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# A Semiparametric Regression Model for Longitudinal Data with Non-stationary Errors

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**Abstract** Motivated by the need to analyze the National Longitudinal Surveys (NLS) data, we propose a new semiparametric longitudinal mean-covariance model in which the effects on dependent variable of some explanatory variables are linear and others are nonlinear, while the within-subject correlations are modeled by a non-stationary autoregressive error structure. We develop an estimation machinery based on least squares technique by approximating nonparametric functions via B-spline expansions, and establish the asymptotic normality of parametric estimators as well as the rate of convergence for the nonparametric estimators. We further advocate a new model selection strategy in the varying-coefficient model framework, for distinguishing whether a component is significant and subsequently whether it is linear or nonlinear. Besides, the proposed method can also be employed for identifying the true order of lagged terms consistently. Monte Carlo studies are conducted to examine the finite sample performance of our approach and an application of real data is also illustrated.

*Key words:* autoregressive process; B-splines; model selection; rate of convergence; SCAD penalty.

**Running Head.** Semiparametric longitudinal data model

## 1 Introduction

Longitudinal observations are repeated measurements from the same subject over time and can be frequently collected in many disciplines, while the within-subject correlation is one

of the most distinguishing characteristics. Informative identification of this correlation structure has gained considerable attention in recent years since the pioneering work of Liang & Zeger (1986), and many approaches have already been developed. Diggle *et al.* (2013) provided a comprehensive review on the modeling and inference of longitudinal analysis.

The National Longitudinal Surveys (NLS) are a set of surveys designed for gathering information at multiple points in time on the labor market activities and other significant events of several groups of men and women. In this paper, we focus on the analysis of a NLS subset named *nlswork.dta* in which 1357 annual observations were obtained from 266 subjects graduated from college during 1970 and 1988. The number of observations per subject ranges from 4 to 11, which shows that this data set is irregular and possibly has subject-specific observation time. Specifically, what factors have effects on the average level of one's salary and how do the significant ones work are the two issues we are most interested in. Therefore one's wage in this longitudinal data set is regarded as dependent variable and the logarithm of wage (*lwage*) is taken for deriving measurements. The possible correlated explanatory variables include interviewed year (*year*), usual hours worked (*hours*), one's age in current year (*age*), total work experience (*exper*), weeks worked last year (*wks.work*), job tenure years (*tenure*) and current grade completed (*educ*). Then both the significance of correlation between these variables and *lwage*, and the linear/nonlinear effects on *lwage* of the significant ones are expected to be identified practically.

Motivated by the analysis of this NLS data set, we propose a semiparametric model naively since both scatter diagrams and Pearson correlation tests indicate that *exper* and *tenure* have nonlinear effects on *lwage* while other variables have linear effects. In addition, we only put *age*, one's age in current year, into the model for circumventing the possible multi-collinearity between the variables *age* and *year*. Specifically the model considered is

$$\begin{aligned} lwage_{i,j} &= hours_{i,j}\beta_1 + age_{i,j}\beta_2 + educ_{i,j}\beta_3 + wks.work_{i,j}\beta_4 \\ &\quad + \alpha_1(exper_{i,j}) + \alpha_2(tenure_{i,j}) + \varepsilon_{i,j}, \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

where  $\beta_k, k = 1, \dots, 4$  are coefficient parameters and  $\alpha_l(\cdot), l = 1, 2$  are unknown smooth functions, while  $\varepsilon_{i,j}$  is random error with mean 0 and allowed to be heteroscedastic. Obviously model (1) is a partially linear additive model for which many approaches have

been developed like series estimation (e.g. Li, 2000), kernel smoothing (e.g., Fan & Li, 2003) and regression spline (e.g. Liu *et al.*, 2011). As the first attempt to analyze this data set, we suppose the disturb term  $\varepsilon_{i,j}$  to be white noise, and estimate the parametric and nonparametric components simultaneously based on spline approximation and least squares technique. Naturally, the fitting residual  $\widehat{\varepsilon}_{i,j}$  can be easily obtained from the resulting consistent estimators (Liang & Zeger, 1986). A closer look at the scatter diagrams of  $\widehat{\varepsilon}_{i,j}$  shows a clear trend, which motivates us to get a more efficient estimator by exploring the possible correlation structure among the fitting residual  $\widehat{\varepsilon}_{i,j}$ .

[Figure 1 about here.]

Graphical comparisons of  $\widehat{\varepsilon}_{i,j}$  in Figure 1 show an obvious dependence of  $\widehat{\varepsilon}_{i,j}$  on its predecessors  $\widehat{\varepsilon}_{i,j-1}$ ,  $\widehat{\varepsilon}_{i,j-2}$  and  $\widehat{\varepsilon}_{i,j-3}$  in the top three panels. In the typical longitudinal studies, subjects may be commonly observed at irregular time intervals. Then it is natural to assess whether this dependence between two error components also varies with their time distance. Towards this end, we further plot the  $j$ th ( $j > 3$ ) fitting residual against time-distance dependent residuals  $(year_{i,j} - year_{i,j-1})\widehat{\varepsilon}_{i,j-1}$ ,  $(year_{i,j} - year_{i,j-2})\widehat{\varepsilon}_{i,j-2}$  and  $(year_{i,j} - year_{i,j-3})\widehat{\varepsilon}_{i,j-3}$  respectively in the bottom three panels. We can easily observe that the correlations showed in the far left two panels are relatively strong, and this correlation gradually decreases as the time distance between two measurements increases.

The discussions above motivate a more general semiparametric model as the follows:

$$\begin{aligned} Y_{i,j} &= \mathbf{X}_{i,j}^\top \boldsymbol{\beta} + \alpha_1(U_{i,j,1}) + \cdots + \alpha_q(U_{i,j,q}) + \varepsilon_{i,j}, \\ \varepsilon_{i,j} &= \sum_{r=1}^s (a_r + b_r \Delta t_{i,j,r}) \varepsilon_{i,j-r} + e_{i,j} \quad \text{with } \Delta t_{i,j,r} = t_{i,j} - t_{i,j-r}, \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

where  $i = 1, \dots, n$  and  $j = s + 1, \dots, m_i$ , and the total sample size is  $N = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i$ . Model (2) allows more nonparametric covariates to be included than the partially linear structure of Leng *et al.* (2010), and employs a non-stationary and time-adaptive autoregressive process for identifying the within-subject correlation of repeated measurements. We use  $Y_{i,j}$  for denoting the  $j$ th measurement of the  $i$ th subject,  $\mathbf{X}_{i,j} = (1, X_{i,j,1}, \dots, X_{i,j,p})^\top$  and  $U_{i,j,l}$ ,  $l = 1, \dots, q$  are strictly exogenous regressors on which the unknown smooth functions  $\{\alpha_l(U_l)\}_{l=1}^q$  are defined satisfying  $E(\alpha_l(U_l)) = 0$  for identification purpose. The parameter vector is  $\boldsymbol{\beta} =$

$(\beta_1, \dots, \beta_p)^\top$  and the autoregressive coefficients are  $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, \dots, a_s)^\top$  and  $\mathbf{b} = (b_1, \dots, b_s)^\top$  respectively, while  $e_{i,j}$ 's are i.i.d. random disturbs with mean zero and variance  $\sigma_e^2$ . A similar autoregressive error structure presented in equation (2) was proposed by Bai *et al.* (2015) for partially linear model. Obviously, the partially linear additive model is more flexible and useful than partially linear model because the former allows several nonparametric terms for some regressors. Thus, it is possible to explore more complex and accurate relationships between the response and explanatory variables.

Recent years have seen growing interests in developing flexible mean and covariance models for analyzing longitudinal data. The semiparametric mean model in (2) was widely studied, see e.g., Lin & Ying (2001), Lin & Carroll (2001a, 2001b), He *et al.* (2002), Wang (2003), He *et al.* (2005), Wang *et al.* (2005), Lian *et al.* (2014) and Cheng *et al.* (2014). There was also a large literature for developing new models for characterizing the covariance structure, see for example, Pourahmadi (1999), Fan *et al.* (2007), Wu & Pourahmadi (2003), Fan & Li (2004), Fan & Wu (2008), Leng *et al.* (2010), Li (2011), Zhang & Leng (2012), Zhou & Qu (2012). A recent line of research for variable selection has also undergone rapid development, see e.g., Fan & Li (2001), Wang *et al.* (2009), Liu *et al.* (2011), Ma *et al.* (2013). Among these studies, a working correlation model for the variance is often assumed. Additionally, Zhang *et al.* (2011) proposed a method for distinguishing linear and nonlinear variables for cross sectional data model in the framework of reproducing kernel Hilbert spaces. In contrast, our treatment is for repeat measurement that is very common in practice and model the dependence explicitly motivated by the analysis of NLS data. We make use of basis expansion approach via B-splines that is much simpler. Our model selection method is also distinctively different, and provides an alternative view for identifying linear and nonlinear variables by transforming one general model into varying-coefficient structure. In addition, the proposed model selection method could be used to determine the order of time lag and time distance variables in modeling  $\varepsilon_{i,j}$  as well. This is also important due to the fact that misspecification of the error structure will resultant in inefficient estimation and uncorrect statistical inference. It should also be noted that the non-stationary error structure in (2) is essentially different from that of Leng *et al.* (2010). Specifically, the number of autoregressive coefficient in Leng *et al.* (2010), generated from Cholesky decomposition of covariance matrix, is  $T(T-1)/2$  with  $T = \max(m_i)$  and too large to be estimated for large  $T$ , while that in our

error structure is finite and usually small, no matter how large  $T$  is. So, our method could be used to model the functional data sets as well, however, the method of Leng *et al.* (2010) does not work for the the functional data sets.

The layout of the remainder is as follows. In Section 2, we construct an efficient semiparametric least squares estimator for both the parametric and nonparametric components when model structure is completely known. Besides asymptotic property is also established accordingly. In Section 3 we propose a novel shrinking method for identifying the structure of true model, and further show that the resulting penalized estimators have the same asymptotic properties as if the true submodel was known in advance. Numerical studies from Monte Carlo procedure and a real data analysis are also illustrated in Section 4. Section 5 presents summary remarks. All the technical details are relegated to the Appendix.

## 2 Semiparametric least squares estimation

Polynomial spline is commonly employed for approximating smooth function for its stability in computations. As pointed by de Boor (1978) and Schumaker (1981), spline function is actually piecewise polynomial smoothly connected at a series of knots. In specific, suppose

$$\underline{u} = u_0 < u_1 < \dots < u_{\kappa_n} < u_{\kappa_n+1} = \bar{u}$$

be a knot sequence, a spline function  $s(u)$  of degree  $d > 1$  (order  $d+1$ ) is a function satisfying that  $s(u)$  belongs to  $C^{d-1}[\underline{u}, \bar{u}]$  and its restriction to each  $[u_{k-1}, u_k)$  for  $k = 1, \dots, \kappa_n$  and  $[u_{\kappa_n}, u_{\kappa_n+1}]$  is a polynomial of degree at most  $d$ . We use  $S_{\kappa_n}^d(u)$  to denote the spline space spanned by a group of spline basis  $\{B_k(u)\}_{k=1}^K$ , which implies that there exists real vector  $(\theta_1, \dots, \theta_K)$  such that  $s(u) = \sum_{k=1}^K B_k(u)\theta_k$  where  $K = K_n = \kappa_n + d$  is allowed to approach to infinity as  $n$  increases.

Following the discussion above, each  $\alpha_l(U_l)$  can be approximated by a spline function  $s_l(U_l) = \sum_{k=1}^{K_l} B_{l,k}(U_l)\theta_{l,k}$  with  $K_l = \kappa_l + d$ ,  $1 \leq l \leq q$ . Subsequently the mean structure of model (2) can be expressed as

$$Y_{i,j} = \mathbf{X}_{i,j}^\top \boldsymbol{\beta} + \sum_{l=1}^q \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^{K_l} B_{l,k}(U_{i,j,l})\theta_{l,k} \right\} + \varepsilon_{i,j}^*$$

where  $\varepsilon_{i,j}^* = \sum_{l=1}^q \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^{K_l} B_{l,k}(U_{i,j,l})\theta_{l,k} - \alpha_l(U_{i,j}) \right\} + \varepsilon_{i,j}$ . The use of Lemma 1 in the Appendix implies that  $\varepsilon_{i,j}^* = \varepsilon_{i,j} + o_p(1)$ . As a result, same as Cochrane & Orcutt (1949), MaCurdy (1982) and Wang *et al.* (2007) one can estimate  $(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{\theta}_q, \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b})$  by minimizing

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=s+1}^{m_i} \left[ Y_{i,j} - \sum_{r=1}^s (a_r + b_r \Delta t_{i,j,r}) Y_{i,j-r} - \left\{ \mathbf{X}_{i,j} - \sum_{r=1}^s (a_r + b_r \Delta t_{i,j,r}) \mathbf{X}_{i,j-r} \right\}^\top \boldsymbol{\beta} \right. \\ & \left. - \sum_{l=1}^q \sum_{k=1}^{K_l} \left\{ B_{l,k}(U_{i,j,l}) - \sum_{r=1}^s (a_r + b_r \Delta t_{i,j,r}) B_{l,k}(U_{i,j-r,l}) \right\} \theta_{l,k} \right]^2 \stackrel{def}{=} \mathcal{L}_0(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}). \quad (3) \end{aligned}$$

According to Cochrane & Orcutt (1949), when a normal distribution is assumed for the errors  $\varepsilon_{i,j}$ , the resultant estimator of the parameters in (3) is also the maximum likelihood estimator.

Noting the interaction of unknown parameters in (3), an iterative estimating process is expected from an appropriate initial estimator. In addition, the objective function defined in (3) makes no use of  $\{Y_{i,j}, \mathbf{X}_{i,j}, t_{i,j} : i = 1, \dots, n; j = 1, \dots, s\}$  and perhaps results in the efficiency loss of estimation. This motivates the following objective function using full observations:

$$\mathcal{L}_N(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) = \mathcal{L}_0(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) + \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^s \left\{ Y_{i,j} - \mathbf{X}_{i,j}^\top \boldsymbol{\beta} - \sum_{l=1}^q \sum_{k=1}^{K_l} B_{l,k}(U_{i,j,l}) \theta_{l,k} \right\}^2.$$

Then the updated LSE are

$$(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_N, \widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_N, \widehat{\mathbf{a}}_N, \widehat{\mathbf{b}}_N) = \operatorname{argmin} \mathcal{L}_N(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}), \quad (4)$$

and the estimator of  $\alpha_l(U_l)$  follows as  $\widehat{\alpha}_{l,N}(U_l) = \sum_{k=1}^{K_l} B_{l,k}(U_l) \widehat{\theta}_{l,k,N}$ ,  $l = 1, \dots, q$ .

Suppose  $\mathbf{X}$  be generated by the function vector  $\boldsymbol{\eta}(\mathbf{u}) = (\eta_1(\mathbf{u}), \dots, \eta_p(\mathbf{u}))^\top = (\sum_{l=1}^q \eta_{1,l}(u_l), \dots, \sum_{l=1}^q \eta_{p,l}(u_l))^\top$  as  $\mathbf{X}_{i,j} = \boldsymbol{\eta}(\mathbf{U}_{i,j}) + \boldsymbol{\delta}_{i,j}$  for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ ,  $j = 1, \dots, m_i$ , where  $\boldsymbol{\delta}_{i,j} = (\delta_{i,j,1}, \dots, \delta_{i,j,p})^\top$  is random disturb term satisfying  $E(\boldsymbol{\delta}_{i,j} | \mathbf{U}_{i,j}) = \mathbf{0}$ . For ease of notation, we write  $\boldsymbol{\delta}_{i,j}^* = \boldsymbol{\delta}_{i,j} - \sum_{r=1}^s (a_r + b_r \Delta t_{i,j,r}) \boldsymbol{\delta}_{i,j-r}$  and  $\boldsymbol{\zeta}_{i,j} = (\varepsilon_{i,j-1}, \dots, \varepsilon_{i,j-s}, \dots, \varepsilon_{i,j-1} \Delta t_{i,j,1}, \dots, \varepsilon_{i,j-s} \Delta t_{i,j,s})^\top$ , and assume that for positively definite

matrices  $\mathbf{\Gamma}$  and  $\mathbf{\Lambda}$ ,

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \sum_{j=1}^s \boldsymbol{\delta}_{i,j} \boldsymbol{\delta}_{i,j}^\top + \sum_{j=s+1}^{m_i} \boldsymbol{\delta}_{i,j}^* \boldsymbol{\delta}_{i,j}^{*\top} \right) \xrightarrow{P} \mathbf{\Gamma} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=s+1}^{m_i} \boldsymbol{\zeta}_{i,j} \boldsymbol{\zeta}_{i,j}^\top \xrightarrow{P} \mathbf{\Lambda}.$$

The asymptotic property in the text followed is established as  $N$  (or  $n$ ) tends to infinity.

**Theorem 1.** *Suppose that assumptions A1 – A6 in the Appendix are satisfied, then*

(i)  $\sqrt{n}(\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_N - \boldsymbol{\beta}) \xrightarrow{D} N(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{\Gamma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{\Gamma}^{-1})$ , where

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left[ \sigma_e^2 \sum_{j=s+1}^{m_i} \boldsymbol{\delta}_{i,j}^* \boldsymbol{\delta}_{i,j}^{*\top} + (\boldsymbol{\delta}_{i,1}, \dots, \boldsymbol{\delta}_{i,s}) \text{cov}\{(\varepsilon_{i,1}, \dots, \varepsilon_{i,s})^\top\} (\boldsymbol{\delta}_{i,1}, \dots, \boldsymbol{\delta}_{i,s})^\top \right] \xrightarrow{P} \boldsymbol{\Sigma};$$

(ii)  $\sqrt{n}\{(\widehat{\mathbf{a}}_N^\top, \widehat{\mathbf{b}}_N^\top)^\top - (\mathbf{a}^\top, \mathbf{b}^\top)^\top\} \xrightarrow{D} N(\mathbf{0}, \sigma_e^2 \mathbf{\Lambda}^{-1})$ ;

(iii)  $\max_{1 \leq l \leq q} \|\widehat{\alpha}_{l,N} - \alpha_l\|_{L_2}^2 = O_p(\max_l K_l/N + \max_l K_l^{-4})$ , where  $\|\alpha\|_{L_2} = (\int_u \alpha^2(u) du)^{1/2}$ .

The asymptotic normality of parametric estimators can serve as a basis for further inference, while the asymptotic covariance matrices for  $\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_N$  and  $(\widehat{\mathbf{a}}_N, \widehat{\mathbf{b}}_N)$  have a relatively simple and explicit structure that enables us to construct the estimator of variance straightforwardly without resorting to resampling-based methods. However these implements involve the estimation of  $\sigma_e^2$ ,  $\mathbf{\Gamma}$ ,  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ , and  $\mathbf{\Lambda}$ . Actually we can estimate  $\sigma_e^2$  by

$$\widehat{\sigma}_{e,N}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{m_i - s} \sum_{j=s+1}^{m_i} \left\{ \widehat{\varepsilon}_{i,j} - \sum_{r=1}^s (\widehat{a}_{r,N} + \widehat{b}_{r,N} \Delta t_{i,j,r}) \widehat{\varepsilon}_{i,j-r} \right\}^2,$$

where  $\widehat{\varepsilon}_{i,j} = Y_{i,j} - \mathbf{X}_{i,j}^\top \widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_N - \widehat{\alpha}_{1,N}(U_{i,j,1}) - \dots - \widehat{\alpha}_{q,N}(U_{i,j,q})$ .

For simplicity of expression, we write  $\mathbf{B}_l(U_{i,j,l}) = (B_{l,1}(U_{i,j,l}), \dots, B_{l,K_l}(U_{i,j,l}))^\top$ ,  $\mathbf{B}_l = (\mathbf{B}_l(U_{1,1,l}), \dots, \mathbf{B}_l(U_{n,m_n,l}))^\top$  and  $\mathbf{P}_{B_l} = \mathbf{B}_l(\mathbf{B}_l^\top \mathbf{B}_l)^{-1} \mathbf{B}_l^\top$ , similarly  $\mathbf{P}_B = \mathbf{B}(\mathbf{B}^\top \mathbf{B})^{-1} \mathbf{B}^\top$  with  $\mathbf{B} = (\mathbf{B}_1, \dots, \mathbf{B}_q)$ . Define  $\tilde{\mathbf{X}} = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{P}_B) \mathbf{X}$ . Write  $\tilde{\mathbf{X}}_{i,j}^* = \tilde{\mathbf{X}}_{i,j} - \sum_{r=1}^s (\widehat{a}_{r,N} + \widehat{b}_{r,N} \Delta t_{i,j,r}) \tilde{\mathbf{X}}_{i,j-r}$  and  $\widehat{\boldsymbol{\zeta}}_{i,j} = (\widehat{\varepsilon}_{i,j-1}, \dots, \widehat{\varepsilon}_{i,j-s}, \widehat{\varepsilon}_{i,j-1} \Delta t_{i,j,1}, \dots, \widehat{\varepsilon}_{i,j-s} \Delta t_{i,j,s})^\top$  for  $i = 1, \dots, n, j = s+1, \dots, m_i$ . Then we can estimate  $\mathbf{\Gamma}$ ,  $\mathbf{\Lambda}$  and  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$  respectively by

$$\widehat{\mathbf{\Gamma}}_N = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \sum_{j=1}^q \tilde{\mathbf{X}}_{i,j} \tilde{\mathbf{X}}_{i,j}^\top + \sum_{j=q+1}^{m_i} \tilde{\mathbf{X}}_{i,j}^* \tilde{\mathbf{X}}_{i,j}^{*\top} \right),$$

$$\widehat{\Lambda}_N = \frac{1}{N - nq} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=q+1}^{m_i} \widehat{\zeta}_{i,j} \widehat{\zeta}_{i,j}^\top \quad \text{and}$$

$$\widehat{\Sigma}_N = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^n \left[ \widehat{\sigma}_{e,N}^2 \sum_{j=q+1}^{m_i} \widetilde{\mathbf{X}}_{i,j}^* \widetilde{\mathbf{X}}_{i,j}^{*\top} + \left( \sum_{j=1}^q \widetilde{\mathbf{X}}_{i,j} \widehat{\varepsilon}_{i,j} \right) \left( \sum_{j=1}^q \widetilde{\mathbf{X}}_{i,j} \widehat{\varepsilon}_{i,j} \right)^\top \right].$$

**Theorem 2.** *Suppose that the conditions in Theorem 1 are satisfied. Then we have that*

$$\sqrt{N - sn}(\widehat{\sigma}_{e,N}^2 - \sigma_e^2) \xrightarrow{D} N(0, \text{var}(e_{i,j}^2)),$$

$$\widehat{\Gamma}_N \xrightarrow{P} \Gamma, \quad \widehat{\Lambda}_N \xrightarrow{P} \Lambda, \quad \text{and} \quad \widehat{\Sigma}_N \xrightarrow{P} \Sigma.$$

The asymptotic results in Theorem 2 lead to consistent estimators of the asymptotic covariance matrices of  $\widehat{\beta}_N$  and  $(\widehat{\mathbf{a}}_N^\top, \widehat{\mathbf{b}}_N^\top)^\top$ .

### 3 Model identification

We have derived the consistent estimates for both parametric and nonparametric components when the model structure in (2) is completely known. However, it's commonly a different story in practice since we have no prior knowledge on the significance of these variables nor the forms of their effects on the response variable. Therefore we propose a method in this section for identifying the significant variables and further distinguish the corresponding effects of linearity with nonlinearity on the responses.

Specifically, we employ an initial nonparametric additive model below,

$$Y_{i,j} = \mu + G_1(Z_{i,j,1}) + \cdots + G_L(Z_{i,j,L}) + \varepsilon_{i,j} \quad (5)$$

where the regressor  $Z$  is perhaps  $X$  and  $U$  defined in model (2), and  $G_l(Z_l), l = 1, \dots, L$  are unknown smooth functions satisfying  $E(G_l(Z_l)) = 0$ , while  $\varepsilon_{i,j}$  is also similarly defined as that in model (2). Then we expect to identify the significance and linear/nonlinear effects of  $Z$  on  $Y$ . For ease of implementation, we rewrite the model (5) as the following varying coefficient framework,

$$Y_{i,j} = \mu + g_1(Z_{i,j,1})Z_{i,j,1} + \cdots + g_L(Z_{i,j,L})Z_{i,j,L} + \varepsilon_{i,j} \quad (6)$$

with  $g(z) = G(z)/z$ . Since the point set  $\{0\}$  is zero-measure for some compact support, we can assume that  $z \neq 0$  here without loss of generality. The varying coefficient model in (6) is actually a transformation of the additive model (5), which is used just for facilitating the identification of possible linear effect of covariate on response variable only. That means the variable  $Z_l$  is linearly correlated with the response once  $g_l(Z_l) \equiv \text{constant}$  in the model (6), and then the model (5) can be identified as the semiparametric model in (2). Following the discussions in Section 2, there is  $\boldsymbol{\theta}_l^* = (\theta_{l,1}^*, \dots, \theta_{l,K_l}^*)^\top$  and basis functions  $\mathbf{B}_l^*(Z) = (B_{l,1}^*(Z), \dots, B_{l,K_l}^*(Z))^\top$  such that

$$g_l(Z_{i,j,l}) = \sum_{k=1}^{K_l} B_{l,k}^*(Z_{i,j,l})\theta_{l,k}^* + o_p(1), \quad l = 1, \dots, L.$$

We can immediately conclude that (i)  $G_l(z_l) \equiv 0$  is equivalent to  $g_l(z_l) \equiv 0$  and  $\|\boldsymbol{\theta}_l^*\| = 0$ ; (ii)  $G_l(z_l)$  is linear function if  $g_l(z_l) \equiv \text{constant} \neq 0$ , which is equal to  $\|\boldsymbol{\theta}_l^*\| \neq 0$  and

$$\|\boldsymbol{\theta}_l^*\|_{\mathbf{D}}^2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \boldsymbol{\theta}_l^{*\top} \mathbf{D}_{K_l \times K_l} \boldsymbol{\theta}_l^* = \boldsymbol{\theta}_l^{*\top} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{\theta}_l^* = 0. \quad (7)$$

We centralize the observation  $Y_{i,j}$  first for removing the intercept term  $\mu$  from (6) and write the unknown index set of zero, constant and function of regressors as  $\mathcal{S}_0, \mathcal{S}_c$  and  $\mathcal{S}_v$  respectively. Then we identify these sets by adding penalization to the following quadratic loss function:

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{\mathcal{L}}_0(\boldsymbol{\theta}^*, \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=s+1}^{m_i} \left[ Y_{i,j} - \sum_{r=1}^s (a_r + b_r \Delta t_{i,j,r}) Y_{i,j-r} - \right. \\ &\quad \left. \sum_{l=1}^L \sum_{k=1}^{K_l} \left\{ Z_{i,j,l} B_{l,k}^*(Z_{i,j,l}) - \sum_{r=1}^s (a_r + b_r \Delta t_{i,j,r}) Z_{i,j-r,l} B_{l,k}^*(Z_{i,j-r,l}) \right\} \theta_{l,k}^* \right]^2 \\ &\quad + \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^s \left\{ Y_{i,j} - \sum_{l=1}^L \sum_{k=1}^{K_l} Z_{i,j,l} B_{l,k}^*(Z_{i,j,l}) \theta_{l,k}^* \right\}^2. \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

Then the penalized least squares estimator  $(\check{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_N^*, \check{\mathbf{a}}_N, \check{\mathbf{b}}_N)$  can be constructed by minimizing

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{\mathcal{L}}_N^p(\boldsymbol{\theta}^*, \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) &= \tilde{\mathcal{L}}_0(\boldsymbol{\theta}^*, \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) + N \sum_{r=1}^s p_{\lambda_1}(\|\xi_r\|) + N \sum_{l=1}^L p_{\lambda_2}(\|\boldsymbol{\theta}_l^*\|) \\ &\quad + N \sum_{l=1}^L p_{\lambda_3}(\|\boldsymbol{\theta}_l^*\|_{\text{D}}) I(\|\boldsymbol{\theta}_l^*\| \neq 0), \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

where  $\boldsymbol{\theta}^{*\top} = (\boldsymbol{\theta}_1^{*\top}, \dots, \boldsymbol{\theta}_L^{*\top})$ ,  $\xi_r^\top = (a_r, b_r)$  and  $p_\lambda(\cdot)$  is the smoothly clipped absolute deviation (SCAD) penalty defined in Fan & Li (2001). Actually the first derivative of SCAD is used in implementation,

$$p'_\lambda(\cdot) = \lambda \left\{ I(|\cdot| < \lambda) + \frac{(a\lambda - |\cdot|)_+}{(a-1)\lambda} I(|\cdot| < \lambda) \right\} \text{sgn}(\cdot)$$

with  $\lambda > 0$  be tuning parameter and  $a = 3.7$  from a Bayesian point of view. The penalized estimator of nonparametric function follows as  $\check{G}_{l,N}(Z_{i,j,l}) = \{\mathbf{B}_l^{*\top}(Z_{i,j,l})\check{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{l,N}^*\}Z_{i,j,l}$ .

Since the difficulty raised by indicator  $I(\cdot)$  in (9), we employ an iterative process for an alternative approach in terms of computational simplicity. At the first stage, we distinguish zero coefficients from the non-zero ones by minimizing

$$\mathcal{L}_1^p(\boldsymbol{\theta}^*, \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) = \tilde{\mathcal{L}}_0(\boldsymbol{\theta}^*, \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) + N \sum_{r=1}^s p_{\lambda_1}(\|\xi_r\|) + N \sum_{l=1}^L p_{\lambda_2}(\|\boldsymbol{\theta}_l^*\|). \quad (10)$$

Let  $\check{\mathcal{S}}_0$  be the estimated set of  $\mathcal{S}_0$ , and  $\check{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_N^*, \check{\mathbf{a}}_N, \check{\mathbf{b}}_N$  be the nonzero estimates in this stage. Based on these estimates, we minimize

$$\mathcal{L}_2^p(\boldsymbol{\theta}^*, \check{\mathbf{a}}_N, \check{\mathbf{b}}_N) = \tilde{\mathcal{L}}_0(\boldsymbol{\theta}^*, \check{\mathbf{a}}_N, \check{\mathbf{b}}_N) + N \sum_{l=1}^L p_{\lambda_3}(\|\boldsymbol{\theta}_l^*\|_{\text{D}}) I(\|\check{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{l,N}^*\| \neq 0) \quad (11)$$

for identify the constant and varying coefficients over the complement of  $\check{\mathcal{S}}_0$ . Let  $\check{\mathcal{S}}_c$  and  $\check{\mathcal{S}}_v$  be estimated index sets of  $\mathcal{S}_c$  and  $\mathcal{S}_v$  respectively. Then, repeating (10) and (11) above until the solution converges and denoting the final estimator as  $(\check{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_N^*, \check{\mathbf{a}}_N, \check{\mathbf{b}}_N)$  for avoiding the abuse of notation.

Another key problem in the implementation is the choice of tuning parameters  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2$  and  $\lambda_3$ , for which many approached have been developed, see e.g., Wang *et al.* (2007), Wang

*et al.* (2008) and Wang *et al.* (2009). We use the Bayesian information criterion (BIC) for its finite sample performances (see, e.g. Wang *et al.*, 2007) and select these parameters by minimizing

$$\text{BIC}(\lambda) = \ln \left\{ \frac{1}{N} \tilde{\mathcal{L}}_N^p(\boldsymbol{\theta}^*, \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) \right\} + df \frac{\ln(N)}{N}, \quad (12)$$

where  $df$  is the degree of freedom of the model.

Suppose  $(\mathbf{a}_0, \mathbf{b}_0)$  be the true value of  $(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b})$  and  $(\mathbf{a}_{01}, \mathbf{b}_{01})$  be the  $s_0$  nonzero entries, while  $\mathbf{G}_0 = (\mathbf{G}_{0c}^\top, \mathbf{G}_{0v}^\top, \mathbf{0}^\top)^\top$  with  $\mathbf{G}_{0c} = (G_{01}, \dots, G_{0L'})^\top$  and  $\mathbf{G}_{0v} = (G_{0L'+1}, \dots, G_{0L_0})^\top$  be the constant and functional components respectively. We define the following quantities which are used in the theorem followed:

$$\mu_N^c = \max\{|p'_{\lambda_1}(\|\xi_r\|)| \vee p'_{\lambda_3}(\|\boldsymbol{\theta}_l^*\|_{\text{D}}) : r, l \in \mathcal{S}_c\}, \quad \mu_N^v = \max\{|p'_{\lambda_2}(\|\boldsymbol{\theta}_l^*\|)| : l \in \mathcal{S}_v\},$$

$$\rho_N^c = \max\{|p''_{\lambda_1}(\|\xi_r\|)| \vee p''_{\lambda_3}(\|\boldsymbol{\theta}_l^*\|_{\text{D}}) : r, l \in \mathcal{S}_c\}, \quad \rho_N^v = \max\{|p''_{\lambda_2}(\|\boldsymbol{\theta}_l^*\|)| : l \in \mathcal{S}_v\}.$$

**Theorem 3.** *Suppose that assumptions A1–A6 in the Appendix are satisfied. If  $\max(\rho_N^c, \rho_N^v)$  tends to zero as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , then with probability approaching 1, there exists a local minimizer  $(\check{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_N^*, \check{\mathbf{a}}_N, \check{\mathbf{b}}_N)$  of  $\tilde{\mathcal{L}}_N^p(\boldsymbol{\theta}^*, \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b})$  such that  $\|\check{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{l,N}^* - \boldsymbol{\theta}_l^*\| = O_p(N^{-2/5} + \max(\mu_N^c, \mu_N^v))$  for  $l = 1, \dots, L$ ,  $\|\check{\mathbf{a}}_N - \mathbf{a}_0\| = O_p(N^{-1/2} + \max(\mu_N^c, \mu_N^v))$  and  $\|\check{\mathbf{b}}_N - \mathbf{b}_0\| = O_p(N^{-1/2} + \max(\mu_N^c, \mu_N^v))$ .*

Theorem 3 shows that the shrinking estimators derived from (9) are consistent. The tuning parameters  $\lambda_\varrho$ ,  $\varrho = 1, 2, 3$  are used for controlling the magnitude of penalization and are critical to the identification of model structure. Specifically if the tuning parameter has smaller order than  $\mu_N^c \vee \mu_N^v$ , there exists a local minimizer such that the parametric estimators achieve  $N^{1/2}$  consistency and the nonparametric component achieves the optimal rate of convergence  $O(N^{-2/5})$ .

**Theorem 4. (Oracle property)** *Suppose that assumptions A1 – A7 in the Appendix are satisfied. If  $\max\{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3\} \rightarrow 0$  and  $N^{2/5} \min\{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3\} \rightarrow \infty$ , then*

- (i) (Sparsity)  $\text{P}(\check{\mathcal{S}}_0 = \mathcal{S}_0) \rightarrow 1$ ,  $\text{P}(\check{\mathcal{S}}_c = \mathcal{S}_c) \rightarrow 1$  and  $\text{P}(\check{\mathcal{S}}_v = \mathcal{S}_v) \rightarrow 1$ ;
- (ii) (Asymptotic normality)

$$\sqrt{N} \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{L'_0}^{(1)}(\check{\mathbf{G}}_{c,N} - \mathbf{G}_{0,c}) \xrightarrow{\text{D}} \text{N}\left(\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{L'_0}^{(1)}\right),$$

where  $\mathbf{\Gamma}_{L'_0}^{(1)}$  and  $\mathbf{\Sigma}_{L'_0}^{(1)}$  consist of the first  $L'_0$  rows and the first  $L'_0$  columns of  $\mathbf{\Gamma}$  and  $\mathbf{\Sigma}$  respectively which are applied in Theorem 1. In addition,

$$\sqrt{N}\mathbf{\Lambda}_{s_0}^{(1)} \left\{ (\check{\mathbf{a}}_{1,N}^\top, \check{\mathbf{b}}_{1,N}^\top)^\top - (\mathbf{a}_{01}^\top, \mathbf{b}_{01}^\top)^\top \right\} \xrightarrow{D} N(\mathbf{0}, \sigma_e^2 \mathbf{\Lambda}_{s_0}^{(1)}),$$

where  $\mathbf{\Lambda}_{s_0}^{(1)}$  consists of the first  $s_0$  rows and the first  $s_0$  columns of  $\mathbf{\Lambda}$  defined in Theorem 1;

(iii) (Consistency)

$$\max_{L'_0+1 \leq l \leq L_0} \|\check{G}_{l,N} - G_l\|_{L_2} = O_p \left( \max_l K_l/N + \max_l K_l^{-4} \right).$$

This theorem indicates that our procedure has the desired selecting consistency and that the nonzero estimators have the same asymptotic normality as if the true submodel was known in advance. This is the semiparametric analog of the oracle property in Fan & Li (2001) and provides a different idea for identifying parametric and nonparametric components as opposed to that in Zhang *et al.* (2011). Particularly we cast the model selection problem into the space of varying-coefficient models via B-splines and our emphasis is on longitudinal data sets while Zhang *et al.* (2011) focused on cross-sectional data.

## 4 Numerical experiments

### 4.1 Simulated examples

The empirical application of our approach is evaluated via some Monte Carlo studies. Example 1 is used to check the asymptotic property of estimators when true model structure is known, while Example 2 is designed for showing that our approach is robust in consistency when the error structure is misspecified. Example 3 is conducted to check the finite sample performance of variable selection.

*Example 1.* The data were generated from the model

$$Y_{i,j} = \sum_{l=1}^3 X_{i,j,l} \beta_l + \alpha_1(U_{i,j,1}) + \alpha_2(U_{i,j,2}) + \varepsilon_{i,j},$$

$$\varepsilon_{i,j} = \sum_{r=1}^2 (a_r + b_r \Delta t_{i,j,r}) \varepsilon_{i,j-r} + e_{i,j}, \quad i = 1, \dots, n, \quad j = 1, \dots, m_i,$$

where  $X_{i,j,1} = \cos(\pi t_{i,j}) + \delta_{i,j,1}$ ,  $X_{i,j,2} = (t_{i,j} - 1)^2 + \delta_{i,j,2}$  and  $X_{i,j,3} \sim \text{Bernoulli}(1, 0.5)$  with  $\delta_{i,j,1}, \delta_{i,j,2} \sim \text{N}(0, 1)$ . The coefficient vector is  $\boldsymbol{\beta} = (0.6, 1.5, -0.5)^\top$  and the nonparametric functions are

$$\alpha_1(u_1) = u_1 \sin(2\pi u_1), \quad \alpha_2(u_2) = \cos(\pi u_2) + u_2^2 - \exp(u_2),$$

where  $u_1, u_2 \sim \text{U}(0, 2)$ . Let  $(a_1, a_2) = (0.2, 0.8)$ ,  $(b_1, b_2) = (-0.6, -0.3)$  and  $e_{i,j} \sim \text{N}(0, 0.5)$ .

Following the studies of Rice & Silverman (1991), Hoover *et al.* (1998) and Rice & Wu (2001), we use splines with equally spaced knot sequences and fixed degrees, and select only the numbers of knots  $K_1, \dots, K_q$  by using a data-driven approach. Specifically, we employ the following ‘‘leave-one-subject-out’’ cross-validation score

$$\text{CV} = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^{m_i} \left\{ Y_{i,j} - \mathbf{X}_{i,j}^\top \widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{(-i)} - \sum_{l=1}^q \widehat{\alpha}_l^{(-i)}(U_{i,j,l}) \right\}^2, \quad (13)$$

where  $\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{(-i)}$  and  $\{\widehat{\alpha}_l^{(-i)}(u)\}_{l=1}^q$  are the least squares estimator when deleting the measurements of the  $i$ th subject, and select  $K_1, \dots, K_q$  by minimizing this cross-validation score. One advantage of this approach is that, by deleting the entire measurements of the subject one at a time, it is expected to preserve the within-subject correlation (see, Huang *et al.*, 2004). Additionally, another feasible method in practice is to take the number of knots as

$$\min(\lfloor cN^{2/5} \log N \rfloor + 1, \lfloor (N/2 - 1)d^{-1} \rfloor),$$

in which ‘ $N$ ’ denotes the total sample size and ‘ $d$ ’ is the degree of spline, while ‘ $c$ ’ is a constant with some empirical values. Wang & Yang (2007) provided a good reference for more details.

[Table 1 about here.]

We take the sample sizes  $n = 50, 100, 150$  and  $m_i = m = 5, 10$  respectively, and use  $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_N$  and  $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}_N(\cdot)$  to denote the estimates without modelling the error structure and  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_N$ ,  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}_N(\cdot)$  and  $(\hat{\mathbf{a}}_N, \hat{\mathbf{b}}_N)$  to denote the proposed estimates in (4). For the estimates of parameters  $\boldsymbol{\beta}$  and autoregressive coefficients  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$ , the average sample bias (bias), empirical standard deviation (std), mean of standard error (se) based on the asymptotic covariance matrix and empirical coverage probability (cp) of the 95% confidence intervals via the proposed method are reported in Table 1 based on 1000 repetitions.

- (a) Small biases indicate all the estimates are unbiased regardless of the sample size. Moreover, the biases decrease as the sample size increases and the biases of  $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_N$  are generally larger than those of  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_N$ ;
- (b) The estimated standard deviations are very close to the empirical standard errors, and the larger sample size, the smaller the deviations. Furthermore,  $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_N$  also has larger std and se than those of  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_N$ ;
- (c) The empirical coverage probability of confidence interval is very close to the nominal level 95% for the estimates of  $\boldsymbol{\beta}$  and  $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}$ .

For the nonparametric component, its performance is measured by the square root of average squared errors (RASE) defined as

$$\text{RASE}(\hat{\alpha}_N) = \left[ \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^{m_i} \{ \hat{\alpha}_N(U_{i,j}) - \alpha(U_{i,j}) \}^2 \right]^{\frac{1}{2}},$$

for  $\hat{\alpha}_N(\cdot)$  and  $\text{RASE}(\tilde{\alpha}_N)$  for  $\tilde{\alpha}_N(\cdot)$  similarly. The boxplots of RASEs in Figure 2 below clearly indicate that our approach outperforms the method that ignores the within-subject correlation.

[Figure 2 about here.]

*Example 2.* The data were generated from

$$Y_{i,j} = \sum_{\iota=1}^2 X_{i,j,\iota} \beta_{\iota} + \sum_{l=1}^2 \alpha_l(U_{i,j,l}) + \varepsilon_{i,j}$$

in which  $X_{i,j,1} = 2t_{i,j} + 0.5N(0, 1)$ ,  $X_{i,j,2} = \sin(t_{i,j}) + N(0, 1)$  and  $\boldsymbol{\beta} = (1, -0.5)^\top$ , while  $\alpha_1(u)$  and  $\alpha_2(u)$  are defined similarly as those in Example 1. We consider four processes for

the generation of error component with  $\varepsilon_{i,j} = e_{i,j}$ ,  $\varepsilon_{i,j} = [1.5 - \Delta t_{i,j,1} - 0.5(\Delta t_{i,j,1})^2]\varepsilon_{i,j-1} + e_{i,j}$ ,  $\varepsilon_{i,j} = \exp(-\Delta t_{i,j,1}) + e_{i,j}$  and  $\varepsilon_{i,j} = (1 - 0.5\Delta t_{i,j,1})\varepsilon_{i,j-1} + (0.5 - 0.8\Delta t_{i,j,2})\varepsilon_{i,j-2} + e_{i,j}$  respectively, and  $e_{i,j} \sim N(0, 0.5)$ . For each case presented, we use AR(1) error model  $\varepsilon_{i,j} = (a + b\Delta t_{i,j,1})\varepsilon_{i,j-1} + e_{i,j}$  to estimate the conditional mean component, then the error structure is misspecified. The resultant estimates are reported in Table 2, from which we observe that the estimator of mean component is consistent though with a larger standard deviation, i.e., the proposed method is robust in consistency with a slight loss of efficiency.

[Table 2 about here.]

*Example 3.* The data were generated from

$$Y_{i,j} = \sum_{\iota=1}^8 X_{i,j,\iota} \beta_{\iota} + \sum_{l=1}^4 \alpha_l(U_{i,j,l}) + \sum_{r=1}^5 (a_r + b_r \Delta t_{i,j,r}) \varepsilon_{i,j-r} + e_{i,j},$$

where  $\mathbf{X}_{i,\cdot,\iota} \sim N(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{\Omega}_{\mathbf{X}})$ ,  $\iota = 1, \dots, 8$  with  $(\mathbf{\Omega}_{\mathbf{X}})_{j_1, j_2} = 0.5^{|j_1 - j_2|}$  for  $j_1, j_2 = 1, \dots, m_i$  and the coefficient vector is  $\boldsymbol{\beta} = (1.5, 0, 0.5, 0, 0, -1, 0, 0)^{\top}$ . The nonparametric functions are

$$\alpha_1(u_1) = 4u_1 \cos(u_1 + 7) + u_1, \quad \alpha_2(u_2) = 3\{\exp(\sin(\pi u_2)) - 2\}u_2, \quad \text{and} \quad \alpha_3(u_3) = \alpha_4(u_4) \equiv 0$$

where  $u_1, \dots, u_4 \sim U(-1, 1)$ . In addition, the AR coefficients are  $\mathbf{a} = (0.5, 0, 0, 0.7, 0)^{\top}$ ,  $\mathbf{b} = (-0.8, 0, 0, -0.4, 0)^{\top}$  and  $e_{i,j} \sim 0.5N(0, 1)$ .

We apply the proposed shrinking approach for identifying the true model structure and report the selecting results in Table 3 based on 1,000 repeated simulations. Let ‘‘U’’ denote the number of under-estimated model in the sense that at least one of the variables is estimated to have simpler structure, ‘‘C’’ indicate the number of correctly estimated models in which all the functional forms of the covariates are correctly identified, and ‘‘O’’ denote the number of models in which at least one variable is estimated to have a more complex structure, where complexity is applied for indicating that a zero covariate is estimated as nonzero, or a linear covariate is estimated as nonlinear. Table 3 shows the selection results of the mean and error components respectively and also displays the results for both mean and error component are identified simultaneously. It clearly indicates that our method can identify the correct mean structure and determine the order in the error

component consistently, especially for larger sample sizes. We conclude that the proposed model identification approach performs satisfactorily.

[Table 3 about here.]

## 4.2 NLS data

We now present a detailed analysis of the NLS data set mentioned in the Introduction. We still take the logarithm of wage as the response so that the observations follow more closely with a normal distribution. The explanatory variables include *hours*, *age*, *exper*, *educ*, *wks* and *tenure* as before. We fit a more ambitious model than the one presented in the Introduction as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 lwage_{i,j} &= \alpha_1(hours_{i,j}) + \alpha_2(age_{i,j}) + \alpha_3(educ_i) + \alpha_4(wks.work_{i,j}) + \alpha_5(exper_{i,j}) \\
 &\quad + \alpha_6(tenure_{i,j}) + \varepsilon_{i,j}, \\
 \varepsilon_{i,j} &= \sum_{r=1}^4 (a_r + b_r \Delta t_{i,j,r}) \varepsilon_{i,j-r} + e_{i,j} \quad \text{with} \quad \Delta t_{i,j,r} = year_{i,j} - year_{i,j-r}, \quad (14)
 \end{aligned}$$

where the forms of all the mean covariates are unspecified and AR order in the error is allowed up to 4, while the variable *year* is scaled to  $[0, 1]$  for ease of implementation.

[Figure 3 about here.]

Figure 3 exhibits the estimated nonparametric functions in model (14) by using spline approximations, in which the solid curves are the estimated nonparametric functions and the dashed curves are the corresponding 95% pointwise confidence bands constructed using the wild bootstrap procedure proposed by Härdle *et al.* (2004). Figure 3 shows that *hours*, one's usual hours worked, appears to be linearly and negatively correlated to the response variable *lwage*, the level of one's salary. The variable *age*, which represents one's age in current year, has a slight wavy dynamic effect, specifically an increase in *lwage* before 30 years old and a decline after 35 are observed. On the other hand, *exper*, the total work experience, has a relatively significant effect of increasing one's wage at an increasing rate. As well, a high value of *educ*, current grade completed, can totally escalate one's salary level, and an

increase in *wks.work*, the weeks worked last year, generally raises one's salary even though it seems trifling. Similarly we observe that *tenure*, the years of job tenure, increases the value of *lwage* with some slight fluctuations though, particularly when the years of tenure is larger than 18 or so. The SCAD-based selecting process identifies the variables *hours*, *age*, *educ* for the parametric component and the variables *exper* and *tenure* for the nonparametric component of the model, while the variable *wks.work* exerts no significant effect on the level of salary. The estimated nonparametric functions using the SCAD penalty are shown in Figure 4. There are similarities between the results shown in Figure 4 and Figure 3, for example, the estimated function of  $\alpha_5(exper)$  with SCAD penalization shows that the larger value of *exper*, the higher level of salary one can derive; also, by using SCAD selection, the results show that an increase in the years of tenure can enhance the level of one's salary until the time of retirement.

[Figure 4 about here.]

[Table 4 about here.]

The results on autoregressive coefficients are reported in Table 4, where EST, SE and CI denote the coefficient estimate corresponding to the parameters shown on the first column of the table, its standard error, and the associated bootstrap-based 95% confidence interval. Three sets of resulting results are presented: those without the implementation of SCAD or other diagnostic tests are shown on the far left panel of the table; the middle panel presents the re-estimated results after removing the insignificant variables based on *t*-test; the far right panel are results based on the SCAD penalized procedure. The results without variable selection by SCAD shows that  $s = 2$  should be the appropriate autoregressive order in the error structure, while the SCAD-based procedure provides a different choice with  $s = 3$ . Specifically the similarity of both procedures is that the estimates of  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  are positive and significant, and that of  $b_1$  negative and significant. This suggests that one's salary level, after adjusting for the covariates within the same subject, are positively correlated, and that the correlation tends to decrease as the observed time distance increases. On the other hand, the SCAD-based method proposes the third lag order, which is different from the results of

$t$ -test and also agrees with the scatter diagrams in Figure 1 even though the dependence seems much weaker.

Table 5 below reports the identified parametric estimates of *hours*, *age* and *educ*, the corresponding standard error and their bootstrap-based 95% confidence intervals. The variable *educ* influences the level of salary positively while *age* has negative effect on *lwage*, both of which agree with the intuition and also indicate that young people highly educated are main force of the labour market. The more important is that the variable *hours* is negatively correlated to one's wage significantly from point of statistics, which implies that one person has to take more time for earning money if his/her level of salary is too low, although it just has minor effect on the improvement of living conditions. This perhaps accurately reflects the social reality in those days.

[Table 5 about here.]

## 5 Discussion

To analyze the National Longitudinal Surveys (NLS) data, we employed a new semiparametric longitudinal mean-covariance model in which the effects on dependent variable of some explanatory variables are linear and others are nonlinear, while the within-subject correlations were modeled by a non-stationary autoregressive error structure. We constructed consistent estimators for both the parametric and nonparametric components and established their asymptotic properties. In addition, a data-driven model selecting procedure was proposed to identify the true effects of regressors on the response variable, which was also applied to a real data analysis. However, the proposed linear structure of the error component is perhaps not robust to outliers and in the risk of model misspecification. Therefore, how to deal with such an issue is probably an interesting avenue of our future research.

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## Supporting information

Additional information for this article is available online including several assumptions and lemmas used for establishing the asymptotic properties of resultant estimates and the corresponding technical details in proof.

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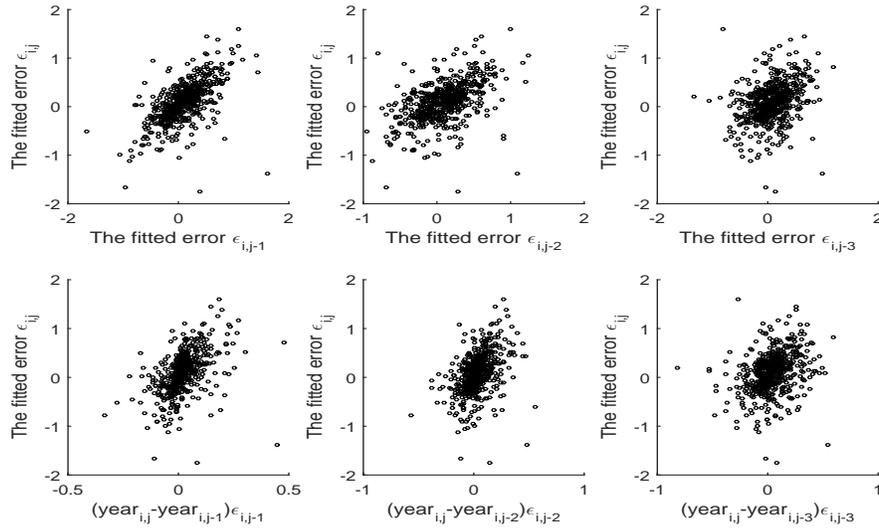


Figure 1: Scatter diagrams of the fitting residual  $\hat{\varepsilon}_{i,j}$  and its lagged terms  $\hat{\varepsilon}_{i,j-r}$  for  $r = 1, 2, 3$ .

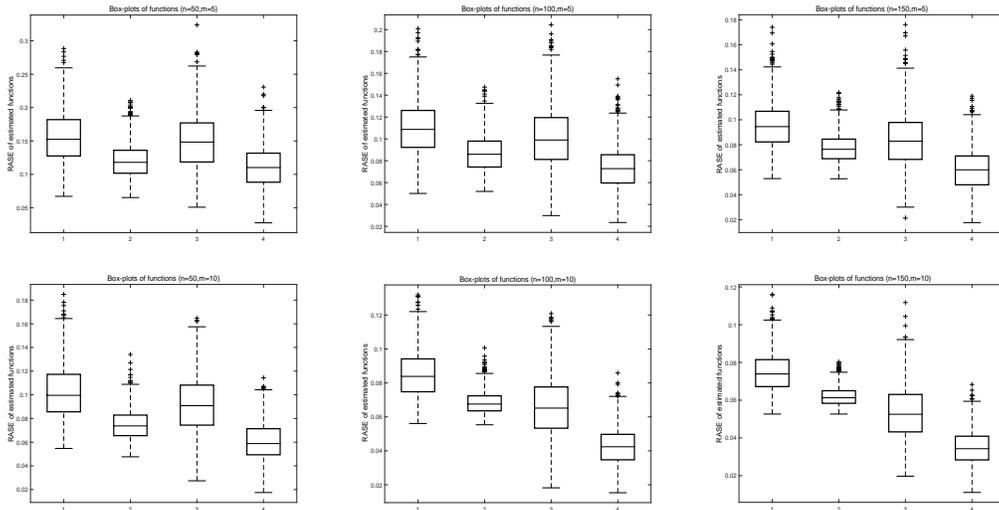


Figure 2: Boxplots of RASEs in Example 1: '1' denotes the estimator  $\tilde{\alpha}_{1,N}(\cdot)$  assuming the errors are i.i.d and '2' is the proposed estimator  $\hat{\alpha}_{1,N}(\cdot)$ ; '3' and '4' are similarly defined for  $\alpha_2(\cdot)$  respectively.

Table 1: Finite results in Example 1: “bias” and “std” denote the average estimating bias and standard deviation of the parametric estimators, while “se” is average standard error and “cp” denotes the empirical coverage probability of 95% confidence intervals.

$m$		5			10		
		50	100	150	50	100	150
$\tilde{\beta}_{1,N}$	bias	0.0062	0.0010	-0.0001	-0.0037	0.0029	-0.0010
	std	0.0930	0.0623	0.0553	0.0593	0.0451	0.0341
	se	0.0912	0.0616	0.0551	0.0575	0.0443	0.0348
	cp	0.9400	0.9430	0.9470	0.9370	0.9420	0.9480
$\hat{\beta}_{1,N}$	bias	0.0044	0.0024	0.0001	-0.0017	0.0014	-0.0001
	std	0.0714	0.0456	0.0391	0.0405	0.0296	0.0238
	se	0.0658	0.0441	0.0388	0.0389	0.0290	0.0237
	cp	0.9230	0.9440	0.9420	0.9430	0.9480	0.9500
$\tilde{\beta}_{2,N}$	bias	-0.0006	0.0004	-0.0003	0.0002	-0.0011	0.0001
	std	0.0262	0.0166	0.0142	0.0210	0.0142	0.0108
	se	0.0258	0.0167	0.0141	0.0195	0.0137	0.0115
	cp	0.9160	0.9510	0.9380	0.9250	0.9410	0.9620
$\hat{\beta}_{2,N}$	bias	0.0000	0.0000	-0.0002	0.0001	-0.0008	0.0001
	std	0.0226	0.0142	0.0121	0.0171	0.0115	0.0090
	se	0.0208	0.0142	0.0118	0.0164	0.0114	0.0096
	cp	0.9230	0.9560	0.9400	0.9390	0.9530	0.9580
$\tilde{\beta}_{3,N}$	bias	0.0008	0.0007	0.0004	-0.0013	0.0010	-0.0005
	std	0.0612	0.0369	0.0327	0.0372	0.0249	0.0201
	se	0.0570	0.0367	0.0316	0.0362	0.0248	0.0202
	cp	0.9290	0.9420	0.9360	0.9350	0.9390	0.9460
$\hat{\beta}_{3,N}$	bias	0.0021	-0.0002	0.0001	-0.0010	0.0009	-0.0002
	std	0.0440	0.0275	0.0236	0.0244	0.0162	0.0131
	se	0.0396	0.0266	0.0225	0.0229	0.0160	0.0131
	cp	0.9300	0.9410	0.9390	0.9300	0.9550	0.9520
$\hat{a}_{1,N}$	bias	0.0038	0.0016	0.0005	-0.0002	0.0011	0.0013
	std	0.0925	0.0624	0.0551	0.0516	0.0368	0.0279
	se	0.0852	0.0620	0.0507	0.0482	0.0356	0.0276
	cp	0.9340	0.9460	0.9290	0.9290	0.9560	0.9400
$\hat{a}_{2,N}$	bias	0.0246	0.0084	0.0080	0.0035	0.0008	0.0011
	std	0.1286	0.0907	0.0654	0.0622	0.0458	0.0353
	se	0.1143	0.0862	0.0649	0.0599	0.0442	0.0335
	cp	0.9280	0.9430	0.9440	0.9510	0.9430	0.9480
$\hat{b}_{1,N}$	bias	-0.0115	-0.0062	-0.0032	-0.0034	-0.0035	-0.0036
	std	0.1378	0.0902	0.0778	0.1001	0.0693	0.0537
	se	0.1243	0.0897	0.0728	0.0949	0.0669	0.0539
	cp	0.9170	0.9300	0.9470	0.9310	0.9410	0.9330
$\hat{b}_{2,N}$	bias	-0.0157	-0.0044	-0.0044	-0.0016	-0.0016	0.0004
	std	0.1706	0.1138	0.0862	0.1045	0.0740	0.0580
	se	0.1505	0.1091	0.0843	0.1000	0.0709	0.0558
	cp	0.9250	0.9400	0.9360	0.9420	0.9390	0.9370

Table 2: Finite results in Example 2: “bias” and “std” denote the average estimating bias and standard deviation of the parametric estimators, while “Mean” and “Std” denote the empirical average RASEs and their standard deviations of the nonparametric estimators.

$m$		5				10			
$n$		50		100		50		100	
$\varepsilon_{i,j} = e_{i,j}$									
$\hat{\beta}_{1,N}$	bias	-0.0026	(-0.0030)	-0.0002	(-0.0002)	0.0008	(0.0008)	-0.0003	(0.0000)
	std	0.0556	(0.0568)	0.0407	(0.0415)	0.0393	(0.0399)	0.0276	(0.0277)
$\hat{\beta}_{2,N}$	bias	0.0037	(0.0033)	-0.0028	(-0.0031)	0.0022	(0.0021)	0.0024	(0.0024)
	std	0.0679	(0.0691)	0.0468	(0.0473)	0.0441	(0.0447)	0.0308	(0.0309)
$\hat{\alpha}_{1,N}$	Mean	0.1735	(0.1772)	0.1269	(0.1280)	0.1287	(0.1296)	0.0967	(0.0973)
	Std	0.0430	(0.0440)	0.0290	(0.0294)	0.0275	(0.0281)	0.0181	(0.0183)
$\hat{\alpha}_{2,N}$	Mean	0.1641	(0.1672)	0.1131	(0.1144)	0.1152	(0.1165)	0.0806	(0.0810)
	Std	0.0440	(0.0442)	0.0311	(0.0312)	0.0303	(0.0305)	0.0226	(0.0228)
$\varepsilon_{i,j} = 1.5 - \Delta t_{i,j,1} - 0.5(\Delta t_{i,j,1})^2 + e_{i,j}$									
$\hat{\beta}_{1,N}$	bias	0.0060	(-0.0023)	-0.0013	(0.0014)	0.0010	(0.0028)	-0.0017	(-0.0017)
	std	0.0368	(0.0407)	0.0243	(0.0266)	0.0262	(0.0270)	0.0181	(0.0186)
$\hat{\beta}_{2,N}$	bias	0.0002	(-0.0075)	-0.0009	(-0.0014)	-0.0008	(0.0027)	0.0008	(0.0029)
	std	0.0255	(0.0325)	0.0194	(0.0200)	0.0214	(0.0180)	0.0112	(0.0119)
$\hat{\alpha}_{1,N}$	Mean	0.0897	(0.0916)	0.0758	(0.0795)	0.0725	(0.0709)	0.0610	(0.0620)
	Std	0.0187	(0.0165)	0.0107	(0.0106)	0.0075	(0.0074)	0.0044	(0.0041)
$\hat{\alpha}_{2,N}$	Mean	0.0734	(0.0763)	0.0520	(0.0534)	0.0440	(0.0441)	0.0307	(0.0316)
	Std	0.0200	(0.0205)	0.0145	(0.0145)	0.0123	(0.0116)	0.0081	(0.0085)
$\varepsilon_{i,j} = \exp(-\Delta t_{i,j,1}) + e_{i,j}$									
$\hat{\beta}_{1,N}$	bias	-0.0014	(0.0022)	0.0003	(0.0028)	0.0010	(0.0018)	-0.0035	(0.0000)
	std	0.0567	(0.0607)	0.0418	(0.0434)	0.0262	(0.0294)	0.0183	(0.0210)
$\hat{\beta}_{2,N}$	bias	0.0000	(0.0005)	-0.0003	(0.0044)	-0.0008	(-0.0034)	-0.0018	(-0.0030)
	std	0.0451	(0.0461)	0.0307	(0.0316)	0.0214	(0.0226)	0.0141	(0.0149)
$\hat{\alpha}_{1,N}$	Mean	0.1204	(0.1262)	0.0939	(0.0973)	0.0745	(0.0803)	0.0655	(0.0673)
	Std	0.0278	(0.0296)	0.0178	(0.0186)	0.0102	(0.0123)	0.0055	(0.0062)
$\hat{\alpha}_{2,N}$	Mean	0.1112	(0.1136)	0.0786	(0.0817)	0.0509	(0.0582)	0.0367	(0.0380)
	Std	0.0312	(0.0320)	0.0209	(0.0227)	0.0141	(0.0161)	0.0098	(0.0101)
$\varepsilon_{i,j} = \sum_{r=1}^2 (a_r + b_r \Delta t_{i,j,r}) + e_{i,j}$									
$\hat{\beta}_{1,N}$	bias	0.0015	(0.0021)	0.0005	(-0.0025)	0.0002	(0.0020)	0.0011	(0.0040)
	std	0.0487	(0.0530)	0.0318	(0.0393)	0.0318	(0.0416)	0.0227	(0.0286)
$\hat{\beta}_{2,N}$	bias	0.0040	(0.0019)	-0.0032	(-0.0024)	-0.0010	(0.0026)	0.0005	(0.0005)
	std	0.0420	(0.0475)	0.0275	(0.0339)	0.0222	(0.0312)	0.0147	(0.0196)
$\hat{\alpha}_{1,N}$	Mean	0.1174	(0.1321)	0.0894	(0.1021)	0.0754	(0.0887)	0.0633	(0.0737)
	Std	0.0240	(0.0309)	0.0165	(0.0198)	0.0114	(0.0155)	0.0066	(0.0093)
$\hat{\alpha}_{2,N}$	Mean	0.1009	(0.1249)	0.0681	(0.0900)	0.0559	(0.0706)	0.0383	(0.0500)
	Std	0.0276	(0.0343)	0.0186	(0.0240)	0.0154	(0.0199)	0.0103	(0.0137)

Table 3: Model selection results: “U” denotes the number of under-estimated model, “C” the number of correctly estimated, and “O” denotes the number of over-estimated model.

$m$	$n$	Mean						Error			Mean+Error		
		Nonparametric			Parametric			U	C	O	U	C	O
		U	C	O	U	C	O						
10	50	141	547	312	224	623	153	96	841	63	178	487	335
	100	0	825	175	67	908	24	0	988	12	0	758	242
	150	0	893	107	51	930	19	0	999	1	0	823	177
15	50	99	671	230	139	704	157	8	967	25	195	573	232
	100	0	941	59	23	943	34	0	998	2	0	928	72
	150	0	973	27	11	965	24	0	1000	0	0	941	59

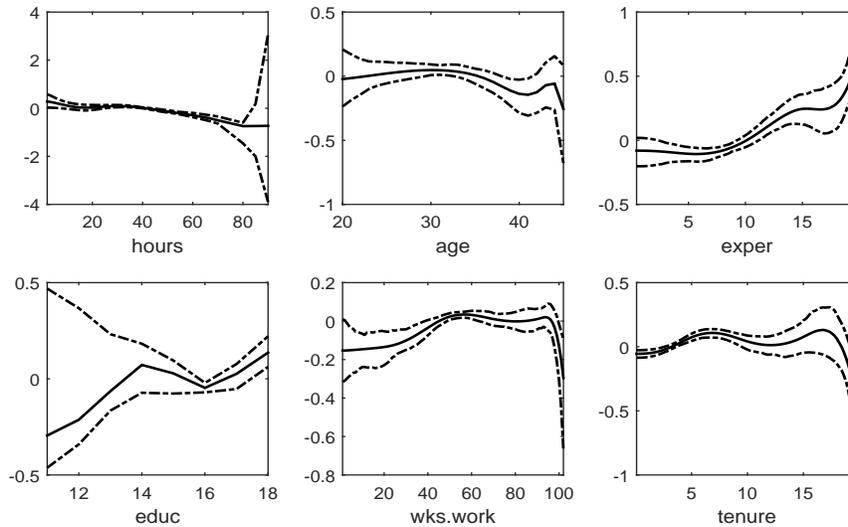


Figure 3: Fitting curves of the estimated nonparametric functions (solid line) together with their bootstrap-based 95% pointwise confidence intervals (dashed line) without SCAD identification.

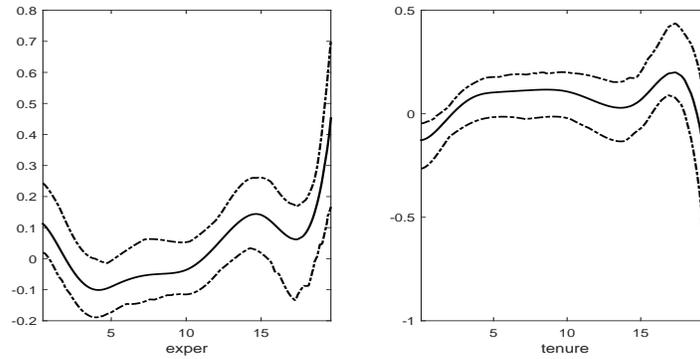


Figure 4: Fitting curves of the estimated nonparametric functions (solid line) together with their bootstrap-based 95% pointwise confidence intervals (dashed line) with SCAD identification.

Table 4: Estimated auto-regressive coefficients in the NLS data analysis and their standard errors (SE) and 95% confidence intervals (CI).

	Estimates without SCAD			Estimates without SCAD (removing insignificant variables)			Estimates with SCAD		
	EST	SE	CI	EST	SE	CI	EST	SE	CI
$a_1$	0.8002	0.1168	[ 0.5713, 1.0291]	0.6702	0.0634	[ 0.5458, 0.7945]	0.7432	0.0841	[ 0.5785, 0.9080]
$a_2$	0.3748	0.1860	[ 0.0102, 0.7394]	0.1963	0.0892	[ 0.0215, 0.3711]	0.2780	0.1198	[ 0.0433, 0.5128]
$a_3$	-0.4347	0.5878	[-1.5869, 0.7175]	—	—	—	-0.2807	0.3386	[-0.9444, 0.3829]
$a_4$	0.1008	0.5144	[-0.9075, 1.1090]	—	—	—	—	—	—
$b_1$	-1.3930	0.2396	[-1.8626, -0.9233]	-0.7307	0.2992	[-1.3171, -0.1443]	-0.8958	0.1568	[-1.2031, -0.5886]
$b_2$	-0.6207	0.2945	[-1.1980, -0.0435]	0.0588	0.2542	[-0.4393, 0.5570]	-0.1990	0.3974	[-0.9779, 0.5798]
$b_3$	0.7965	0.5663	[-0.3135, 1.9066]	—	—	—	0.5820	0.3173	[-0.0399, 1.2039]
$b_4$	0.1489	0.4849	[-0.8015, 1.0993]	—	—	—	—	—	—

Table 5: Estimates of identified parametric component in the NLS data analysis, the corresponding standard errors (SE) and 95% confidence intervals (CI).

Variables	Estimate	SE	CI
<i>hours</i>	-0.0077	0.0027	[-0.0130, -0.0024]
<i>age</i>	-0.0106	0.0195	[-0.0488, 0.0276]
<i>educ</i>	0.0236	0.0467	[-0.0679, 0.1151]