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FMEM: Functional Mixed Effects Models for Longitudinal Functional Responses

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Abstract

The aim of this paper is to conduct a systematic and theoretical analysis of estimation and inference for a class of functional mixed effects models (FMEM). Such FMEMs consist of fixed effects that characterize the association between longitudinal functional responses and covariates of interest and random effects that capture the spatial-temporal correlations of longitudinal functional responses. We propose local linear estimates of refined fixed effect functions and establish their weak convergence along with a simultaneous confidence band for each fixed-effect function. We propose a global test for the linear hypotheses of varying coefficient functions and derive the associated asymptotic distribution under the null hypothesis and the asymptotic power under the alternative hypothesis are derived. We also establish the convergence rates of the estimated spatial-temporal covariance operators and their associated eigenvalues and eigenfunctions. We conduct extensive simulations and apply our method to a white-matter fiber data set from a national database for autism research to examine the finite-sample performance of the proposed estimation and inference procedures.

Key words and phrases

Functional response; global test statistic; mixed effects; spatial-temporal correlation; weak convergence

1. Introduction

There has been an increasing interest in the analysis of massive functional data sets, many of which originate from brain imaging in large-scale longitudinal biomedical studies such as

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Supplementary materials available in the attached file include the proofs of Lemmas 1–13, Theorems 1–3, and Corollary 1.

the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI) (Evans and Group, 2006; Mueller et al., 2005; Greven et al., 2010; Yuan et al., 2014; Zipunnikov et al., 2014). In such studies, longitudinal functional data from n different subjects are usually observed at or are registered to a large number of locations in a common space, denoted by \mathcal{S} , across multiple time points $\{t_{ij}: j = 1, \dots, T_i, i = 1, \dots, n\}$, where T_i is the total number of time points for the i -th subject. Here we use the term "functional data" for data that are measured densely in \mathcal{S} , "spatial correlation" for correlations within the functional data, and "longitudinal data" and "temporal correlation" for data that are measured sparingly in $\{t_{ij}: j = 1, \dots, T_i, i = 1, \dots, n\}$ to distinguish them.

The sheer size and complexity of longitudinal functional data poses substantial challenges to most existing statistical methods for analyzing univariate or multivariate longitudinal data (Diggle et al., 2002; Fitzmaurice et al., 2004). The major challenges include: (i) complexity of the temporal-spatial covariance structure, (ii) determining how to take advantage of the temporal-spatial smoothness, and (iii) theoretical justification of inference procedures. The first challenge is how to introduce random effects to characterize the spatial-temporal covariance structure of longitudinal functional responses. The second one is how to incorporate temporal-spatial smoothness into both estimation and inference procedures to improve statistical efficiency (Ramsay and Silverman, 2005). The third one is to systematically investigate the theoretical properties (e.g., consistency) of estimation and inference procedures for statistical models developed for longitudinal functional data.

Models for longitudinal functional data fall into a general functional mixed effects modeling framework, which serves to characterize functional data with various levels of hierarchical structures (Guo, 2002; Wu and Zhang, 2002, 2006; Morris and Carroll, 2006; Di et al., 2009; Greven et al., 2010; Zhou et al., 2010; Zhu et al., 2011; Shi and Choi, 2011; Cao et al., 2012; Chen and Müller, 2012; Horvath and Kokoszka, 2012; Meyer et al., 2015; Reiss et al., 2014; Scheipl et al., 2015; Zipunnikov et al., 2014; Staicu et al., 2015; Cederbaum et al., 2016). The term functional mixed effects models (FMEMs) for correlated functional data was introduced in Guo (2002), while Morris and Carroll (2006) and subsequent work by this group developed general functional mixed effects models with multiple levels of random effect functions as well as curve-to-curve deviations. Recently, a general framework of functional additive mixed models was introduced by (Scheipl et al., 2015). Moreover, several FMEMs have been developed for longitudinal functional data (Greven et al., 2010; Yuan et al., 2014; Zipunnikov et al., 2014; Di et al., 2014). To the best of our knowledge, most papers on functional mixed effects models focus on challenges (i) and (ii) above, while our focus in this paper is challenge (iii), the theoretical challenges.

To address challenge (iii), we provide a comprehensive theoretical analysis for a class of FMEMs. Our FMEM consists of a measurement model at each grid point $s \in \mathcal{S}$ and a hierarchical factor model. The measurement model primarily includes fixed effects to characterize the varying association between longitudinal functional responses and the covariates of interest. The hierarchical factor model primarily uses random effects to capture the medium-to-long-range spatial covariance and the local covariance structure. Formally, we establish the weak convergence of the estimated varying association function, the uniform convergence rate of the spatial-temporal covariance estimator, the asymptotic

distribution of a global test statistic for linear hypotheses of the regression coefficient functions, and an asymptotic simultaneous confidence band for each varying fixed effect function. The code and documentation for FMEM written in Matlab along with its documentation are freely accessible from the website <http://www.nitrc.org/projects/fadttts>.

2. FMEM: Functional Mixed Effects Model

2.1 Model Setup

Suppose that we observe longitudinal functional data and clinical variables from n independent subjects. Let T_i be the total number of longitudinal measurements for the i -th subject, $i = 1, \dots, n$, and t_{ij} be the j -th measurement time point for the i -th subject, so $j = 1, \dots, T_i$. Throughout this paper, we focus on a fixed number of time points and sparse longitudinal data, that is, $\max_i T_i < T_0 < \infty$. Let s_m represent a specific grid point of the functional template space \mathcal{S} for $m = 1, \dots, M$. Specifically, for the i -th subject at time t_{ij} we observe functional data, denoted by $y_{ij}(s_m) = y_{ij}(t_{ij}, s_m)$ for $1 \leq m \leq M$, and a p_x dimensional covariate vector x_{ij} of interest, denoted by $x_{ij} = x_{ij}(t_{ij})$, at time t_{ij} . The x_{ij} may include time-independent as well as time-dependent covariates, such as age, gender, and genetic markers. For ease of notation, it is assumed throughout this paper that $\mathcal{S} = [0, 1]$ and $0 = s_1 \leq \dots \leq s_M = 1$, but our results can be easily extended to higher dimensions, when \mathcal{S} is a compact subset of a Euclidean space.

We consider a *FMEM* consisting of a measurement model and a hierarchical factor model. This model aims to extend conventional linear mixed-effects model to accommodate the additional spatial component. The measurement model associated with the FMEM characterizes the varying association between functional responses and their covariates at any $s \in \mathcal{S}$ as

$$y_{ij}(s) = \mu(x_{ij}, \beta(s)) + z_{ij}^T b_i(s) + e_{ij}(s), \quad (2.1)$$

where $\mu(\cdot, \cdot)$ is a known function, $\beta(s) = (\beta_1(s), \dots, \beta_{p_\beta}(s))^T$ is a $p_\beta \times 1$ vector of the fixed-effect functions of s , and $z_{ij} = z_{ij}(t_{ij}) = (z_{ij1}, \dots, z_{ijp_z})^T$ is a $p_z \times 1$ vector of the random-effect covariates associated with the random effects $b_i(s)$. Here $b_i(s) = (b_{i1}(s), \dots, b_{ip_z}(s))^T$ is a vector of the random effects that characterize the spatial temporal correlation structures across the functional domain space; whereas $e_{ij}(s)$ is a spatial random process delineated from $b_i(s)$, i.e., after filtering out $z_{ij}^T b_i(s)$. Moreover, $e_{ij}(s)$ and $b_i(s)$ are independent. In many applications, $\mu(x_{ij}, \beta(s)) = x_{ij}^T \beta(s)$ is a linear function of x_{ij} ; similar to the setting of traditional linear mixed-effects model, so we focus on this special linear case in the paper. Extensions to nonlinear cases is discussed in Remark 1. Since marginally, for a fixed s , model (2.1) with $\mu(x_{ij}, \beta(s)) = x_{ij}^T \beta(s)$ is a standard linear mixed effects model, this motivates us to adopt standard notation for linear mixed effects models. Moreover, since z_{ij} may include time-independent, as well as time-dependent, covariates, the inclusion of $z_{ij}^T b_i(s)$ allows us to capture a large portion of the variation in the spatial and temporal correlation structures.

The spatial random process e_{ij} in (2.1) is further decomposed into two parts,

$$e_{ij}(s) = e_{ij,G}(s) + e_{ij,L}(s), \quad (2.2)$$

where $e_{ij,G}(s)$ is a smooth stochastic process representing the global dependency that depicts the medium-to-long-range spatial dependence, $e_{ij,L}(s)$ is a measurement error representing local variability, and $e_{j_1,G}(\cdot)$ and $e_{j_2,L}(\cdot)$ are independent for any j_1 and j_2 . Since $e_{ij,L}(s)$ are measurement errors, we assume that $e_{ij_1,L}(s)$ and $e_{ij_2,L}(s')$ are mutually independent whenever either $j_1 \neq j_2$ or $s \neq s'$. We also assume that, for any $j_1 \neq j_2$, $e_{ij_1,G}(\cdot)$ and $e_{ij_2,G}(\cdot)$ are mutually independent. This assumption is equivalent to assume that the random effects $b_{\lambda}(\cdot) = (b_{\lambda 1}(\cdot), \dots, b_{\lambda p_z}(\cdot))^T$ explains all the within-subject correlation along the longitudinal direction, which is a common assumption in linear mixed-effects model. However, it does not exclude correlations along the functional direction as $e_{ij,G}(s)$ and $e_{ij,G}(s')$ are not required to be independent for $s \neq s'$.

Moreover, $b_{\lambda}(s)$, $e_{ij,L}(s)$, and $e_{ij,G}(s)$ are mutually independent and are independent and identical copies of $SP(0, \Sigma_{e,L})$, $SP(0, \Sigma_b)$, and $SP(0, \Sigma_{e,G})$, respectively, where $SP(\mu, \Sigma)$ denotes a stochastic process vector with mean function (or function vector) $\mu(s)$ and covariance function (or function matrix) $\Sigma(s, s')$. Moreover, $\Sigma_b(s, s')$ is a $p_z \times p_z$ matrix with $\Sigma_{bkk'}(s, s')$ as the (k, k') -th element, and the covariance structure of $y_{\lambda}(s) = (y_{\lambda 1}(s), \dots, y_{\lambda T_{\lambda}}(s))^T$, denoted by $\Sigma_{y_{\lambda}}(s, s')$, is

$$\Sigma_{y_{\lambda}, ij_1 j_2}(s, s') = z_{ij_1}^T \Sigma_b(s, s') z_{ij_2} + \Sigma_{e,G}(s, s') 1(j_1 = j_2) + \Sigma_{e,L}(s, s') 1(j_1 = j_2, s = s'),$$

where $1(\cdot)$ is an indicator function.

2.2 Estimation Procedure

Our primary goal is to find efficient procedures for estimation and inference for $\beta(\cdot)$. Inspired by novel ideas from the literature (Yao et al., 2005; Greven et al., 2010; Zipunnikov et al., 2014), we develop a procedure to estimate $\beta(\cdot)$, $\Sigma_{bkk'}(\cdot, \cdot)$, $\Sigma_{e,G}(\cdot, \cdot)$, $\Sigma_{e,L}(\cdot, \cdot)$, and the eigenvalue-eigenvector pairs of $\Sigma_{bkk'}(\cdot, \cdot)$, and $\Sigma_{e,G}(\cdot, \cdot)$. Compared with the estimation methods of Greven et al. (2010) and Zipunnikov et al. (2014), our method is an improvement over the ordinary least square methods to estimate $\beta(\cdot)$ by incorporating spatial and/or temporal smoothness in longitudinal functional data. Explicitly, we incorporate the within-subject correlation among T_j longitudinal observations to gain statistical efficiency as stated in Theorem 1.

From hereafter, we focus on $\mu(x_{ij}, \beta(s)) = x_{ij}^T \beta(s)$, but the proposed estimation procedure can be extended to a nonlinear mean function $\mu(x_{ij}, \beta(s))$, which is discussed at the end of Section 2.2. There are four key steps in the estimation procedure as described below.

Step (I): Calculate an initial estimator $\hat{\beta}(s)$ of $\beta(s)$ for each $s \in \mathcal{S}$.

Step (II): Calculate estimates of the covariance operators $\Sigma_{bkk'}(\cdot, \cdot)$ and $\Sigma_{e,G}(\cdot, \cdot)$ and their spectral decompositions, and obtain the estimate of $\Sigma_{e,L}(\cdot, \cdot)$.

Step (III): Use the estimated covariance operators obtained from Step (II) to improve the estimate in step (I) with a refined estimator of $\beta(s)$, denoted by $\tilde{\beta}(s)$.

Step (IV): Obtain individual random effect functions $u_{ij,G}(s) = z_{ij}^T b_i(s) + e_{ij,G}(s)$.

Step (I): We employ a local linear smoother (Fan and Gijbels, 1996) to obtain an initial estimator of $\beta(\cdot)$ without incorporating spatial-temporal correlation. Specifically, we apply a Taylor expansion for β at s ,

$$\beta(s_m) \approx \beta(s) + \dot{\beta}(s)(s_m - s) = A(s)s_{h_1}(s_m - s), \tag{2.3}$$

where $s_{h_1}(s_m - s) = (1, (s_m - s)/h_1)^T$ and $A(s) = [\beta(s) \ h_1 \dot{\beta}(s)]$ is a $p_x \times 2$ matrix. Here $\dot{\beta}(s) = (\dot{\beta}_1(s), \dots, \dot{\beta}_{p_x}(s))^T$ is a $p_x \times 1$ vector and $\dot{\beta}_l(s) = d\beta_l(s)/ds$ for $l = 1, \dots, p_x$. Let $K(s)$ be a kernel function and $K_h(s) = h^{-1}K(s/h)$ be the rescaled kernel function with bandwidth h . We estimate $A(s)$ by minimizing the following weighted least squares function:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^{T_i} \sum_{m=1}^M \{y_{ij}(s_m) - x_{ij}^T A(s)s_{h_1}(s_m - s)\}^2 K_{h_1}(s_m - s). \tag{2.4}$$

Let $a^{\otimes 2} = aa^T$ for any vector a and $C \otimes D$ be the Kronecker product of two matrices C and D . For an $M_1 \times M_2$ matrix $C = (c_{jl})$, denote $\text{vec}(C) = (c_{11}, \dots, c_{M_1 1}, \dots, c_{1 M_2}, \dots, c_{M_1 M_2})^T$. Let $\hat{A}(s)$ be the minimizer of (2.4). Then

$$\text{vec}(\hat{A}(s)) = \sum_{i=1}^n (s, h_1)^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{T_i} \sum_{m=1}^M K_{h_1}(s_m - s) \{s_{h_1}(s_m - s) \otimes x_{ij}\} y_{ij}(s_m), \tag{2.5}$$

where $\sum(s, h_1) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^{T_i} \sum_{m=1}^M K_{h_1}(s_m - s) \{s_{h_1}(s_m - s) \otimes x_{ij}\}^2$. Thus, we have

$$\hat{\beta}(s) = (\hat{\beta}_1(s), \dots, \hat{\beta}_{p_x}(s))^T = \{(1, 0) \otimes I_{p_x}\} \text{vec}(\hat{A}(s)), \tag{2.6}$$

where I_{p_x} is a $p_x \times p_x$ identity matrix. In practice, we may select the bandwidth h_1 by using leave-one-curve-out cross-validation. Specifically, we pool the data from all n subjects and select a bandwidth h_1 by minimizing the cross-validation score given by

$$\text{CV}(h_1) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n T_i M \right)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^{T_i} \sum_{m=1}^M \{y_{ij}(s_m) - x_{ij}^T \hat{\beta}(s_m, h_1)^{(-i)}\}^2, \tag{2.7}$$

where $\hat{\beta}(s, h_1)^{(-i)}$ is the local linear estimator of $\beta(s)$ with the bandwidth h_1 based on data excluding all the observations from the i -th subject.

Step (II): We use a two-step procedure to estimate $\Sigma_b(s, s')$ and $\Sigma_e(s, s')$. Let $\Sigma_e(s, s')$ be the covariance function of $e_{ij}(s)$.

(S1) First, we use a least squares method to estimate $\Sigma_b(s_m, s_m')$ and $\Sigma_e(s_m, s_m')$ for $m, m' = 1, \dots, M$. Let $\hat{u}_{ij}(s) = y_{ij}(s) - x_{ij}^T \hat{\beta}(s)$. We estimate $\Sigma_b(s_m, s_m')$ and $\Sigma_e(s_m, s_m')$ by minimizing the following least squares function:

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j_1 \neq j_2}^{T_i} \{ \hat{u}_{ij_1}(s_m) \hat{u}_{ij_2}(s_{m'}) - z_{ij_1}^T \sum_b(s_m, s_{m'}) z_{ij_2} \}^2 \\ & + \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^{T_i} \{ \hat{u}_{ij}(s_m) \hat{u}_{ij}(s_{m'}) - z_{ij}^T \sum_b(s_m, s_{m'}) z_{ij} - \sum_e(s_m, s_{m'}) \}^2, \end{aligned} \tag{2.8}$$

where \sum_{j_1, j_2} denotes the sum over all $j_1, j_2 = 1, \dots, T_i$ such that $j_1 \neq j_2$. The least squares method in (2.8) has been considered in the literature (Di et al., 2009; Greven et al., 2010; Cederbaum et al., 2016), where previous authors used penalized splines smoothing instead of local linear regression. Let $\sum_b^{\wedge LS}(s_m, s_{m'})$ and $\sum_e^{\wedge LS}(s_m, s_{m'})$ be the minimizers of (2.8). Then we have

$$\text{vec}(\widehat{\sum}_b^{\wedge LS}(s_m, s_{m'})) = G\{u(s_m, s_{m'}) - \widehat{\sum}_e^{\wedge LS}(s_m, s_{m'})g\},$$

$$\widehat{\sum}_e^{\wedge LS}(s_m, s_{m'}) = (1 - a_2 g^T g)^{-1} \{v(s_m, s_{m'}) - a_2 g^T G u(s_m, s_{m'})\} \tag{2.9}$$

where

$$a_2 = (\sum_{i=1}^n T_i)^{-1}, g = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^{T_i} z_{ij} \otimes z_{ij}, G = \{ \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j_1, j_2}^{T_i} (z_{ij_1} \otimes z_{ij_2}) \otimes 2 \}^{-1},$$

$$v(s_m, s_{m'}) = a_2 \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^{T_i} \hat{u}_{ij}(s_m) \hat{u}_{ij}(s_{m'}),$$

$$u(s_m, s_{m'}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j_1, j_2=1}^{T_i} \hat{u}_{ij_1}(s_m) \hat{u}_{ij_2}(s_{m'}) (z_{ij_1} \otimes z_{ij_2}).$$

(S2) Next, for each (k, k') , with $1 \leq k, k' \leq p_Z$, we apply a local constant smoother to $\sum_{bkk'}^{\wedge LS}(s_m, s_{m'})$ for $s_m, s_{m'} \in \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{S}$ and $m, m' = 1, \dots, M$. This provides the final estimate for $\Sigma_b(s, s')$. Likewise, we can obtain an estimate of $\Sigma_{e,G}(s, s')$ through a local constant smoother, where the diagonal elements of $\sum_e^{\wedge LS}(s_m, s_{m'})$, i.e.

$$\sum_e^{\wedge LS}(s_m, s_{m'}), m = 1, \dots, M, \text{ are excluded from the estimation of } \Sigma_{e,G}(s, s').$$

Specifically, we estimate $\Sigma_{bkk'}(s, s')$ and $\Sigma_{e,G}(s, s')$ by minimizing the following weighted least squares functions:

$$\min_{\Sigma_{bkk'}(s, s')} \sum_{m, m'=1}^M \{ \widehat{\Sigma}_{bkk'}^{LS}(s_m, s_{m'}) - \Sigma_{bkk'}(s, s') \}^2 K_{h_2}(s_m - s) K_{h_2}(s_{m'} - s') \quad (2.10)$$

$$\min_{\Sigma_{e, G}(s, s')} \sum_{m \neq m'} \{ \widehat{\Sigma}_e^{LS}(s_m, s_{m'}) - \Sigma_{e, G}(s, s') \}^2 K_{h_3}(s_m - s) K_{h_3}(s_{m'} - s') \quad (2.11)$$

The bandwidths h_2 and h_3 are selected through the leave-one-curve-out cross-validation method.

Finally, we perform the spectral decomposition of $\widehat{\Sigma}_{bkk'}(s, s')$ and $\widehat{\Sigma}_{e, G}(s, s')$ and then calculate $\widehat{\Sigma}_{e, L}(s_m, s_m)$ by using

$$\widehat{\Sigma}_{e, L}(s_m, s_m) = \{ \widehat{\Sigma}_e^{LS}(s_m, s_m) - \widehat{\Sigma}_{e, G}(s_m, s_m) \} 1(\widehat{\Sigma}_e^{LS}(s_m, s_m) - \widehat{\Sigma}_{e, G}(s_m, s_m) > 0).$$

Step (III): We incorporate the estimated covariance function to improve the local linear regression estimate of $\beta(\cdot)$. Similar but different ideas have been used to iteratively improve the mean estimation (Cederbaum et al. (2016); Di et al. (2014)). Letting $\Sigma_{y_i, G}(s, s')$ be the covariance function of $u_{i, G}(s) = (u_{i1, G}(s), \dots, u_{iT_i, G}(s))^T$, we obtain its estimator $\widehat{\Sigma}_{y_i, G}(s, s')$ based on $\widehat{\Sigma}_b(s, s')$ and $\widehat{\Sigma}_{e, G}(s, s')$ from step (II). Let $X_i = (x_{i1} \dots x_{iT_i})$ be a $p_x \times T_i$ matrix. We estimate $A(s)$ by minimizing the following weighted least squares function:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{m=1}^M \{ \{ y_i(s_m) - X_i^T A(s) s_{h_\beta}(s_m - s) \}^T \widehat{\Sigma}_{y_i, G}(s_m, s_m)^{-1/2} \}^{\otimes 2} K_{h_\beta}(s_m - s), \quad (2.12)$$

where h_β is a bandwidth.

Let $\tilde{A}(s)$ be the minimizer of (2.12). Then, we have

$$\text{vec}(\tilde{A}(s)) = \widetilde{\Sigma}(s, h_\beta)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{m=1}^M K_{h_\beta}(s_m - s) \{ s_{h_\beta}(s_m - s) \otimes X_i \} \{ \widehat{\Sigma}_{y_i, G}(s_m, s_m) \}^{-1} y_i(s_m),$$

where $\widetilde{\Sigma}(s, h_\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{m=1}^M K_{h_\beta}(s_m - s) \{ \{ s_{h_\beta}(s_m - s) \otimes X_i \} \widehat{\Sigma}_{y_i, G}(s_m, s_m)^{-1/2} \}^{\otimes 2}$. We have

$$\tilde{\beta}(s) = (\tilde{\beta}_1(s), \dots, \tilde{\beta}_{p_x}(s))^T = \{ (1, 0) \otimes I_{p_x} \} \text{vec}(\tilde{A}(s)). \quad (2.13)$$

To select the bandwidth h_β , we pool the data from all n subjects and select a bandwidth h_β that minimizes the cross-validation score,

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \text{CV}(h_\beta) \\
 &= (nM)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{m=1}^m \{ [y_i(s_m) - X_i^T \tilde{\beta}(s_m, h_\beta)^{(-i)}] \sum_{y_i, G} \widehat{\Sigma}(s_m, s_m)^{-1/2} \}^{\otimes 2}, \tag{2.14}
 \end{aligned}$$

where $\tilde{\beta}(s, h_\beta)^{(-i)}$ is the local linear estimator of $\beta(s)$ with the bandwidth h_β based on data excluding all the observations from the i -th subject.

Step (IV): We use the local linear regression method to smooth

$\{\tilde{u}_{ij}(s_m) = y_{ij}(s_m) - x_{ij}^T \tilde{\beta}(s_m)\}_{m=1}^M$ and then obtain an estimate of $u_{ij, G}(s) = z_{ij}^T b_i(s) + e_{ij, G}(s)$ for each i and j . Since the local linear regression is a standard method (Fan and Gijbels, 1996; Wand and Jones, 1995), we omit the detailed steps for the approximation of $u_{ij, G}(s)$. Furthermore, if there is an interest in recovering the subject-specific random effect $b_\lambda(s)$, one could use the best linear unbiased predictors, which are commonly employed in linear mixed-effects models, to estimate $b_\lambda(s)$ at each point s and then smooth over s .

Remark 1—To extend the estimation procedure to nonlinear mean functions $\mu(x_{ij}, \beta(s))$, such as exponential functions or power functions, one needs to modify steps (I) and (III) by applying a Taylor expansion for $\mu(x_{ij}, \beta(s_m))$ at s ,

$$\mu(x_{ij}, \beta(s_m)) \approx \mu(x_{ij}, \beta(s)) + \dot{\mu}(x_{ij}, \beta(s)) \dot{\beta}(s)(s_m - s) = \mu_{ij}(s) h_1(s_m - s),$$

where $\dot{\mu}(x_{ij}, \beta(s)) = \dot{\mu}(x_{ij}, \beta(s)) / \dot{\beta}(s)$ and $\mu_{ij}(s) = (\mu(x_{ij}, \beta(s)), \dot{\mu}(x_{ij}, \beta(s)) \dot{\beta}(s) h_1)$. Then, one estimates $A(s)$ by minimizing a nonlinear weighted least squares function:

$$L_n(A(s)) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^{T_i} \sum_{m=1}^M \{y_{ij}(s_m) - \mu_{ij}(s) h_1(s_m - s)\}^2 K_{h_1}(s_m - s).$$

In this general case, $\hat{A}(s)$ does not have an explicit form, but it can be estimated by using optimization algorithms, such as the Gaussian Newton algorithm or Levenberg-Marquardt algorithm (Seber and Wild, 1989). Similar to $L_n(A(s))$, we can modify (2.12) in step (III).

2.3 Computational Complexity

The computational complexity of our estimation procedure is extremely important for high-dimensional neuroimaging data, which usually contain a large number of locations, especially when they correspond to the voxel locations of the image. For instance, M can have a magnitude of tens of thousands. For the linear mean function, the computational complexity of our estimation procedure in Section 2.2. is $O(nh_1 T_0 M^2 + nT_0(R_0 M)^2 + nT_0 h_s M^2)$. If we use leave-one-out cross-validation, then the computational effort increases by a factor of n .

We first discuss steps (I) and (III). In step (I), we need to calculate the local linear estimator of $\beta(s_m)$ at each grid point s_m across $\mathcal{S}_0 = \{s_m, m = 1, \dots, M\}$. The computational complexity of step (I) is almost the same as that in standard point-wise linear regression analysis. An alternative is to fit a linear mixed-effect model at each grid point s_m using the maximum likelihood. However, this step is not necessary as it only applies to an initial estimate, which then is improved in step (III).

For step (III), we only need to calculate the weighted least squares estimators $\tilde{\beta}(s_m)$ in (2.13) across $s_m \in \mathcal{S}_0$, which is computationally straightforward. The computational complexity is $O(nT_0h_1M)$ for each s_m , so overall it is $O(nT_0h_1M^2)$.

To improve computational efficiency, we standardize all covariates and then use a single tuning parameter h_1 to smooth all the coefficient functions $\beta_\lambda(s)$. Since this strategy works best for coefficient functions that exhibit similar degrees of smoothness, it may be necessary to use different tuning parameters for different coefficient functions (Fan and Zhang, 2008) when the coefficient functions have different level of smoothness.

Next, we discuss the computational complexity of step (II). First, estimating $\hat{u}_{ij}(s)$ is computationally fast for all possible (i, j) . Second, we do not need to calculate $\Sigma_b(s, s')$ and $\Sigma_{e,G}(s, s')$ for all possible (s, s') . As discussed in step (III) above, we only need the estimates of $\Sigma_b(s_m, s_m)$ and $\Sigma_{e,G}(s_m, s_m)$ for all $s_m \in \mathcal{S}_0$. Therefore, in step (S2), we can focus on solving $\Sigma_b(s_m, s_m)$ and $\Sigma_{e,G}(s_m, s_m)$ with all (s_m, s_m') in $\{(s_m, s_m') \in \mathcal{S}_0 \times \mathcal{S}_0 : |s_m - s_m'| \leq R_0\}$, where R_0 is a positive scalar. In this case, step (II) is computationally feasible even for large M when R_0 is relatively small. The computational complexity is at most $O(nT_0(R_0M)^2)$ for $(s_m, s_m') \in \mathcal{S}_0 \times \mathcal{S}_0$.

A major computational hurdle is to calculate $\Sigma_b(s, s')$ and $\Sigma_{e,G}(s, s')$ for all possible (s, s') . If M is relatively large, it can be computationally challenging to estimate $\Sigma_b(s_m, s_m')$ and $\Sigma_{e,G}(s_m, s_m')$ across all possible $(s_m, s_m') \in \mathcal{S}_0 \times \mathcal{S}_0$. We take two different approaches. The first one is to estimate $\Sigma_b(s_m, s_m')$ and $\Sigma_{e,G}(s_m, s_m')$ for a small subset of $\mathcal{S}_0 \times \mathcal{S}_0$.

Specifically, we can bin the data to reduce the number of grid points substantially to a much smaller number $M_0 \ll M$, and estimate $\Sigma_b(s, s')$ and $\Sigma_{e,G}(s, s')$ on those M_0 points and interpolate the results elsewhere. The second approach is to apply the approaches proposed by Zipunnikov et al. (2014) and Xiao et al. (2016) to the estimation of $\Sigma_b(s, s')$ and $\Sigma_{e,G}(s, s')$. These methods include a fast implementation of the sandwich smoother for covariance smoothing and a two-step procedure where one first obtains the singular value decomposition of the data matrix and then smooths the eigenvectors.

Regarding the computational complexity of step (IV), we note that, similar to step (II), smoothing $u_{ij,P}(s)$ for all possible (i, j) is computationally light. The overall computational complexity is approximately $O(nT_0h_sM^2)$, where h_s is the bandwidth of the local linear method.

Remark 2—We discuss two possible extensions of (2.2). The first is to extend the estimation procedure from $\mathcal{S} = [0, 1]$ to a D -dimensional compact subset of a Euclidean space. For this, we only need to modify steps (I) and (III) by changing $\hat{\beta}_\lambda(s)$ and $s_m - s$ into

$D \times 1$ vectors. The second extension is to assume that $e_{ij_1, G}(s)$ and $e_{ij_2, G}(s)$ for j_1, j_2 are dependent and have a separable covariance structure, $\text{cov}(e_{ij_1, G}(s), e_{ij_2, G}(s)) = \Sigma_{e, G}(s, s') \rho(t_{ij_1}, t_{ij_2}; \theta)$, where $\rho(t_{ij_1}, t_{ij_2}; \theta)$ is usually a pre-specified correlation function of unknown parameter θ , such as the exponential correlation model with $\rho(t_{ij_1}, t_{ij_2}; \theta) = \exp(-\theta |t_{ij_1} - t_{ij_2}|)$ (Diggle et al., 2002; Fitzmaurice et al., 2004). However, we found empirically that the use of the correlation function dramatically increases the computational complexity but does not lead to much efficiency gain for the estimation of $\beta(\cdot)$.

3. Theoretical Results

We systematically investigate the asymptotic properties of all estimators proposed in Section 2.2 and investigate several inference procedures based on the asymptotic properties. For any smooth function $f(s)$, we use the notation $\dot{f}(s) = df(s)/ds$ and $\ddot{f}(s) = d^2f(s)/ds^2$. We use $u_q = \int K(v) v^q dv$ and $v_q = \int K^q(v) dv$ for $q = 1$ and 2 , and $\|\cdot\|_2$ for the Euclidean norm.

3.1 Assumptions

Throughout the paper, the following assumptions are used to facilitate the technical details. Some of the assumptions might be weakened but the current version simplifies the proof.

(A.1) The grid points in $\mathcal{S}_0 = \{s_m, m = 1, \dots, M\}$ are independently and identically distributed with a density function $f(s)$, which has a continuous second-order derivative and bounded support \mathcal{S} . Moreover, for some $f_l > 0$ and $f_u < \infty$, $f_l < f(s) < f_u$ for all $s \in \mathcal{S}$.

(A.1b) The grid points $\mathcal{S}_0 = \{s_m, m = 1, \dots, M\}$ are prefixed according to a design density function $f(s)$ such that $\int_0^s f(s) ds = m/M$ for $m = 1, \dots, M$. Here $f(s)$ has continuous second-order derivative and bounded support $[0, 1]$, and $f_l < f(s) < f_u$ for all $s \in [0, 1]$, for some positive $f_l > 0$ and $f_u < \infty$.

(A.2) The covariate vectors $x_{ij} = (x_{ij1}, \dots, x_{ijp_x})^T$ and $z_{ij} = z_{ij}(t_{ij}) = (z_{ij1}, \dots, z_{ijp_z})^T$, may or may not be time-dependent. Nevertheless, we use the notation $x_{ijl} = x_{ijl}(t_{ij})$ for $1 \leq l \leq p_x$, and $z_{ijl} = z_{ijl}(t_{ij})$ for $1 \leq l \leq p_z$. We assume that $\sup_{t \in \mathcal{T}} |x_{ijl}(t)|$ and $\sup_{t \in \mathcal{T}} |z_{ijl}(t)|$ are almost surely bounded, where \mathcal{T} is a finite time domain.

(A.3) The kernel function $K(t)$ is a symmetric density function with compact support $[-1, 1]$, and is Lipschitz continuous.

(A.4) All components of $\beta(s)$ have continuous second derivatives on \mathcal{S} .

(A.5) With probability one, the sample paths of $e_{ij, G}(\cdot)$ and $b_i(\cdot)$ are Lipschitz continuous.

(A.6) $\max_i T_i < T_0$, $n, M \rightarrow \infty$, $h \rightarrow 0$, $Mh \rightarrow \infty$, $n^a h \rightarrow \infty$ for some $a > 0$, where T_0 is a fixed constant, and h could be h_1 , h_β , h_2 , and h_3 .

(A.7) $E\{\sup_{s \in [0, 1]} |e_{ij, G}(s)|^{2q}\} + E\{\sup_{s \in \mathcal{S}_0} |e_{ij, L}(s)|^{2q}\} < \infty$ for some $q > 2$.

(A.8) $E\{\sup_{s \in [0, 1]} \|b_i(s)\|_2^{2q}\} < \infty$, for some $q > 2$.

(A.9) $E\{X_i \sum_{y_i, G}^{(s, s)}^{-1} \sum_{y_i, G}^{(s, s')} \sum_{y_i, G}^{(s', s')}^{-1} X_i^T\}$ exists for any (s, s') .

(A.10) There is a positive fixed integer $E < \infty$ such that the eigenvalues of $\Sigma_{e, G}$ satisfy $\lambda_1^e > \dots > \lambda_E^e > \lambda$, for some constant $\lambda > 0$, and analogously for the eigenvalues of Σ_b .

Remark 3—Our theoretical results hold for both random and fixed designs. Assumption (A.1) is a standard condition on random design points s , while (A.1b) is for fixed designs. Assumption (A.2) is a condition on the boundedness of the covariate vectors. The bounded support restriction on $K(\cdot)$ in assumption (A.3) is not essential and can be removed if we put restrictions on the tail of $K(\cdot)$. Assumptions (A.4)–(A.5) are smoothness conditions on the coefficient functions, random functions and their covariances. The smoothness condition in assumption (A.5) can be relaxed with substantial additional efforts (Zhu et al., 2012). Assumption (A.6) is a weak condition on n , M and h , where h_1 is the bandwidth used in Step (I) for the initial estimate of β . Assumptions (A.7) and (A.8) require uniform bounds on certain high-order moments of the random functions, which are standard assumptions in the literature (Zhu et al., 2012; Li and Hsing, 2010). Assumption (A.10) on simple multiplicity of the first E eigenvalues is only needed to investigate the asymptotic properties of the eigenfunctions. It is also a standard assumption in the literature.

3.2. Asymptotics of Estimation Procedure

We state the following theorems, for which detailed proofs can be found in the supplementary document. The first theorem tackles the theoretical properties of $\{\tilde{\beta}(s) : s \in \mathcal{S}\}$ obtained from step (III).

Theorem 1—Under (A.1) (or (A.1b)) and (A.2)–(A.9), we have the following results:

- i. The asymptotic bias and covariance of $\tilde{\beta}(s)$ for $s \in (0, 1)$ are

$$\text{Bias}(\tilde{\beta}(s) | \mathcal{S}) = \frac{1}{2} \ddot{\beta}(s) h_\beta^2 \mu_2 \{1 + o(1)\}, \quad (3.1)$$

$$\text{var}(\tilde{\beta}(s) | \mathcal{S}) = n^{-1} \{n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n E(X_i \{ \sum_{y_i, G}^{(s, s)}^{-1} X_i^T \})^{-1} \{1 + o(1)\}.$$

- ii. If $\log M = \alpha(Mh_\beta)$ and there exists $\gamma_n \rightarrow \infty$ with $n^{1/2} \gamma_n^{1-q} = o(1)$ and $n^{-1/2} \gamma_n \log M = o(1)$ for some $q > 2$ that satisfies (A.7), then as $n \rightarrow \infty$, $\sqrt{n} \{\tilde{\beta}(s) - E(\tilde{\beta}(s) | \mathcal{S})\}$ converges weakly to a centered Gaussian process $\mathcal{G}(\cdot) \sim \mathcal{G}(0, R)$, where $R(s, s') = \{Q^*(s, s)\}^{-1} Q^*(s, s') \{Q^*(s', s')\}^{-1}$ with $Q^*(s, s') = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n E(X_i \{ \sum_{y_i, G}^{(s, s)}^{-1} \sum_{y_i, G}^{(s, s')} \{ \sum_{y_i, G}^{(s', s')}^{-1} X_i^T \})$.

Theorem 1 (i) provides theoretical justification of steps (I)–(III) for the refined estimator $\tilde{\beta}(s)$. It has several important implications. First, the estimator $\hat{\beta}(s)$ obtained in step I has asymptotic covariance

$$n^{-1} \left\{ n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n E(X_i X_i^T) \right\}^{-1} n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n E(X_i \Sigma_{y_i, G^{(s,s)} X_i^T}) \left\{ n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n E(X_i X_i^T) \right\}^{-1}$$

(details can be found in the proof of Theorem 1), which is larger than that of $\tilde{\beta}(s)$. The improvement by the refined estimator $\tilde{\beta}(s)$ is due to the incorporation of within-subject correlations among T_i longitudinal observations, and can lead to substantial efficiency gain in estimating $\{\beta(s) : s \in \mathcal{S}\}$. Second, if we use the maximum likelihood (or the restricted maximum likelihood) estimators at each of the observed data at s_m , the asymptotic covariance, given by $\{\sum_{i=1}^n E(X_i \{\Sigma_{y_i}(s_m, s_m)\}^{-1} X_i^T)\}^{-1}$, is larger than that of $\tilde{\beta}(s_m)$. The improvement achieved by $\tilde{\beta}(s_m)$ is due to incorporating the smoothness in the functional data. Therefore, one can construct more efficient estimators of $\beta(s)$ by simultaneously accounting for the smoothness in functional data and the within subject covariance, since these functions are measured repeatedly and longitudinally. Moreover, the asymptotic bias of $\tilde{\beta}(s)$ is of the order h_p^2 , which is similar to that of nonparametric regression for independent responses; whereas the asymptotic variance of $\tilde{\beta}(s)$ is of the order n^{-1} .

We note here that the efficiency gain discussed above is not in conflict with the results in Lin and Carroll (2001), where they show that the most efficient estimator of the nonparametric function through kernel smoothing is achieved by ignoring the dependence structure among functional observations. In our setting, this means that kernel smoothing in the direction of s should be implemented as we did in Step (I) by ignoring the dependence structure among functional observations. However, in the FMEM setting of longitudinal functional data, it is possible to improve the β estimate as we did in Step (III) by incorporating the covariance structure $\Sigma_{y_i, G}(s, s)$. The analogy here is the standard linear mixed-effects model with just longitudinal data (i.e. no functional components), since FMEM is an extension of linear mixed-effects model. It is clear that in linear mixed-effects model one needs to do weighted least square to gain efficiency for the β estimator and this is what we did in Step (III) to refine the β estimator through a weighted least square estimator with weights from $\Sigma_{y_i, G}(s, s)$. We emphasize that we could implement Step (III) only after we have obtained a covariance estimate in Step (II), which relies on an initial unweighted least square estimator of β in Step (I). This explains why we need three steps to complete the estimation of β .

Theorem 1 (ii) establishes the weak convergence of the centered estimator $\tilde{\beta}(s) - E(\tilde{\beta}(s))$, which is essential to carry out the statistical inference for $\beta(s)$ in Section 3.3 below. Let $h = n^\alpha$, $M = n^\beta$ and $\gamma_n = n^\gamma$. Anything that satisfies $\alpha < 0$, $\alpha + \beta > 0$ and $-\frac{1}{2(1-q)} < \gamma < \frac{1}{2}$ will satisfy the assumptions, where $q > 2$ is a constant that satisfies the moment condition given in (A.7).

The second theorem provides the theoretical analysis of the estimators of $\Sigma_{e, G}(s, s')$ obtained from step (II). Similar results can be obtained for $\Sigma_{b, k k'}(s, s')$, $1 \leq k, k' \leq p_z$ and are provided in the online supplementary material.

Theorem 2—Under (A.1) (or (A.1b)) and (A.2)–(A.8), (A.10), if $h_1 = O((\log n/n)^{1/4})$ and $h_3 = O(\log n/n)^{1/4}$, then we have the following results:

- i. $\sup_{s,s'} |\widehat{\Sigma}_{e,G}(s, s') - \Sigma_{e,G}(s, s')| = O_p((\log n/n)^{1/2});$
- ii. For $1 \leq l \leq E$, $\{\int_0^1 |\widehat{\psi}_l^e(s) - \psi_l^e(s)|^2 ds\}^{1/2} = O_p((\log n/n)^{1/2});$
- iii. For $1 \leq l \leq E$, $|\widehat{\lambda}_l^e - \lambda_l^e| = O_p((\log n/n)^{1/2}).$

Theorem 2 characterizes the uniform convergence rates of $\widehat{\Sigma}_{e,G}(s, s')$ and the associated eigenvalues and eigenfunctions. It can be regarded as an extension of Theorems 3.3–3.6 of Li and Hsing (2010), which established the strong uniform convergence rates of these estimates under a simpler model.

3.3. Asymptotics of Inference Procedure

In this subsection, we derive the asymptotic theory of a global test for testing linear hypotheses of $\beta(\cdot)$ and the theory for simultaneous confidence bands (SCB) for each component of $\beta(\cdot)$. These are key tools for statistical inference for the coefficient functions.

We first consider linear hypotheses for $\beta(s)$,

$$H_0: C\beta(s) = \beta_0(s) \text{ for all } s \text{ vs. } H_1: C\beta(s) \neq \beta_0(s) \text{ for some } s, \tag{3.2}$$

where C is a $q \times p_x$ matrix with rank q , and $\beta_0(s)$ is a given $q \times 1$ vector of functions. We define a global test statistic S_n as

$$S_n = \int_0^1 d(s)^T [C \{ \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \widehat{\sum}_{y_i, G}^{(s,s)} X_i^T \}^{-1} C^T]^{-1} d(s) ds, \tag{3.3}$$

where $d(s) = C\tilde{\beta}(s) - \text{bias}(C\tilde{\beta}(s)) - \beta_0(s)$. For simplicity and computational efficiency, we do not consider estimating the bias of $C\tilde{\beta}(s)$, since it is negligible based on our simulation results reported below. It follows from Theorem 1 that under H_0 , we have

$$[C \{ \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \widehat{\sum}_{y_i, G}^{(s,s)} X_i^T \}^{-1} C^T]^{-1} d(s) \Rightarrow G_C(s),$$

where \Rightarrow denotes weak convergence and $G_C(\cdot)$ is a centered Gaussian process with covariance function $\{CQ^*(s, s)C^T\}^{-1/2}R(s, s')\{CQ^*(s', s')C^T\}^{-1/2}$. Thus, we can derive the asymptotic distribution of S_n under the null hypothesis and its asymptotic power under local alternative hypotheses.

Theorem 3—Under assumptions (A.1)–(A.9), if $\log M = o(Mh_\beta)$ and there exists $\gamma_n \rightarrow \infty$ with $n^{1/2}\gamma_n^{1-q} = o(1)$ and $n^{-1/2}\gamma_n \log M = o(1)$ for some $q > 2$ that satisfies (A.7), we have the following results:

- i. $S_n \Rightarrow \int_0^1 G_C(s)^T G_C(s) ds$ under the null hypothesis H_0 ,
- ii. $P(S_n \geq S_{n,\alpha} | H_{1n}) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 1$ for a sequence of local alternatives $H_{1n}: C\beta(s) - \beta_0(s) = n^{-\tau/2} d(s)$, where τ is any scalar in $[0, 1)$, $S_{n,\alpha}$ is the upper 100α percentile of S_n under H_0 , and $0 < \int_{\mathcal{S}} \|d(s)\|^2 ds < \infty$.

Theorem 3 can be regarded as a generalization of theorem 7 of Zhang and Chen (2007) and theorem 2 of Zhang (2011). The test statistic S_n has a weighted χ^2 -type asymptotic distribution under H_0 . Zhang and Chen (2007) (after theorem 7) provided a discussion of the estimation for the null distribution of S_n by χ^2 -approximation and bootstrapping, which also applies to the case we considered here. It is easy to see that part (ii) still holds when the critical value $S_{n,\alpha}$ is replaced by some estimated critical value.

Next, we construct simultaneous confidence bands for the coefficient functions, which can then be used for statistical inference for FMEM. For a given confidence level α , we construct a simultaneous confidence band for each $\beta_f(s)$, $1 \leq p_x$, as

$$P(\hat{\beta}_l^{L,\alpha}(s) < \beta_f(s) < \hat{\beta}_l^{U,\alpha}(s) \text{ for all } s \in [0, 1]) = 1 - \alpha, \quad (3.4)$$

where $\hat{\beta}_l^{L,\alpha}(s)$ and $\hat{\beta}_l^{U,\alpha}(s)$ are the lower and upper limits of the SCB. Specifically, a $1 - \alpha$ simultaneous confidence band for $\beta_f(s)$ is:

$$\left(\hat{\beta}_l(s) - \text{bias}(\hat{\beta}_l(s)) - \frac{C_f(\alpha)}{\sqrt{n}}, \hat{\beta}_l(s) - \text{bias}(\hat{\beta}_l(s)) + \frac{C_f(\alpha)}{\sqrt{n}} \right), \quad (3.5)$$

where $C_f(\alpha)$ is the critical value of $\sup_{s \in \mathcal{S}} |G(s)|$ associated with $\hat{\beta}_l(s)$ in Theorem 1.

To carry out the inference procedure developed above, we approximate both $C_f(\alpha)$ and $S_{n,\alpha}$. Because the asymptotic distribution of S_n is quite complicated and it is difficult to directly approximate the percentiles of S_n under the null hypothesis, we use a wild bootstrap method to approximate the critical values of S_n . The wild bootstrap idea has been used by Zhu et al. (2012); details are presented in the Appendix. Let $G^{(q)}(\cdot)$ be the bootstrapped samples for $q = 1, \dots, Q$, where Q is the total number of wild bootstrap samples. The following theorem lays the ground for the wild bootstrap method to construct a simultaneous confidence band of $\beta_f(s)$ and to approximate the null distribution of S_n .

Theorem 4—Under assumptions (A.1)–(A.9) and given the data, the bootstrapped process $G^{(q)}(s)$ converges in distribution to $\mathcal{G}(0, R)$, which is defined in part (ii) of Theorem 1, as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

4. Simulation Studies

In this section, we present four sets of simulations to examine the finite-sample performance of the proposed estimation and inference procedures. In the first two simulations, we consider two competing methods, including wavelet-based functional mixed models (WFMM) (Morris and Carroll, 2006) and functional additive mixed models (FAMM)

(Scheipl et al., 2015). All computations for these numerical examples were carried out using Windows 7, 3.60GHz quad-core Intel Core i7 CPU and 16GB DDR3 1066MHz memory. One can further reduce the computational time for FMEMs by using other computer languages, such as C++.

All simulated data sets were generated from the model:

$$y_{ij}(s) = x_{ij}^T \beta(s) + z_{ij}^T b_i(s) + e_{ij,G}(s) + e_{ij,L}(s),$$

$$b_i(s) = \sum_{k=1}^2 b_{ik} \psi_k^b(s), \quad e_{ij,G}(s) = \sum_{k=1}^2 e_{ijk} \psi_k^e(s), \quad (4.1)$$

where $x_{ij} = (1, x_{ij,1}, x_{ij,2})^T$, $z_{ij} = (1, x_{ij,2})$, $b_{ik} \sim N(0, \lambda_k^b)$, $e_{ijk} \sim N(0, \lambda_k^e)$, and $e_{ij,L}(s) \sim N(0, \Sigma_{e,L})$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$. Each subject was observed up to 3 times in this sample, among which 5%, 30% and 65% have only one, two and all three observations, respectively. We set $s_m = (m - 0.5)/M$. The first covariate $x_{ij,1}$ was simulated from $N(0, 1)$ and fixed across time for subject i and the second covariate $x_{ij,2}$ was assumed to vary with time, where the increments $x_{ij,2} - x_{i(j-1),2}$ were independently sampled from a uniform distribution on $[0, 1]$. Both covariates were standardized to have zero mean and unit variance. Moreover, we set $\lambda_k^b = \lambda_k^e = 2^{1-k}$ for $k = 1, 2$, and $\Sigma_{e,L} = 0.01$. The functional coefficients and eigenfunctions were selected as

$$\beta_1(s) = s^2, \quad \beta_2(s) = (1-s)^2, \quad \beta_3(s) = 4s(1-s) - 0.4,$$

$$\psi_1^b(s)^T = (\psi_{11}^b(s), \psi_{12}^b(s)) = (\sin(2\pi s), \cos(2\pi s)), \quad \psi_1^e(s) = \sqrt{3}(2s - 1),$$

$$\psi_2^b(s)^T = (\psi_{21}^b(s), \psi_{22}^b(s)) = (1/\sqrt{2}, \sin(2\pi s)), \quad \psi_2^e(s) = \sqrt{5}(6s^2 - 6s + 1).$$

We fitted FMEM, WFMM, and FAMM to each simulated data set and calculated all the unknown quantities. The average computational times per simulated data set with $n = 100$ and $M = 40$ for FMEM, WFMM, and FAMM are, respectively, 19.6 seconds, 2.32 seconds, and 1.15 hours.

Simulation 1

The first simulation aims at evaluating the performance of the estimates for $\beta_f(\cdot)$. We set $n = 100$ and $M = 40$ and 60 and then simulated 1,000 data sets from model (4.1) as described above. Table 1 summarizes the mean integrated absolute error (MIAE) and mean integrated squared error (MISE) of all estimated coefficient functions based on 1,000 simulations. The results in Table 1 indicate satisfactory performance of our estimators since all MIAE and

MISE values are quite small. As expected, all the errors decrease as the number of grid points increases. Moreover, FMEM outperforms WFMM and FAMM in terms of both MIAE and MISE. However, this comparison may be unfair to WFMM, since it is designed for spiky data, not the intrinsically smooth functional data.

Simulation 2

The second simulation is to evaluate the accuracy of the estimators of the eigenvalues and eigenfunctions of the covariance functions $\Sigma_b(\cdot, \cdot)$, $\Sigma_{e,G}(\cdot, \cdot)$ and $\Sigma_{e,L}$. We used the same parameter values as those in Simulation 1. We set $c = 0.1$ and $n = 50$ and 100 , and generated 1,000 datasets for each combination. The accuracy of all kinds of estimators improves with the sample size. The estimated eigenfunctions were plotted in Figures 4.1 and 4.2, in which the mean and the pointwise 5th and 95th percentiles of the estimated functions were plotted along with the true eigenfunctions. Figures 4.3 and 4.4 show the boxplots for the estimates of the eigenvalues and σ^2 , which are quite close to their true values.

Simulation 3

The third simulation is designed to evaluate the type I error rate and power of the global test statistics S_n . We are interested in testing $H_0 : \beta_3(s) = 0$ for all s , against $H_1 : \beta_3(s) \neq 0$ for some s . All parameters in FMEM were specified as above except that $\beta_3(s)$ was set as $4cs(1 - s) - 0.4c$, where we first set $c = 0$ to assess the type I error rate of S_n and then $c = 0.04, 0.06, 0.08,$ and 0.1 to examine the power of S_n at different effect sizes. Furthermore, we set $n = 50$ and 100 and used 1,000 replications to estimate the rejection rate of S_n . The p -value of S_n was approximated by the wild bootstrap method with $Q = 500$ bootstrap samples.

Fig. 4.5 presents the rejection rates of S_n across all effect sizes at the two significance levels $\alpha = 0.05$ and 0.01 . Type I error rates are well maintained at the two significance levels for $n = 100$. Specifically, at $\alpha = 0.05$ (or 0.01), the Type I error rates of S_n is 0.066 (or 0.014) for $n = 50$ and 0.055 (or 0.012) for $n = 100$, respectively. As expected, the statistical power for rejecting the null hypothesis increases with the sample size, the effect size c and the significance level.

Simulation 4

The fourth simulation aims at evaluating the coverage probability of the simultaneous confidence bands for $\beta_\lambda(s)$. We use the same data generated from Simulation 1 above. Based on the 1,000 simulated data sets, we fitted FMEM, WFMM, and FAMM to each simulated data and then calculated SCB for each component in $\beta(s)$. Table 2 presents the empirical coverage probabilities of all three methods for $\alpha = 0.01$ and 0.05 . The coverage probabilities improve with the number of grid points M . When $M = 60$, the coverage probabilities are quite close to the pre-specified confidence levels. Since FAMM only provides level $(1 - \alpha)$ confidence interval at each grid point, we use the Bonferroni method to approximate its simultaneous cover probabilities. Again, FMEM outperforms WFMM and FAMM in terms of the coverage probability. However, this comparison may be unfair to WFMM and FAMM, since they do not have any valid method to construct simultaneous confidence bands of $\beta_\lambda(s)$ yet. Fig. 4.6 displays typical 95% and 99% simultaneous confidence bands for coefficient functions $\beta_\lambda(s)$, $\lambda = 1, 2, 3$ based on FMEM as $M = 60$.

5. Data Analysis

The data set was taken from the national database for autism research (NDAR) (<http://ndar.nih.gov/>), an NIH-funded research data repository that aims at accelerating progress in autism spectrum disorders (ASD) research through data sharing, data harmonization, and the reporting of research results. A total of 416 MRI scans are selected for 253 normal children (126 males and 127 females) following standard protocol. Table 3 contains demographic information and distribution of scan availability.

The diffusion tensor imaging (DTI) data were processed by two key steps including a weighted least squares estimation method (Basser et al., 1994) to construct the diffusion tensors and a pipeline for tract-based spatial statistics (TBSS) (Smith et al., 2006) to register DTIs from multiple subjects to create a mean image and a mean skeleton. Specifically, maps of fractional anisotropy (FA) were computed for all subjects from the DTI after Eddy current correction and automatic brain extraction using FMRIB software library. FA maps were then fed into the TBSS tool, which is also part of the FSL. In the TBSS analysis, the FA data for all subjects were aligned into a common space by a non-linear registration method and the mean FA images were created and thinned to obtain a mean FA skeleton, which represents the centers of all white matter tracts common to the group. Subsequently, each subject's aligned FA data sets were projected onto this skeleton. While several DTI fiber tracts were tracked, we chose to focus in this paper on the corpus callosum (see Fig. 4.7 (a)) to illustrate the applicability of our method in assessing the effects of covariates of interest, such as patient age and gender. In this case, there are $M = 45$ grid points along each fiber tract. The FA values were extracted at each grid point across multiple times (1 to 9 times) along the selected fiber tracts for all 253 infants.

The goal of the data analysis is to delineate the development of skeleton diffusion properties across time. We fitted FMEM (2.1) and (2.2) with $x_j = (1, \text{Gender}, \log(\text{Age}), \{\log(\text{Age})\}^2)^T$ and $z_j = (1, \log(\text{Age}))^T$ to the selected FA tracts obtained from all 253 subjects. The coefficient functions associated with $\log(\text{Age})$ and $\{\log(\text{Age})\}^2$ were included to detect age effect in FA changes. In addition, as shown in Fig. 4.7, there are random subject-to-subject variations in FA measures at each grid point along this tract as well as those in the age effect on FA measures. We included random intercept and age effects in the model in order to account for the inter-subject variations.

We applied FMEM, WFMM, and FMM to this data set and estimated all unknown quantities but will only discuss the results based on FMEM below. The results for WFMM and FMM are provided in the supplementary document. The computational times for FMEM, WFMM, and FMM are, respectively, 55.8 seconds, 7.9 seconds, and 6.078 hours.

For FMEM, the estimated functional coefficients of $\beta(s)$ and their 95% simultaneous confidence bands were constructed along with the global test statistic S_n to test for the significance of gender and age effects on FA values. The p -value of S_n was approximated using the resampling method with $Q = 1,000$ replications. Figure 4.8 presents the estimated coefficient functions corresponding to intercept, gender, $\log(\text{Age})$, and $\{\log(\text{Age})\}^2$ along with their 95% simultaneous confidence bands. The intercept function describes the overall

trend of FA along the corpus callosum. In general, the central regions of the corpus callosum show smaller FA values, whereas the peripheral regions show larger FA values. In Figure 4.8, the simultaneous confidence band contains the horizontal line crossing (0, 0) for the gender effect, whereas the horizontal line is out of the 95% simultaneous confidence band for the age effect, indicating a significant age effect. This agrees with our analysis results based on S_n for the gender and age effects. We obtained the p values of 0.215 and < 0.0001 for the gender and age effects, respectively, indicating significant age but no gender effect.

Table 4 displays the estimated eigenvalues and the percentage of total variability explained by different components in FMEM. It shows that 31.41% of the variability is explained by the first principal component for b and 18.22% by the first principal component for e_G . Overall, the first 8 principal components for b explain 62.47% of the total variability, whereas the first 8 principal components for e_G explain 32.18% of the total variability. This indicates that the random effects b capture most of the variation in the data. Within b , 53.57% and 8.90% of the total variation are explained by the random functional intercept and the subject-specific random slope, respectively. The within-curve measurement error explains only 5.35% of the total variation. Figure 4.9 shows the first five and four eigenfunctions for b and e_G , respectively.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

Acknowledgments

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Appendix

Wild Bootstrap Method for Critical Values of S_n

We have shown that the asymptotic distribution of S_n is very complicated hence it is difficult to directly approximate the percentiles of S_n under the null hypothesis. Instead, we propose using a wild bootstrap method to obtain critical values of S_n . The wild bootstrap consists of the following three steps.

Step 1. Fit (2.1) and (2.2) under the null hypothesis H_0 , which yields $\hat{\beta}^*(s_m)$, $\hat{u}_{ij, G}^*(s_m)$ and $\hat{\varepsilon}_{ij}^*(s_m) = y_{ij}(s_m) - x_{ij}^T \hat{\beta}^*(s_m) - \hat{u}_{ij, G}^*(s_m)$ for all i, j and $m = 1, \dots, M$.

Step 2. Generate a random sample $\tau_i^{(q)}$ and $\tau_{ij}(s_m)^{(q)}$ from a $N(0, 1)$ generator for all i, j and $m = 1, \dots, M$ and then construct

$$\hat{y}_{ij}(s_m)^{(q)} = x_{ij}^T \hat{\beta}^*(s_m) + \tau_i^{(q)} \hat{u}_{ij, G}^*(s_m) + \tau_{ij}(s_m)^{(q)} \hat{\varepsilon}_{ij}^*(s_m).$$

Then, based on $\hat{y}_{ij}(s_m)^{(q)}$, we recalculate $\hat{\beta}(s)^{(q)}$, and $d(s)^{(q)} = C\hat{\beta}(s)^{(q)} - \beta_0(s)$. Subsequently, we compute

$$S_n^{(q)} = n \int_0^1 d(s)^{(q)T} [C \{ \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \widehat{\sum}_{y_i} G^{(s,s)^{-1}} X_i^T \}^{-1} C^T]^{-1} d(s)^{(q)} ds.$$

Step 3. Repeat Step 2 Q times to obtain $\{S_n^{(q)}: q = 1, \dots, Q\}$ and then calculate $p = Q^{-1} \sum_{q=1}^Q 1(S_n^{(q)} \geq S_n)$. If p is smaller than a pre-specified significance level α , say 0.05, then one rejects the null hypothesis H_0 .

Wild Bootstrap Methods for Simultaneous Confidence Bands of $\beta(\cdot)$

Although there are several methods of determining $C(\alpha)$ including random field theory (Worsley et al., 2004), we develop an efficient resampling method to approximate $C(\alpha)$ as follows (Kosorok, 2003).

- We calculate $\hat{r}_{i(s_m)} = y_{i(s_m)} - X_i^T \tilde{\beta}(s_m)$ for all i, j , and m .
- For $q = 1, \dots, Q$, we independently simulate $\{\tau_i^{(q)}: i = 1, \dots, n\}$ from $N(0, 1)$ and calculate a stochastic process $G(s)^{(q)}$ given by

$$\sqrt{n} [I_{p_x} \otimes (1, 0)] \text{vec} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n (s, h_1)^{-1} \tau_i^{(q)} \sum_{m=1}^M K_{h(s_m - s)} \{s_h(s_m - s) \otimes X_i\} \widehat{\sum}_{y_i} G^{(s,s)^{-1}} \hat{r}_{i(s_m)} \right).$$

- We calculate $\sup_{s \in [0,1]} |e_l G(s)^{(q)}|$ for all q , where e_l is a $p_x \times 1$ vector with the l -th element 1 and 0 otherwise, and use their $1 - \alpha$ empirical percentile to estimate $C(\alpha)$.

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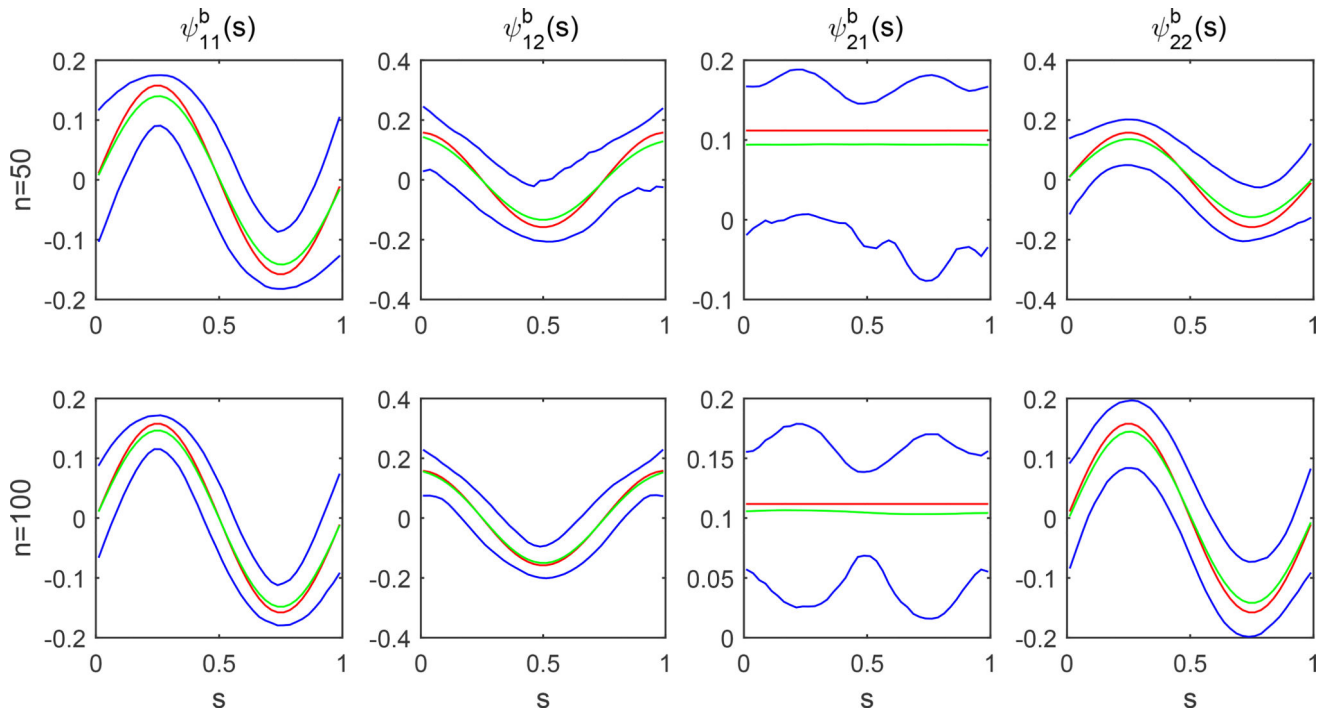


Figure 4.1.

Simulations 2: the estimates of the first two eigenfunctions $\psi_{l,k}^b(\cdot)$ for $l, k = 1, 2$ and their pointwise confidence intervals. The red solid, green dashed and blue solid, curves are, respectively, the true eigenfunctions, the pointwise means, and their pointwise 5th and 95th percentiles of estimated eigenfunctions based on 1,000 replications.

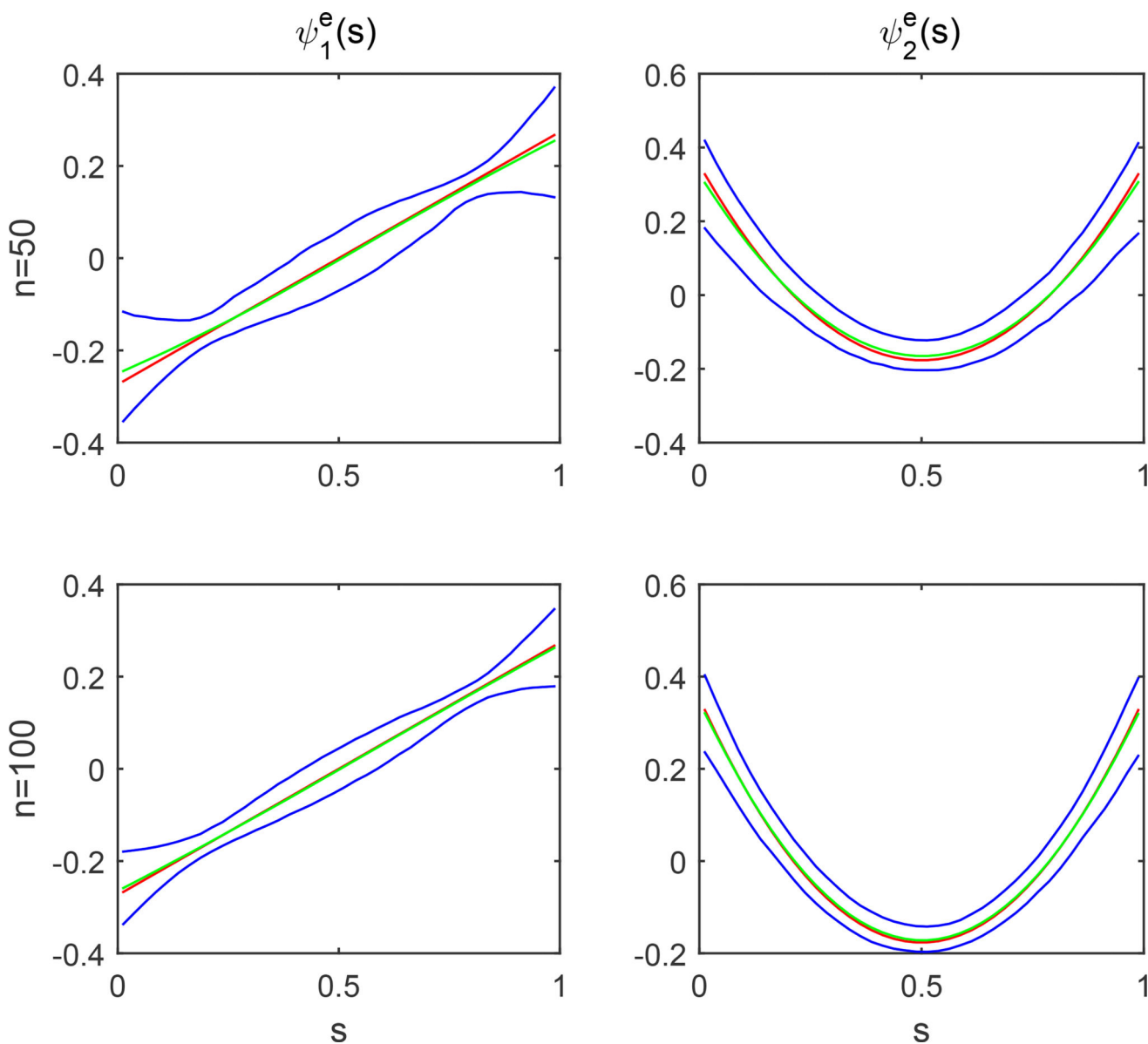


Figure 4.2. Simulations 2: the estimates of the first two eigenfunctions $\psi_k^e, k = 1, 2$ and their pointwise confidence interval. The red solid, green dashed and blue solid, curves are, respectively, the true eigenfunctions, the pointwise means and their pointwise 5th and 95th percentiles of estimated eigenfunctions based on 1,000 replications.

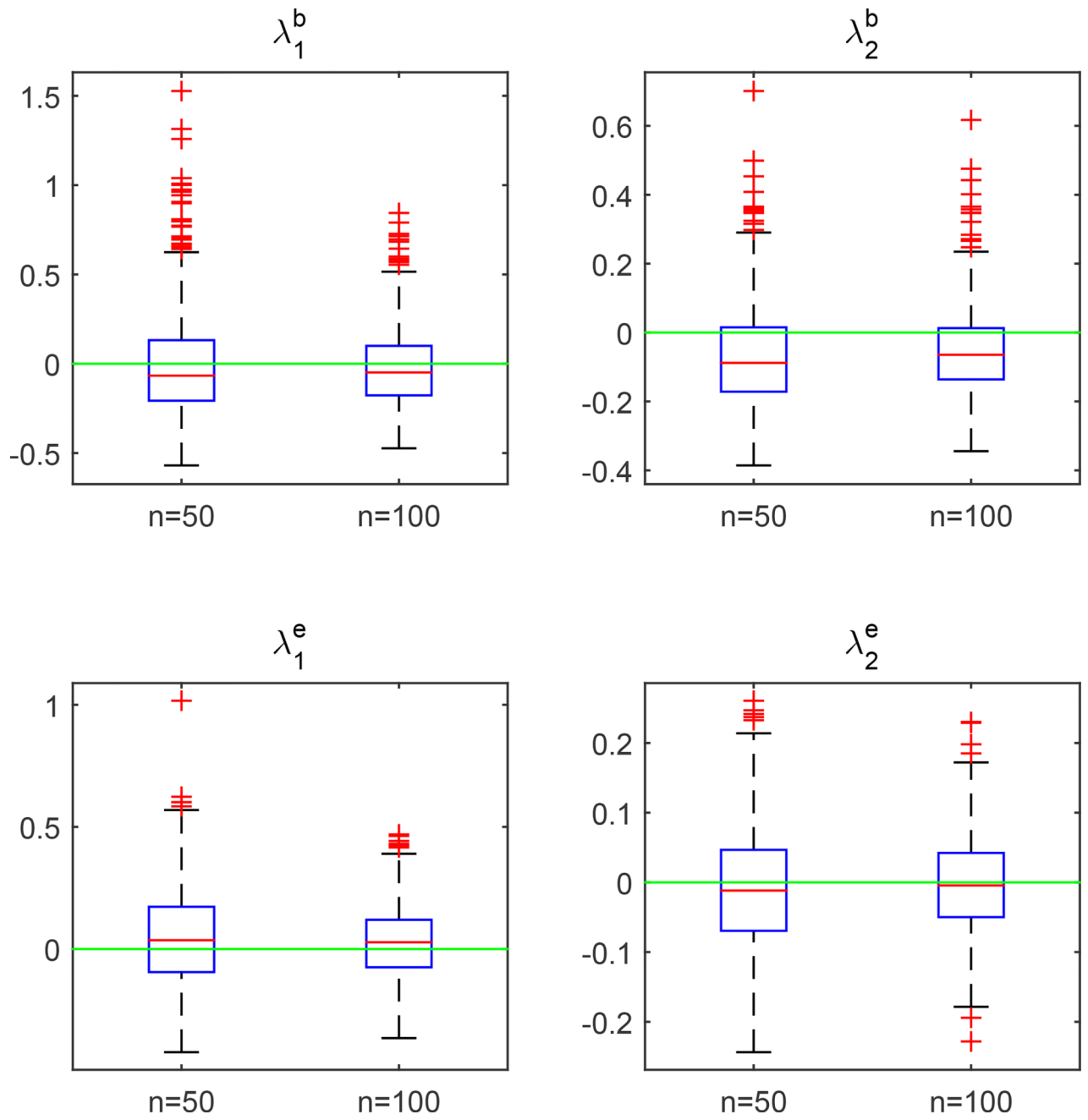


Figure 4.3.

Simulation 2: boxplots of the differences between the estimated eigenvalues $\hat{\lambda}_k^b$ and $\hat{\lambda}_k^e$, $k = 1, 2$, $k = 1, 2$ and their true values based on 1,000 replications.

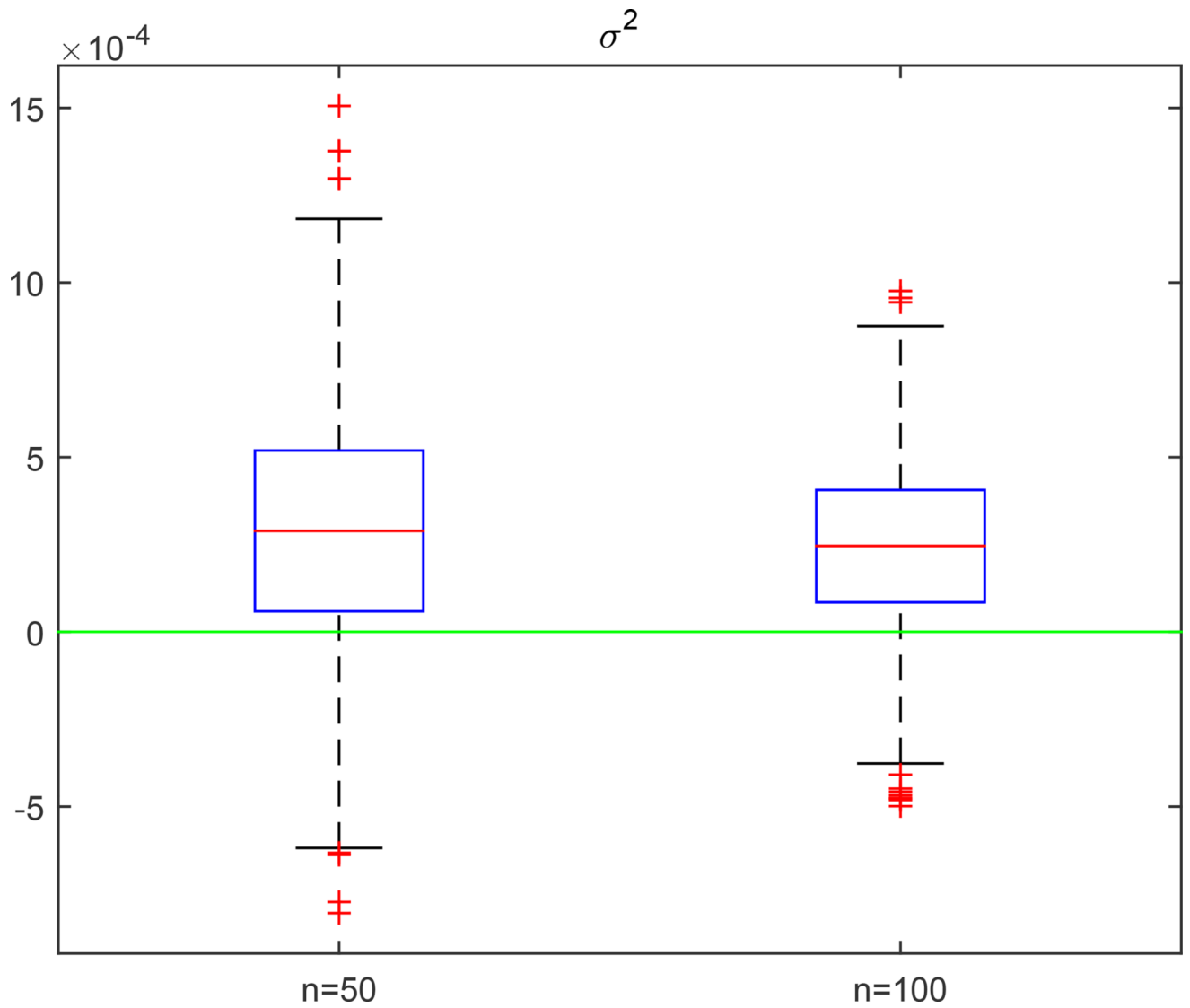


Figure 4.4. Simulation 2: boxplots of the differences between the estimated σ^2 and its true values based on 1,000 replications.

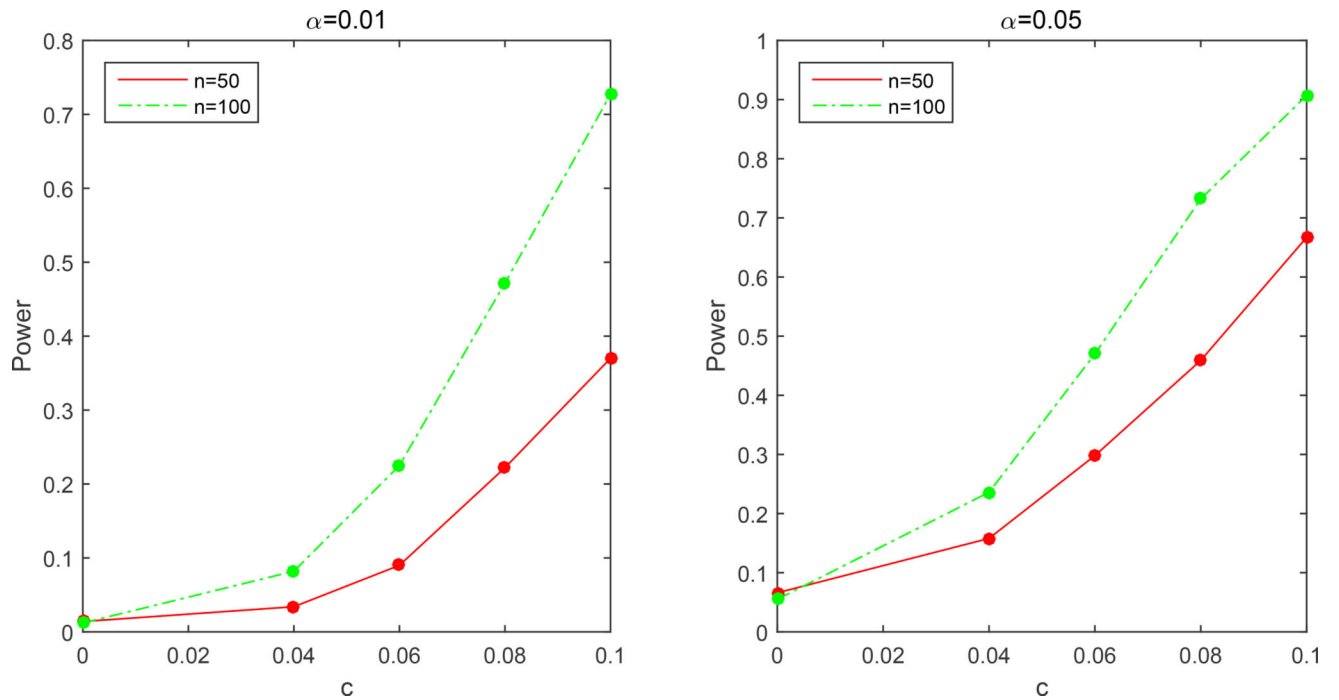


Figure 4.5. Simulation 3: Power curves as functions of c . Rejection rates of S_n using the wild bootstrap method are calculated at five different values of the effect size c ($c = 0, 0.04, 0.06, 0.08$ and 0.1) for two sample sizes ($n = 50$ and 100) at the 0.01 (a) and 0.05 (b) significance levels based on 1,000 replications.

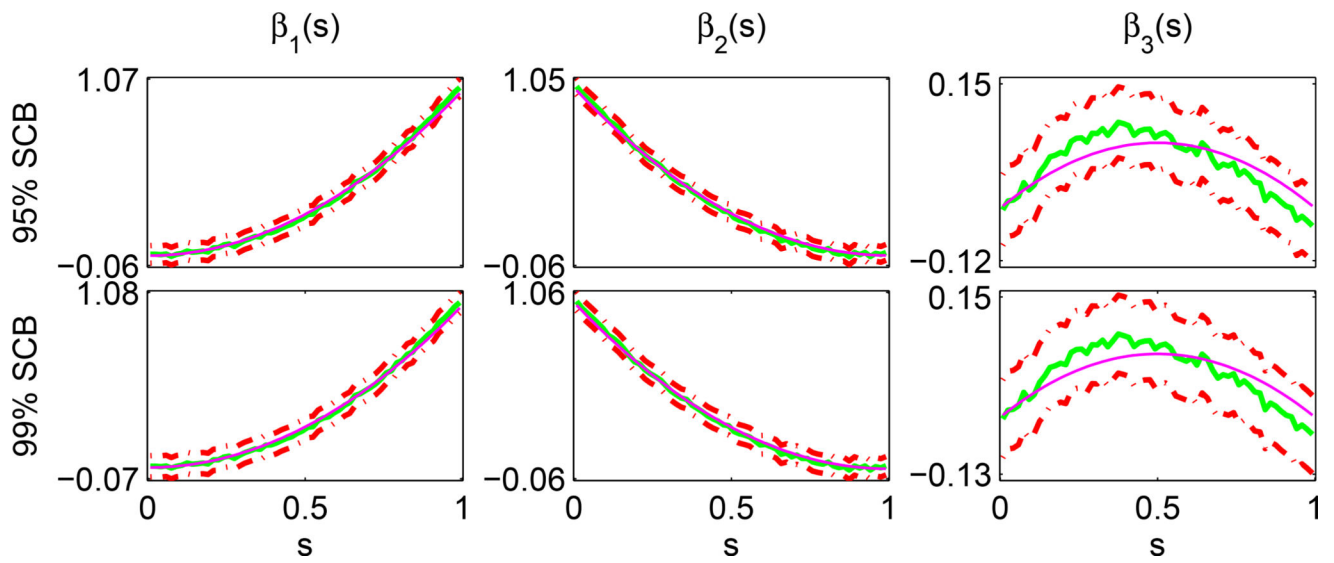


Figure 4.6. Simulation 4: Typical 95% (the first row) and 99% (the second row) simultaneous confidence bands for functional coefficients $\{\beta_l(s)\}_{l=1}^3$. The magenta, green solid, and red dash-dotted curves are, respectively, the true curves, the estimated functional coefficients and their corresponding 95% and 99% confidence bands.

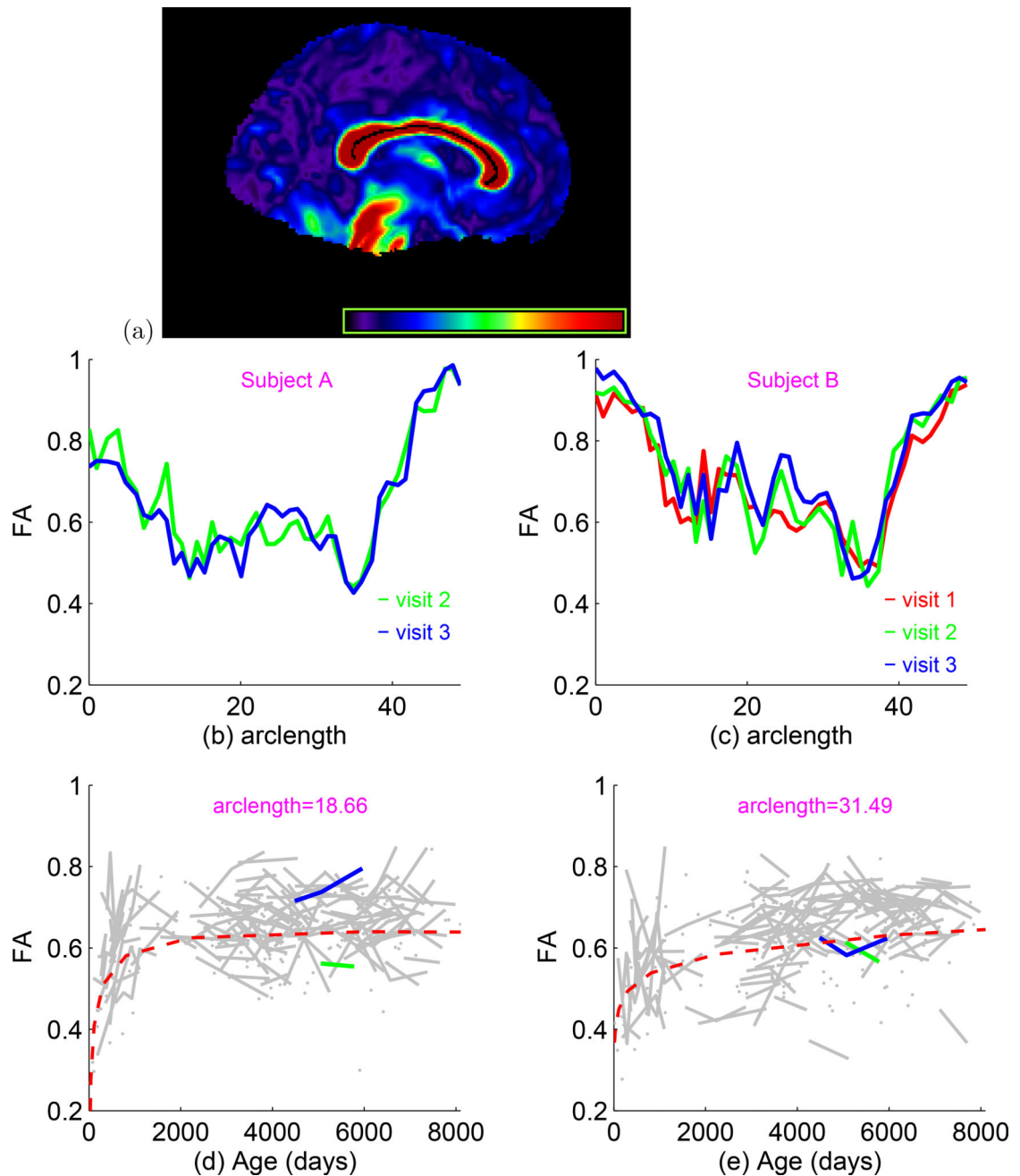


Figure 4.7.

Data analysis: (a) 3D visualization of the corpus callosum in the sagittal view, with the FA skeleton template overlaid on it. (b) and (c) FA's along the corpus callosum obtained from 2 selected subjects A (b) and B (c) with 2 or 3 visits. Different visits for the same subjects are indicated by color. (d) and (e) FA values varying over age at selected locations: arclength=18.66 (d) and arclength=31.49 (e) along the corpus callosum for all 253 subjects, with green and blue lines corresponding to subjects A and B, respectively. Red dashed lines represent the fitted lines for the male group.

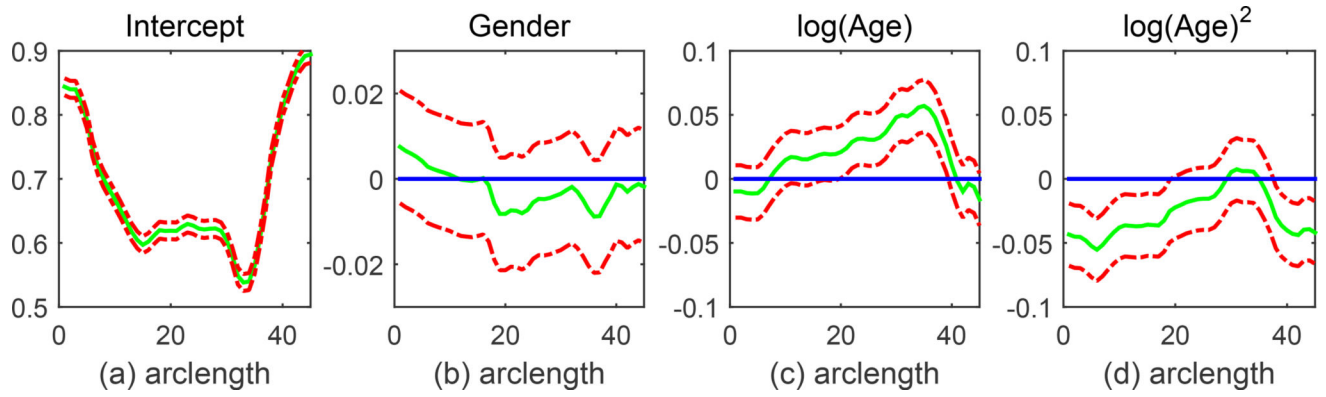


Figure 4.8.

95% simultaneous confidence bands for coefficient functions. The solid curves are the estimated coefficient functions and the dashed curves are the 95% simultaneous confidence bands. The thin horizontal line is the line crossing the origin (0, 0).

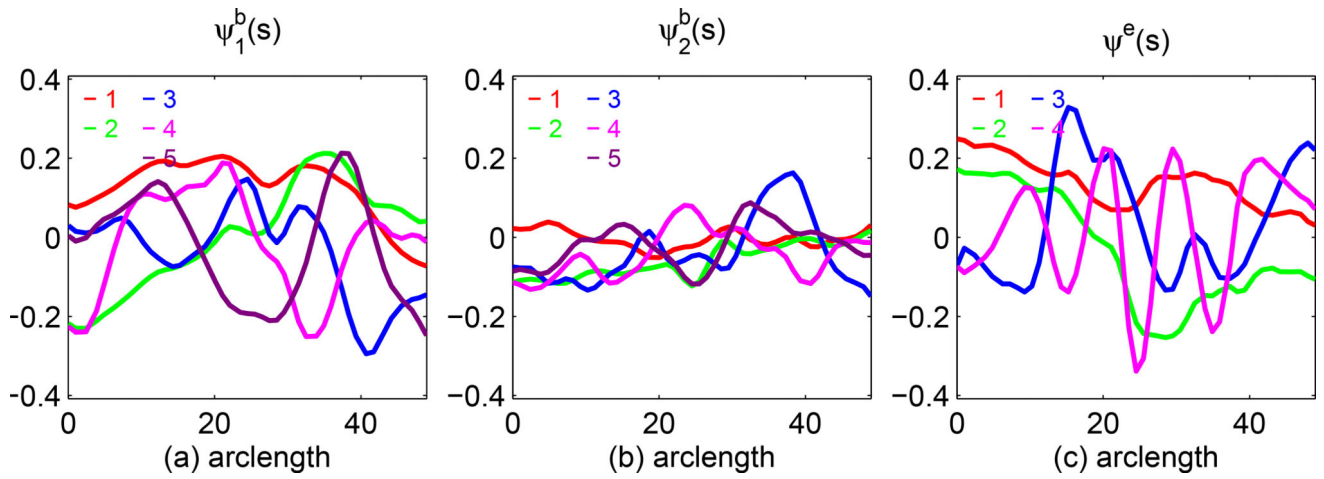


Figure 4.9.

(a) (b) The first five estimated eigenfunctions $\psi_{l,k}^b(s)$, $l = 1, 2$ for the random intercept and slope processes. $\psi_{1,k}^b(s)$ and $\psi_{2,k}^b(s)$ correspond to the random functional intercept and random functional slope, respectively. (c) The first four estimated eigenfunctions $\psi_k^e(s)$ for the visit specific deviation process.

Table 1

Simulation 1. MIAE $\times 10^{-2}$ and MISE $\times 10^{-2}$ and their standard deviations $\times 10^{-2}$ are reported. MIAE denotes the mean integrated absolute error and MISE denotes the mean integrated square error. Standard deviations are in the parentheses. For each case, 100 simulated data sets were used.

Method	M	MIAE $\times 10^{-2}$			MISE $\times 10^{-2}$		
		$\beta_1(\cdot)$	$\beta_2(\cdot)$	$\beta_3(\cdot)$	$\beta_1(\cdot)$	$\beta_2(\cdot)$	$\beta_3(\cdot)$
WFMM	40	1.63 (0.73)	1.67 (0.77)	1.88 (0.78)	0.04 (0.04)	0.05 (0.04)	0.06 (0.04)
	60	1.37 (0.61)	1.39 (0.63)	1.55 (0.64)	0.03 (0.03)	0.03 (0.03)	0.04 (0.03)
FAMM	40	3.36 (2.11)	2.84 (1.88)	4.26 (3.27)	0.23 (0.56)	0.16 (0.35)	0.38 (0.77)
	60	3.03 (1.93)	2.51 (1.58)	3.95 (3.29)	0.18 (0.36)	0.13 (0.21)	0.34 (0.95)
FMEM	40	1.57 (0.72)	1.44 (0.65)	1.69 (0.70)	0.04 (0.03)	0.03 (0.03)	0.05 (0.03)
	60	1.29 (0.60)	1.23 (0.55)	1.37 (0.53)	0.03 (0.03)	0.03 (0.01)	0.03 (0.03)

Simulation 4: Coverage probabilities of estimated coefficient functions based on 1,000 replications at simultaneous confidence levels 0.95 and 0.99. For each case, 1,000 simulated data sets were used.

Table 2

Method	M	95%			99%		
		β_1	β_2	β_3	β_1	β_2	β_3
WFMM	40	0.787	0.807	0.710	0.913	0.900	0.872
	60	0.784	0.767	0.719	0.897	0.895	0.875
FAMM (Bonferroni)	40	0.991	1.000	0.993	0.996	1.000	0.996
	60	0.996	0.998	0.994	0.999	0.998	0.991
FMEM	40	0.945	0.948	0.924	0.989	0.992	0.992
	60	0.933	0.920	0.938	0.984	0.985	0.987

Table 3

Autism spectrum disorder data analysis: demographic information for participants.

Visit	Number of subjects	Age: mean(std) (years)	Age: range (years)
1	58	10.53 (5.96)	[0, 18]
2	148	12.25 (4.62)	[0, 21]
3	160	12.29 (5.14)	[1, 22]
4	19	1.84 (1.42)	[1, 6]
5	7	1.57 (0.79)	[1, 3]
6	10	2.70 (0.67)	[2, 4]
7	6	3.17 (0.75)	[2, 4]
8	5	3.40 (1.14)	[2, 5]
9	3	3.67 (1.15)	[3, 5]
Gender	Male/Female	126/127	

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Autism spectrum disorder data analysis: Estimated eigenvalues and the percentage of the total variability explained by different components in the functional mixed effects model.

Table 4

k	$\lambda_k^b (\times 10^{-2})$	$\psi_{1,k}^b (\%)$	$\psi_{2,k}^b (\%)$	$\lambda_k^e (\times 10^{-2})$	$\psi_k^e (\%)$	$\sigma^2 (\%)$
1	7.96	31.41	0.71	4.51	18.22	5.35
2	3.08	9.34	3.08	1.31	5.28	
3	1.44	3.52	2.28	0.56	2.26	
4	1.15	3.53	1.09	0.43	1.72	
5	0.74	2.54	0.43	0.36	1.45	
6	0.59	1.45	0.93	0.34	1.38	
7	0.32	1.06	0.23	0.25	1.03	
8	0.22	0.74	0.15	0.21	0.85	
		53.57	8.90		32.18	5.35