

Nonparametric Covariance Estimation for Longitudinal Data via Penalized Tensor Product Splines

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Abstract

With high dimensional longitudinal and functional data becoming much more common, there is a strong need for methods of estimating large covariance matrices. Estimation is made difficult by the instability of sample covariance matrices in high dimensions and a positive-definite constraint we desire to impose on estimates. A Cholesky decomposition of the covariance matrix allows for parameter estimation via unconstrained optimization as well as a statistically meaningful interpretation of the parameter estimates. Regularization improves stability of covariance estimates in high dimensions, as well as in the case where functional data are sparse and individual curves are sampled at different and possibly unequally spaced time points. By viewing the entries of the covariance matrix as the evaluation of a continuous bivariate function at the pairs of observed time points, we treat covariance estimation as bivariate smoothing.

Within regularization framework, we propose novel covariance penalties which are designed to yield natural null models presented in the literature for stationarity or short-term dependence. These penalties are expressed in terms of variation in continuous time lag and its orthogonal complement. We present numerical results and data analysis to illustrate the utility of the proposed method.

keywords: non-parametric, covariance, longitudinal data, functional data, splines, reproducing kernel Hilbert space

1 Introduction

An estimate of the covariance matrix or its inverse is required for nearly all statistical procedures in classical multivariate data analysis, time series analysis, spatial statistics and, more recently, the growing field of statistical learning. Covariance estimates play a critical role in the performance of techniques for clustering and classification such as linear discriminant analysis (LDA), quadratic

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discriminant analysis (QDA), factor analysis, and principal components analysis (PCA), analysis of conditional independence through graphical models, classical multivariate regression, prediction, and Kriging. Covariance estimation with high dimensional data has recently gained growing interest; it is generally recognized that there are two primary hurdles responsible for the difficulty in covariance estimation: the instability of sample covariance matrices in high dimensions and a positive-definite constraint we wish estimates to obey.

Prevalent technological advances in industry and many areas of science make high dimensional longitudinal and functional data a common occurrence, arising in numerous areas including medicine, public health, biology, and environmental science with specific applications including fMRI, spectroscopic imaging, gene microarrays among many others, presenting a need for effective covariance estimation in the challenging situation where parameter dimensionality p is possibly much larger than the number of observations, n . Additional difficulty due to constraints required to yield positive definite estimates make covariance estimation a potentially complex optimization problem. Further, most existing approaches to covariance estimation require data to be sampled at regular grid (time) points, with subjects sharing a set of common observation points. However, in many practical situations, data are irregularly sampled, and subjects may share few common observation times, and methods are needed to accommodate for data collected in this way.

To address the challenge of enforcing positive definiteness, several have considered modeling various matrix decompositions including variance-correlation decomposition, spectral decomposition, and Cholesky decomposition. The Cholesky decomposition has received particular attention, as it which allows for a statistically meaningful interpretation as well as an unconstrained parameterization of elements of the covariance matrix. This parameterization allows for estimation to be accomplished as simply as in least squares regression.

[ADD citation for the first to introduce using the modified cholesky decomposition]

It is well known that the sample covariance matrix is unstable in high dimensions. [add citation.] There is an extensive body of work addressing the issue of high dimensionality in the context of covariance estimation. [cite the pourahmadi survey paper here.] However, much of this work address high dimensionality arising from functional or times series data sampled on a dense, regular grid. With such data, it is typical that the number of time points is larger than the number of observations. Few have addressed the challenges posed by sparse longitudinal data where measurement times may be almost unique yet sparsely distributed within the observed time range for each individual in the study. In this case, high dimensionality may not be a consequence of having more measurements per subject than the number of subjects themselves, but rather because when pooled across subjects, the total number of unique observed time points is greater than the number of individuals. Incomplete and unbalanced data arise when measurement schedules with targeted time points which are not necessarily equally spaced or if there is missing data. Sparse longitudinal data arise when the measurement schedule has arbitrary or almost unique time points for every individual. A given time point may have very few individuals with corresponding measurements.

We sidestep both issues of high dimensionality and irregularly sampled data by viewing the response as a stochastic process having continuous covariance function. We model the generalized autoregressive parameters as the evaluation of a continuous bivariate function at the pairs of observed time points. This allows us to accommodate problematic sampling as well as estimate

the covariance between two measurements at any pair of time points within the time interval of interest, and not just at the observed pairs of time points. Through the Cholesky decomposition, we carry out estimation by the estimation of varying coefficient model. A transformation of the design point axes allows for an ANOVA-like decomposition of the coefficient function into two components, corresponding to the lag between time points and an additive component. Through this general framework, we can easily impose penalties on fitted functions to yield natural null models presented in the literature.

2 Cholesky Decomposition of Σ

To present a comprehensive overview our estimation procedure, we begin with the representation of the inverse covariance matrix, Σ^{-1} , in terms of its Cholesky decomposition (see citetpourahmadi2007cholesky for a detailed discussion). Decomposing the precision matrix in such a way allows for both an unconstrained parameterization and statistically meaningful interpretation of covariance parameters. For any positive definite matrix Σ , there exists a unique unit lower triangular matrix T with diagonal entries equal to 1 which diagonalizes Σ :

$$T\Sigma T^T = D$$

Let $Y = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_m)^T$ denote a random vector of measurements taken at times $t_1 < t_2 < \dots < t_m$, with

$$E[Y] = 0.$$

The entries of T and D are easily interpretable if we consider regressing y_j on its predecessors:

$$y_j = \sum_{k=1}^{j-1} \phi_{jk} y_k + \sigma_j e_j, \quad j = 2, \dots, m. \quad (1)$$

We define $y_1 = e_1$. Standard regression theory gives us that if $\{\phi_{jk}\}$ are the coefficients of the linear least squares predictor of y_j based on its predecessors, then the residuals $e = (e_1, e_2, \dots, e_m)^T$ have diagonal covariance. Let T be the unit lower triangular matrix with elements T_{jk} , $j, k = 1, \dots, m$, where

$$T_{jk} = \begin{cases} -\phi_{jk} & j > k \\ 1 & j = k \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Then model ?? as follows:

$$e = TY, \quad (2)$$

Taking covariances on both sides of (??), we have

$$D = T\Sigma T^T$$

Immediately, we can express the precision matrix (and thus its inverse) entirely in terms of the regression parameters defining Model ??:

$$\Omega = \Sigma^{-1} = T^T D^{-1} T. \quad (3)$$

We refer to the regression coefficients $\{\phi_{jk}\}$ as the *generalized autoregressive parameters*, or GARPs and the $\{\sigma_j\}$ as the *innovation variances* or IVs. Given an i.i.d. sample Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_N , estimation of model parameters can be carried out as in the usual regression setting.

To relax the assumption that individuals must share a common set of equally-spaced observation times, we take Y and e to be the discrete versions of the stochastic processes: $Y(t)$ and $e(t)$. We assume $Y(t)$ has covariance function $G(s, t)$, and

$$e(s) \sim \mathcal{WN}(0, 1)$$

is a zero mean Gaussian white noise process with unit variance. It is reasonable to assume that if Y is reasonably well-behaved, then $G(s, t)$ satisfies some smoothness conditions, where smoothness is defined in terms of square integrability of certain derivatives. We view the entries of Σ_i as values of G evaluated at the distinct pairs of observed time points on individual i .

Observed time points may be individual-specific and not necessarily on a regular grid.

If we assume that the data follow an autoregressive process with (possibly) heteroskedastic errors, then the two matrices comprising the Cholesky decomposition, the Cholesky factor (which diagonalizes the covariance matrix) and diagonal matrix itself, hold the autoregressive coefficients and the error variances, respectively. The autoregressive coefficients are often referred to in the literature as the *generalized autoregressive parameters*, or GARPs, and the error variances are often called the *innovation variances*, or IVs.

2.1 Regularization of T

Several approaches have been taken in effort to overcome the issue of high dimensionality in covariance estimation. Regularization improves stability of covariance estimates in high dimensions, particularly in the case where the parameter dimensionality p is much larger than the number of observations n . Regularization of the covariance matrix and its Cholesky decomposition has been explored extensively; Previous work employs a number of approaches including banding, tapering, kernel smoothing, penalized likelihood, and penalized regression; see citetpourahmadi2011covariance for a comprehensive overview.

3 Outline Smoothing Spline Approach

3.1 Introduce specialized penalties for the smoothing spline decomposition

4 P-splines

4.1 Truncated Power Basis

4.2 B-spline Basis

4.3 Difference penalties