TIME-VARYING COEFFICIENT MODELS FOR JOINT MODELING BINARY AND CONTINUOUS OUTCOMES IN LONGITUDINAL DATA

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Abstract

Motivated by an empirical analysis of ecological momentary assessment data (EMA) collected in a smoking cessation study, we propose a joint modeling technique for estimating the time-varying association between two intensively measured longitudinal responses: a continuous one and a binary one. A major challenge in joint modeling these responses is the lack of a multivariate distribution. We suggest introducing a normal latent variable underlying the binary response and factorizing the model into two components: a marginal model for the continuous response, and a conditional model for the binary response given the continuous response. We develop a two-stage estimation procedure and establish the asymptotic normality of the resulting estimators. We also derived the standard error formulas for estimated coefficients. We conduct a Monte Carlo simulation study to assess the finite sample performance of our procedure. The proposed method is illustrated by an empirical analysis of smoking cessation data, in which the question of interest is to investigate the association between urge to smoke, continuous response, and the status of alcohol use, the binary response, and how this association varies over time.

Key words and phrases

Generalized linear models; Local linear regression; Varying coefficient models

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Supplementary Materials
Supplementary materials include proofs of the theorems of Section 2.3.

1. Introduction

Early work on modeling longitudinal and clustered data focused on developing methodologies for datasets with a single response. More recent studies have involved multiple responses, often of mixed type, e.g., binary and continuous. The work was motivated by an empirical analysis in Section 3.2, in which the data were collected intensively during a smoking cessation study (Shiffman et al. (1996)) and contain multiple responses such as urge to smoke (a continuous response), alcohol use, and presence of other smokers (both binary responses). The latter two responses are of interest because it has been observed that alcohol consumption and the presence of other smokers increase the odds of smoking (Hymowitz et al. (1997); Shiffman and Balabanis (1995); Shiffman et al. (2002)), and both have been associated with an increased risk of lapsing back to smoking (Kahler et al. (2010); Shiffman et al. (2007)). Moreover, there is some hint that the relationship between these stimuli and smoking (and therefore perhaps urge to smoke) may vary over time, particularly weakening after the initial few days of abstinence. Our primary interest is to estimate the time-varying association between these responses and urge to smoke so that researchers can understand how the association between these variables changes during the smoking cessation process. To estimate the association between the variables, we need to model the variables jointly. Hence, we develop a new joint modeling method for longitudinal binary and continuous responses, along with a corresponding estimation procedure.

The major difficulty in modeling binary and continuous responses jointly is the lack of a natural multivariate distribution. To overcome this difficulty, many authors (Catalano and Ryan (1992); Cox and Wermuth (1992); Dunson (2000); Fitzmaurice and Laird (1995); Gueorguieva and Agresti (2001); Liu et al. (2009); Regan and Catalano (1999); Sammel et al. (1997)) have employed what is now a well-known method, namely, introducing a continuous latent variable underlying the binary response, and assuming that the latent variable and the continuous response follow a joint normal distribution. After introducing the latent variable, Catalano and Ryan (1992) suggested decomposing the joint distribution into components that can be modeled separately: a marginal distribution for the continuous response, and a conditional distribution for the binary response given the continuous response. The first component is readily obtained, and the second component is obtained using the assumption of joint normality.

Motivated by an empirical analysis in Section 3, we proposed time-varying coefficient models for jointly modeling binary and continuous response. Time-varying coefficient models have been introduced to model continuous response in both independent and identically distributed (iid) data and longitudinal data (Hastie and Tibshirani (1993); Brumback and Rice (1998); Hoover et al. (1998); Wu et al. (1998); Zhang and Lee (2000)), and have been proposed for iid data with binary response (Cai et al. (2000)). To our best knowledge, time-varying coefficient models have not been applied for jointly modeling binary and continuous responses in longitudinal data setting. In this article we focus on estimating the time-varying association between longitudinal binary and continuous responses measured at the same time point within a subject.

We propose an estimation procedure to time-varying coefficient model for jointly modeling binary and responses outcomes in longitudinal data. Adapting from existing literature, we introduce a continuous latent variable underlying the binary response, and we decompose the joint distribution into two components. This leads to a two-stage estimation procedure. In the first stage we fit the marginal model of the continuous response by using time-varying coefficient models. In the second stage we use generalized time-varying coefficient models (Cai et al. (2000) for iid data) to fit the conditional model of the binary response. We systematically study the sampling property of the proposed estimation procedure, and establish its asymptotic normality. The efficacy of our methodology is demonstrated by a simulation study.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we propose a joint model for longitudinal binary and continuous responses, and further develop our two-stage estimation procedure by using local linear regression techniques; we also study asymptotic properties of the resulting estimators. In Section 3 we report on an extensive simulation study to investigate the finite sample behavior of our estimators, and further illustrate the proposed methodology by a data example. Regularity conditions and proofs are given in the supplementary material.

2. Joint Models for Binary and Continuous Responses

We propose time-varying coefficient models for joint modeling binary and continuous responses in Section 2.1. We propose an estimation procedure in Section 2.2, and study the sampling property of the proposed estimate in Section 2.3.

2.1. Joint Models

We begin with notation. For the ith subject, $i = 1, \ldots, n$, denote the binary response measured at time point t_{ij} by $Q_i(t_{ij})$, the continuous response by $W_i(t_{ij})$, where $j = 1, \ldots, n_i$. Define the latent variable underlying $Q_i(t_{ij})$ by $Y_i(t_{ij})$. Let $\mathbf{X}_i(t_{ij}) = (X_{i1}(t_{ij}), \ldots, X_{ip}(t_{ij}))^{\mathrm{T}}$ be the vector of predictors with $X_{i1} \equiv 1$ to include an intercept term, $\boldsymbol{\beta}(t_{ij}) = (\beta_1(t_{ij}), \ldots, \beta_p(t_{ij}))^{\mathrm{T}}$, and $\boldsymbol{\alpha}(t_{ij}) = (\alpha_1(t_{ij}), \ldots, \alpha_p(t_{ij}))^{\mathrm{T}}$ be the vectors of regression coefficients. Consider the bivariate model:

$$W_i(t_{ij}) = \mathbf{X}_i^{\mathrm{T}}(t_{ij})\boldsymbol{\beta}(t_{ij}) + \varepsilon_{1i}(t_{ij}), \quad (2.1)$$

$$Y_i(t_{ij}) = \mathbf{X}_i^{\mathrm{T}}(t_{ij})\boldsymbol{\alpha}(t_{ij}) + \varepsilon_{2i}(t_{ij}),$$

where $\varepsilon_{1i}(t)$ and $\varepsilon_{2i}(t)$ are normal with mean zero and time-varying variances $\sigma_1^2(t)$ and $\sigma_2^2(t)$, respectively, strictly positive. We take $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_i(t_{ij}) = (\varepsilon_{1i}(t_{ij}), \varepsilon_{2i}(t_{ij}))^{\mathrm{T}}$, and assume that $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_i(t_{ij})$ is bivariate normal with corr $\{\varepsilon_{1i}(t_{ij}), \varepsilon_{2i}(t_{ij})\} = \tau (t_{ij})$. The relation between the latent variable and the binary variable is defined as $Q_i(t_{ij}) = 1$ if $Y_i(t_{ij}) > 0$, and $Q_i(t_{ij}) = 0$ if $Y_i(t_{ij})$ 0. Thus, the probit model for the binary response $Q_i(t_{ij})$ is

$$P\{Q_i(t_{ij})=1|\mathbf{X}_i(t_{ij})\}=\Phi\left\{\frac{\mathbf{X}_i^{\mathrm{T}}(t_{ij})\boldsymbol{\alpha}(t_{ij})}{\sigma_2(t_{ij})}\right\}.$$

The joint distribution of $W_i(t_{ij})$ and $Q_i(t_{ij})$ is challenging to derive; however, the marginal distributions are readily obtained. Thus, we factor the joint distribution of the continuous variable and the binary variable into two components: a marginal model for the continuous variable $W_i(t_{ij})$ and a conditional model for $Q_i(t_{ij})$ given $W_i(t_{ij})$,

$$f\{q_i(t_{ij}), w_i(t_{ij})\}=f_W\{w_i(t_{ij})\}f\{q_i(t_{ij})|w_i(t_{ij})\},$$

where $j = 1, \ldots, n_i$. The marginal model for the continuous response is defined in (2.1). To derive the conditional model for $Q_i(t_{ij})$ given $W_i(t_{ij})$, we start by obtaining the conditional model $Y_i(t_{ij}) \mid W_i(t_{ij})$. As standard normal theory shows, the conditional distribution $Y_i(t_{ij}) \mid W_i(t_{ij})$ is Gaussian. The mean of this distribution depends on the error from the marginal model of the continuous response, $Y_i(t_{ij})|W_i(t_{ij})\sim\mathcal{N}[\mu_i(t_{ij}), \sigma_2^2(t_{ij})\{1-\tau^2(t_{ij})\}]$, where

$$\mu_i(t_{ij})=\mathbf{X}_i^{\mathrm{T}}(t_{ij})\boldsymbol{\alpha}(t_{ij})+\frac{\sigma_2(t_{ij})}{\sigma_1(t_{ij})}\tau(t_{ij})\varepsilon_{1i}(t_{ij}), \quad (2.2)$$

$\varepsilon_{1i}(t_{ij})=W_i(t_{ij}) - \mathbf{X}_i^{\mathrm{T}}(t_{ij})\boldsymbol{\beta}(t_{ij})$ is the error from the marginal model of the continuous response. Thus,

$$P\{Q_i(t_{ij})=1|W_i(t_{ij})\}=\Phi\left[\frac{\mu_i(t_{ij})}{\sqrt{\sigma_2^2(t_{ij})\{1-\tau^2(t_{ij})\}}}\right], \quad (2.3)$$

where $\mu_i(t_{ij})$ is defined in (2.2). The bivariate normal assumption for $\mathbf{e}_i(t_{ij})$ is only necessary to obtain the conditional distribution of the binary response given the continuous response as described in (2.3).

Not all parameters in (2.3) are estimable, hence we reparameterize (2.3) to the more parsimonious and fully estimable form

$$P\{Q_i(t_{ij})=1|W_i(t_{ij})\}=\Phi\left\{\sum_{r=1}^{p}X_{ir}(t_{ij})\alpha_r^*(t_{ij})+\alpha_{p+1}^*(t_{ij})\varepsilon_{1i}(t_{ij})\right\}, \quad (2.4)$$

where $\alpha_r^*(t_{ij})=\alpha_r(t_{ij})/\sqrt{\sigma_2^2(t_{ij})\{1-\tau^2(t_{ij})\}}$ with $r= 1, \ldots, p$. Model (2.4) links the continuous response with the binary response in a probit regression model using the error from the marginal model as a covariate. From the conditional model, it can be seen that

$$\alpha^*_{p+1}(t_{ij}) = \frac{1}{\sigma_1(t_{ij})} \cdot \frac{\tau(t_{ij})}{\sqrt{1 - \tau^2(t_{ij})}}.$$

Therefore, $\alpha^*_{p+1}(t_{ij})$ has the same sign as τ (t_{ij}) and increases when τ (t_{ij}) increases. Let $b(t_{ij}) = \alpha^*_{p+1}(t_{ij})\sigma_1(t_{ij})$. Then

$$\tau(t_{ij}) = \frac{b(t_{ij})}{\sqrt{1 + b^2(t_{ij})}}. \qquad (2.5)$$

This joint modeling approach introduces time-varying effects to the well-known joint modeling framework suggested by Catalano and Ryan (1992): introducing a normally distributed latent variable and then decomposing the joint distribution of the continuous variable and the binary variable. This decomposition can be done one of two ways: a marginal distribution for the continuous response along with a conditional distribution for the binary response given the continuous response, or a marginal distribution for the binary response along with a conditional distribution for the continuous response given the binary response. Although we followed the first formulation, one can easily employ the second option, and extend the work by Fitzmaurice and Laird (1995) and include time-varying effects. Another approach would incorporate time-varying effects to the joint mixed-effects model (Gueorguieva (2001); Gueorguieva and Agresti (2001)). However, as pointed out by Verbeke et al. (2010), maximum likelihood estimation in this approach is possible only when strong assumptions are made. An example of this is demonstrated by Roy and Lin (2000), where corresponding random effects for various outcomes are assumed to be perfectly correlated. Moreover, confounding can also be a problem with the mixed-effects approach (Hodges and Reich (2010)). This may lead to an increase in the variance of fixed-effects estimators; hence, preventing the discovery of important response–predictor relationships.

2.2. Estimation Procedure

We propose a two-stage estimation procedure to estimate the time-varying association between a longitudinal binary and a continuous response. This also allows us to estimate the regression coefficients in the marginal model of the continuous response. In the first stage we fit a time-varying coefficient model (Brumback and Rice (1998)) to the marginal model of the continuous response (2.1). Here we employ local linear fitting (Fan and Gijbels (1996)) to estimate the nonparametric coefficient functions. We locally approximate the regression coefficient functions in a neighborhood of a fixed point t_0 via the Taylor expansion,

$$\beta_r(t) \approx \beta_r(t_0) + \beta'_r(t_0)(t - t_0) \equiv a_r + b_r(t - t_0),$$

for $r = 1, \ldots, p$. Let $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, \ldots, a_p)^{\mathrm{T}}$, and $\mathbf{b} = (b_1, \ldots, b_p)^{\mathrm{T}}$, we minimize

$$\ell(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \{W_i(t_{ij}) - \mathbf{X}_i^{\mathrm{T}}(t_{ij})\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{X}_i^{\mathrm{T}}(t_{ij})\mathbf{b}(t_{ij} - t_0)\}^2 K_{h_1}(t_{ij} - t_0),$$
(2.6)

with respect to $(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b})$, where $K_h(\cdot) = h^{-1} K(\cdot/h)$, $K(\cdot)$ is the kernel function and h_1 is the bandwidth at the first stage. Let $\mathbf{W} = (\mathbf{W}_1^T, \ldots, \mathbf{W}_n^T)^{\mathrm{T}}$ be the vector of continuous responses for all subjects, with $W_i = (W_{i1}, \ldots, W_{in_i})^{\mathrm{T}}$ and $i = 1, \ldots, n$. The solution to the least squares algorithm is,

$$\hat{\mathbf{a}} = \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}(t_0) = (I_p, 0_p)(\mathscr{X}^{\mathrm{T}} \kappa \mathscr{X})^{-1} \mathscr{X}^{\mathrm{T}} \kappa \mathbf{W},$$
(2.7)

where I_p is the identity matrix with size p, 0_p is a size p matrix with each entry equal to zero, $\mathscr{X} = (\mathscr{X}_1, \ldots, \mathscr{X}_n)^{\mathrm{T}}$, $\mathscr{X}_i = ((1, t_{i1} - t_0) \otimes \mathbf{X}_{i1}, \ldots, (1, t_{in_i} - t_0) \otimes \mathbf{X}_{in_i})$ and κ is an $N \times N$ diagonal matrix with each entry equal to $K_{h_1}(t_{ij} - t_0)$ for $i = 1, \ldots, n$ and $j = 1, \ldots, n_i$.

In order to construct pointwise confidence intervals, we need an estimator for the asymptotic covariance matrix. Following conventional techniques, we propose to estimate the asymptotic covariance matrix using the sandwich formula

$$\widehat{\mathrm{cov}}\{\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}(t_0)\} \approx (I_p, 0_p)(\mathscr{X}^{\mathrm{T}} \kappa \mathscr{X})^{-1}(\mathscr{X}^{\mathrm{T}} \kappa \mathscr{Q} \kappa \mathscr{X})(\mathscr{X}^{\mathrm{T}} \kappa \mathscr{X})^{-1}(I_p, 0_p)^{\mathrm{T}},$$
(2.8)

where $\mathscr{Q} = \mathrm{diag}(\mathscr{E}_1, \ldots, \mathscr{E}_n)$ with $\mathscr{E}_i = (e_i^2(t_{i1}), \ldots, e_i^2(t_{in_i}))$ and $e_i(t_{ij}) = W_i(t_{ij}) - \mathbf{X}_i^{\mathrm{T}}(t_{ij})\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}(t_{ij})$, $i = 1, \ldots, n$, and $j = 1, \ldots, n_i$.

In the second stage we fit a generalized time-varying coefficient model to the conditional model (2.4) with longitudinal data. Generalized varying coefficient models for independent and identically distributed data were introduced by Cai et al. (2000). We adapt the related techniques to a longitudinal setting. We locally approximate the functions in a neighborhood of a fixed point t_0 via the Taylor expansion,

$$\alpha_r^*(t) \approx \alpha_r^*(t_0) + \alpha_r^{*'}(t_0)(t - t_0) \equiv a_r^* + b_r^*(t - t_0),$$

for $r = 1, \ldots, p + 1$. Let $\mathbf{a}^* = (a_1^*, \ldots, a_p^*, a_{p+1}^*)^{\mathrm{T}}$, and $\mathbf{b}^* = (b_1^*, \ldots, b_p^*, b_{p+1}^*)^{\mathrm{T}}$. For the ith subject, take $\mathbf{X}_i^*(t_{ij}) = \left(\mathbf{X}_i^{\mathrm{T}}(t_{ij}), e_i(t_{ij})\right)^{\mathrm{T}}$ to be the design matrix with $e_i(t_{ij})$ as the residual from the marginal model. We maximize the local likelihood,

$$\ell_n(\mathbf{a}^*, \mathbf{b}^*) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \ell\left(g^{-1}\left[\sum_{r=1}^{p+1}\{a_r^* + b_r^*(t_{ij} - t_0)\}X_{ir}^*(t_{ij})\right], Q_i(t_{ij})\right) K_{h_2}(t_{ij} - t_0),$$
(2.9)

where $g(\cdot)$ is the link function and h_2 is the bandwidth at the second stage. For our model (2.4) the link function is probit. Hence, the local likelihood with probit link is

$$\ell_n(\mathbf{a}^*,\mathbf{b}^*)=\frac{1}{N}\sum_{Q_i(t_{ij})=1}\log\left(\Phi\left[\sum_{r=1}^{p+1}\{a_r^*+b_r^*(t_{ij}-t_0)\}X_{ir}^*(t_{ij})\right]\right)K_{h_2}(t_{ij}-t_0)$$

$$+\frac{1}{N}\sum_{Q_i(t_{ij})=0}\log\left(1-\Phi\left[\sum_{r=1}^{p+1}\{a_r^*+b_r^*(t_{ij}-t_0)\}X_{ir}^*(t_{ij})\right]\right)K_{h_2}(t_{ij}-t_0),$$

(2.10)

where $\Phi(\cdot)$ is the cumulative distribution function (cdf) for the standard normal. We extend the iterative local maximum likelihood algorithm described in Cai et al. (2000) to find solutions to (2.10). Write the value of a_r^* and b_r^* at the kth iteration as $a_r^{*(k)}$ and $b_r^{*(k)}$. Let $\ell_n'(\mathbf{a}^*,\mathbf{b}^*)$ and $\ell_n''(\mathbf{a}^*,\mathbf{b}^*)$ as the gradient and Hessian matrix for the local likelihood (2.10), we update $(\mathbf{a}^*,\mathbf{b}^*)$ according to

$$\begin{pmatrix}\mathbf{a}^{*(k+1)}\\\mathbf{b}^{*(k+1)}\end{pmatrix}=\begin{pmatrix}\mathbf{a}^{*(k)}\\\mathbf{b}^{*(k)}\end{pmatrix}-\{-\ell_n''(\mathbf{a}^*,\mathbf{b}^*)\}^{-1}\ell_n'(\mathbf{a}^*,\mathbf{b}^*).$$

Let $\boldsymbol{\alpha}^*(t)=\left(\alpha_1^*(t),\ldots,\alpha_p^*(t),\alpha_{p+1}^*(t)\right)^{\mathrm{T}}$. The solution of this iterative regression algorithm satisfies $\ell(\mathbf{a}^*,\mathbf{b}^*)=0$ and the estimators are given by $\hat{\mathbf{a}}^*=\hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}^*(t_0)=\left(\hat{\alpha}_1^*(t_0),\ldots,\hat{\alpha}_p^*(t_0),\hat{\alpha}_{p+1}^*(t_0)\right)^{\mathrm{T}}$. The asymptotic covariance matrix of these estimators can be estimated as

$$\widehat{\mathrm{cov}}\{\hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}^*(t_0)\}=(I_p,0_p)\hat{\Gamma}(t_0)^{-1}\hat{\Lambda}(t_0)\hat{\Gamma}(t_0)^{-1}(I_p,0_p)^{\mathrm{T}},\quad(2.11)$$

where

$$\hat{\Gamma}(t_0)=\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\sum_{j=1}^{n_i}\varpi^2\left[\sum_{r=1}^{p+1}\left\{\hat{a}_r^*+\hat{b}_r^*(t_{ij}-t_0)\right\}X_{ir}^*(t_{ij}),Q_i(t_{ij})\right]K_{h_2}(t_{ij}-t_0)\begin{pmatrix}\mathbf{X}_i^*(t_{ij})\\\mathbf{X}_i^*(t_{ij})(t_{ij}-t_0)\end{pmatrix}^{\otimes 2},$$

$$\hat{\Lambda}(t_0)=\frac{h}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\sum_{j=1}^{n_i}\varpi_1^2\left[\sum_{r=1}^{p+1}\left\{\hat{a}_r^*+\hat{b}_r^*(t_{ij}-t_0)\right\}X_{ir}^*(t_{ij}),Q_i(t_{ij})\right]K_{h_2}^2(t_{ij}-t_0)\begin{pmatrix}\mathbf{X}_i^*(t_{ij})\\\mathbf{X}_i^*(t_{ij})(t_{ij}-t_0)\end{pmatrix}^{\otimes 2}$$

with $\varpi_d(\mathscr{L},q)=(\frac{d}{\mathscr{L}^d})I\{g^{-1}(\mathscr{L}),q\}$, and $A^{\otimes 2}$ denotes AA^T for a matrix or vector A.

The estimator of a_{p+1}^* gives us $\hat{\alpha}_{p+1}^*(t_0)$ and the pointwise asymptotic confidence intervals of $\alpha_{p+1}^*(t_0)$ give us information on the significance of the association. To obtain $\hat{\tau}(t_0)$, we also need to find an estimate for $\sigma_1^2(t_0)$. We propose using the kernel estimator

$$\hat{\sigma}_1^2(t_0)=\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n}\sum_{j=1}^{n_i}e_i^2(t_{ij})K_h(t_{ij}-t_0)}{\sum_{i=1}^{n}\sum_{j=1}^{n_i}K_h(t_{ij}-t_0)}.$$

(2.12)

Plugging $\hat{\sigma}_1(t_0)$ and $\hat{\alpha}_{p+1}^*(t_0)$ into (2.5) gives the estimate for τ (t_0).

2.3. Asymptotic Results

We study the asymptotic properties of the estimators in both stages of the estimation procedure. It is assumed throughout that $n_i = J$ and thus $N = nJ$, this to simplify the presentation of the asymptotic results. Proofs of the theorems are provided in the supplementary material.

Let $f(t)$ be the marginal density of t_{ij} and $f(t_{ij}, t_{ik})$ the joint density of t_{ij} and t_{ik} for $j \neq k$. Let $\mu_k = \int t^k K(t)dt$, $\nu_k = \int t^k K^2(t)dt$, and

$$\Gamma_1(t_0)=E\{\mathbf{X}_i(t_{ij})\mathbf{X}_i^{\mathrm{T}}(t_{ij})|t_{ij}=t_0\},$$

$$\eta_{lr}(t_1, t_2)=E\{X_{il}(t_{ij})X_{ir}(t_{ik})|t_{ij}=t_1, t_{ik}=t_2\},$$

$$\rho_1(t_1, t_2)=E\{\varepsilon_{1i}(t_{ij})\varepsilon_{1i}(t_{ik})|t_{ij}=t_1, t_{ik}=t_2\},$$

where $\varepsilon_{1i}(t_{ij})$ is the error term in (2.1), $l, r = 1, \ldots, p, i = 1, \ldots, n$, and $j = 1, \ldots, J$.

The following regularity conditions are needed to state the first main result.

A. The observed sample $\{t_{ij}, \mathbf{X}_i(t_{ij}), W_i(t_{ij}), i = 1, \ldots, n\}$ consists of independent and identically distributed (iid) realization of (T, X, W) for all $j = 1, \ldots, J$. The $\{\varepsilon_{1i}(t_{ij}), i = 1, \ldots, n\}$ are iid from a distribution with mean zero and finite variance $\sigma_1^2(t_{ij})$ for $j = 1, \ldots, J$. The covariate T has finite support $\mathscr{T} = [\mathscr{L}, \mathscr{U}]$. The support for $\mathbf{X}$ is a closed and bounded interval in $\mathbb{R}^p$, denoted by Ω.

B. $\beta_r(t)$ has continuous second order derivatives for $r = 1, \ldots, p$.

C. $\Gamma_1(t), \eta_{lr}(t_1, t_2), \rho_1(t_1, t_2), \sigma_1(t), f(t)$, and $f(t_1, t_2)$ are continuous for $l, r = 1, \ldots, p,$.

D. The kernel density function $K(\cdot)$ is symmetric about 0 with bounded support and satisfies the Lipschitz condition and

$$\int K(t)dt=1, \int |t|^3K(t)dt<\infty, \int t^2K^2(t)dt<\infty.$$

E. $E\{|\varepsilon_{1i}(t_{ij})|^3 | t_{ij}\} < \infty$ and is continuously differentiable.

By Condition B, we assume that the parameter space for $(\boldsymbol{\beta}(t_0), \boldsymbol{\beta}'(t_0))$ is a closed and bounded subset of $\mathbb{R}^{2p}$ for any given t_0. The continuity of $\rho_1(t_1, t_2)$ and $\eta_{lh}(t_1, t_2)$ when t_1 and t_2 converge to the same time point might not hold if the predictors and error process contain some measurement errors that are independent at different time points t. However our proofs are still valid after some slight modifications of notations. For example, we can replace $\rho_1(t_0, t_0) = \sigma_1^2(t_0)$ by $\lim_{t_1 \to t_0, t_2 \to t_0} \rho_1(t_1, t_2)$. The bounded support condition in D is imposed for simplicity of proof and can be relaxed.

The asymptotic properties of the estimators $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}(t_0)$ in the first stage of the estimation procedure, obtained by minimizing the weighted least squares (2.6) are as follows.

Theorem 1—*Under the regularity conditions (A)—(E), if $Jh_1 \to 0$ and $Nh_1 \to \infty$, we have*

$$\sqrt{Nh_1} \left\{ \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}(t_0) - \boldsymbol{\beta}(t_0) - \frac{1}{2} h_1^2 \mu_2 \boldsymbol{\beta}''(t_0) + o_p(h_1^2) \right\} \xrightarrow{L} N_p(0, V_1),$$

where $\boldsymbol{\beta}(t_0)$ is the true value and $V_1 = f(t_0)^{-1} \nu_0 \sigma_1^2(t_0) \Gamma_1^{-1}(t_0)$.

This result requires the condition $Jh_1 \to 0$ that holds if the number of observations per subject, J, is finite or goes to infinity at a slower rate than h_1^{-1}. Based on the result, the asymptotic bias of $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}(t_0)$ is $\frac{1}{2} h_1^2 \mu_2 \boldsymbol{\beta}''(t_0)$ and the asymptotic variance of $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}(t_0)$ is $(Nh_1)^{-1} f(t_0)^{-1} \nu_0 \sigma_1^2(t_0) \Gamma_1^{-1}(t_0)$. Therefore, the asymptotic bias and variance are the same as for independent data. This is meaningful, since the condition $Jh_1 \to 0$ guarantees that asymptotically there is no more than one effective observation per subject in the local area around t_0.

Theorem 1 can be proved by noting that $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} - \boldsymbol{\theta}_0 = (\mathscr{X}^T \kappa \mathscr{X})^{-1} \mathscr{X}^T \kappa (\mathbf{W} - \mathscr{X} \boldsymbol{\theta}_0)$, where $\boldsymbol{\theta}_0$ is the true value of $\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\boldsymbol{\beta}(t_0), h_1 \boldsymbol{\beta}'(t_0))$. We can show that $N^{-1} \mathscr{X}^T \kappa \mathscr{X}$ converges in probability to

$$f(t_0) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \mu_1 \\ \mu_1 & \mu_2 \end{pmatrix} \otimes \Gamma_1(t_0)$$

and that $\sqrt{Nh_1}\{N^{-1} \mathscr{X}^T \kappa (\mathbf{W} - \mathscr{X} \boldsymbol{\theta}_0) - \text{bias}(t_0)\}$ converges to a normal distribution. Thus, Theorem 1 follows by using Slutsky's Theorem. For more detail of the proof, see the supplementary file.

Next we give the asymptotic properties of the estimators, $\hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}(t_0)$, in the second stage of the estimation procedure obtained by maximizing the local likelihood (2.9).

Let $\tilde{\mathbf{X}}_{ij}=(\mathbf{X}_i^T(t_{ij}), \varepsilon_{1i}(t_{ij}))^T$, $\theta(t_{ij})=\{\alpha_{p+1}^*(t_0)+\alpha^{*\prime}{}_{p+1}(t_0)(t_{ij}-t_0)\}$ and

$$m(t_{ij}, \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{ij})=\mathrm{E}\{Q_i(t_{ij})|t_{ij}, \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{ij}\}=\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{ij}^T\boldsymbol{\alpha}^*(t_{ij})=\sum_{r=1}^{p}\alpha_r^*(t_{ij})\mathbf{x}_{ijr}+\alpha_{p+1}^*(t_{ij})\varepsilon_{1i}(t_{ij}),$$

$$\rho(t_{ij}, \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{ij}) = -\varpi_2\left[g\{m(t_{ij}, \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{ij})\}, m(t_{ij}, \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{ij})\right],$$

$$\Gamma_2(t_0)=E\{\rho(t_{ij}, \tilde{\mathbf{X}}_{ij})\tilde{\mathbf{X}}_{ij}\tilde{\mathbf{X}}_{ij}^{\mathrm{T}}|t_{ij}=t_0\},$$

$$\boldsymbol{\omega}(t_{ij})=\varpi_1\left[g\{m(t_{ij}, \tilde{\mathbf{X}}_{ij})\}, Q_i(t_{ij})\right]\tilde{\mathbf{X}}_{ij}-\theta(t_{ij})\Gamma_2(t_{ij})\Gamma_1^{-1}(t_{ij})\mathbf{X}_i(t_{ij})\varepsilon_{1i}(t_{ij})$$

,

$$\Gamma_3(t_1, t_2) = \mathrm{E}\{\boldsymbol{\omega}(t_{ij})\boldsymbol{\omega}(t_{ik})^T| \, t_{ij}=t_1, \, t_{ik}=t_2\}.$$

We need more conditions for the second result.

- **F.** The function $\varpi_2(\mathscr{L}, q) < 0$ for $\mathscr{L} \in \mathcal{R}$, and q in the range of the binary response.

- **G.** The varying coefficient functions $\alpha_r^*(t_{ij})$, $r=1, \dots, p+1$ have continuous second order derivatives.

- **H.** The functions $\Gamma_2(t)$, $\Gamma_3(t_1, t_2)$, $\varpi_1(\cdot, \cdot)$, $\varpi_2(\cdot, \cdot)$, and $\varpi_3(\cdot, \cdot)$ are continuous.

Condition (F) guarantees that the local likelihood function (2.9) is concave.

Theorem 2—*Under regularity conditions (A)—(H), if $Nh_1^5 \to 0$, $nh_1^{1+\delta} \to \infty$ for some $\delta > 0$, $Jh_2 \to 0$, and $Nh_2 \to \infty$, we have*

$$\sqrt{Nh_2}\left\{\hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}^*(t_0) - \frac{1}{2}h_2^2\mu_2\boldsymbol{\alpha}^{*\prime\prime}(t_0)+o_p(h_2^2)\right\} \xrightarrow{L} N(0, V_2),$$

where $V_2=f(t_0)^{-1}\nu_0\Gamma_2^{-1}(t_0)\Gamma_3(t_0, t_0)\Gamma_2^{-1}(t_0)$.

Based on this result, the asymptotic normality of $\hat{\mathbf{a}}^*(t_0)$ requires the under-smoothing condition of $Nh_1^5 \to 0$ in the first stage. In addition, we can see that the asymptotic bias of $\hat{\mathbf{a}}^*(t_0)$ is $\frac{1}{2}h_2^2\mu_2\boldsymbol{\alpha}^{*\prime\prime}(t_0)$ and the asymptotic variance of $\hat{\mathbf{a}}^*(t_0)$ is $(Nh_2)^{-1}f(t_0)^{-1}\nu_0\Gamma_2^{-1}(t_0)\Gamma_3(t_0, t_0)\Gamma_2^{-1}(t_0)$.

Theoretical guarantee of accurately estimate $\tau(t)$ depends on the accuracy of the kernel estimate of the variance $\sigma_1^2(t)$ and the estimate for $\alpha_{p+1}^*(t)$ in (2.4). The latter is in Theorem 2 and the former was shown in Fan et al. (2007).

Based on the quadratic approximation lemma (see Fan and Gijbels (1996)), we can get a simple expansion for the estimator $(\hat{\mathbf{a}}^*, \hat{\mathbf{b}}^*)$ with the form $\hat{\boldsymbol{\vartheta}}^* = {}^{-1}D_n + o_p(1)$; where

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\vartheta}}^* = \sqrt{Nh_2}\left(\hat{\mathbf{a}}^* - \boldsymbol{\alpha}^*(t_0), h_2\{\hat{\mathbf{b}}^* - \boldsymbol{\alpha}^{*\prime}(t_0)\}\right),$$

$$\Delta = f(t_0) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \mu_1 \\ \mu_1 & \mu_2 \end{pmatrix} \otimes \Gamma_2(t_0),$$

$$D_n = (Nh_2)^{-1/2} h_2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{J} \varpi_1 \left[\mathbf{x}_{ij}^{*T} \{ \boldsymbol{\alpha}^*(t_0) + (t_{ij} - t_0) \boldsymbol{\alpha}^{*\prime}(t_0) \}, Q_{ij} \right] \mathbf{z}_{ij}^* K_{h_2}(t_{ij} - t_0),$$

$$\mathbf{z}_{ij}^* = \left(\mathbf{x}_{ij}^{*T}, (t_{ij} - t_0)/h_2 \mathbf{x}_{ij}^{*T} \right)^T,$$

and $\mathbf{x}_{ij}^*$ is the estimate of $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{ij}$ obtained by replacing $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_1(t_{ij})$ with $e_i(t_{ij})$, the residual from the marginal model. Then, the result of Theorem 2 follows if we can establish the asymptotic normality of D_n. The main difficulty in dealing with D_n lies in the the residual $e_i(t_{ij})$ used in $\mathbf{x}_{ij}^*$. Based on the Taylor expansion of D_n around $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{ij}$ and the asymptotic results for the residual $e_i(t_{ij})$ in Theorem 1, we can prove the asymptotic normality of D_n. The under-smoothing condition of $Nh_1^5 \to 0$ in the first stage allow the bias of $e_i(t_{ij})$ to be asymptotically negligible for the second stage estimator. For more detail about the proof, see the supplementary file.

3. Numerical Studies

In this section we examine the finite sample performance of the proposed methodology via a Monte Carlo simulation study, and illustrate the proposed methodology by a data example. In this section we set $K(t) = 0.75(1 - t^2)_+$, the Epanechnikov kernel. From our limited experience, the iterative local maximum likelihood algorithm described in Section 2.2 is not sensitive to the initial value specification while a good initial value leads to fast convergence of the algorithm. In its implementation, we suggest fitting a generalized linear model and using the coefficient estimates as initial values.

3.1. Simulation Studies

In this study we generated 500 intensive longitudinal data sets, in which for each unit the number of measurements, n_i, was randomly selected using a discrete uniform distribution on [10, 20] and the measurement times $\mathbf{T}_i = (t_{i1}, \ldots, t_{in_i})$ were uniform on [0, 1]. We used sample size $n = 150$. The continuous and latent variables were generated from the models

$$W_i(t_{ij}) = \beta_1(t_{ij}) + \beta_2(t_{ij}) X_i(t_{ij}) + \varepsilon_{1i}(t_{ij}), \quad (3.1)$$

$$Y_i(t_{ij}) = \alpha_1(t_{ij}) + \alpha_2(t_{ij}) X_i(t_{ij}) + \varepsilon_{2i}(t_{ij}),$$

where $\beta_1(t_{ij}) = \sin(0.5\pi t_{ij})$, $\beta_2(t_{ij}) = \cos(\pi t_{ij} - 1/8)$, $\alpha_1(t_{ij}) = \sin(\pi t_{ij}) - 0.5$, $\alpha_2(t_{ij}) = 0.5$ $\cos(2\pi t_{ij})$, $i = 1, \ldots, 150$ and $j = 1, \ldots, n_i$. In Section 2.1 we defined the binary variable as $Q_i(t_{ij}) = 1$ if $Y_i(t_{ij}) > 0$, and $Q_i(t_{ij}) = 0$ if $Y_i(t_{ij}) \leq 0$. It is interesting to demonstrate that decreasing the percentage of successes in the binary response does not decrease the efficacy of our method. Hence, we define the relation between the latent variable and the binary variable as $Q_i(t_{ij}) = 1$ if $Y_i(t_{ij}) > 0.3$, and $Q_i(t_{ij}) = 0$ if $Y_i(t_{ij}) \leq 0.3$. So, each of our 500 simulated data sets had approximately 45% of response being 0. The predictor variable $X_i(t_{ij})$ was generated from the standard normal. The error variable for the continuous response $\varepsilon_1(t_{ij})$ was normal with mean zero, variance $0.5 + 0.5 \sin^2(2\pi t_{ij})$, and corr $\{\varepsilon_{1i}(t_{ij}),$ $\varepsilon_{1i}(t_{ij'})\} = \rho_1(t_{ij}, t_{ij'}) = 0.3^{|t_{ij} - t_{ij'}|}$ for $j \neq j'$. In addition, $\varepsilon_2(t_{ij})$ was normal distribution with mean zero, variance $0.5 + 0.5 \sin^2(2\pi t_{ij})$, and corr $\{\varepsilon_{2i}(t_{ij}), \varepsilon_{2i}(t_{ij'})\} = \rho_2(t_{ij}, t_{ij'}) = 0.4^{|t_{ij} - t_{ij'}|}$ for $j \neq j'$. Hence, $\mathbf{e}_i(t_{ij}) = (\varepsilon_{1i}(t_{ij}), \varepsilon_{2i}(t_{ij}))^T$ was bivariate normal with corr $\{\varepsilon_{1i}(t_{ij}), \varepsilon_{2i}(t_{ij})\} =$

$\tau(t_{ij}) = 0.2 \sin(\pi t_{ij})$ and corr $\{\varepsilon_{1i}(t_{ij}), \varepsilon_{2i}(t_{ij'})\} = \rho_{12}(t_{ij}, t_{ij'}) = 0.2 \sqrt{\sin(\pi t_{ij}) \sin(\pi t_{ij'})}$ for $j \neq j'$.

In the first stage we fit the time-varying coefficient model to the marginal model of the continuous response (3.1). To evaluate the performance of the estimators in this stage, we used root average squared error (RASE),

$$\text{RASE} = \left[\frac{1}{200} \sum_{r=1}^{2} \sum_{k=1}^{200} \{\beta_r(t_k) - \hat{\beta}_r(t_k)\}^2 \right]^{1/2}.$$

where $\{t_k, k = 1, \ldots, n_{grid}\}$ was an equidistant set of grid points between 0 and 1 with $n_{grid} = 200$ used in our simulation.

We were interested in examining the performance of the proposed procedure with a range of bandwidths. Table 3.1 shows the sample means and the sample standard deviations of the RASE values, based on 500 replications, computed at bandwidths 0.10, 0.20, and 0.40. According to the mean RASE values in Table 3.1, we set the bandwidth to be $h_1 = 0.20$ for the first stage.

Figures (a) and (b) depict the typical estimates of the parameter functions along with the empirical and the mean theoretical pointwise 95% confidence bands based on 500 Monte Carlo simulations at $h_1 = 0.20$. We see that the typical estimated coefficient functions are close to the true functions. The standard errors for the selected bandwidth of $h = 0.20$ are very accurate for these parameters.

We also tested the accuracy of the proposed standard error formula (2.8). The standard deviation of 500 $\hat{\beta}_r(t)$, based on 500 simulations, denoted by SD in Table 3.1, can be viewed as the true standard error. The sample average and the sample standard deviation of the 500 estimated standard errors of $\hat{\beta}_r(t)$ are denoted by SE and SD_{se} in Table 3.1, respectively. They summarize the overall performance of the standard error formula (2.8). Table 3.1 presents the results at the points $t = 0.30, 0.50$, and 0.70. In Table 3.1, our standard error formula slightly underestimates the true standard error, but with difference less than two

times the SD_{se}. This is typical for standard error estimation when using the sandwich formula.

In the second stage we fit a generalized time-varying coefficient model to the conditional model of the binary response given the continuous response.

$$P\{Q_i(t_{ij})=1|W_i(t_{ij})\}=\Phi\{\alpha_1^*(t_{ij})+\alpha_2^*(t_{ij})X_i(t_{ij})+\alpha_3^*(t_{ij})e_i(t_{ij})\},$$

where $e_i(t_{ij}) = W_i(t_{ij}) - \{\hat{\beta}_1(t_{ij}) + X_i(t_{ij})\hat{\beta}_2(t_{ij})\}$ was the residual from the first stage. At this stage we obtained $\hat{\alpha}_k^*(t)$ ($k = 1, 2, 3$) and the kernel estimate of $\sigma_1^2(t)$ at the optimal bandwidth for the first stage $h_1 = 0.20$ using (2.12), then we estimated τ (t) using (2.5). We evaluated the performance of the correlation coefficient estimator using

$$\text{RASE}=\left[\frac{1}{200}\sum_{k=1}^{200}\{\tau(t_k) - \hat{\tau}(t_k)\}^2\right]^{1/2}.$$

Table 3.2 gives the sample means and the sample standard deviations of the RASE values based on 500 replications, computed at bandwidths 0.10, 0.20, and 0.40. According to the mean RASE values in Table 3.2, we set the bandwidth to $h_2 = 0.20$.

Figure 3.2 depicts the typical estimate of the correlation coefficient function along with the 2.5 and 97.5 percentiles based on 500 Monte Carlo runs at $h_2 = 0.20$. It indicates that the typical estimated correlation coefficient function is close to the underlying true correlation coefficient function.

To test the accuracy of our standard error formula (2.11), Table 3.2 presents the SD, SE and SD_{se} at the points $t = 0.30$, 0.50, and 0.70 for $\hat{\alpha}_k^*(t)$ with $k = 1, 2, 3$. The table suggests that our formula somewhat underestimates the true standard error but with difference within two standard deviations of the estimated standard errors. This is typical for standard error estimation when using the sandwich formula.

In practice, for methods based on kernel smoothing, selecting a suitable bandwidth is an important issue. We suggest using the following leave-one-subject-out cross validation score for both stages of our estimation procedure:

$$CV(h)=\sum_{i}\left\|V_i - \hat{V}_{-i}\right\|^2,$$ (3.2)

where V_i denotes the observed value of the response V for subject i and $\hat{V}_{-i}$ is the fitted value of this response with subject i excluded. V stands for the continuous and binary responses, while choosing the bandwidth for the first and second stages, respectively. We compute this cross validation score for a range of bandwidths and select the bandwidth that minimizes it.

We evaluated the performance of this cross validation formula using our simulation study. For the first stage, the mean and standard deviation of the RASE scores corresponding to the bandwidths that minimized the RASE score and the cross validation score were 0.084 (0.027) and 0.080 (0.027), respectively, based on 500 replications. Similarly, for the second stage, the mean and standard deviation of the RASE scores corresponding to the bandwidths that minimized the RASE score and the cross validation score were 0.085 (0.028) and 0.079 (0.028), respectively. The bandwidths chosen based on cross validation are very close to the ones that minimize the RASE.

3.2. Application to the Smoking Cessation Study

We applied our proposed joint modeling methodology to the EMA data described in the introduction. Shiffman et al. (1996, 2002) collected data on 304 smokers using palm-top computers that beeped at random times. At each random assessment prompt, participants recorded their answers to a series of questions about their current activities and setting, such as their alcohol use and the presence of other smokers. Current mood and urge to smoke were also recorded. The data collection process is described below.

First, the participants were monitored for a two-week interval during which they were engaged in their normal activities. During this period they were asked to record all their smoking occasions and to respond to the random assessment prompts. Subjects were then instructed to stop smoking on day 17, called the target quit day. When the electronic diary records showed that the participant had abstained for 24 hours, that day was recorded as the subject's quit day. Once the participants quit, they were asked to keep responding to the random assessment prompts and to record any episodes of smoking (lapses) or strong temptations. During this observation period, 149 subjects lapsed. Our goal was to analyze the data for the lapsed participants. The number of observations for each subject varies from 23 to 197.

We were mainly interested in the randomly scheduled assessment data recorded two weeks before and after each subject's quit day. Subjects with missing values on target quit day or quit day were excluded from the analysis. Data alignment was necessary because different subjects could have different quit days.

Previous research regarding smoking cessation suggests that the mood variables—affect, arousal, and attention—are important factors on smoking (Shiffman et al. (2002)). It has been shown that both positive and negative affect are associated with smoking through urge to smoke. One question of interest is how these predictors (the mood variables) affect urge to smoke, and how this impact changes over time. However, our main interest was the association between drinking alcohol and smoking. Alcohol and tobacco researchers are interested in explaining this association in order to improve the treatments and prevention techniques for both smokers and drinkers. Although previous studies have shown that the relationship between smoking and drinking alcohol is positive, it has been a concern that this association becomes negative during smoking cessation programs—increased drinking might be associated with reduced smoking. Hence, we investigated how the association between urge to smoke and alcohol use changed from two weeks before to two weeks after

the quit day in order to advance our knowledge about the relationship between drinking and smoking. Urge to smoke was recorded on a scale ranging from 0 to 11.

In our analysis we use the leave-one-subject-out cross-validation score (3.2), and the selected bandwidth was $h = 5.0$ for both stages of the estimation procedure. In the first stage of our estimation procedure, we answered the question of how the relationship between urge to smoke and mood variables changed over time. We fit the following time-varying coefficient model to urge to smoke:

$$W_i(t_{ij}) = \beta_0(t_{ij}) + \beta_1(t_{ij})X_{i1}(t_{ij}) + \beta_2(t_{ij})X_{i2}(t_{ij}) + \beta_3(t_{ij})X_{i3}(t_{ij}) + \varepsilon_{1i}(t_{ij}), \quad (3.3)$$

where

$W_i(t_{ij})$: the score of urge to smoke of the ith subject at time t_{ij};

$X_{i1}(t_{ij})$: the centered score of negative affect of the ith subject at time t_{ij};

$X_{i2}(t_{ij})$: the centered score of arousal of the ith subject at time t_{ij};

$X_{i3}(t_{ij})$: the centered score of attention of the ith subject at time t_{ij}.

The estimated time-varying regression coefficients are depicted in Figure 3.3. From Figures 3.3(a) and (b), we can see that before the quit day, the coefficient functions for the intercept and negative affect are close to being time-invariant. According to Figure 3.3(a) the intercept function starts to decrease at the quit day. From Figure 3.3(b), we see that the coefficient for negative affect is always positive, as negative affect increases, urge to smoke also increases. At the quit day, we see a sudden increase in this coefficient, the effect of negative affect on urge to smoke increases. Figure 3.3(c) shows that the coefficient for arousal is nearly zero before the quit day and is negative after the quit day. Figure 3.3(d) shows that the coefficient for attention is time-varying and is positive until approximately day 13 after the quit day, and so we conclude that as the difficulty in concentrating increases, urge to smoke also increases. At day 13 after the quit day, the coefficient starts to decrease and is negative on day 15 after the quit day, indicating that the effect of attention on urge to smoke is decreasing.

We use the second stage of our estimation procedure to determine how the association between alcohol use and urge to smoke changes over time. With the residuals from the marginal model (3.3), $e_i(t_{ij})$, we fit the generalized time-varying coefficient model

$$P\{Q_{1i}(t_{ij}) = 1 | W_i(t_{ij})\} = \Phi\{\alpha_0^*(t_{ij}) + \alpha_1^*(t_{ij})X_{i1}(t_{ij}) + \alpha_2^*(t_{ij})X_{i2}(t_{ij}) + \alpha_3^*(t_{ij})X_{i3}(t_{ij}) + \alpha_4^*(t_{ij})e_i(t_{ij})\},$$

where $Q_{1i}(t_{ij})$ is the alcohol use of the ith subject at time t_{ij}, and $X_{i1}(t_{ij})$, $X_{i2}(t_{ij})$ and $X_{i3}(t_{ij})$ are defined in (3.3). As mentioned in Section 2.1, $\tau_1(t) = b(t)/\sqrt{1 + b^2(t)}$ with $b(t) = \alpha_4^*(t)\sigma_1(t)$, $\sigma_1^2(t)$ is the variance of urge to smoke at time t that is estimated using (2.12) at the bandwidth for the first stage $h = 5.0$, and $\tau_1(t)$ shows the association between urge to smoke and alcohol use at time t. We obtained bootstrap samples by resampling from independent subjects, and repeating our estimation procedure 500 times. Figure 3.4(a) presents the estimated association $\hat{\tau}_1(t)$ along with the 2.5 and 97.5 percentiles of 500

bootstrap samples. According to Figure 3.4(a) before the quit day, urge to smoke and alcohol use have a positive relationship but after the quit day the relationship is negative. In other words, before the quit day increased urge to smoke is associated with alcohol usage, whereas after the quit day reduced urge to smoke is associated with alcohol usage. Based on the relationship between $\tau_1(t)$ and $\alpha_4^*(t)$, we investigated the significance of the association using the confidence intervals for $\alpha_4^*(t)$. Figure 3.4(b) depicts the estimated regression coefficient $\hat{\alpha}_4^*(t)$ along with its confidence intervals. Figure 3.4(b) demonstrates that the association between alcohol use and urge to smoke is time-varying, is significant before the quit day but insignificant after the quit day. This may be due to lack of enough data.

Also of interest is the association between urge to smoke and the presence of other smokers. Shiffman and Balabanis (1995), McDermut and Haaga (1998) and Warren and McDonough (1999) observed that the sight of other smokers tends to provoke a craving to smoke. By employing our joint modeling technique, we studied how this association changes over time. In this analysis, the selected bandwidth was $h = 5.0$ for both stages. First we fit the time-varying coefficient model to urge to smoke; the model is the same as the one in the alcohol usage analysis (3.3). We observed the same trends in the regression coefficients as in Figure 3.3, since the only difference between these two analyses is that we removed subjects with missing values for this binary response. The plots are omitted.

In the second stage of our estimation procedure, we used the residuals from the marginal model (3.3) and fit the generalized time-varying coefficient model

$$P\{Q_{2i}(t_{ij})=1|W_i(t_{ij})\}=\Phi\{\gamma_0^*(t_{ij})+\gamma_1^*(t_{ij})X_{i1}(t_{ij})+\gamma_2^*(t_{ij})X_{i2}(t_{ij})+\gamma_3^*(t_{ij})X_{i3}(t_{ij})+\gamma_4^*(t_{ij})e_i(t_{ij})\},$$

where $Q_{2i}(t_{ij})$ is the response of the ith subject at time t_{ij} on presence of other smokers, and $X_{i1}(t_{ij})$, $X_{i2}(t_{ij})$, and $X_{i3}(t_{ij})$ are defined in (3.3). Here $\tau_2(t)=b(t)/\sqrt{1+b^2(t)}$ with $b(t)=\gamma_4^*(t)\sigma_1(t)$, and $\tau_2(t)$ shows the association between urge to smoke and presence of other smokers at time t. Similar to our analysis for estimating $\tau_1(t)$, we estimated $\sigma_1(t)$ using (2.12) at the bandwidth for the first stage $h = 5.0$. Figure 3.4(c) demonstrates the estimated association $\hat{\tau}_2(t)$ along with 2.5 and 97.5 percentiles of 500 bootstrap samples. Figure 3.4(c) indicates that the association between the presence of other smokers and urge to smoke is almost always positive. In other words, the presence of other smokers is always associated with an increased urge to smoke. As indicated by the relationship between $\tau_2(t)$ and $\gamma_4^*(t)$, we can investigate the significance of the association using the confidence intervals for $\gamma_4^*(t)$. Figure 3.4(d) shows the estimated regression coefficient $\hat{\gamma}_4^*(t)$ along with its confidence intervals. According to Figure 3.4(d) the relationship between urge to smoke and presence of other smokers is time-invariant and significant until around day 13 after the quit day. After this day, it appears to be insignificant perhaps due to not having a sufficient number of observations.

4. Discussion

We have proposed a joint modeling methodology for estimating the time-varying association between longitudinal binary and continuous responses. We developed a two-stage estimation procedure based on local linear regression, and derived standard error formulas for our estimators in both stages. A simulation study showed that our procedure works well on estimating both the time-varying relationship between longitudinal binary and continuous responses and the true standard errors of the estimators. We applied our method to a dataset of lapsed participants in a smoking cessation study and gained insight regarding two relationships: urge to smoke and alcohol use, and urge to smoke and presence of other smokers.

We are aware that in practice an association between the binary and continuous responses measured at different time points may exist; however, we did not model this association and showed in Section 2.3 that it does not affect the asymptotic behavior of the proposed estimates in either stages of the estimation procedure.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

Acknowledgments

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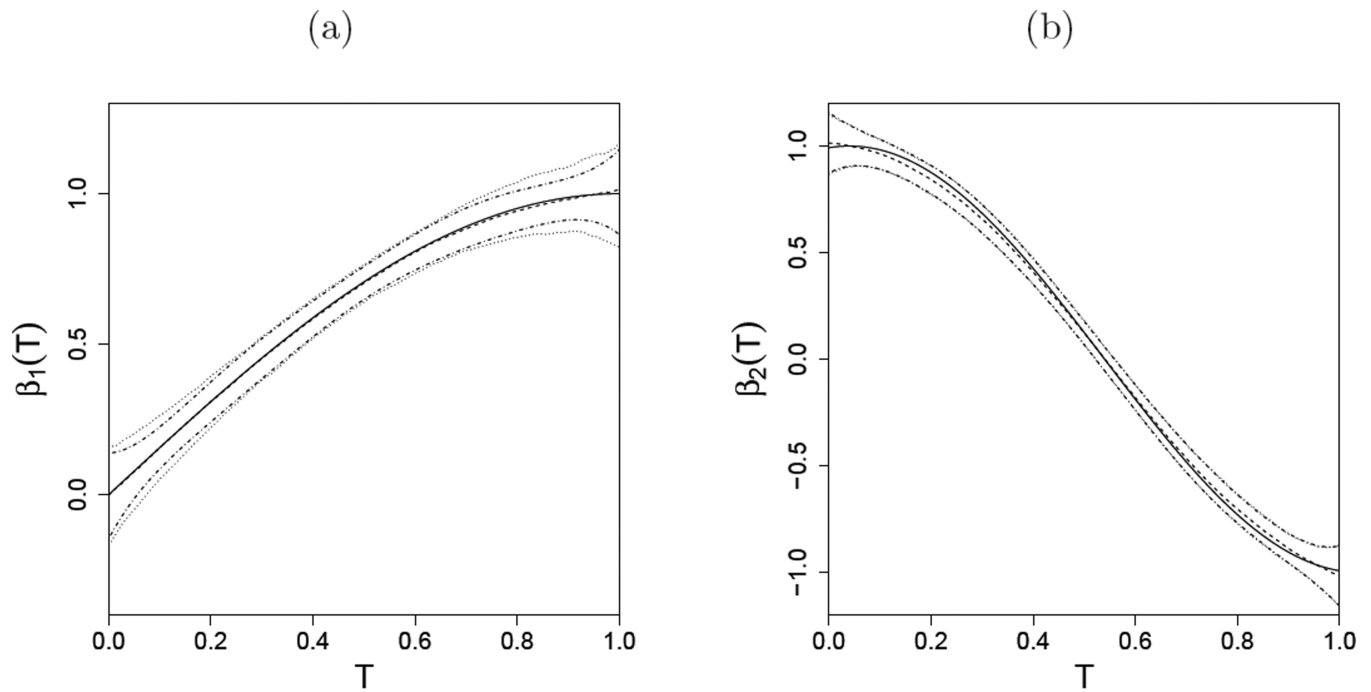
Figure 3.1.
Estimated varying coefficient functions (dashed) of the time-varying coefficient model fit to the continuous response overlaying the true coefficient functions (solid) along with the empirical (dotted) and the mean theoretical (dashed-dotted) pointwise 95% confidence bands based on 500 Monte Carlo replications.
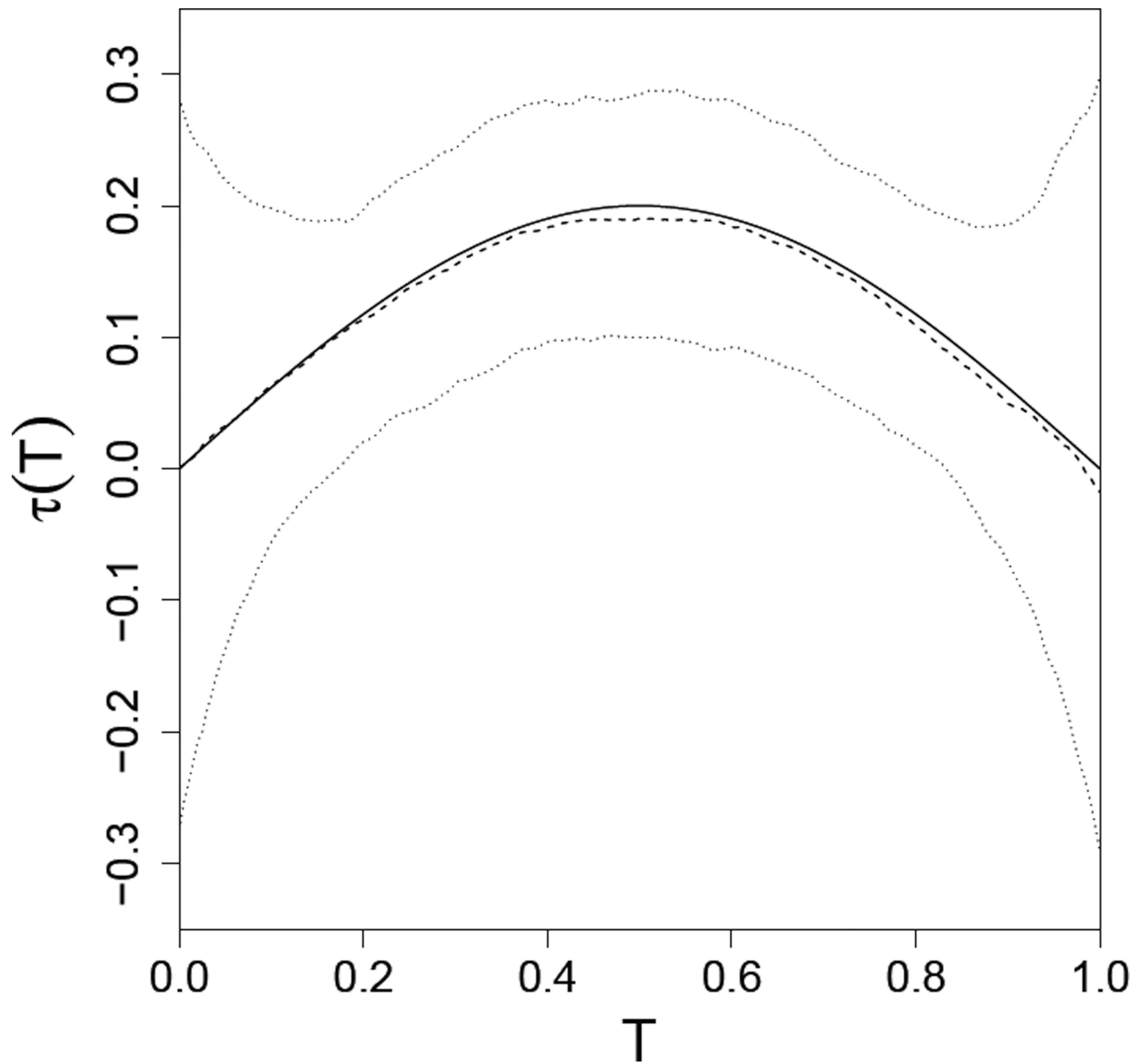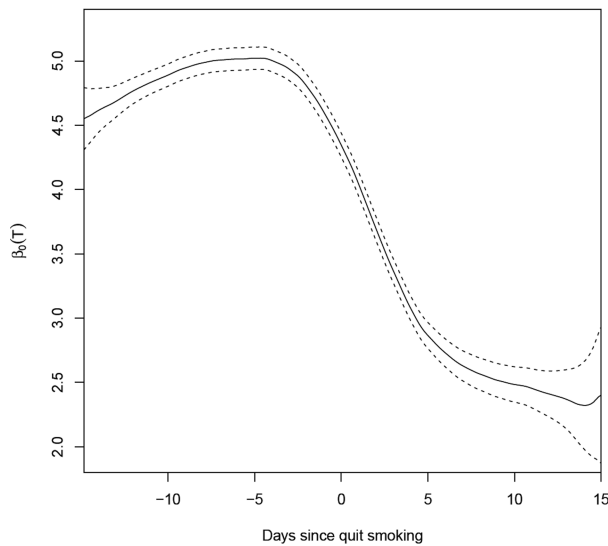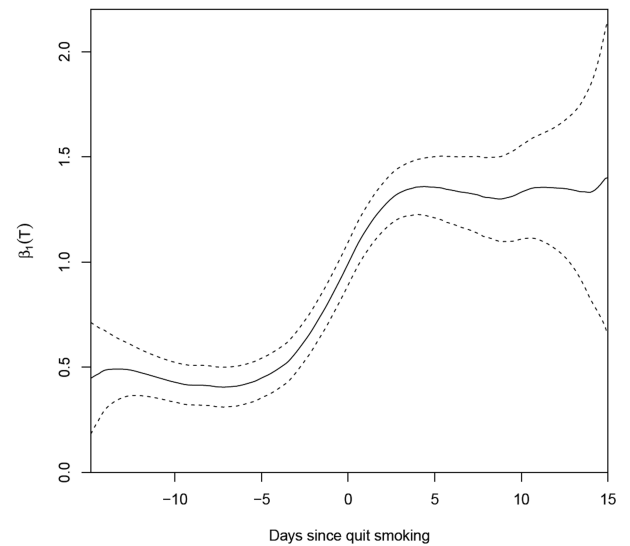
Figure 3.2.
Estimated correlation coefficient function (dashed) overlaying the true correlation function
(solid) along with the 2.5 and 97.5 percentiles based on 500 Monte Carlo runs (dotted).
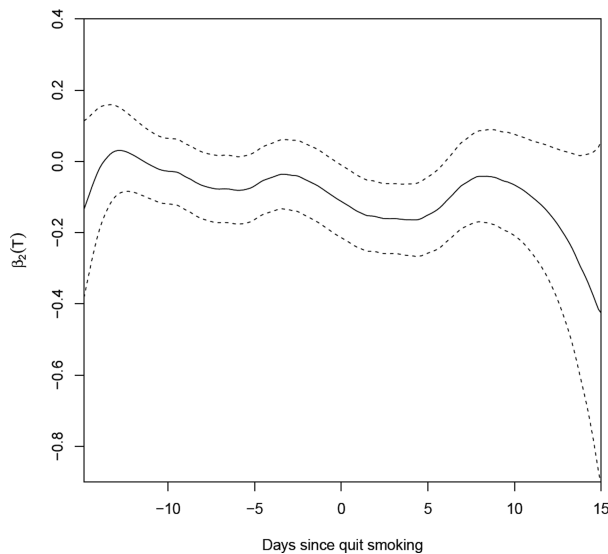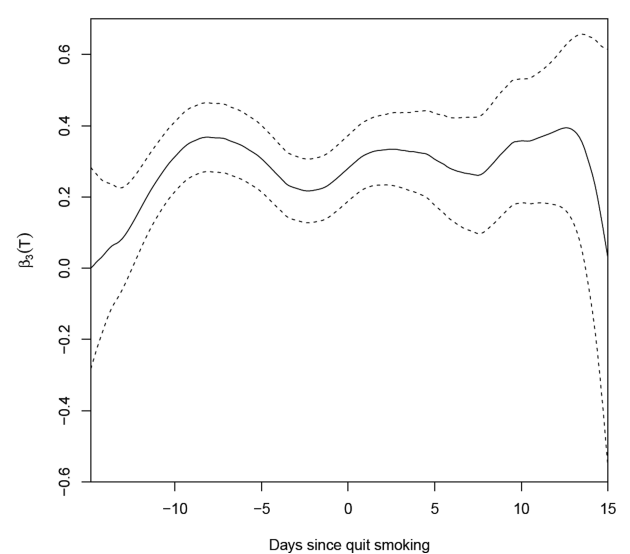
(a) Intercept Function

(b) Negative Affect

(c) Arousal

(d) Attention

Figure 3.3.
Plots of estimated coefficient functions (solid) of the time-varying coefficient model fit to urge to smoke response along with the 95% pointwise asymptotic confidence intervals before and after quitting smoking (dashed). We aligned the data so that all subjects have quit day at day zero. (a) Intercept function, (b) negative affect, (c) arousal, and (d) attention.

(a)

(b)

(c)

(d)
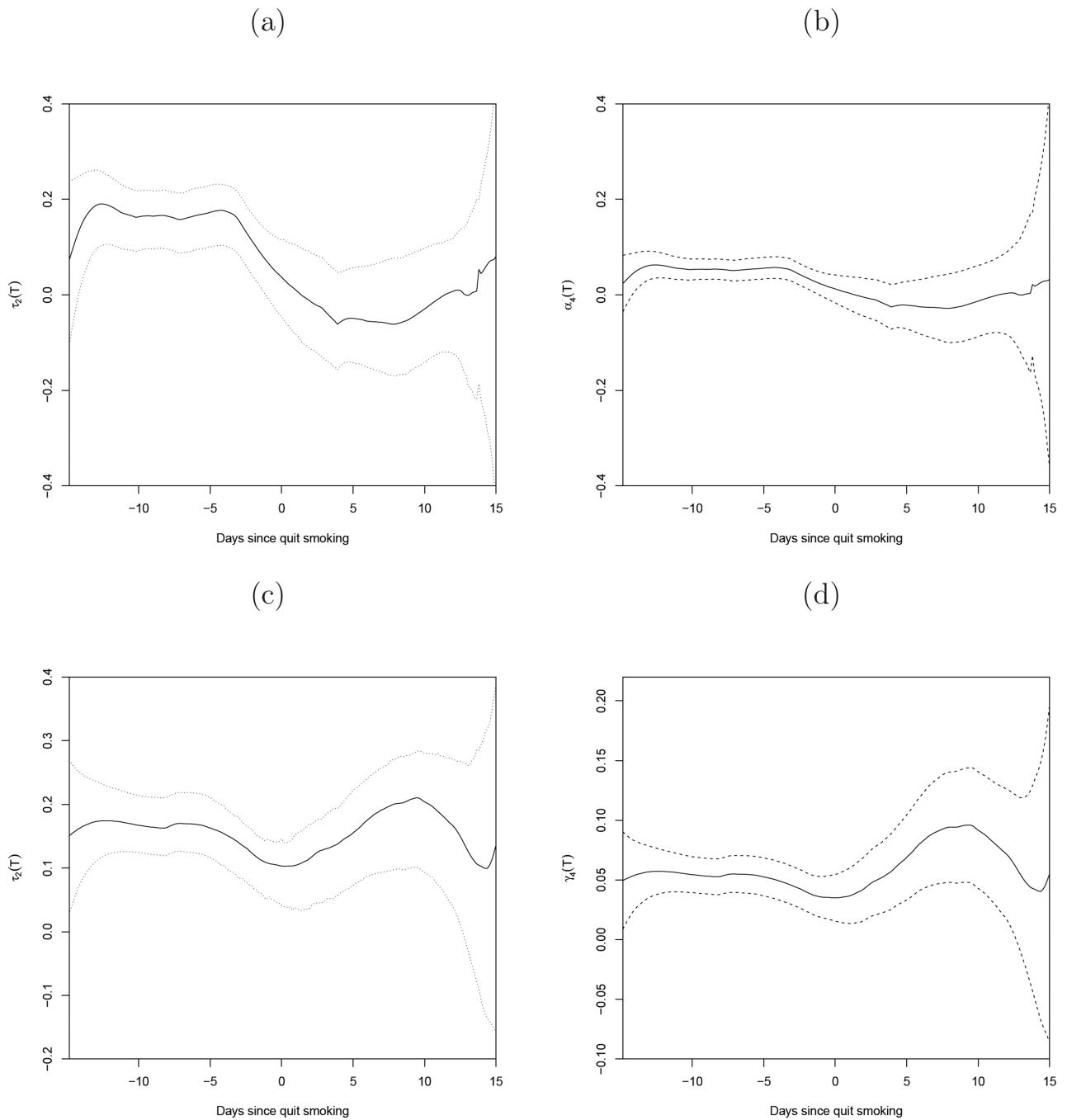
Figure 3.4.
Estimated time-varying associations along with 2.5 and 97.5 percentiles of 500 bootstrap
samples (a) alcohol versus urge to smoke and (c) presence of other smokers versus urge to
smoke. Estimated coefficient functions (solid) of the generalized time-varying coefficient
model fit along with the 95% pointwise asymptotic confidence intervals (dashed) (b) alcohol
use analysis and (d) presence of other smokers analysis.

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Table 3.1

Summary of simulation results for the first stage

h	RASE		$\hat{\beta}_1(t)$		$\hat{\beta}_2(t)$	
	t	Mean(SD)	SD	SE (SD_{se})	SD	SE (SD_{se})
.10	.30	.078 (.016)	.051	.049 (.005)	.049	.049 (.005)
	.50		.042	.037 (.003)	.038	.037 (.003)
	.70		.054	.049 (.004)	.051	.049 (.005)
.20	.30	.062 (.014)	.035	.034 (.002)	.035	.034 (.003)
	.50		.032	.028 (.002)	.028	.028 (.002)
	.70		.038	.034 (.002)	.033	.033 (.003)
.40	.30	.072 (.014)	.025	.024 (.001)	.023	.023 (.002)
	.50		.022	.022 (.001)	.022	.022 (.001)
	.70		.026	.024 (.001)	.023	.023 (.002)

Table 3.2

Summary of simulation results for the second stage

h	RASE Mean(SD)	t	$\hat{\alpha}_1^*(t)$ SD	SE (SD_{se})	$\hat{\alpha}_2^*(t)$ SD	SE (SD_{se})	$\hat{\alpha}_3^*(t)$ SD	SE (SD_{se})
.10	.080(.020)	.30	.069	.066(.002)	.068	.066(.003)	.071	.071(.005)
		.50	.073	.069(.002)	.077	.074(.005)	.100	.095(.007)
		.70	.070	.066(.002)	.067	.066(.003)	.077	.071(.005)
.20	.052(.019)	.30	.048	.046(.001)	.047	.047(.002)	.056	.052(.003)
		.50	.048	.048(.001)	.052	.050(.002)	.064	.060(.004)
		.70	.048	.046(.001)	.046	.046(.002)	.057	.053(.003)
.40	.064(.020)	.30	.035	.034(.001)	.035	.034(.001)	.043	.041(.002)
		.50	.034	.033(.001)	.034	.033(.001)	.041	.037(.002)
		.70	.034	.034(.001)	.034	.034(.001)	.044	.041(.002)