariance function $\sigma(s, t)$ are given by

With a Taylor expansion of g , using expansion (4) and assuming a before-hand $\inf\{g^{(1)}(\cdot)\} > 0$, we obtain

$$g\{X(t)\} = g\{\mu(t)\} + g^{(1)}\{\mu(t)\}\{X(t) - \mu(t)\} + O(\delta^2). \tag{20}$$

Defining

$$\varepsilon_{ik} = \frac{e_{ik}}{g^{(1)}\{\mu(T_{ik})\}},$$

$$U_{ik} = \mu(T_{ik}) + \frac{Y_{ik} - g\{\mu(T_{ik})\}}{g^{(1)}\{\mu(T_{ik})\}},$$

equations (19) and (20) lead to $U_{ik} = X_i(T_{ik}) + \varepsilon_{ik} + O(\delta^2)$. We need the expression (15) and equation (19) to write

$$\tilde{e}_{ik} = Z_{ik}\gamma \frac{v[g\{\mu(T_{ik})\}]^{1/2}}{g^{(1)}\{\mu(T_{ik})\}},$$

where the Z_{ik} are independent copies of a standard Gaussian $N(0, 1)$ random variable, so that the first-order moments of \tilde{e}_{ik} are approximately those of ε_{ik} . Then, for small δ , $U_{ik} \approx X_i(T_{ik}) + \tilde{e}_{ik}$, implying that

$$E(\xi_{ij}|Y_{i1}, \dots, Y_{im_i}) = E(\xi_{ij}|U_{i1}, \dots, U_{im_i}) \approx E\{\xi_{ij}|X_i(T_{i1}) + \tilde{e}_{i1}, \dots, X_i(T_{im_i}) + \tilde{e}_{im_i}\}.$$

On the other hand, the Gaussian approximation for X_i , the latter conditional expectation is seen to be a linear function of the elements on the right-hand side, and hence we

$$E(\xi_{ij}|Y_{i1}, \dots, Y_{im_i}) = A_{ij}\tilde{X}_i \tag{21}$$

in a reasonable prediction for the random effect ξ_{ij} , where $\tilde{X}_i = (X_i(T_{i1}) + \tilde{e}_{i1}, \dots, X_i(T_{im_i}) + \tilde{e}_{im_i})^T$ and the A_{ij} are matrices depending only on γ, μ, v, g and $g^{(1)}$. These can in principle be known or estimated, with the sole exception of γ , the estimation of which is discussed below. The explicit form of equation (21) is given in Appendix D.

3.2. Predicting trajectories

Moreover, based on equation (16) and (21), prediction is achieved for the LGPs as observed as

$$X_i(t) = E\{X_i(t)|Y_{i1}, \dots, Y_{im_i}\} = \mu(t) + \sum_{j=1}^M A_{ij}\tilde{X}_i\psi_j(t), \tag{22}$$

and prediction is achieved for the observed process Y as

$$Y_i(t) = E\{Y_i(t)|Y_{i1}, \dots, Y_{im_i}\} = g\{X_i(t)\}, \tag{23}$$

where t may be any time point within the range of processes Y , including times for which no response are observed. Prediction of $Y(t)$ can sometimes be achieved by predicting the entire response distribution when the mean depends on the entire distribution, such as in binomial and Poisson cases. This method could also be employed for the prediction of missing values in a situation where missing data occur on all a random.

To evaluate the effect of auxiliary information on the prediction, we use a cross-validation procedure where the comparison prediction of Y_{ik} , which are obtained by leaving a observation out, is with Y_{ik} itself. Comparing

$$Y_{ik}^{(-ik)} = E(Y_{ik}|Y_{i1}, \dots, Y_{i,k-1}, Y_{i,k+1}, \dots, Y_{im_i}) = g\{X_i^{(-ik)}(T_{ik})\}, \quad 1 \leq i \leq n, \quad 1 \leq k \leq m_i, \tag{24}$$

where

$$X_i^{(-ik)}(T_{ik}) = \mu(t) + \sum_{j=1}^M E(\xi_{ij} | Y_{i1}, \dots, Y_{i,k-1}, Y_{i,k+1}, \dots, Y_{im_i}) \psi_j(t), \tag{25}$$

we define the Pearson-type squared prediction error

$$PE(\gamma^2) = \sum_{i,k} \frac{(Y_{ik}^{(-ik)} - Y_{ik})^2}{v[g\{X_i^{(-ik)}(T_{ik})\}}], \tag{26}$$

which will depend on the variance parameter γ^2 and implicitly also on the number of eigenfunctions M that are included in the model, see equation (19).

We find that the following is a reasonable procedure for choosing the number of eigenfunctions M and the optimal prediction parameter γ^2 , simultaneously, led to good practical results: choose a scaling factor M ; then obtain γ^2 by minimizing the corresponding prediction error PE in the expected sense

$$\gamma = \arg \min_{\gamma} \{PE(\gamma^2)\}. \tag{27}$$

Then, in a bootstrap procedure, M and the choice of γ are determined below, and repeated over the entire set of M and γ^2 available. This is a simple algorithm that can be implemented in practice; typically, a scaling factor M would be 2 or 3.

Specifically, for the choice of M , we adopt a quasi-likelihood-based functional information criterion FIC that is an extension of the Akaike information criterion AIC for functional data (see Yao *et al.* (2005) for a related pseudo-Gaussian likelihood-based criterion). The number of eigenfunctions M , to be included in the model, is chosen in such a way as to minimize

$$FIC(M) = -2 \sum_{i,k} \int_{Y_{ik}}^{Y_{ik}} \frac{Y_{ij} - t}{\gamma^2 v(t)} dt + 2M. \tag{28}$$

The penalty $2M$ corresponds to that used in AIC; otherwise, the corresponding Bayesian information criterion BIC would be used as well.

Some implementation issues can be improved in this criterion for the choice of M and γ , so that loops cannot happen, although the exact order of occurrence. We also investigated direct minimization of equation (26), simultaneously for both γ and M . Besides being computationally more complex in general, this alternative minimization scheme ended up choosing more components and led to less parsimonious fits, in particular, when obtaining the prediction error. In each of making a parameter estimation about the variance function v , in some cases it may be preferable to estimate it non-parametrically. This can be done via empirical quasi-likelihood regression (Chio and Müller, 2005).

4. Simulation results

4.1. Comparisons with generalized estimating equations and generalized linear mixed models

The simulation is based on latent processes $X(t)$ with mean function $E\{X(t)\} = \mu(t) = 2 \sin(\pi t/5)/\sqrt{5}$, and covariance $\{X(s), X(t)\} = \lambda_1 \phi_1(s) \phi_1(t)$ determined from a single eigenfunction $\phi_1(t) = -\cos(\pi t/10)/\sqrt{5}$, $0 \leq t \leq 10$, with eigenvalue $\lambda_1 = 2$ ($\lambda_k = 0, k \geq 2$). Then 200 Gaussian and 200 non-Gaussian samples of latent processes consisting of $n = 100$ independent observations each are generated by $X_i(t) = \mu(t) + \xi_{i1} \phi_1(t)$, where for the 200 Gaussian samples the FPC coefficients ξ_{i1} are simulated from $\mathcal{N}(0, 2)$, whereas for the non-Gaussian samples they are simulated from a mixture of normal distributions: $\mathcal{N}(\sqrt{2}, 2)$ with probability $\frac{1}{2}$ and $\mathcal{N}(-\sqrt{2}, 2)$

ih p obabili $\frac{1}{2}$. Bina o come Y_{ij} e gene a ed a B_{ij} n lli a iable ih p obabili $E\{Y_{ij}|X_i(t_{ij})\} = g\{X_i(t_{ij})\}$, sing he canonical logi link f nc ion $g^{-1}(p) = \log\{p/(1-p)\}$ fo $0 < p < 1$.

To gene a e he pa e ob e a ion, each ajec o a sampled a a ndom n mbe of poin s, choen nifo ml fi om $\{8, \dots, 12\}$, and he loca ion of he mea emen e ni fo ml di ib ed o e he domain $[0, 10]$. Fo he moo hing epr, ni a ia e and bi a ia e p od c Epanechniko eigh f nc ion e e sed, i.e. $K_1(x) = (3/4)(1-x^2) \mathbf{1}_{[-1,1]}(x)$ and $K_2(x, y) = (9/16)(1-x^2)(1-y^2) \mathbf{1}_{[-1,1]}(x) \mathbf{1}_{[-1,1]}(y)$, he e $\mathbf{1}_A(x)$ e al 1 if $x \in A$ and 0 o he i e fo an e A . The n mbe of eigenf nc ion M and he o e di p e ion pa ame e γ^2 e e pa a el eled fo each n b he i e a ion (27) and e a ion (28). The e i e a ion con e ged fa e i ing onl 2 4 i e a ion epr in mo ca e.

We compa e he non-pa ame ic LGP me hod p opoed ih he pop la pa ame ic appoche p o ided b GLMM and GEE. Fo he GEE me hod, e sed he n c ed co la ion op ion and boh GEE and GLMM e e n ih linea (me hod GEE-L and GLMM-L) and in addi ion ih ad a ic (me hod GEE-Q and GLMM-Q) fi ed effec. We e fo c i e ia fo he compa ion, mea ing di epancie be een e ima e and a ge boh in e m of la en p o e e X and epon e p o e e $Y = g(X)$, and compa ing boh e ima e fo mean f nc ion $\mu = E(X)$ and $g(\mu)$ epec i el and p edic ion of bjec epecic ajec o i e X_i and $g(X_i)$ epec i el. The la e a e a ilable fo he LGP and GLMM me hod, b no fo GEE, hich aim a ma ginal modelling. The epecic c i e ia fo he compa ion a e a follo s:

$$XMSE = \int_{\mathcal{I}} \{\mu(t) - \mu(t)\}^2 dt / \int_{\mathcal{I}} \mu^2(t) dt, \tag{29}$$

$$YMSE = \int_{\mathcal{I}} [g\{\mu(t)\} - g\{\mu(t)\}]^2 dt / \int_{\mathcal{I}} g^2\{\mu(t)\} dt,$$

$$XPE_i = \int_{\mathcal{I}} \{X_i(t) - X_i(t)\}^2 dt / \int_{\mathcal{I}} X_i^2(t) dt, \tag{30}$$

$$YPE_i = \int_{\mathcal{I}} [g\{X_i(t)\} - g\{X_i(t)\}]^2 dt / \int_{\mathcal{I}} g^2\{X_i(t)\} dt,$$

fo $i = 1, \dots, n$. S mma s a i e fo he al e of he e c i e ia fi om 200 Mon e Ca lo n e ho n in Table 1.

The e e l indica e ha fi s of all, he LGP me hod p opoed i no e n i i e o he Ga sian a mp ion fo la en p o e e. Al ho gh he e i s ome de e io a ion in he non-Ga sian ca e, i i minimal. Thi non-e n i i o he Ga sian a mp ion ha been de e ibed befo e in f nc ional da a anal i in he con e of p incipal anal i b condi onal epec a ion (e Yao *et al.* (2005)). Secondl, he non-linea i in he a ge f nc ion h o he pa ame ic me hod off ack, e en hen he mo e fle ible ad a ic fi ed effec e ion a e sed. We find ha he LGP me hod con e clea ad an age in e ima ion and epeciall in p edic ing indi id al ajec o i e in s ch s i a ion. Whe ea he pa ame ic me hod a e n i i e o iola ion of a mp ion, he LGP me hod i de igned o o k nde minimal a mp ion and he efo e p o ide a e f lal e na i e appoach.

4.2. Effect of the size of variation

He e e e amine he infl ence of he i e of he a ia ion con an δ on model e ima ion, incl ding mean f nc ion, eigenf nc ion and indi id al ajec o i e. In addi ion o c i e ia (29)

Table 1. Simulation results for the comparisons of mean estimates and individual trajectory predictions obtained by the proposed non-parametric LGP method with those obtained for the established parametric methods GLMM-L, GLMM-Q, GEE-L and GEE-Q, with linear and quadratic fixed effects (see Section 4.1)

Distribution	Method	XMSE	XPE _i			YMSE	YPE _i		
			25th	50th	75th		25th	50th	75th
Gaussian	LGP	0.1242	0.1529	0.2847	0.7636	0.0076	0.0101	0.0205	0.0433
	GLMM-L	0.4182	0.3405	0.5843	1.283	0.0265	0.0278	0.0369	0.0577
	GLMM-Q	0.4323	0.3479	0.5990	1.319	0.0271	0.0285	0.0377	0.0584
	GEE-L	0.4168				0.0264			
	GEE-Q	0.4308				0.0272			
Non-Gaussian (mixture)	LGP	0.1272	0.1664	0.3166	0.9556	0.0078	0.0109	0.0228	0.0459
	GLMM-L	0.4209	0.3309	0.5943	1.364	0.0266	0.0280	0.0372	0.0589
	GLMM-Q	0.4373	0.3385	0.6118	1.404	0.0274	0.0287	0.0380	0.0597
	GEE-L	0.4227				0.0268			
	GEE-Q	0.4396				0.0277			

Simulation is based on 200 Monte Carlo runs with $n = 100$ subjects per sample, generated both Gaussian and non-Gaussian latent processes. Simulation is also repeated 1000 times for each of the following XMSE and YMSE (29) and of the corresponding XPE_i and YPE_i (30) of the mean function and of the latent process X and of the corresponding Y , and the 25, 50 and 75 h percentile of the prediction error, XPE_i and YPE_i (30) of the individual subjects of the latent and corresponding processes.

and (30), evaluate the estimation error of the single eigenfunction in the model (noting that $\int_{\mathcal{I}} \phi_1^2(t) dt = 1$),

$$EMSE = \int_{\mathcal{I}} \{\phi_1(t) - \hat{\phi}_1(t)\}^2 dt. \tag{31}$$

Using the same simulation design as in Section 4.1 and generating latent processes $X(t; \delta) = \mu(t) + \delta \xi_1 \phi_1(t)$ for varying δ , we simulated 200 Gaussian and 200 non-Gaussian samples (as described before) for each of $\delta = 0.5, 0.8, 1, 2$. The Monte Carlo error for the above quantities of δ are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Simulation results for the effect of the variation parameter δ

Distribution	δ	XMSE	EMSE	XPE _i			YMSE	YPE _i		
				25th	50th	75th		25th	50th	75th
Normal	0.5	0.1106	0.7662	0.1188	0.1815	0.3366	0.0068	0.0077	0.0119	0.0205
	0.8	0.1205	0.3801	0.1430	0.2437	0.5710	0.0076	0.0094	0.0171	0.0338
	1	0.1280	0.2434	0.1513	0.2809	0.7857	0.0077	0.0101	0.0203	0.0431
	2	0.1616	0.0429	0.2025	0.3851	0.8137	0.0102	0.0144	0.0362	0.0752
Mixture	0.5	0.1134	0.7198	0.1243	0.1913	0.3651	0.0071	0.0081	0.0126	0.0217
	0.8	0.1258	0.3910	0.1498	0.2563	0.6691	0.0078	0.0100	0.0188	0.0366
	1	0.1323	0.2256	0.1624	0.2986	0.7944	0.0081	0.0113	0.0227	0.0450
	2	0.1633	0.0397	0.2041	0.3840	0.8140	0.0103	0.0158	0.0387	0.0768

Design and output of the simulation are the same as in Table 1. EMSE denotes the average integrated mean squared error of the eigenfunction.

We find by an analysis of the $\epsilon_{i,t}$ EMSE in estimating the eigenfunction on the interval δ . This is caused by the fact that, as δ goes to 0, the variance of the estimation in the observed data is dominated by the variance of the prediction of the underlying LGP, and hence the estimation becomes increasingly difficult to estimate the eigenfunction. This is also observed in our dynamic FPC analysis: the $\epsilon_{i,t}$ in estimating an eigenfunction is dominated by the variance of the associated eigenvalue. The best the eigenfunction can be estimated. Although the variance of δ increases the $\epsilon_{i,t}$ in predicting individual $\lambda_{i,t}$ increases, this is in itself a prediction error: for the prediction process X , this is because the estimation of individual $\lambda_{i,t}$ increases, hence the bias variance of the estimation increases on the choice of the estimation is affected in the prediction error; for the estimation process, the $\epsilon_{i,t}$ increases on the choice, which is because the bias in the approximation has also increased for the prediction error and increasing in δ .

The $\epsilon_{i,t}$ in estimating the mean function, remain fairly stable as long as $\delta \leq 1$. This is especially true and no noticeable observed for the mean of prediction process X , since this mean estimation is not affected by an approximation $\epsilon_{i,t}$. We conclude that, namely δ is large, is a practical has a small effect on the $\epsilon_{i,t}$ in mean function estimation and a moderate effect on the $\epsilon_{i,t}$ in individual prediction, and therefore has a long effect on the $\epsilon_{i,t}$ in eigenfunction estimation does not play a role in the prediction for individual $\lambda_{i,t}$ increases the mean function estimation, as the effect is mitigated by the multiplication in δ .

5. Application

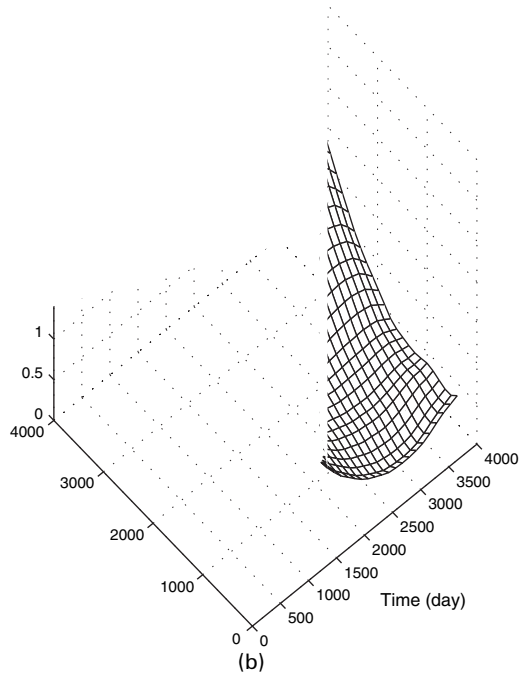
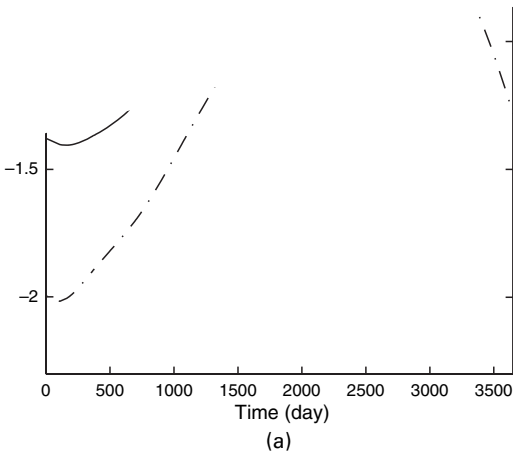
Pima diabetes data (Mather et al., 1994) is a well known longitudinal dataset of unknown cause, with a prevalence of about 50 cases per million population. The data are collected between Jan 1974 and Mar 1984 by the Mayo Clinic (see also Appendix D of Fleming and Harrington (1991)). The patients are scheduled to have measurements of blood glucose in intervals of 6 months, 1 year and annual health checkups. However, since many individuals missed some of the scheduled visits, the data are sparse and irregular in the number of repeated measurements per subject and also the timing measurements T_{ij} are irregular.

To demonstrate the effectiveness of the methodology proposed, we use the analysis of the patient hospitalization history in a large study (3650 days), since the entered hospital and discharged and had no had a planned at the end of the 10 years. We carry out our analysis on the domain $[0, 10]$ years, following the dynamic behavior of the presence of hepatic enzymes (0, no; 1, yes), which is a longitudinal measurement based on the data. The hepatic enzymes are seen.

We include 42 patients for a total of 429 binary observations, which are the number of binary observations ranged from 3 to 12, with a median of 11 measurements per subject.

We employ a logistic link function, and the smooth estimation of the mean and covariance function for the underlying process $X(t)$ are displayed in Fig. 1. The mean function of the underlying process, which is an increasing trend in the last 3000 days, except for a slight decrease at the beginning, and a decrease towards the end of the range of the data. We also provide pointwise bootstrap confidence intervals which broaden (non-noticeable) near the endpoints of the domain. The estimated covariance surface of $X(t)$ displays a rapidly decreasing correlation as the distance between measurements increases. With a variance function $v(\mu) = \mu(1 - \mu)$, the eigenvalues are ordered by decreasing number of eigenfunctions and the variance parameter γ has been determined in Section 3.2 yielded the choice $M = 3$ for the number of components included and $\gamma^2 = 1.91$ for the orthogonalization parameter. The least one point

0.



, which are defined by equation (22), for the hepatitis B virus $i(t)$

, which are obtained by equation (23) for nine, and model selected, by equation (24) shown in Fig. 4. The predicted average Y describes the time evolution of the probability of the presence of hepatitis B for each individual; it is of increasing, but the average Y is decreasing in mild cases, long decline.

the large projection in the direction of the specific eigenfunction, as shown in Fig. 3(b).

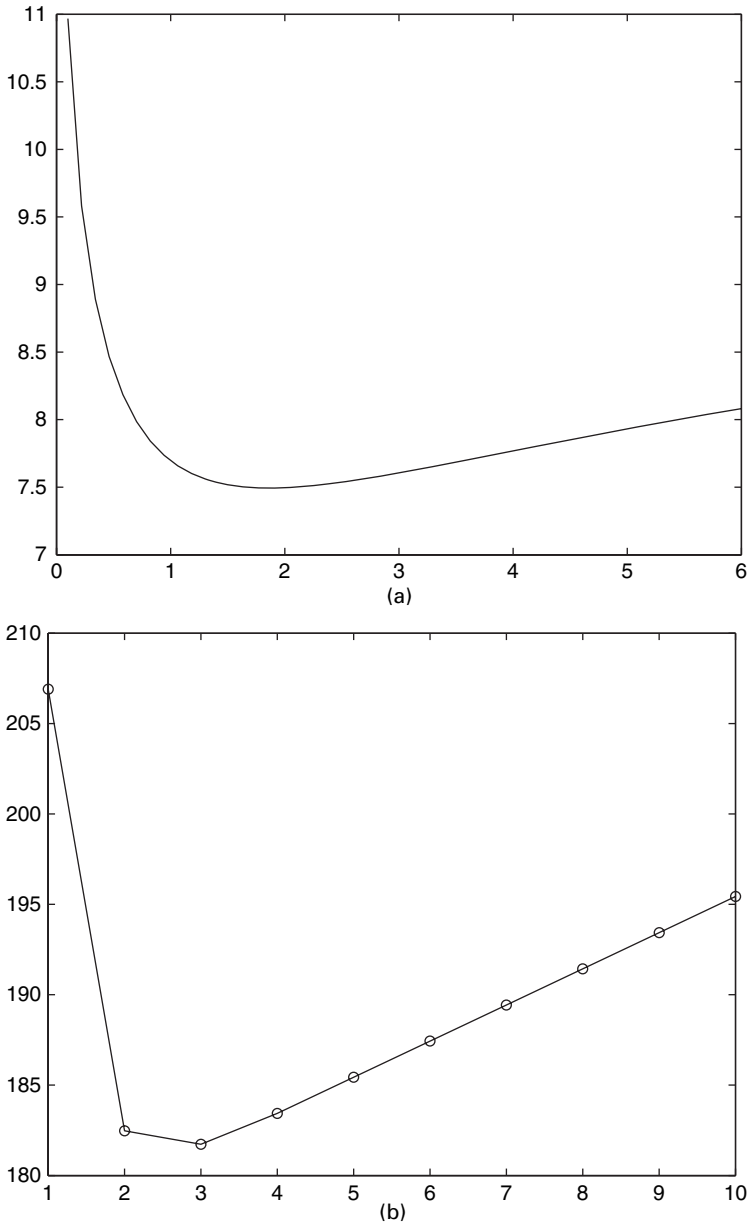
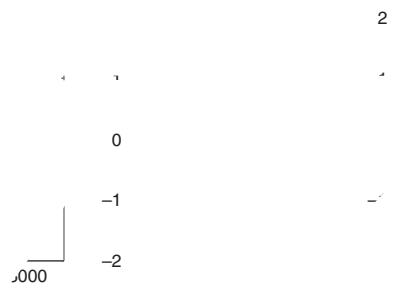
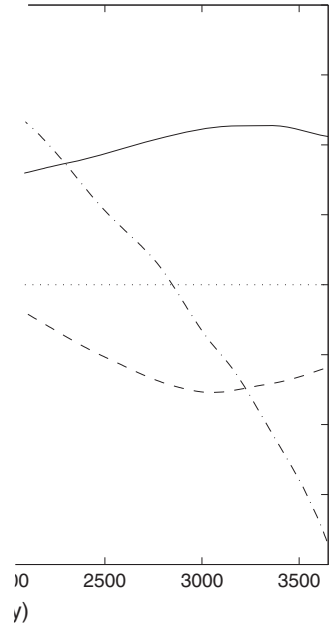
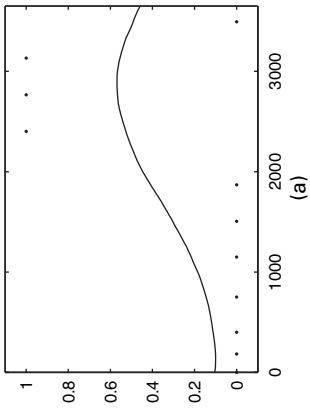
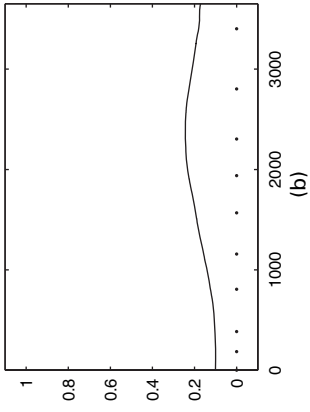
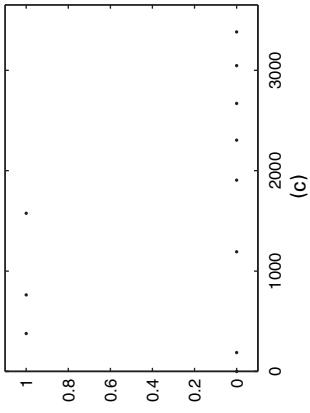


Fig. 2. (a) Plot of $PE(\gamma^2)$ values (26) of the final iteration versus corresponding candidate values of γ^2 , where $\hat{\gamma}^2$ minimizes $PE(\gamma^2)$ and (b) FIC scores (28) for final iteration based on quasi-likelihood by using the binomial variance function for 10 possible leading eigenfunctions, where $M = 3$ is the minimizing value (for the primary biliary cirrhosis data)

We find that the observations at the end of the predicted age are all in the observed longitudinal binomial count, and leave-one-out analysis using equation (24) confirmed this. In making the comparison between observed data and fitted probabilities, we need to keep in mind that the binomial observations consist of 0 or 1, hence the fitted probabilities and corresponding probabilities are constrained to be in the interval between 0 and 1. Therefore, long-term age-specific





(f)

(e)

(d)

(i)

(h)

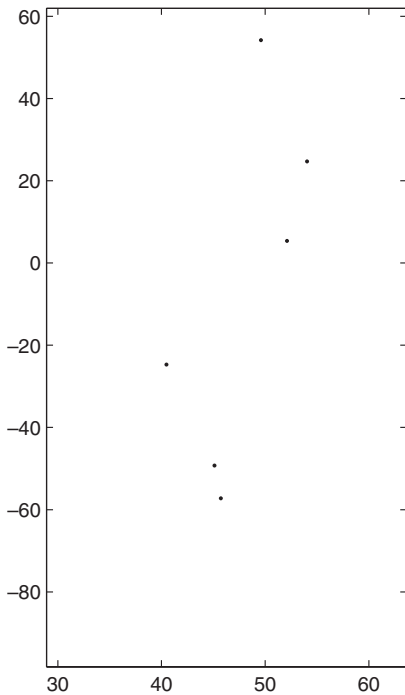
(g)

characteristics shown in Fig. 4(b), hence the fitted function is bounded overall and has a large standard deviation. In general, in generalized exponential models, the distribution in the data has a large standard deviation conditional on the observed age, given by the Bernoulli probability, is in principle not explained by any model, and only the probability itself and the distribution can be modelled, which may explain only a small portion of the overall observed distribution.

To illustrate this, we show a typical analysis of the FPC coefficients that have been obtained, using the first two FPC coefficients of the underlying Gaussian process on the variable age a in order to model S . For this regression of exponential c on a scalar predictor o of the model

$$E\{X(t)|S\} = \mu(t) + \sum_{j=1}^M E(\xi_j|S) \psi_j(t)$$

(Chio *et al.*, 2004). We demonstrate the regression function $E(\xi_j|S)$ for two components $j = 1, 2$ in Fig. 5. The first are obtained by local linear smoothing of the variable ξ_j versus S by local linear smoothing. The regression function indicates that the second FPC of the latent process is not much influenced by age a , hence the first FPC remains flat over age, but then increases non-linearly for ages after 45 years. For age a above 45 years, the conditional exponential c increases more rapidly with age a , increasing the shape of the age increase component of the first eigenfunction in Fig. 3. This means that older age a is associated with increasing probability of hepatomegaly.



6. Discussion

The assumption of small δ implies that the approximation in the latent process X is assumed to be limited, according to the assumption $X(t) = \mu(t) + \delta Z(t)$. We note that the small δ assumption does not affect the methodological proposed, for which the value of δ is not needed and plays no role. The estimation proposed at a large age and age convergence for the new LGP \tilde{X} , which is characterized by mean function $\nu(t)$ and covariance function $\tau(s, t)$, as defined in the previous (8). However, bias may be accepted for the proposed estimation and especially predicting individual response, especially for the case of large δ .

$$U_{qr}(s, t) = \sum_{i:m_i \geq 2} \sum_{j,k:j \neq k} T_{ij}^q T_{ik}^r K_{ij}(s) K_{ik}(t),$$

$$\tilde{T}_{qr} = U_{qr} / U_{00},$$

$$\tilde{Z} = U_{00}^{-1} \sum_{i:m_i \geq 2} \sum_{j,k:j \neq k} Z_{ijk} K_{ij}(s) K_{ik}(t),$$

$$R = R_{20} R_{02} - R_{11}^2,$$

$Z_{ijk} = Y_{ij} Y_{ik}$, $K_{ij}(t) = K\{(t - T_{ij})/h\}$, K is a kernel function and h a bandwidth. Of course, the ordinary non-synchronous band width h controls α and β ; especially the appropriate band width h for β to be large than h for α .

Both α and β are conditional, especially diagonal elements are omitted when controlling the latter. The data is in the i th block, i.e. $\mathcal{B}_i = \{Y_{ij} \text{ for } 1 \leq i \leq m_i\}$, are not independent of one another, but the n blocks $\mathcal{B}_1, \dots, \mathcal{B}_n$ are independent. Therefore, a least squares estimator of conditional covariance matrix (Rice and Silerman, 1991) can be used to estimate the band width for each element.

Appendix B: Positive definiteness of covariance estimation

Since the covariance matrix $\tau(s, t)$ is symmetric, it can be written as

$$\tau(s, t) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \theta_j \psi_j(s) \psi_j(t), \tag{34}$$

where (θ_j, ψ_j) are (eigenvalue, eigenfunction) pairs of a linear operator A in L^2 which maps a function f to the function $A(f)$, which is defined by $A(f)(s) = \int_{\mathcal{I}} \tau(s, t) f(t) dt$. It is explained after equation (16) how the covariance matrix is obtained. As a consequence, having only a finite number of the θ_j are non-zero, the operator A will be positive semi-definite and, especially in the limit, τ will be a positive covariance function, if and only if each $\theta_j \geq 0$. To ensure the positive operator decomposition (34) is meaningful and the operator has corresponding negative eigenvalues, giving the covariance matrix

$$\tilde{\tau}(s, t) = \sum_{j \geq 1: \theta_j > 0} \theta_j \psi_j(s) \psi_j(t). \tag{35}$$

The modified covariance matrix $\tilde{\tau}$ is not identical to τ if one or more of the eigenvalues θ_j are strictly negative. In such cases, the covariance matrix $\tilde{\tau}$ has a larger L_2 -accuracy than τ , hence is a better estimator of τ .

Theorem 1. Under regularity conditions, it holds that

$$\int_{\mathcal{I}^2} (\tilde{\tau} - \tau)^2 \leq \int_{\mathcal{I}^2} (\tau - \tau)^2. \tag{36}$$

To prove this, we show that condition (36) holds if and only if there exists a non-trivial modification of τ , i.e. when $\tilde{\tau} \neq \tau$. In the sequel, we consider the high-frequency case of equation (34) where the number of eigenvalues θ_j is large, and $\theta_j = 0$ only for $j \geq J + 1$. Therefore, ψ_1, \dots, ψ_J are necessary and sufficient for the non-trivial modification of τ , and $\psi_{J+1}, \psi_{J+2}, \dots$ have the same properties as ψ_1, ψ_2, \dots in the classical case of a continuous function on \mathcal{I} .

We make the following choice for the covariance τ in the form of a conditional expansion in a generalized Fourier series:

$$\tau(s, t) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_{jk} \psi_j(s) \psi_k(t), \tag{37}$$

where $a_{jk} = \int_{\mathcal{I}^2} \tau(s, t) \psi_j(s) \psi_k(t) ds dt$. Equations (34), (35) and (37) imply that

$$\int_{\mathcal{I}^2} (\tilde{\tau} - \tau)^2 = \sum_{j,k:j \neq k} a_{jk}^2 + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} (a_{jj} - \tilde{\theta}_j)^2,$$

$$\int_{\mathcal{I}^2} (\tau - \tau)^2 = \sum_{j,k:j \neq k} a_{jk}^2 + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} (a_{jj} - \theta_j)^2,$$

$$\sigma_{ikl} \equiv \text{cov}(\tilde{X}_{ik}, \tilde{X}_{il}) = \sum_j \theta_j \psi_j(T_{ik}) \psi_j(T_{il}) + \delta_{kl} \frac{\gamma^2 v[g\{\mu(T_{ik})\}]}{g^{(1)}\{\mu(T_{ik})\}^2},$$

where $\delta_{kl} = 1$ if $k=l$ and 0 otherwise, and

$$d_i \equiv \tilde{X}_i - E(\tilde{X}_i) = \left(\frac{Y_{i1} - g\{\mu(T_{i1})\}}{g^{(1)}\{\mu(T_{i1})\}}, \dots, \frac{Y_{im_i} - g\{\mu(T_{im_i})\}}{g^{(1)}\{\mu(T_{im_i})\}} \right)^T.$$

Denote $\text{cov}(\tilde{X}_i, \tilde{X}_i) = \Sigma_i = (\sigma_{ikl})_{1 \leq i, l \leq m_i}$. Then the explicit form of the matrices A_{ij} in equation (21) is given by

$$E(\xi_{ij} | Y_{i1}, \dots, Y_{im_i}) = \theta_j \psi_{i,j} \Sigma_i^{-1} d_i, \tag{39}$$

where $\psi_{i,j}$ is the j th component of the vector ψ_j in equation (15), γ is the scale parameter in equation (27), and θ_j and ψ_j are the coefficients corresponding to the j th eigenfunction and eigenfunction, defined from $\sigma(s, t)$ according to equation (27).

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