#### Praktikum z ekonometrie

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### Block 1 – Missing data – Outline

- 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
- 4 Missing dependent variable data

### The nature of missing 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.
- ullet 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	$\widehat{eta}_1$	$s.e.(\widehat{\beta}_1)$
Complete cases only With mean substitution	62	.55	310.747	60.95
	69	.54	310.747	59.12

#### Mean substitution, contnd.

- Mean imputation can be useful for multiple linear regression models, especially when data are missing as MCAR.
- It is fast, simple, easy to implement, and no cases are excluded.
- But even under MCAR, this method still leads to underestimation of the population variance.
- Bias in variance estimation is proportional to (nobs-1)/(nobs+nmis-1). Smaller standard errors increase the possibility of Type I errors.

### More advanced treatment of missing data

#### 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 the standard error.

#### Stochastic 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.

### More advanced treatment of missing data

#### Maximum Likelihood Expectation-Maximization

• Computationally complex, maximum likelihood approach to 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

# Multiple imputation for CS data

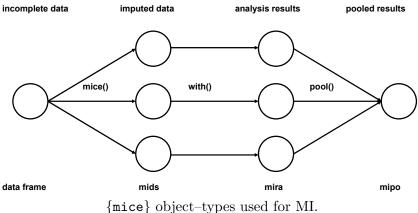
#### Multiple Imputation (MI)

R:  $\{mice\}$ ,  $\{mi\}$ ,  $\{Amelia\}$ , ...

MI motivation and algorithm

- Create several (say, 5) imputed values (versions) for each missing item regressor  $x_{ij}$ .
- Each of the (5) versions of imputed data is used for estimation (using OLS, ML or other adequate approach)
- Information obtained from all (e.g. 5) estimates is conveniently summarized.

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



#### Multiple imputation - 7 choices to be made

- Decide on MAR assumption plausibility (MAR/MNAR).
- ② Imputation model choice (univariate, multivariate, data type).
- 3 Choice of predictors for MI.
- Should we impute variables that are functions of incomplete variables (e.g. interaction terms)?
- Ordering variables for imputation can affect results.
- MI is based on a numerical algorithm (say, pmm): we need to choose starting setup and control the number of iterations.
- lacktriangle We need to choose m the number of imputed datasets.

In R ({mice}), most of the choices have generally valid default setting. However – all the choices are always made in MI and they 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:

$$\{x_i, z_i\}; i = 1, \dots, n$$

- 1 For cases with no missing data, estimate LRM  $x_i \leftarrow z_i$ , producing  $\hat{\beta}$  and  $\text{var}(\hat{\beta})$  estimates.
- 2 Make a random draw from the "posterior predictive distribution" of  $\hat{\beta}$ , producing a new set of coefficients  $\hat{\beta}^*$ .
  - Typically, this would be a random draw from a multivariate normal distribution with mean  $\hat{\beta}$  and cov. matrix  $var(\hat{\beta})$ .
  - 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  $(z_i\hat{\beta}^*)$ , 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  $x_i$ , identify a set of cases with observed  $x_j$  values whose **predicted**  $\hat{x}_j$  values are "close" to the predicted  $\hat{x}_i$  values (missing data cases).
  - For "close" values, proximity rules are defined separately.
- 5 From among the close cases for each missing  $x_i$ , randomly choose one  $x_j$  and use its observed value to substitute for the missing value.
- 6 In MI algorithm, 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.
- pmm efficiency can be demonstrated by Monte Carlo simulations.

#### Multiple Imputation (empirical output example)

#### Regression coefficients from five imputed data sets

Data set	Estimated parameter	$b_{\theta}$	$b_1$	$\boldsymbol{b}_2$	$\boldsymbol{b}_{\beta}$	$b_4$	$\boldsymbol{b}_5$
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 bi	-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
	T						
	$\sqrt{T}$	40.69	8.523	0.051	0.020	0.028	0.031
	, -	6.379	2.919	0.226	0.141	0.167	0.176
	t	-1.859	-1.370	3.916*	0.191	2.425*	4.204*

<sup>\*</sup> p < .05 "Var." refers to the squared standard error of the coefficient.

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

### Imputation for TS data

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

### Missing dependent variable data

# 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)
  - ...