Praktikum z ekonometrie

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1 The nature of missing data

- 2 Traditional treatment of missing data
- 3 Modern Approaches to missing data
 - Multiple imputation for CS data
 - Imputation for TS data



Missing completely at random (MCAR)

- The probability that an observation X_i is missing is unrelated to the value of X_i or to the value of any other variables.
- Any piece of data is equally likely to be missing.
- Analyses based on data with *MCAR* observations remain unbiased. We may lose power (increased standard errors), but the estimated parameters are not biased by the absence of data.

Missing at random (MAR)

- Data meets the requirement that missingness does not depend on the value of X_i after controlling for another variable in our analysis.
- For example, data are MCAR in a specific (demographic) subgroup.

Missing Not at Random (MNAR)

- Missigness of X_i depends on its value (e.g. income in surveys)
- The only way to obtain an unbiased estimates of (regression) parameters is to model the missingness.

Listwise deletion (complete cases analysis)

• We omit all rows with missing data – missing information for at least one variable in the *i*-th individual observation. Then, we run our analyses on the observations that remain. This often results in a substantial decrease in sample size. Under the assumption that data are missing completely at random, LRMs lead to unbiased parameter estimates – still, we lose power due to exclusion of (potentially large number of) observations.

R code newData <- data[complete.cases(data)==T,] # data is a data.frame # or newData <- na.omit(data)</pre>

Hot deck imputation

• Historically used by the US Census Bureau (since 1950's). Respondent's missing data were replaced by observed replacement data – drawn at random from a group of similar participants. Suitable, given only a few missing observations need to be replaced and given the draw is random.

Mean substitution

- ✓ Simple
- ✗ In simple linear regression models (SLRMs), this adds no new information but increases sample size − that leads to underestimated standard errors only.

Example: Data on salary and citation level of publications. 62 cases with complete data and 7 cases for which the citation index was missing. Correlations and regression coefficients were compared as follows:

| Analysis | n | corr | \widehat{eta}_1 | $s.e.(\widehat{eta}_1)$ |
|---|---|--------------|----------------------|-------------------------|
| Complete cases only With mean substitution | $\begin{array}{c} 62 \\ 69 \end{array}$ | $.55 \\ .54$ | $310.747 \\ 310.747$ | $60.95 \\ 59.12$ |

Mean substitution, contnd.

- Mean imputation can be usefull for multiple linear regression models, especially when data are missing as MCAR.
- It is fast, simple, easy to implement, and no cases are excluded.
- Even under MCAR, this method still leads to underestimation of coefficient variance.
- Bias in variance estimation is proportional to (nobs 1)/(nobs + nmis 1).

Smaller standard errors increase the possibility of Type I error (rejecting true null hypothesis).

Regression substitution

- Uses linear regression (auxiliary LRM) to predict what the missing values of regressors should be on the basis of other variables that are present.
- May be useful for MLRMs.
- For SLRMs, this approach would be equivalent to mean substitution. We do not add more information but we increase the sample size and (spuriously) reduce standard errors.

Stochastic regression substitution

• Build on regression substitution: this approach adds a randomly sampled residual term from the normal (or other) distribution to each value estimated by regression substitution. Adding a bit of random error to each substitution reduces, but does not eliminate, the problem of spurious reduction of the standard errors.

Maximum Likelihood Expectation-Maximization

• Maximum likelihood approach – alternative to OLS – for the estimation of missing values.

Many approaches exist (e.g. the Expectation-Maximization algorithm) https://www.uvm.edu/~dhowell/StatPages/Missing_Data/Missing-Part-Two.html

Predictive mean matching (PMM)

• Discussed next, within the Multiple imputation section

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Multiple Imputation (MI)
R: {mice}, {mi}, {Amelia}, ...
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MI motivation and algorithm

- Use PMM to create several (say, 5) imputed values for each missing item regressor x_{ij} .
- Each version of imputed data is organized into a separate data set and used for estimation (OLS, ML or other adequate approach).
- Information obtained from all estimates is conveniently summarized.

Multiple imputation scheme (example with m = 3 imputations):

• The first step - mice() function - involves PMM.



Multiple imputation - 7 choices to be made

- Decide on MAR assumption plausibility (MAR/MNAR).
- 2 Imputation model choice (univariate, multivariate, data type).
- Choice of predictors for MI.
- Should we impute variables that are functions of incomplete variables (e.g. interaction terms)?
- If data is missing in more than one variable, ordering for imputation can affect results.
- MI is based on a numerical algorithm (say, PMM): we need to choose starting setup ("proximity" conditions and possibly other hyper-parameters, say number of iterations).
- O We need to choose m the number of imputed datasets.

In R ({mice}), most of the choices have generally valid default setting. However, the choices are made & affect the resulting imputations. Predictive mean matching (pmm) in R – general description

- Implemented in {mice} and other packages.
- General purpose semi-parametric imputation method.
- Suitable especially for imputing quantitative variables that are not normally distributed.
- Imputations are restricted to previously observed values.
- Can preserve non-linear relations even if the structural part of the imputation model is wrong.

Predictive mean matching (pmm) in R - algorithm

Suppose there is a single variable x that has some cases with missing data, and a set of relevant variables z with no missing data:

$$\{x_i, z_{i1}, \dots, z_{iL}\}; i = 1, \dots, n$$

- 1 For cases with no missing x_i data, estimate LRM $x_i \leftarrow z_i$, producing $\hat{\beta}$ and var $(\hat{\beta})$ estimates.
- 2 Make a random draw from the "posterior predictive distribution" of $\hat{\beta}$, producing a new set of coefficients $\hat{\beta}^*$.
 - Random draw from a multivariate normal distribution with mean β̂ and cov. matrix var(β̂).
 Other distributions can be used, upon data and model used.
 - This step is necessary to produce sufficient variability in the imputed values, and is common to all "proper" methods of MI.

Predictive mean matching (pmm) in R - algorithm control.

- 3 Using $(\mathbf{z}_i \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^*)$, generate predicted values \hat{x}_i for all cases, both with data missing on x_i and with data observations present.
- 4 For each case with missing x_i , use the fitted \hat{x}_i and search for a set of similar "closely matching" \hat{x}_{ℓ} predictions (here, ℓ is a row index, different from i; we are only interested in ℓ cases where x_{ℓ} is observed).
 - Similarity ("closeness"), rules are defined separately.
- 5 For each missing x_i , randomly choose one x_{ℓ} (observation) from the set of "close" observations and use its observed value to substitute for the missing value (x_{ℓ} observation is imputed, NOT the \hat{x}_{ℓ} value).
- $6\,$ For MI, repeat steps 2 through 5 m-times to produce m imputed datasets.

Predictive mean matching (pmm) in R - recap.

- Compared with regression-based methods, PMM produces imputed values that are much more like real values.
 - If the original variable is skewed, imputed values will also be skewed.
 - If the original variable is bounded by 0 and 100, imputed values will also be bounded by 0 and 100.
 - If the real values are discrete (say, number of children), imputed values will also be discrete.
- Generally speaking, there's no mathematical proof/theory to "justify" PMM (efficiency).
- PMM efficiency can be demonstrated by Monte Carlo simulations.

Multiple Imputation (empirical output example)

Regression coefficients from five imputed data sets

| Data | Estimated | b_{θ} | b_1 | b_2 | b_3 | b₄ | b_5 |
|------|----------------------------|--------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| set | parameter | | | | | | |
| 1 | Coefficient | -11.535 | -2.780 | 1.029 | 031 | -0.359 | 0.572 |
| | Variance | 43.204 | 3.323 | 0.013 | 0.013 | 0.013 | 0.012 |
| 2 | Coefficient | -11.501 | -4.149 | 1.040 | -0.093 | -0.583 | 0.876 |
| | Variance | 40.488 | 2.680 | 0.010 | 0.009 | 0.009 | 0.007 |
| 3 | Coefficient | -10.141 | -5.038 | 0.766 | 0.123 | -0.252 | 0.625 |
| | Variance. | 42.055 | 3.301 | 0.010 | 0.010 | 0.010 | 0.009 |
| 4 | Coefficient | -11.533 | -6.920 | 0.870 | 0.084 | -0.458 | 0.815 |
| | Variance | 28.751 | 1.796 | 0.081 | 0.007 | 0.007 | 0.007 |
| 5 | Coefficient | -14.586 | -1.115 | 0.718 | 0.050 | -0.373 | 0.814 |
| | Variance | 32.856 | 2.362 | 0.009 | 0.009 | 0.009 | 0.008 |
| | Mean b _i | -11.859 | -4.000 | 0.885 | 0.027 | -0.405 | 0.740 |
| | Mean Var. (\overline{W}) | 37.471 | 2.692 | 0.025 | 0.010 | 0.010 | 0.009 |
| | Var. of b_i (B) | 2.682 | 4.859 | 0.022 | 0.008 | 0.015 | 0.018 |
| | Т | | | | | | |
| | \sqrt{T} | 40.69 | 8.523 | 0.051 | 0.020 | 0.028 | 0.031 |
| | NI . | 6.379 | 2.919 | 0.226 | 0.141 | 0.167 | 0.176 |
| | I | -1859 | -1 370 | 3 916* | 0.191 | 2 425* | 4 204* |

* p < .05 "Var." refers to the squared standard error of the coefficient.

https://www.uvm.edu/~dhowell/StatPages/Missing_Data/Missing-Part-Two.html

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- Univariate TS imputation
 - R packages imputeTS, zoo, etc.
 - $\bullet\,$ LOCF, linear & spline interpolation, Kalman filter, \ldots
- Multivariate TS imputation
 - R package Amelia
 - Use time trend (and polynomes), leads, lags, priors, ...

Special considerations apply to missing dependent variable data

- If we can assume that data are missing completely at random (MCAR), we will lose power because of smaller sample sizes, but we will not have problems with biased estimates.
- If data are missing not at random (MNAR), the only way to obtain an unbiased estimate of parameters is to model missingness. In other words, we need to use a model that accounts for the missing data.
- Broadly speaking, such models are:
 - Censored Regression Models (e.g. duration analysis)
 - Truncated Regression Models
 - Sample Selection Correction models (Heckit)

• ...