

Learning with missing values: from estimation to prediction

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Collaborators

- Alexis Ayme, Post-doc ENS Ulm, Paris. Linear models, Optim.
- Claire Boyer, Professor Paris-Saclay. Signal, Optim.
- Aymeric Dieuleveut, Professor at IPP, Paris. Optim.
- Julie Josse, Senior researcher, INRIA, Montpellier. Causality
- Marine Le Morvan, Junior researcher, INRIA, Paris. Supervised learning
- Christophe Muller, PhD student, Oxford
- Jeffrey Naf, Assist. Professor, GSEM, Geneva. Distributional Prediction
- Angel Reyero Lobo, PhD Student, INRIA, Toulouse. Variable Importance
- Gael Varoquaux, Senior researcher, INRIA, Paris. ML, Scikit-learn



Thanks for the slides too!

Traumabase: an observational French registry²

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- ▷ 40000 trauma patients
- ▷ 300 heterogeneous features from pre-hospital and in-hospital settings
- ▷ 40 trauma centers, 4000 new patients per year

Center	Accident	Age	Sex	Lactate	Blood Pres.	Shock	Platelet	...
Beaujon	fall	54	m	NM	180	yes	292000	.
Pitie	gun	26	m	NA	131	no	323000	.
Beaujon	moto	63	m	3.9	NR	yes	318000	.
Pitie	moto	30	w	Imp	107	no	211000	.
⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮

⇒ **Explain and Predict** hemorrhagic shock, need for neurosurgery and need for a trauma center given pre-hospital features.

Ex: logistic regression / random forests + **Quantify uncertainty**¹

¹Zaffran, J., Dieuleveut, Romano. Conformal Prediction with Missing Values. *ICML 2023*.

²www.traumabase.eu - <https://www.traumatrix.fr/>

Missing values are everywhere: unanswered questions in a survey, lost data, damaged plants, machines that fail...



"The best thing to do with missing values is not to have any"

Gertrude Mary Cox (1900-1978)

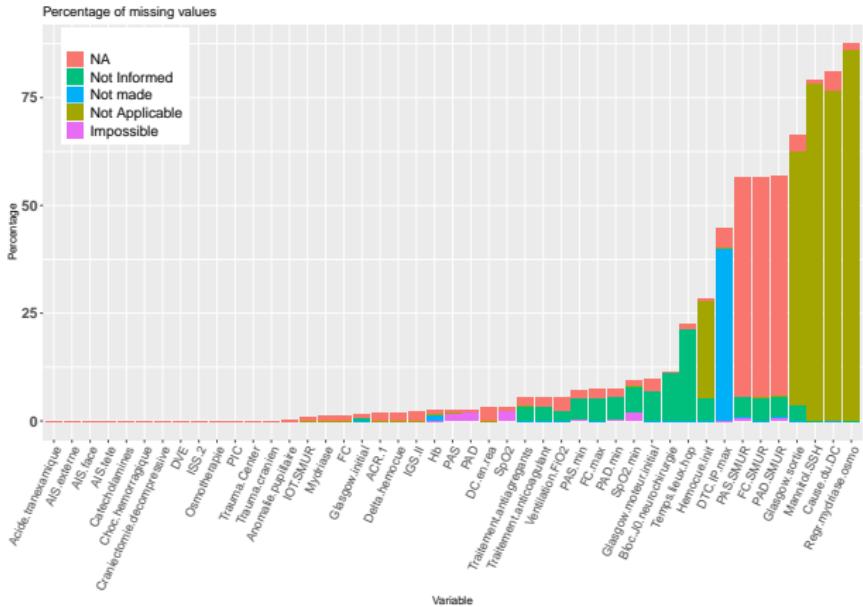
⇒ Still an issue in the "big data" area (data from different sources)

³Little & Rubin (2019). Statistical Analysis with Missing Data, Third Edition, Wiley.

⁴Van Buuren (2018). Flexible Imputation of Data. Second Edition, Chapman & Hall.

⁵Schafer (1997). Analysis of Incomplete Multivariate Data, Chapman & Hall.

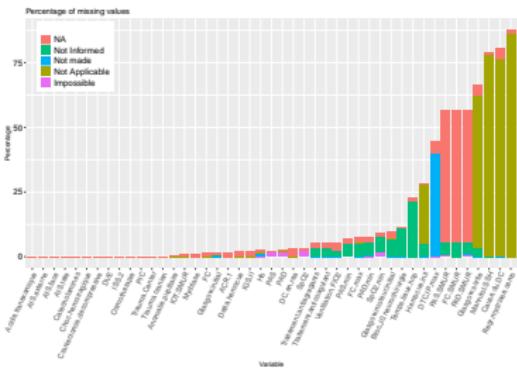
Missing data: important bottleneck in statistical practice



Different types of missing values

- ▷ Not informed: not recorded
- ▷ Not made: possibly due to patient status
- ▷ Not applicable: not supposed to be measured
- ▷ Impossible
- ▷ NA: unknown

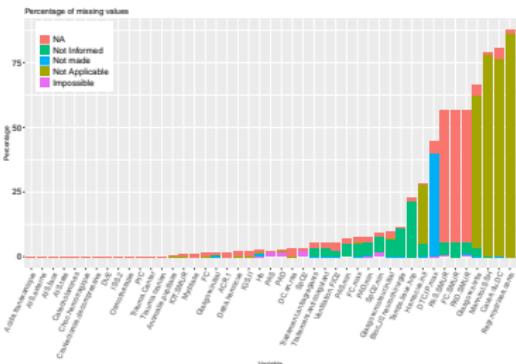
Missing data: important bottleneck in statistical practice



"One of the ironies of Big Data is that missing data play an ever more significant role"⁶

⁶Zhu, Wang, Samworth. High-dimensional PCA with heterogeneous missingness. *JRSSB*. 2022.

Missing data: important bottleneck in statistical practice



"One of the ironies of Big Data is that missing data play an ever more significant role"⁶

Complete case analysis: delete incomplete samples

- **Bias:** Resulting sample not representative of the target population
- **Information loss:** Take a matrix with d features where each entry is missing with probability 1/100, remove a row (of length d) when one entry is missing

$$\begin{aligned} d = 5 &\implies \approx 95\% \text{ of rows kept} \\ d = 300 &\implies \approx 5\% \text{ of rows kept} \end{aligned}$$

⁶Zhu, Wang, Samworth. High-dimensional PCA with heterogeneous missingness. *JRSSB*. 2022.

Linear model

$$Y = X^T \beta^* + \text{noise}$$

- ▷ $Y \in \mathbb{R}$ (regression) outcome is always observed
- ▷ $X \in \mathbb{R}^d$ contains missing values!

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Three different tasks: imputation, estimation, prediction.

1. **Imputation** - Replace missing values to obtain a complete data set, on which any classical analysis can be performed.
2. **Estimation** - Provide an estimate of β^* - allows predicting outputs of complete data.

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1. **Imputation** - Replace missing values to obtain a complete data set, on which any classical analysis can be performed.
2. **Estimation** - Provide an estimate of β^* - allows predicting outputs of complete data.
3. **Prediction** - Predict Y for a new X with missing entries

Warning: A good estimate of β^* does not lead to a prediction of Y

$$X = (\text{na}, 5, \text{na}, -6) \quad X^T \beta^* = ??$$

Solutions to handle missing values in the covariates

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Abundant literature: Creation of **Rmistaic platform**⁷ (**> 150 packages**)

- ▷ **Imputation:** (Single/Multiple) imputation to get a/several complete data set(s). Ex: (M)ICE
- ▷ **Estimation:** Modify the estimation process to deal with missing values
 - Maximum likelihood inference: Expectation Maximization algorithms⁸
- ▷ **Prediction:** Predict an outcome with missing data in covariates⁹¹⁰.
Solutions: using deterministic (e.g. constant) imputation or Missing Incorporated in Attributes for trees based methods (**grf package**)

⁷Mayer, J. et al. A unified platform for missing values methods and workflows. *R journal*. 2022.

⁸Jiang, J. et al. Logistic Regression with Missing Covariates *CSDA*. 2019. - **misaem package**

⁹J. et al. Consistency of supervised learning with missing values. *Stats papers*. 2018-2024.

¹⁰Le morvan, J. et al. What's a good imputation to predict with missing values? *Neurips2021*.

1. Missing values mechanism
2. Single Imputation
3. Multiple Imputation
4. Imputation quality
5. Supervised Learning with Missing values
 - Decision trees as PbP predictors
 - Impute-then-regress procedures with consistent predictors
6. Linear models
 - Linear regression: A pattern-by-pattern approach
 - Linear regression: Impute-then-regress procedures via zero-imputation
 - Classification with missing values
7. Conclusion

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Missing values mechanism: Rubin's taxonomy^{11, 12}

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- Random Variables:

- ▷ $X^* \in \mathbb{R}^d$: complete unavailable data, $X \in \mathbb{R}^d$: observed data with NA
- ▷ $M \in \{0, 1\}^d$: missing pattern, or mask, $M_j = 1$ if and only if X_j is missing

- Realizations: For a pattern m , $o(x, m) = (x_j)_{j \in \{1, \dots, d\}: m_j=0}$ the observed elements of x and while $o^c(x, m) = (x_j)_{j \in \{1, \dots, d\}: m_j=1}$, the missing elements.

$$x^* = (1, 2, 3, 8, 5)$$

$$x = (1, \text{NA}, 3, 8, \text{NA})$$

$$m = (0, 1, 0, 0, 1)$$

$$o(x, m) = (1, 3, 8), \quad o^c(x^*, m) = (2, 5)$$

¹¹Rubin. Inference and missing data. *Biometrika*. 1976.

¹²What Is Meant by "Missing at Random"? Seaman, et al. *Statistical Science*. 2013.

Missing values mechanism: Rubin's taxonomy^{11, 12}

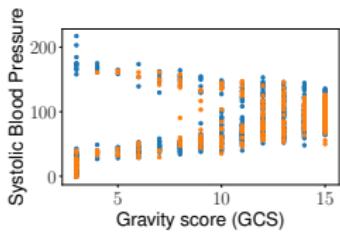
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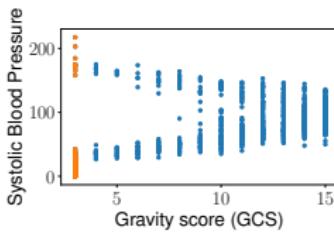
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Ex: Simulated missing values according to the 3 mechanisms (Orange points will be missing) in Systolic Blood Pressure - GCS is always observed



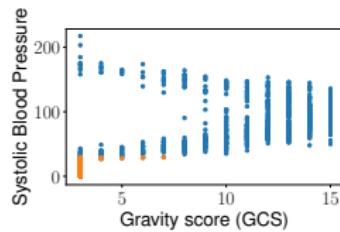
**Missing Completely at Random
(MCAR)**

$$m \in \mathcal{M}, x \in \mathcal{X},$$
$$\mathbb{P}(M = m|x) = \mathbb{P}(M = m)$$



**Missing at Random
(MAR)**

$$\forall m \in \mathcal{M}, x \in \mathcal{X}$$
$$\mathbb{P}(M = m|x)$$
$$= \mathbb{P}(M = m|o(x, m))$$



**Missing Not At Random
(MNAR)**

If not MAR: it is MNAR

¹¹Rubin. Inference and missing data. *Biometrika*. 1976.

¹²What Is Meant by "Missing at Random"? Seaman, et al. *Statistical Science*. 2013.

Two views to model the joint distribution of (X, M)

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- ▷ Selection Model¹³: $p^*(M = m, x) = \mathbb{P}(M = m | x)p^*(x)$

Definition: SM-MAR

$$\mathbb{P}(M = m | x) = \mathbb{P}(M = m | o(x, m)) \text{ for all } m \in \mathcal{M}, x \in \mathcal{X}.$$

The proba. of any m occurring only depends on the obs part of x .

- ▷ Pattern Mixture Model¹⁴: $p^*(M = m, x) = p^*(x | M = m)\mathbb{P}(M = m)$

Definition: PMM-MAR

$$p^*(o^c(x, m) | o(x, m), M = m) = \mathbf{p}^*(o^c(x, m) | o(x, m)).$$

for all $m \in \mathcal{M}, x \in \mathcal{X}$. The conditional distrib. of missing given obs. in pattern m is equal to the unconditional one.^a

^aMolenberghs et al. Every MNAR model has a MAR counterpart with equal fit. *JRSSB*. 2008

- Proposition: SM-MAR is equivalent to PMM-MAR

¹³Heckman. Sample selection bias as a specification error. *Econometrica*. 1979

¹⁴Little. Pattern-mixture models for multivariate incomplete data. *JASA*. 1993

Testing the missing values mechanism

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- ▷ Can we observe the missing value mechanism from the sample?

Unfortunately, the general answer is **no**

¹⁵ Little. *A Test of Missing Completely at Random for Multivariate Data with Missing Values.* 1988

¹⁶ Michel, Naf, Spohn, Meinshausen. PKLM: a flexible MCAR test using classification, *Psychometrika*. 2025

¹⁷ Berrett, Samworth. *Optimal nonparametric testing of missing completely at random and its connections to compatibility*, AoS. 2023

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MCAR vs MAR in Gaussian setting

- ▷ If we assume MAR is true we can test H_0 : MCAR vs H_A : MAR.
- ▷ A classical test is the Little test¹⁵ that operates under the assumption of Gaussianity.

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Nonparametric tests

- ▷ One of the very few (if not only) useable nonparametric test is our PKLM Test¹⁶
- ▷ There is also interesting theoretical work¹⁷

¹⁵ Little. *A Test of Missing Completely at Random for Multivariate Data with Missing Values*. 1988

¹⁶ Michel, Naf, Spohn, Meinshausen. PKLM: a flexible MCAR test using classification, *Psychometrika*. 2025

¹⁷ Berrett, Samworth. *Optimal nonparametric testing of missing completely at random and its connections to compatibility*, AoS. 2023

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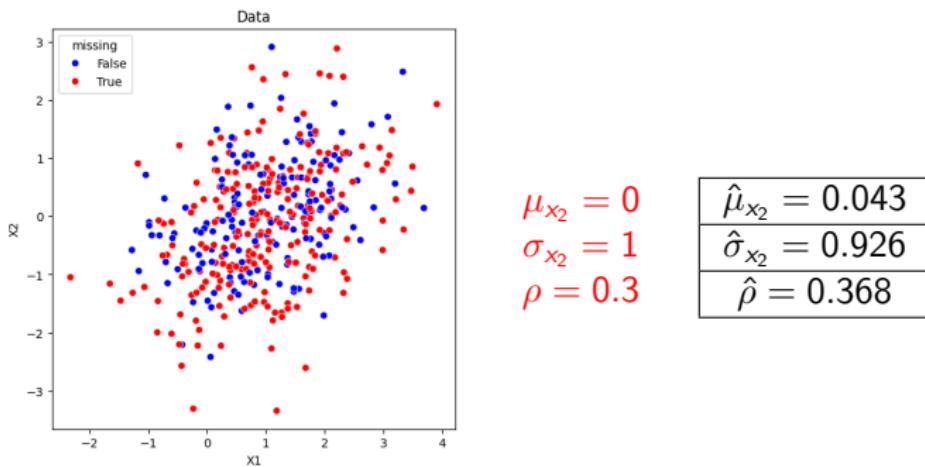
Classification with missing values

7. Conclusion

Generative setting

- ▷ $(X_1, X_2) \sim \mathcal{N}((\mu_{x_1}, \mu_{x_2}), \Sigma); n = 400$
- ▷ $(\mu_{x_1}, \mu_{x_2}) = (1, 0)$ and $\Sigma = ((1, 0.3), (0.3, 1))$
- ▷ MCAR missing values on X_2 only with probability $p = 0.6$.

Discard incomplete observations and then estimate parameters

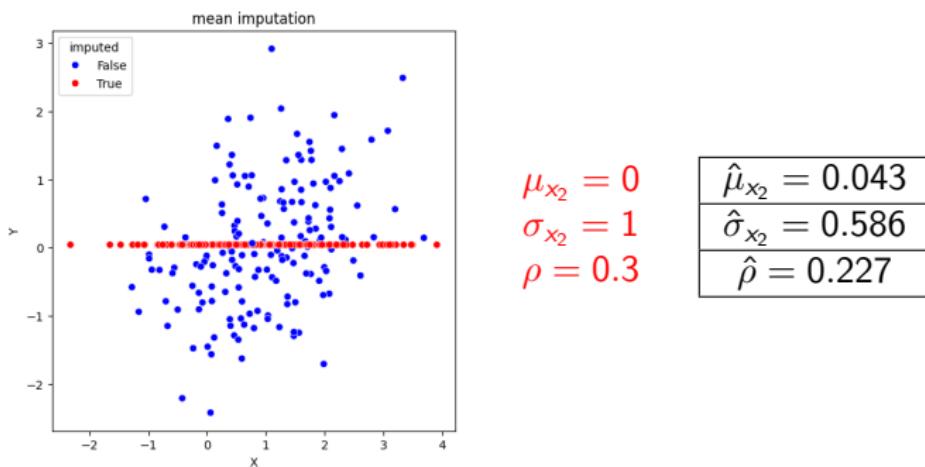


¹⁸The code to reproduce the plots is available in [Rmיסטатик](#)

Generative setting

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Impute by the mean and then estimate parameters



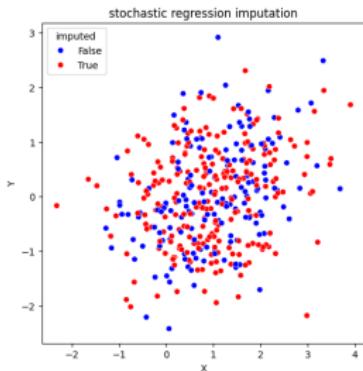
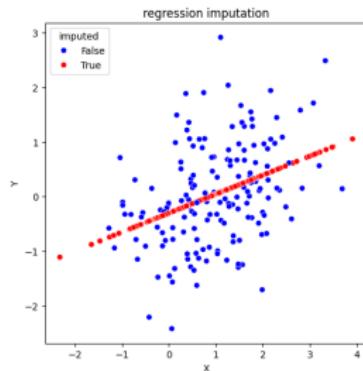
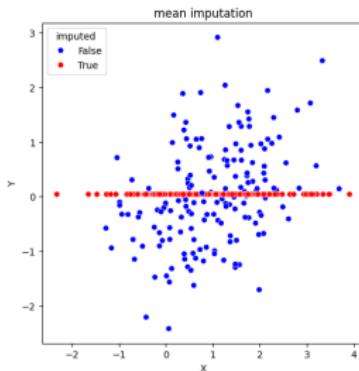
Mean imputation deforms joint and marginal distributions

Objective: to impute while preserving distribution

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Assuming a bivariate gaussian distribution $x_{i2} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \varepsilon_i$, $\varepsilon_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$

- ▷ Regression imputation: Estimate β (here with complete data) and impute $\hat{x}_{i2} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_{i1} \Rightarrow$ variance underestimated and correlation overestimated
- ▷ Stochastic reg. imputation: Estimate β and σ - impute from the predictive $\hat{x}_{i2} \sim \mathcal{N}(\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 x_{i1}, \hat{\sigma}^2) \Rightarrow$ preserve distributions



$$\begin{aligned}\mu_{x_2} &= 0 \\ \sigma_{x_2} &= 1 \\ \rho &= 0.3\end{aligned}$$

0.043
0.926
0.368

0.038
0.647
0.539

0.037
0.909
0.275

Impute while preserving distribution. Multivariate case^{17 / 99}

- ▷ Assuming a joint distribution
 - ◊ Gaussian model $x_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$
 - ◊ Low rank : $X_{n \times d} = \mu_{n \times d} + \varepsilon$ $\varepsilon_{ij} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ with μ of low rank
 - ⇒ Different regularization depending on noise regime¹⁸
 - ⇒ Count data¹⁹, ordinal data, categorical data, blocks/multilevel data
 - ◊ Optimal transport²⁰, deep generative models: GAIN²¹, MIWAE²², etc.²³
²⁴
- ▷ Iterating conditional models (joint distribution implicitly defined)
 - ◊ with parametric regression (M)ICE: (Multiple) Imput. by Chained Equations²⁵
 - ◊ iterative imputation of each variable by random forests²⁶

¹⁸J. & Wager. Stable autoencoding for regularized low-rank matrix estimation. *JMLR*. 2016.

¹⁹Robin, Klopp, J., Moulines, Tibshirani. Main effects & interac. in mixed data. *JASA*. 2019.

²⁰Muzelec, Cuturi, Boyer, J. Missing Data Imputation using Optimal Transport. *ICML*. 2020.

²¹Yoon et al. GAIN: Missing data imputation using generative adversarial nets. *ICML*. 2018.

²²Mattei & Frellsen. Miwae: Deep generative model & imput. of inc. data. *ICML*. 2018.

²³Deng et al. Extended missing data imput. via gans. *DMKD*. 2022.

²⁴Fang, Bao. Fragmgan: gan for fragmentary data imputation. *STRF* 2023.

²⁵van Buuren, S. Flexible Imputation of Missing Data. Chapman & Hall/CRC Press. 2018.

²⁶Stekhoven, Bühlmann. MissForest—non-parametric imputation for mixed data. *Bioinfo*. 2012.

Imputation by Chained Equations (ICE)

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Init.

Age	Inc.	Gen.
34	NA	F
18	12	NA
NA	14	M
NA	NA	F

Imputation by Chained Equations (ICE)

18 / 99

Impute via mean/mode

Init.

Age	Inc.	Gen.
34	NA	F
18	12	NA
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Age	Inc.	Gen.
34	13	F
18	12	F
26	14	M
26	13	F

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Set values of Age
originally missing
as unknown

1st step
Age

Age	Inc.	Gen.
34	13	F
18	12	F
?	14	M
?	13	F

Imputation by Chained Equations (ICE)

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Set values of Age
originally missing
as unknown

Fit a predictive model on
complete observation
to predict Age

1st step
Age

Age	Inc.	Gen.
34	13	F
18	12	F
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18	12	F
26	14	M
26	13	F

Set values of Age
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Fit a predictive model on
complete observation
to predict Age

Use the fitted model
to impute ?

1st step
Age

Age	Inc.	Gen.
34	13	F
18	12	F
?	14	M
?	13	F

Age	Inc.	Gen.
34	13	F
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Age	Inc.	Gen.
34	13	F
18	12	F
50	14	M
34	13	F

Imputation by Chained Equations (ICE)

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34	NA	F
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Use the fitted model
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'Inc.'
step

Age	Inc.	Gen.
34	?	F
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Age	Inc.	Gen.
34	13	F
18	12	F
26	14	M
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Set values of Gen.
originally missing
as unknown

'Gen.'
step

Age	Inc.	Gen.
34	12	F
18	12	?
50	14	M
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Imputation by Chained Equations (ICE)

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Use the fitted model
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Imputation by Chained Equations (ICE)

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	Age	Inc.	Gen.		Age	Inc.	Gen.		Age	Inc.	Gen.
Init.	34	NA	F		34	13	F		34	13	F
	18	12	NA		18	12	F		18	12	F
	NA	14	M		26	14	M		50	14	M
	NA	NA	F		26	13	F		34	13	F
'Age' step	34	13	F		34	13	F		34	13	F
	18	12	F		18	12	F		18	12	F
	?	14	M		?	14	M		50	14	M
	?	13	F		?	13	F		34	13	F
'Inc.' step	34	?	F		34	?	F		34	12	F
	18	12	F		18	12	F		18	12	F
	50	14	M		50	14	M		50	14	M
	34	?	F		34	?	F		34	12	F
'Gen.' step	34	12	F		34	12	F		34	12	F
	18	12	?		18	12	?		18	12	?
	50	14	M		50	14	M		50	14	M
	34	12	F		34	12	F		34	12	F

Hyperparameters - R implementation

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- ▷ Initialization
- ▷ Number of cycles
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 - ◊ Predictive mean matching (numeric data)²⁷
 - ◊ Logistic regression imputation (binary data)²⁸
 - ◊ Multinomial regression imputation (unordered categorical data)
 - ◊ Proportional odds model (ordered categorical data) ²⁹

²⁷<https://stefvanbuuren.name/fimd/sec-pmm.html>

²⁸<https://www.rdocumentation.org/packages/mice/versions/3.17.0/topics/mice.impute.logreg>

²⁹<https://online.stat.psu.edu/stat504/lesson/8/8.4>

- ▷ Initialization
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Logistic regression imputation - Bayesian logistic regression

- ▷ Fit a logistic model on the data
- ▷ Construct $\hat{\beta}$ and an estimation of its covariance matrix $\hat{\Sigma}$.
- ▷ Draw $\tilde{\beta} \sim \mathcal{N}(\hat{\beta}, \hat{\Sigma})$.
- ▷ Compute the predicted score as $\sigma(X^\top \tilde{\beta})$.
- ▷ Impute by drawing a Bernoulli with parameter $\sigma(X^\top \tilde{\beta})$.

- ▷ Initialization
- ▷ Number of cycles
- ▷ Ordering of variables: same order, random order...
- ▷ Predictive models
 - ◊ Predictive mean matching (numeric data)
 - ◊ Logistic regression imputation (binary data)
 - ◊ Multinomial regression imputation (unordered categorical data)
 - ◊ Proportional odds model (ordered categorical data)

Predictive mean matching

- ▷ Fit a linear model on the data
- ▷ Construct $\hat{\beta}$ and an estimation of its covariance matrix $\hat{\Sigma}$.
- ▷ Draw $\tilde{\beta} \sim \mathcal{N}(\hat{\beta}, \hat{\Sigma})$.
- ▷ Compute the predicted scores as $X^\top \tilde{\beta}$.
- ▷ Find the $k = 5$ observations for which $X_i^\top \hat{\beta}$ is the closest to $X^\top \tilde{\beta}$
- ▷ Impute by drawing uniformly at random one observations among the k selected observations.

- ▷ Initialization
- ▷ Number of cycles
- ▷ Ordering of variables: same order, random order...
- ▷ Predictive models
 - ◊ Predictive mean matching (numeric data)
 - ◊ Logistic regression imputation (binary data)
 - ◊ Multinomial regression imputation (unordered categorical data)
 - ◊ Proportional odds model (ordered categorical data)

Random forests - Mice.RF

- ▷ Fit a random forest on the data
- ▷ For a given 'missing' observation, put it down each tree and collect all observations in all leaves
- ▷ Impute by drawing at random an observation among the previous set

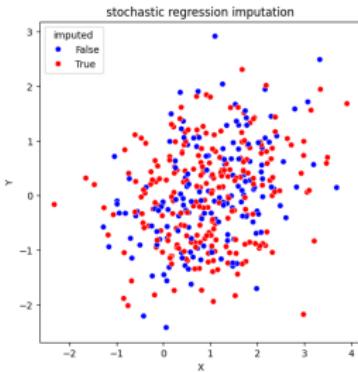
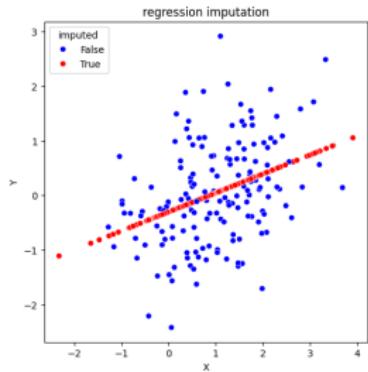
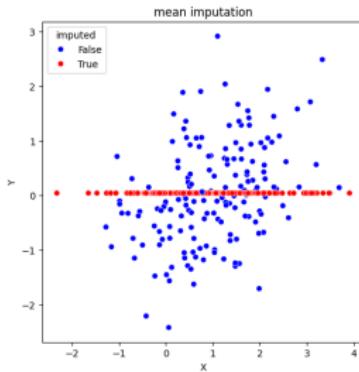
- ▷ Initialization
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Random forests - MissForest

- ▷ Fit a random forest on the data
- ▷ Impute by predicting the value output by the RF

1. Missing values mechanism
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Single imputation methods



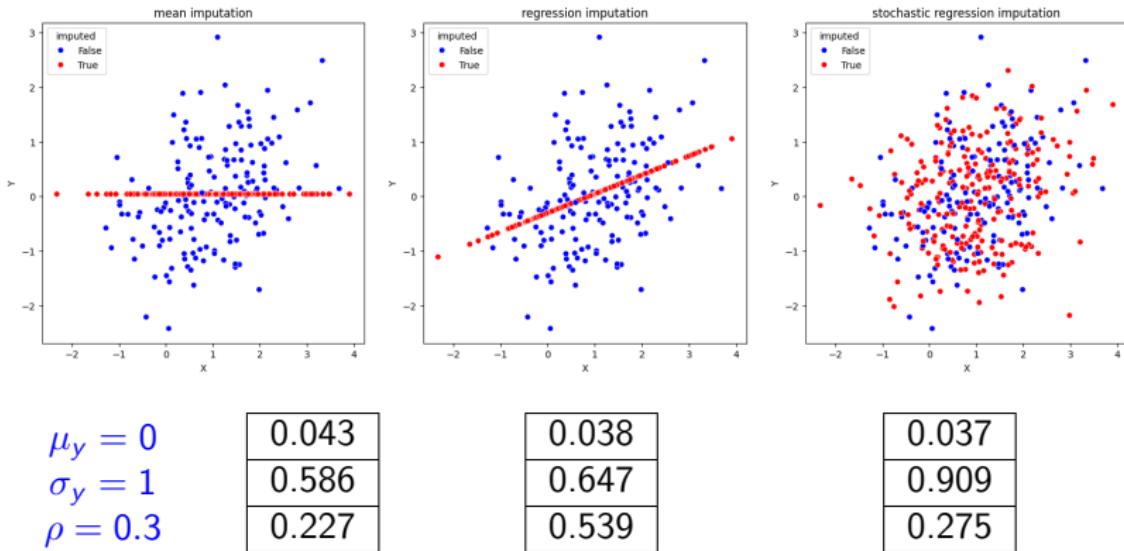
$$\begin{aligned}\mu_y &= 0 \\ \sigma_y &= 1 \\ \rho &= 0.3\end{aligned}$$

0.043
0.586
0.227

0.038
0.647
0.539

0.037
0.909
0.275

Single imputation methods



How to build confidence intervals for μ_y ?

Let $Y = (Y_1, \dots, Y_n)'$ be i.i.d. independent Gaussian $\mathcal{N}(\mu_y, \sigma_y^2)$.

▷ Unknown variance:

$$\frac{\hat{\mu}_y - \mu_y}{\hat{\sigma}_{\hat{\mu}_y}} \sim T(n-1)$$

▷ Unknown variance:

$$\sqrt{n} \left(\frac{\hat{\mu}_y - \mu_y}{\hat{\sigma}_y} \right) \sim T(n-1)$$

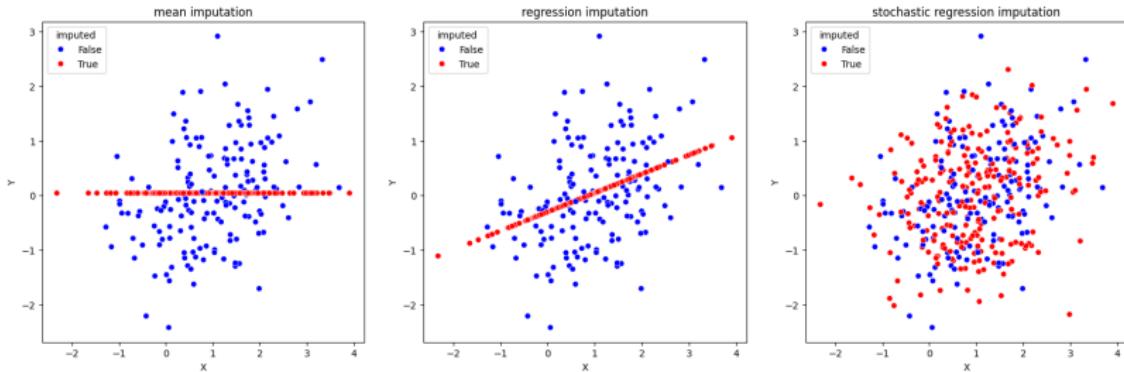
▷ CI for μ_y at level α : $\left[\hat{\mu}_y - \frac{\hat{\sigma}_y}{\sqrt{n}} qt_{1-\alpha/2}(n-1), \hat{\mu}_y + \frac{\hat{\sigma}_y}{\sqrt{n}} qt_{1-\alpha/2}(n-1) \right]$

Simulation - Computing coverage

1. Generate bivariate Gaussian data ($\mu_y = 0, \sigma_y = 1, \rho = 0.6$)
2. Put MCAR missing values on y and impute missing entries
3. Compute the confidence interval of μ_y
4. Count if the true value $\mu_y = 0$ is in the confidence interval
5. Repeat the steps 1-4, 10000 times

Code available on Rmיסטатик.

Single imputation methods: Danger!



$$\mu_y = 0$$

$$\sigma_y = 1$$

$$\rho = 0.6$$

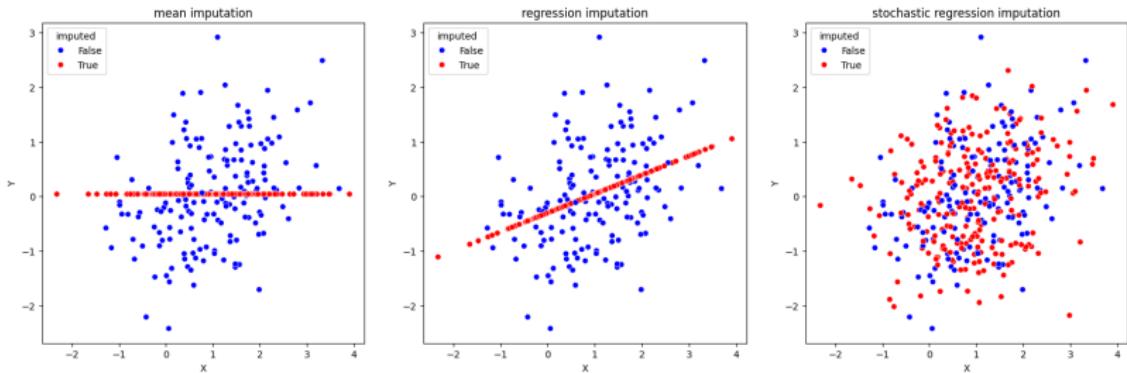
$$CI\mu_y 95\%$$

-0.005
0.629
0.189

-0.004
0.673
0.443

-0.004
0.996
0.301

Single imputation methods: Danger!



$$\mu_y = 0$$

$$\sigma_y = 1$$

$$\rho = 0.6$$

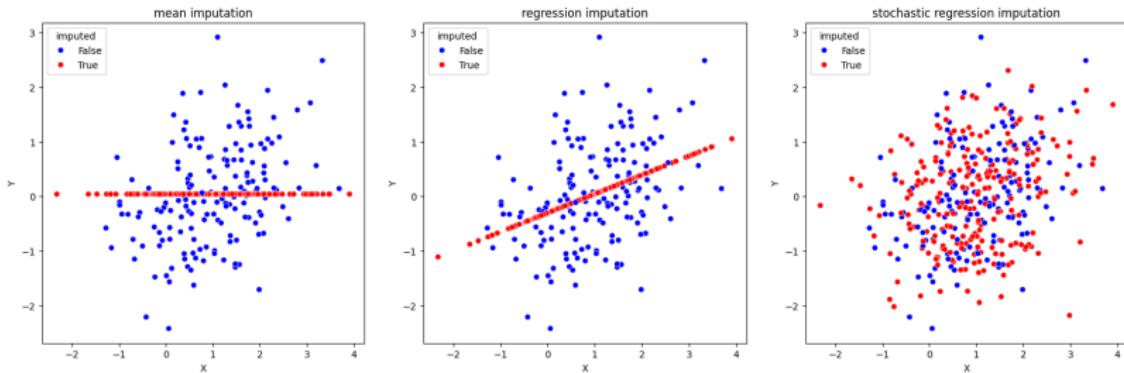
$$CI\mu_y 95\%$$

-0.005
0.629
0.189
56.0

-0.004
0.673
0.443
57.7

-0.004
0.996
0.301
73.4

Single imputation methods: Danger!



$$\mu_y = 0$$

$$\sigma_y = 1$$

$$\rho = 0.6$$

$$CI \mu_y 95\%$$

-0.005

0.629

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56.0

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0.443

57.7

-0.004

0.996

0.301

73.4

⇒ Standard errors $\hat{\sigma}_{\hat{\mu}_y}$ based on the imputed data set are underestimated

The idea of imputation is both seductive and dangerous (Dempster and Rubin, 1983)

Asymptotic confidence interval for μ_y : $\left[\hat{\mu}_y - z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\hat{\sigma}_y}{\sqrt{n}}; \hat{\mu}_y + z_{1-\alpha/2} \frac{\hat{\sigma}_y}{\sqrt{n}} \right]$

Consider MCAR values and

- ▷ Impute missing values on via (stochastic) linear regression
- ▷ $\hat{\mu}_y$ is the average of y computed on the imputed data set

Asymptotic variance (Little & Rubin, 2019. p158)

$$\text{Var}[\hat{\mu}_y - \mu_y] \simeq \frac{\hat{\sigma}_y^2}{n_{full}} \left(1 - \hat{\rho}^2 \frac{n - n_{full}}{n} \right),$$

where $\hat{\sigma}_y$ is estimated on the complete observations only and n_{full} the number of complete observations.

- ▷ If there are few missing data ($n_{full} \sim (n)$), then $\text{Var}[\hat{\mu}_y - \mu_y] \sim \hat{\sigma}_y^2/n$, the ACI has the correct asymptotic coverage (Idem if $\rho = 1$).
- ▷ But, in general, **coverage of single imputation is too low**: need to take into account the uncertainty associated to the predictions.

Multiple imputation: correct standard errors

- 1) Generate M plausible values for each missing value

X_1	X_2	X_3	Y
3	20	10	s
-6	45	6	s
0	4	30	no s
-4	32	35	s
1	63	40	s
-2	15	12	no s

X_1	X_2	X_3	Y
-7	20	10	s
-6	45	9	s
0	12	30	no s
13	32	35	s
1	63	40	s
-2	10	12	no s

X_1	X_2	X_3	Y
7	20	10	s
-6	45	12	s
0	-5	30	no s
2	32	35	s
1	63	40	s
-2	20	12	no s

- 2) Perform the analysis on each imputed data set: $\hat{\beta}_m, \widehat{Var}(\hat{\beta}_m)$
- 3) Combine the results (Rubin's rules)²⁷:

$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^M \hat{\beta}_m$$

$$T = \underbrace{\frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^M \widehat{Var}(\hat{\beta}_m)}_{\text{Within-imputation variance}} + (1 + \frac{1}{M}) \underbrace{\frac{1}{M-1} \sum_{m=1}^M (\hat{\beta}_m - \hat{\beta})^2}_{\text{Between-imputation variance}}$$

²⁷see Chapter 14 of Semiparametric Theory and Missing Data. A.A. Tsiatis. 2006.

MI based on stochastic regression

1. Generate M imputed data sets: for $m = 1, \dots, M$,
 - ▷ draw \hat{y}_i from $\mathcal{N}(x_i\hat{\beta}, \hat{\sigma}^2)$
2. Performe the analysis on each imputed data set
3. Compute the variance (= within + between imputation variance)

²⁸Code available on Rmisticic.

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3. Compute the variance (= within + between imputation variance)

	$M = 1$	$M = 50$
$\mu_y = 0$	-0.004	-0.004
$\sigma_y = 1$	0.996	0.996
$\rho = 0.3$	0.301	0.301
$CI_{\mu_y} 95\%$	73.4	92

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$CI_{\mu_y} 95\%$	73.4	92

- ▷ Variability of the parameters is missing: "improper" imputation
- ▷ Prediction variance = estimation variance plus noise

²⁸Code available on Rmisticat.

MI based on stochastic regression

1. Generate M imputed data sets: for $m = 1, \dots, M$,
 - ▷ Generate $\hat{\beta}^1, \dots, \hat{\beta}^M$ by bootstrap or via posterior distribution (Data Augmentation, Tanner & Wong, 1987))
 - ▷ Impute missing values \hat{y}_i^m by drawing $\mathcal{N}(x_i \hat{\beta}^m, (\hat{\sigma}^2)^m)$
2. Performe the analysis on each imputed data set
3. Compute the variance (= within + between imputation variance)

	$M = 1$	$M = 50$	$M = 50$ with boot.
$\mu_y = 0$	-0.004	-0.004	-0.004
$\sigma_y = 1$	0.996	0.996	0.996
$\rho = 0.3$	0.301	0.301	0.301
$CI\mu_y^{95\%}$	73.4	92	96

²⁸Code available on Rmisticat.

⇒ Aim: provide an estimation of all parameters with their estimated variance.

Parametric Multiple imputation

1. Generating M imputed data sets, taking into account:
 - ▷ structural noise (e.g. σ^2 via stochastic regression)
 - ▷ parameter variance (e.g. via bootstrapping)
2. Performing the analysis on each imputed data set^a,
3. Compute the variance (= within + between imputation variance)

$$\hat{\beta} = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^M \hat{\beta}_m \quad T = \frac{1}{M} \sum \widehat{\text{Var}}(\hat{\beta}_m) + \left(1 + \frac{1}{M}\right) \frac{1}{M-1} \sum (\hat{\beta}_m - \hat{\beta})^2$$

^aThe analysis model may be "in agreement" with the imputation model: congeniality.

⇒ Aim: provide an estimation of all parameters with their estimated variance.

NonParametric Multiple imputation

1. Generating M imputed data sets, taking into account:
 - ▷ structural noise (e.g. σ^2 via stochastic regression)
 - ▷ parameter variance (e.g. via bootstrapping)
2. Performing the analysis on each imputed data set^a,
3. Aggregate the result of each analysis (e.g. taking the mean of predicted output values)

^aThe analysis model may be "in agreement" with the imputation model: congeniality.

Multiple Imputation with joint modeling

\Rightarrow Hypothesis $x_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$

Expectation Maximization Bootstrap

1. Bootstrap rows: X^1, \dots, X^M
2. EM algorithm: $(\hat{\mu}^1, \hat{\Sigma}^1), \dots, (\hat{\mu}^M, \hat{\Sigma}^M)$
3. Imputation: $\hat{x}_{i,miss}^m$ drawn from $\mathcal{N}\left(\hat{\mu}_{miss|obs}^m, \hat{\Sigma}_{miss|obs}^m\right)$

Easy to parallelized. Implemented in **Amelia** ([website](#))



Amelia Earhart



James Honaker



Gary King



Matt Blackwell

- Impute variables 1 by 1 using all other variables as inputs (round-robin)
- One model/variable: flexible for different types of variables
- Cycle through variables: iteratively refining imputations

MICE

1. Initial imputation: mean imputation
2. For a variable j
 - $(\hat{\beta}_{-j}, \hat{\sigma}_{-j})$ drawn from a **Bootstrap**: $(\hat{\beta}_{-j}^1, \hat{\sigma}_{-j}^1), \dots, (\hat{\beta}_{-j}^M, \hat{\sigma}_{-j}^M)$
 - Impute X_j^m via **stochastic regression** $\mathcal{N}\left((x_{i,-j})' \hat{\beta}_{-j}^m, \hat{\sigma}_{-j}^m\right)$
3. Cycling through variables

⇒ With continuous variables & regression/variable: gibbs $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$ ^{30 31}

"There is no clear-cut method for determining whether MICE has converged"
Implemented in R package **mice** & **IterativeImputer** from scikitlearn (default iterative ridge regression)



Stef van Buuren

³⁰ Monte Carlo statistical methods (Robert, Casella, 2004) (p344),

³¹ The EM algorithm and extensions (McLachlan, et al. 1998) (p243)

³² van Buuren. 2018. Flexible Imputation of Missing Data. Second Edition. CRC Press

Conditional modeling takes the lead?

- ▷ Flexible: one model/variable. Easy to deal with interactions and variables of different nature (binary, ordinal, categorical...)
- ▷ Many statistical models are conditional models
- ▷ Tailor to your data - Super powerful in practice
- ⇒ Drawbacks: one model/variable. **Computational costly^a**

^aImprovement on mice pmm for large sample size, see mice github repo - still costly for large d

What to do with high correlation or when $n < p$

- ▷ JM shrinks the covariance $\Sigma + k\mathbb{I}$ (selection of k ?)
- ▷ CM: ridge regression or predictors selection/variable

Challenges with multiple imputation

- ▷ MI in high dimension? Theory with small n , large p ?
- ▷ Aggregating lasso regressions? clustering?

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How to evaluate imputation quality?

33 / 99

- ▷ Aim: imputed data must resemble complete data.

Original data set

Age	Inc.	Gen.
34	NA	F
18	12	NA
NA	14	M
NA	NA	F
34	NA	M
22	28	F
29	10	NA
34	NA	F
80	NA	NA
68	15	F

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- ▷ Aim: imputed data must resemble complete data.

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22	28	F
29	10	NA
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80	NA	NA
68	15	F

Imputed data set

Age	Inc.	Gen.
34	13	F
18	12	NA
30	14	M
30	13	F
34	13	M
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34	13	M
22	28	F
29	10	NA
34	13	F
80	13	F
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What is the quality of data imputation?

How to evaluate imputation quality?

33 / 99

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34	NA	M
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33 / 99

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29	10	NA
34	NA	F
80	NA	NA
68	15	F

Additional missing values

Age	Inc.	Gen.
34	NA	F
NA	NA	NA
NA	14	NA
NA	NA	F
34	NA	M
22	NA	F
NA	10	NA
34	NA	F
80	NA	NA
68	NA	NA

How to evaluate imputation quality?

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Original data set

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18	12	NA
NA	14	M
NA	NA	F
34	NA	M
22	28	F
29	10	NA
34	NA	F
80	NA	NA
68	15	F

Additional missing values

Age	Inc.	Gen.
34	NA	F
NA	NA	NA
NA	14	NA
NA	NA	F
34	NA	M
22	NA	F
NA	10	NA
34	NA	F
80	NA	NA
68	NA	NA

Imputed missing values

Age	Inc.	Gen.
34	12	F
46	12	NA
46	14	M
46	12	F
34	12	M
22	12	F
46	10	NA
34	12	F
80	12	NA
68	12	F

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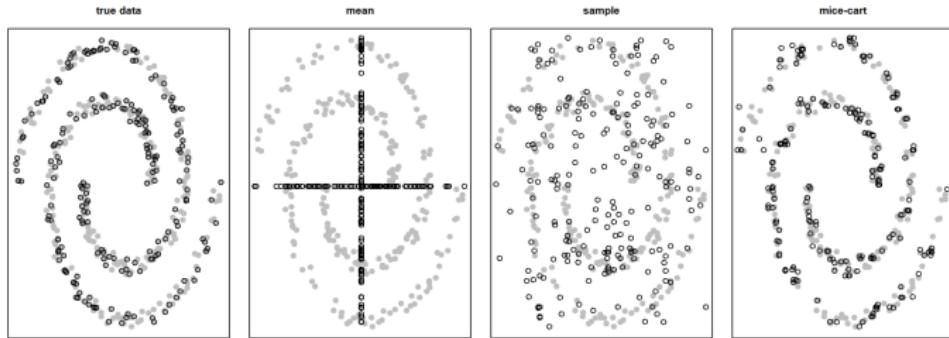
Compared initial vs imputed values via predictive metrics (MSE, MAE...)

Measures related to imputation quality

Pointwise predictive measure such as MSE rank highest imputation close to the conditional expectation

▷ Favor imputation with small variability

Imputation is a distributional task so one should use distributional measures³³³⁴ to assess its quality.



³³Székely & Rizzo. Energy statistics *Journal of stat. planning & inference*. 2013

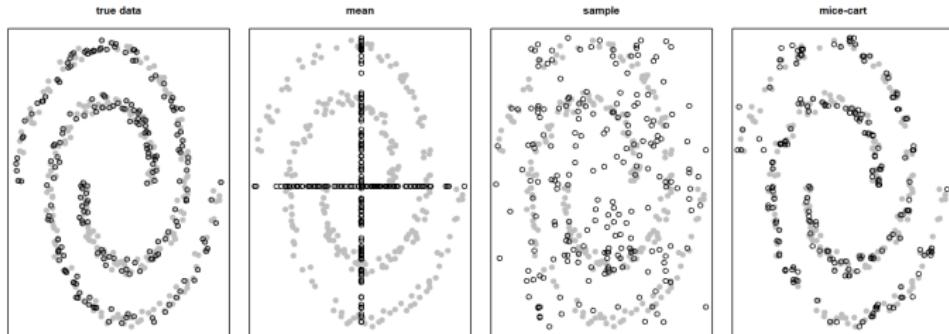
³⁴Gneiting, Raftery, Strictly Proper Scoring Rules, Prediction, and Estimation, *JASA*, 2007

Measures related to imputation quality

Pointwise predictive measure such as MSE rank highest imputation close to the conditional expectation

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Imputation is a distributional task so one should use distributional measures³³³⁴ to assess its quality.



Imputation method	Mean	Sample	Mice-CART
Renormalized RMSE	0	-0.18	-0.22

³³Székely & Rizzo. Energy statistics *Journal of stat. planning & inference*. 2013

³⁴Gneiting, Raftery, Strictly Proper Scoring Rules, Prediction, and Estimation, *JASA*, 2007

- ▷ Energy score (distribution vs a point)

$$es(H, x) = \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{X, X' \sim H} [\|X - X'\|_{\mathbb{R}^d}] - \mathbb{E}_{X \sim H} [\|X - x\|_{\mathbb{R}^d}]$$

- ▷ The **energy** score can be used to score **distributional prediction/imputation**

Controlled simulation setting

- ▷ Generate complete data
- ▷ Mask some data according to MCAR/MAR/MNAR mechanism
- ▷ Learn a distributional imputation method H
- ▷ For any $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$, sample imputed values from H to estimate $es(H, x)$
- ▷ Average over $X \sim P^*$ (complete data distribution) to estimate

$$S(H, P^*) := \mathbb{E}_{Y \sim P^*} [es(H, Y)]$$

- ▷ The question of how to evaluate imputation methods becomes much harder when the **true underlying values are not available**.

A new procedure

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- ▷ Consider a distribution κ on the subsets of $\{1, \dots, d\}$
- ▷ For each $A \subset \{1, \dots, d\}$, we let P_A^M be the marginal distribution of M on A . We denote $M_A \sim P_A^M$.
- ▷ We also let $H_A|M_A = m_A$, i.e. the distribution of an imputation H , given the missingness pattern m_A on the projection A .

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- ▷ We also let $H_A|M_A = m_A$, i.e. the distribution of an imputation H , given the missingness pattern m_A on the projection A .

Imputation score of imputation H

$$S_{NA}^*(H, P) = \mathbb{E}_{A \sim \kappa, M_A \sim P_A^M, X_A \sim H_{M_A}} \left[\log \left(\frac{p_A(X_A | M_A = \mathbf{0})}{h_{M_A}(X_A)} \right) \right].$$

Group observations into J groups according to their missing data pattern M_1, \dots, M_J .

Procedure

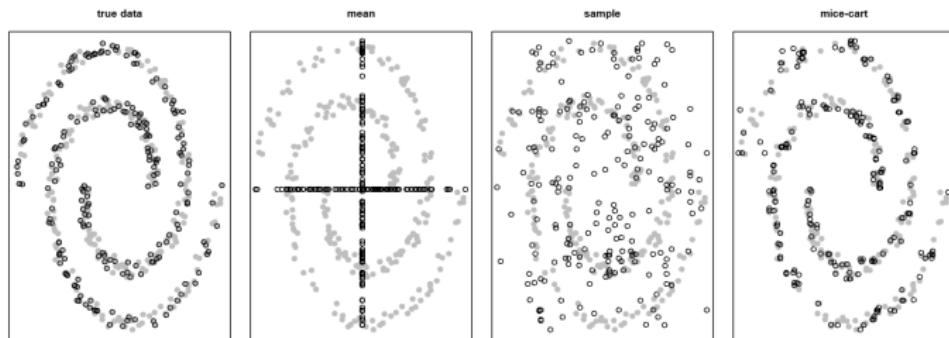
For each missing pattern m among M_1, \dots, M_J

1. Choose `num.proj` projections on $\{1, \dots, d\}$ such that each projection contains at least one observed and one missing component.
2. Obtain the imputed data from pattern m , denoted by \hat{X}_i . Split them into two halves \hat{X}_i^0 and \hat{X}_i^1 .
3. For each projection A_k ($k = 1, \dots, \text{num.proj}$),
 - a) Get the complete data $X_{A_k}^{\text{comp}}$ from the projected data X_{A_k}
 - b) Get the projected imputed data \hat{X}_{i,A_k}^0
 - c) Fit a forest with `num.trees.per.proj` to discriminate $X_{A_k}^{\text{comp}}$ from \hat{X}_{i,A_k}^0 (ensuring balanced classes).
4. Aggregate all forests and let $\hat{g}_A(x)$ be the probability output by the forest at x .
5. Compute the individual scores $\log \hat{g}_A(x)$ for $x \in \hat{X}_i^1$
6. Average all scores across all observations, missing patterns and imputed data sets (multiple imputation) to get the final imputation score.

Measures related to imputation quality

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Imputation is a distributional task so one should use distributional measures³⁵³⁶ to assess its quality.



Imputation method	Mean	Sample	Mice-CART
Renormalized RMSE	0	-0.18	-0.22
Renormalized Energy score			

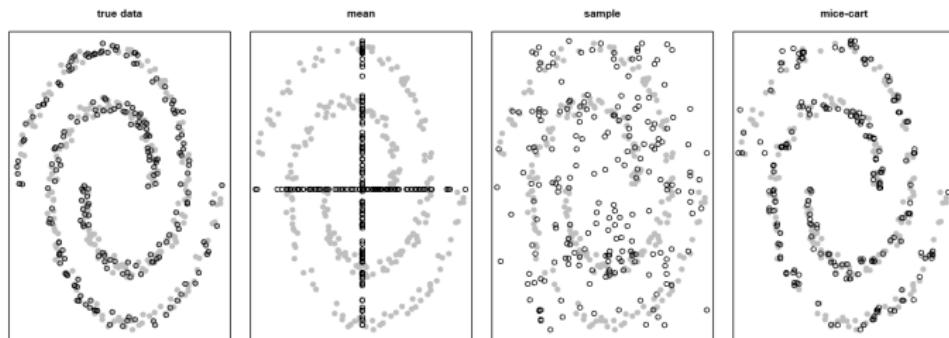
³⁵Székely & Rizzo. Energy statistics *Journal of stat. planning & inference*. 2013

³⁶Gneiting, Raftery, Strictly Proper Scoring Rules, Prediction, and Estimation, *JASA*, 2007

Measures related to imputation quality

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Imputation method	Mean	Sample	Mice-CART
Renormalized RMSE	0	-0.18	-0.22
Renormalized Energy score	-22.4	-1.39	0

³⁵Székely & Rizzo. Energy statistics *Journal of stat. planning & inference*. 2013

³⁶Gneiting, Raftery, Strictly Proper Scoring Rules, Prediction, and Estimation, *JASA*, 2007

Major characteristics of imputations

Imputation should

- (1) be a distributional regression method,
- (2) be able to capture nonlinearities in the data,
- (3) be able to deal with distributional shifts in the observed variables,

- ▷ Conditional and marginal **distribution shifts** can occur for different patterns under MAR
- ▷ Conditional shifts are handled with FCS

Method	(1)	(2)	(3)
missForest (Stekhoven & Bühlmann, 2011)		✓	
mice-cart (Burgette & Reiter, 2010)	✓	✓	
mice-RF (Doove et al., 2014)	✓	✓	
mice-DRF (Näf et al., 2024)	✓	✓	
mice-norm.nob (Gaussian)	✓		✓
mice-norm.predict (Regression)			✓

MAR with shift in cond. distribution between patterns³⁹/⁹⁹

- Example: two patterns $m_1 = (0, 0)$ and $m_2 = (1, 0)$, with $\Sigma = ((2, 1), (1, 1))$ and **a shift**:

$$X \mid M = m_1 \sim N((0, 0), \Sigma)$$
$$X \mid M = m_2 \sim N((5, 5), \Sigma).$$

MAR with shift in cond. distribution between patterns^{39 / 99}

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- A special case of MAR: conditional distributions are the same across patterns:

$$X_1 \mid X_2, M = m_1 = X_1 \mid X_2, M = m_2.$$

Definition (Conditional indep. MAR - CIMAR)

For all $m, m' \in \mathcal{M}, x \in \mathcal{X}$,

$$p^*(o^c(x, m) \mid o(x, m), M = m') = \textcolor{red}{p^*(o^c(x, m) \mid o(x, m))}.$$

MAR with shift in cond. distribution between patterns^{39 / 99}

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Beware! Even in this case, the joint distribution varies across pattern, since the marginal distribution of X_2 changes

Forests generalize poorly outside of the training set

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- Example: two patterns $m_1 = (0, 0)$ and $m_2 = (1, 0)$, with $\Sigma = ((2, 1), (1, 1))$ and a shift $X | M = m_1 \sim N((0, 0), \Sigma)$, $X | M = m_2 \sim N((5, 5), \Sigma)$.

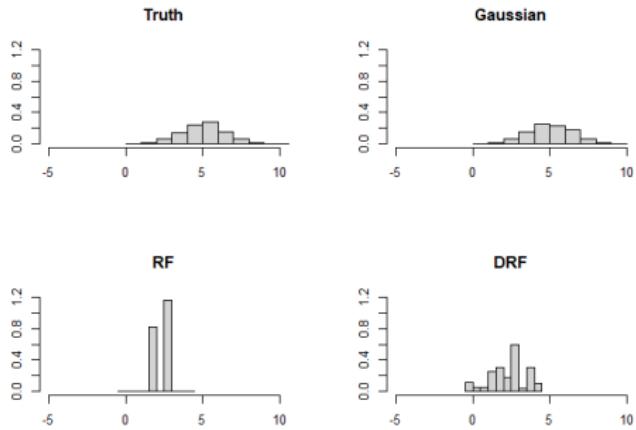


Figure: True distribution against a draw from different imputation methods.

- DRF, a distributional method, fails to deal with covariate shift
- ▷ Imputation should be centered around 5.

MAR with shifts in cond. distribution between patterns

Consider $X \in \mathbb{R}^3$ with three different missing patterns:

$$m_1 = (0, 0, 0), \quad m_2 = (1, 0, 0) \quad \text{and} \quad m_3 = (1, 1, 0).$$

MCAR: No change allowed.

For all $m, m' \in \mathcal{M}, x \in \mathcal{X}$, $p^*(x) = p^*(x | M = m) = p^*(x | M = m')$

CIMAR: No conditional changes allowed

$p^*(x_1, x_2 | x_3, M = m_1) = p^*(x_1, x_2 | x_3, M = m_2) = p^*(x_1, x_2 | x_3, M = m_3) =$
 $\color{red}{p^*(x_1, x_2 | x_3)}$

Distrib. of $X_1, X_2 | X_3$ is not allowed to change from one pattern to another, though the marginal distrib. of X_3 can change.

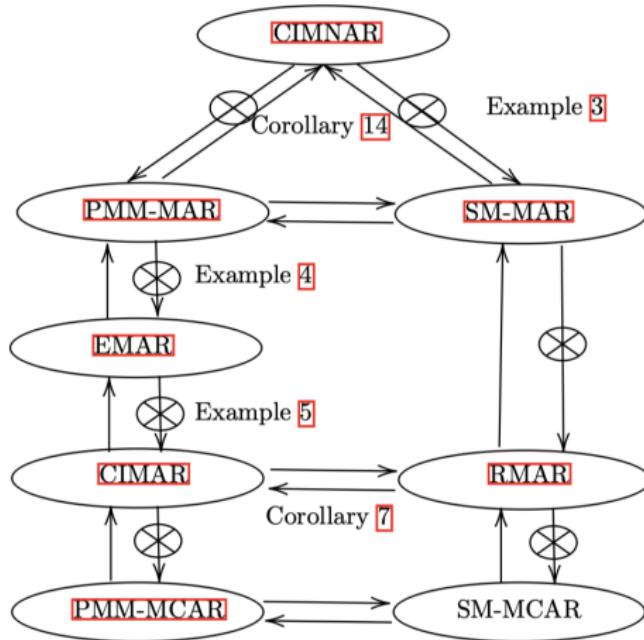
PMM-MAR: many changes allowed

$p^*(x_1, x_2 | x_3, M = m_3) = \color{red}{p^*(x_1, x_2 | x_3)}$

Both distrib. of observed variables and conditional ones can change from pattern to pattern.

Relationships between the M(N)AR conditions³⁷

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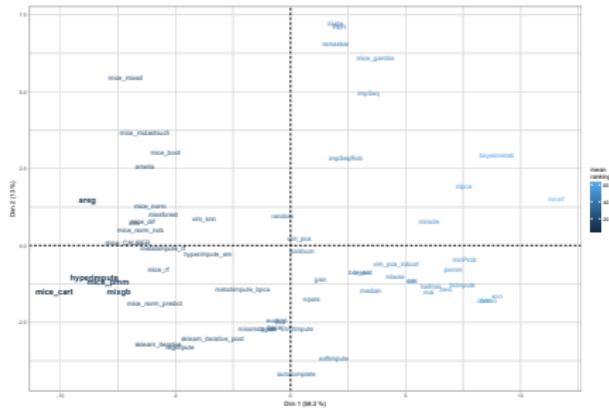


³⁷Naf, Scornet J.. (2024). What is a good imputation under MAR. Submitted.

Benchmarking imputation methods

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- ▷ 65 methods (R & Python)
- ▷ 14 datasets: 100-50000 observations and 3-400 features
- ▷ 10-30 % NA MCAR, MAR, Standardized energy distance



- ▷ Mice-cart³⁸, aregImpute (close to mice+splines+pmm)³⁹, Hyperimpute (mice + model selection RF, XGBoost, Logistic Reg., etc)⁴⁰, Mice mixed⁴¹

³⁸ Buuren & Groothuis-O. (2011). Multivariate imputation by chained equations in R. *JSS*.

³⁹ Harrell & Dupont (2018). Hmisc: Harrell miscellaneous. R package. *Stat. Comput.*

⁴⁰ Jarrett et al. (2022). Hyperimpute: Gen. iter. imput. with automatic model selection. *ICML*.

⁴¹ Varga (2020). missCompare: Intuitive Missing Data Imputation. R package. *Stat. Comput.*

Take home message on inference & imputation

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- ▷ Different missing data scenario designed for likelihood inference (e.g. EM algorithm) but that can be very complex (distribution shift in MAR).
- ▷ Use single imputation only for point estimates
- ▷ In general, look for an imputation that preserve the joint distribution of the data
- ▷ Compare imputation methods with distributional metrics like energy distance
- ▷ **Multiple imputation** aims at estimating the parameters and their variability taking into account **the uncertainty of the missing values**
- ▷ Use Multiple imputation to get confidence intervals
- ▷ mice-DRF promising (code available) - mice-Engression⁴²

⁴²Shen & Meinshausen (2024). Engression: extrapolation through the lens of distributional regression. *JRSS B*.

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Formalizing the problem

- ▷ **Assumption** - The response Y is a function of the (unavailable) complete data plus some noise:

$$Y = f^*(\textcolor{orange}{X}) + \varepsilon, \quad X \in \mathbb{R}^d, \quad Y \in \mathbb{R}.$$

- ▷ Optimization problem:

$$\min_{f: (\mathbb{R} \cup \{\text{NA}\})^d \mapsto \mathbb{R}} \mathcal{R}(f) := \mathbb{E} \left[(Y - f(\tilde{X}))^2 \right]$$

- ▷ A Bayes predictor is a minimizer of the risk. It is given by:

$$\tilde{f}^*(\tilde{X}) := \mathbb{E} [Y | X_{obs(M)}, M] = \mathbb{E} [f(X) | X_{obs(M)}, M]$$

where $M \in \{0, 1\}^d$ is the missingness indicator.

- ▷ The Bayes rate \mathcal{R}^* is the risk of the Bayes predictor: $\mathcal{R}^* = \mathcal{R}(\tilde{f}^*)$.
- ▷ A Bayes optimal function f achieves the Bayes rate, i.e., $\mathcal{R}(f) = \mathcal{R}^*$.

Supervised learning with missing values

$\tilde{X} = X \odot (1 - M) + \text{NA} \odot M$. New feature space is $\tilde{\mathbb{R}}^d = (\mathbb{R} \cup \{\text{NA}\})^d$.

$$Y = \begin{pmatrix} 4.6 \\ 7.9 \\ 8.3 \\ 4.6 \end{pmatrix} \quad \tilde{X} = \begin{pmatrix} 9.1 & \text{NA} & 1 \\ 2.1 & \text{NA} & 3 \\ \text{NA} & 9.6 & 2 \\ \text{NA} & 5.5 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \quad X = \begin{pmatrix} 9.1 & 8.5 & 1 \\ 2.1 & 3.5 & 3 \\ 6.7 & 9.6 & 2 \\ 4.2 & 5.5 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \quad M = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

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Finding the Bayes predictor.

$$f^* \in \operatorname{argmin}_{f: \tilde{\mathbb{R}}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}} \mathbb{E} \left[\left(Y - f(\tilde{X}) \right)^2 \right].$$

$$f^*(\tilde{X}) = \sum_{m \in \{0,1\}^d} \mathbb{E} [Y | X_{obs(m)}, M = m] \mathbf{1}_{M=m}$$

\Rightarrow One model per pattern (2^d) (Rubin, 1984, generalized propensity score)

Bayes predictor.

$$f^*(\tilde{X}) = \sum_{m \in \{0,1\}^d} \mathbb{E}[Y | X_{obs(m)}, M = m] \mathbf{1}_{M=m}$$

- ▷ Difficulty due to the half nature of the input space
- ▷ Worst case: 2^d models to learn

Two common strategies:

- ▷ **Impute-then-regress strategies** - impute the data then learn on the imputed data set
 - ◊ Computationally efficient but possibly inconsistent
- ▷ **Pattern-by-pattern strategies** - use a different predictor for each missing pattern
 - ◊ Consistent by design but intractable in most situations

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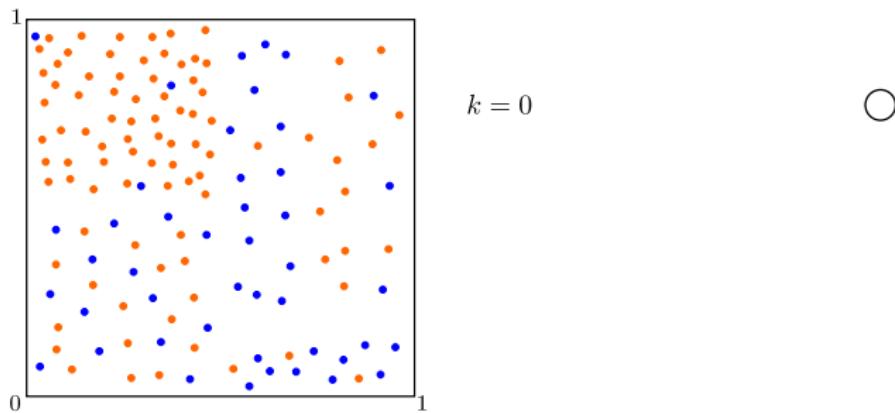
CART (Classification And Regression Tree, 1984)

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Built by recursively splitting cells until some stopping criterion is satisfied.

Find the feature j^* , the threshold z^* which minimises the loss

$$(j^*, z^*) \in \underset{(j,z) \in \mathcal{S}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \mathbb{E} \left[(Y - \mathbb{E}[Y|X_j \leq z])^2 \cdot \mathbb{1}_{X_j \leq z} + (Y - \mathbb{E}[Y|X_j > z])^2 \cdot \mathbb{1}_{X_j > z} \right].$$



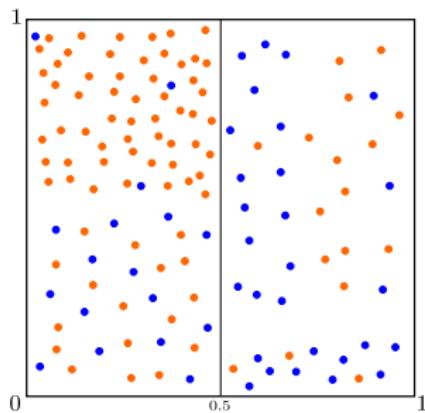
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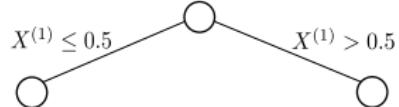
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$k = 0$

$k = 1$



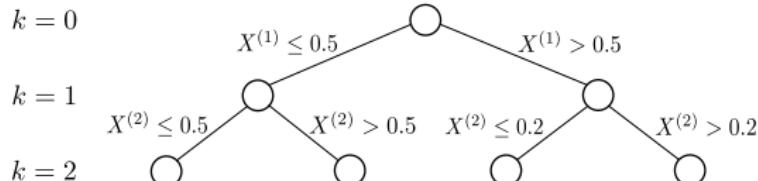
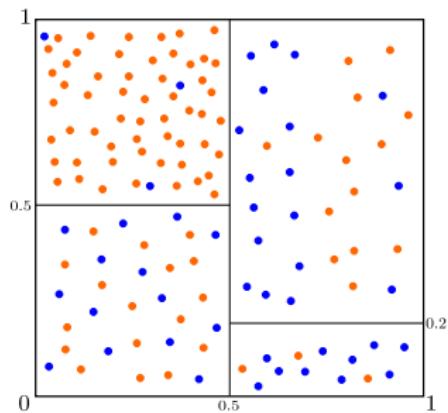
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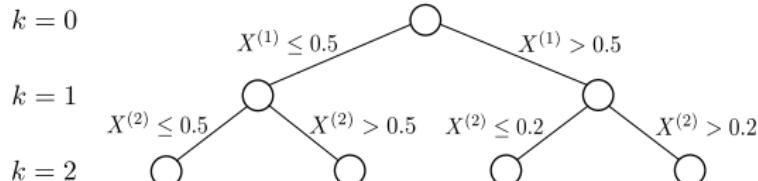
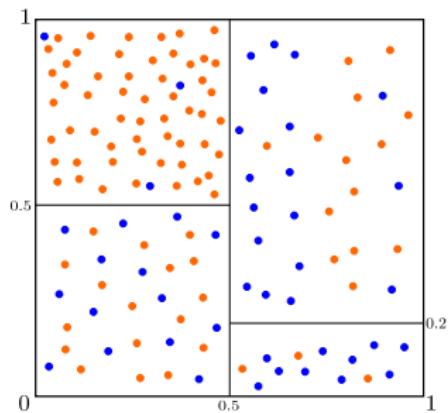
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Two difficulties with missing data

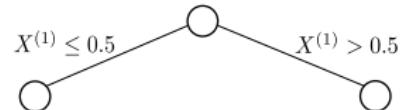
- ▷ How to find the best split?
- ▷ How to propagate missing data down the tree?

CART with missing values

	X_1	X_2	Y
1			
2	NA		
3	NA		
4			

$$k = 0$$

$$k = 1$$

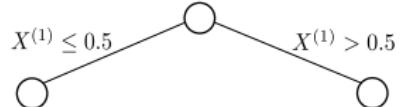


CART with missing values

	X_1	X_2	Y
1			
2	NA		
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4			

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$$k = 1$$



Two steps:

1. For each variable, compute the splitting criterion on observed values only (e.g., 1 & 4 for X_1)

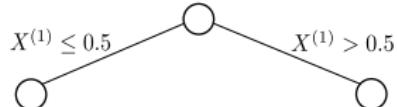
$$\mathbb{E} \left[(Y - \mathbb{E}[Y|X_j \leq z, M_j = 0])^2 \cdot \mathbb{1}_{X_j \leq z, M_j = 0} + (Y - \mathbb{E}[Y|X_j > z, M_j = 0])^2 \cdot \mathbb{1}_{X_j > z, M_j = 0} \right].$$

CART with missing values

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2. Propagate observations (2 & 3) with missing values?

- ▷ Probabilistic split: $Bernoulli(\#L/(\#L + \#R))$ (C4.5)
- ▷ Block: Send all to a side by minimizing the error (lightgbm)
- ▷ Surrogate split: Search another variable that gives a close partition (rpart)

One step: select the variable, the threshold and propagate missing values

1. $\{\tilde{X}_j \leq z \text{ or } \tilde{X}_j = \text{NA}\}$ vs $\{\tilde{X}_j > z\}$
2. $\{\tilde{X}_j \leq z\}$ vs $\{\tilde{X}_j > z \text{ or } \tilde{X}_j = \text{NA}\}$
3. $\{\tilde{X}_j \neq \text{NA}\}$ vs $\{\tilde{X}_j = \text{NA}\}$.

- ▷ The splitting location z depends on the missing values
- ▷ **Missing values treated like a category** (well to handle $\mathbb{R} \cup \text{NA}$)
- ▷ Good for informative pattern, target one model per pattern:

$$\mathbb{E}[Y|\tilde{X}] = \sum_{m \in \{0,1\}^d} \mathbb{E}[Y|X_{obs(m)}, M = m] \mathbb{1}_{M=m}$$

- ▷ Implementations **grf/partykit package, XGBoost**
- ▷ Extremely **good performances** in practice **for any mechanism**

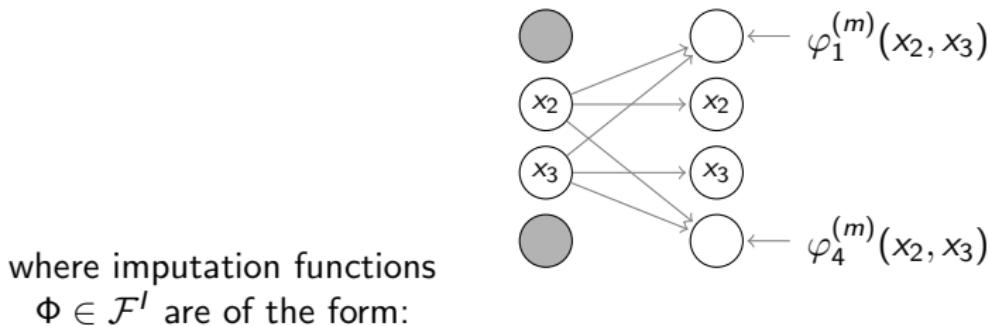
⁴³Twala et al. (2008). Methods for coping with missing data in decision trees. *Pattern Recog.*

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- ▷ Impute-then-Regress procedures consist in
 1. Impute missing values
 2. train a supervised learning algorithm on the imputed data set.

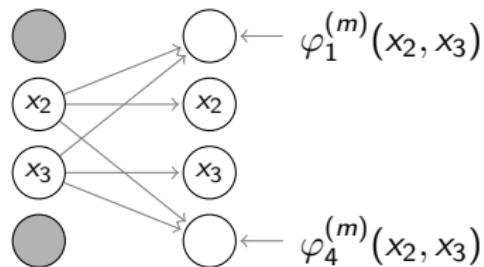
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- ▷ More formally, define **Impute-then-Regress procedures** as functions of the form:

$$g \circ \Phi, \text{ where } \Phi \in \mathcal{F}^I, g : \mathbb{R}^d \mapsto \mathbb{R}.$$



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where imputation functions
 $\Phi \in \mathcal{F}^I$ are of the form:

Can Impute-then-Regress procedures be Bayes optimal?

Impute-then-Regress procedures are Bayes optimal

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Given an imputation function Φ , we define g_Φ^* the minimizer of the population risk on imputed data as

$$g_\Phi^* \in \operatorname{argmin}_{g: \mathbb{R}^d \mapsto \mathbb{R}} \mathbb{E} \left[\left(Y - g \circ \Phi(\tilde{X}) \right)^2 \right].$$

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Theorem (Le Morvan et al., 2021)

Assume that X admits a density, the response Y is generated as $Y = f^*(X) + \varepsilon$ and $\Phi \in \mathcal{F}'_\infty$ (C^∞ imputation functions). Then,

- for all missing data mechanisms,
- and for almost all imputation functions,

$g_\Phi^* \circ \Phi$ is Bayes optimal.

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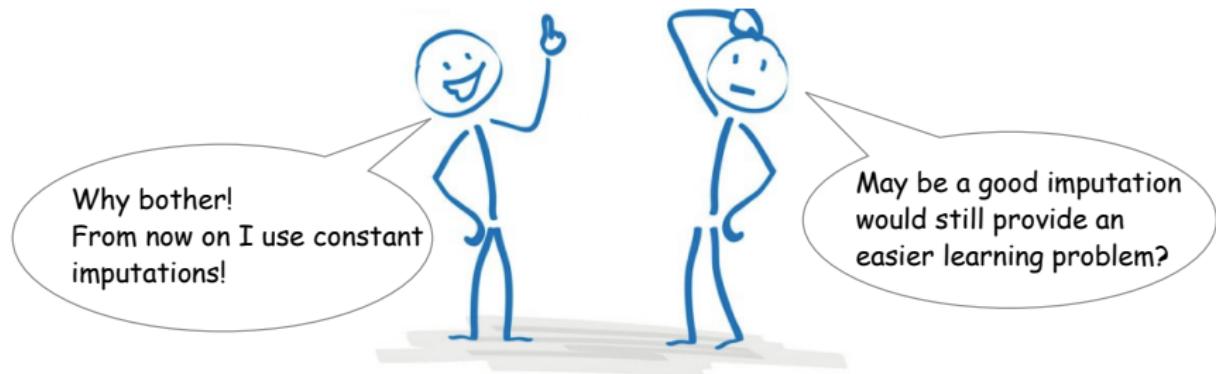
- for all missing data mechanisms,
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For almost all imputation functions, and all missing data mechanisms, a universally consistent algorithm trained on the imputed data is a consistent procedure.

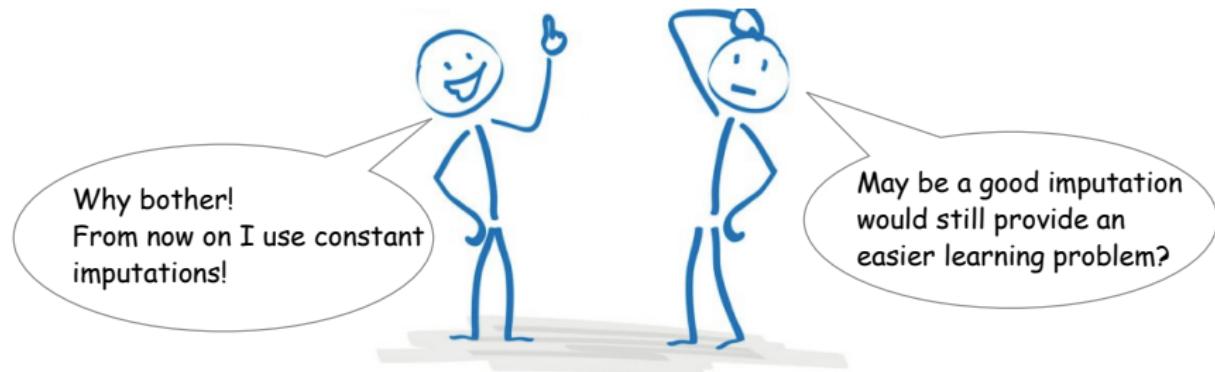
Which imputation function should one choose?

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Which imputation function should one choose?

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Question

Are there *continuous* Impute-then-Regress decompositions of Bayes predictors?

From now on, we suppose f^* (Byes predictor with complete data) is smooth and consider the conditional expectation Φ^{CI} .

Question

What can we say about the optimal predictor on the conditionally imputed data: $g_{\Phi^{CI}}^ \circ \Phi^{CI}$?*

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Theorem (Le Morvan et al., 2021)

Suppose that $f^ \circ \Phi^{CI}$ is not Bayes optimal, and that the probability of observing all variables is strictly positive, i.e., $P(M = \mathbf{0}, X = x) > 0$, for all x . Then there is no continuous function g such that $g \circ \Phi^{CI}$ is Bayes optimal.*

- ▷ In the above setting, $g_{\Phi^{CI}}^*$ is not continuous. Thus, imputing via conditional expectation leads to a difficult learning problem.
- ▷ Almost all imputations lead to consistent estimators but some ease the training of the supervised learning algorithm.

Imputation-then-regress: does imputation matter?

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Adding the mask to the input (one mask per feature):

$$\begin{array}{cc} X_1 & X_2 \\ \left(\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & \text{NA} \\ \text{NA} & 4 \end{array} \right) & \rightarrow \end{array} \begin{array}{cccc} X_1 & X_2 & M_1 & M_2 \\ \left(\begin{array}{cccc} 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & \text{NA} & 0 & 1 \\ \text{NA} & 4 & 1 & 0 \end{array} \right) \end{array}$$

From an empirical study over 19 datasets⁴⁴:

⁴⁴M. Le Morvan, G. Varoquaux, Imp. for pred.: beware of diminish. returns. (ICLR2025)

⁴⁵Mike et al. (2023). The Missing Indicator Method: From Low to High Dimensions. SIGKDD.

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$$\begin{pmatrix} X_1 & X_2 \\ 1 & 2 \\ 3 & \text{NA} \\ \text{NA} & 4 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} X_1 & X_2 & M_1 & M_2 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & \text{NA} & 0 & 1 \\ \text{NA} & 4 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

From an empirical study over 19 datasets⁴⁴:

- ▷ Imputation accuracy matters less when using expressive models or when incorporating the mask as complementary inputs⁴⁵
- ▷ Imputation accuracy matters much more for generated linear outcomes than for real-data outcome
- ▷ Adding the mask as input is beneficial for prediction performances even for MCAR settings, where missingness is uninformative.

⁴⁴M. Le Morvan, G. Varoquaux, Imp. for pred.: beware of diminish. returns. (ICLR2025)

⁴⁵Mike et al. (2023). The Missing Indicator Method: From Low to High Dimensions. SIGKDD.

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Investing in more flexible models is more efficient than investing in more complex imputations.

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Bayes predictor

$$f^*(\tilde{X}) = \sum_{m \in \{0,1\}^d} \mathbb{E}[Y | X_{obs(m)}, M = m] \mathbf{1}_{M=m}$$

Two common strategies:

- ▷ Impute-then-regress strategies - impute the data then learn on the imputed data set
 - ◊ Computationally efficient but possibly inconsistent
 - ◊ Consistent if used with a non-parametric learning algorithm (forests, tree boosting, nearest neighbor...)
- ▷ Pattern-by-pattern strategies - use a different predictor for each missing pattern
 - ◊ Consistent by design but intractable in most situations

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2. Single Imputation
3. Multiple Imputation
4. Imputation quality
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 - Linear regression: Impute-then-regress procedures via zero-imputation
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7. Conclusion

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Our aim

Predict on new data, which may contain missing entries.

MCAR

(missing completely at random)

$$\mathbb{P}(M|X) = \mathbb{P}(M)$$

MAR (missing at random)

$$\mathbb{P}(M|X) = \mathbb{P}(M|X^{(obs)})$$

MNAR (missing not at random)

Linear model

$$Y = X^T \beta^* + \text{noise}$$

- ▷ $Y \in \mathbb{R}$ (regression) outcome is always observed
- ▷ $X \in \mathbb{R}^d$ contains missing values!
- ▷ β^* model parameter

Linear models do not remain linear

Let

$$Y = X_1 + X_2 + \varepsilon,$$

where $X_2 = \exp(X_1) + \varepsilon_1$. Now, assume that only X_1 is observed. Then, the model can be rewritten as

$$Y = X_1 + \exp(X_1) + \varepsilon + \varepsilon_1,$$

where $f(X_1) = X_1 + \exp(X_1)$ is the Bayes predictor.

Here, the submodel for which only X_1 is observed is not linear.

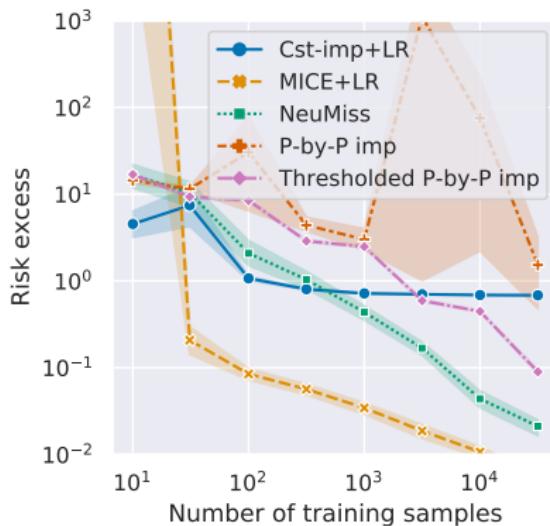
- ⇒ There exists a large variety of submodels for a same linear model.
- ⇒ Submodel natures depend on the structure of X and on the missing-value mechanism.

Handling missing values in linear models for prediction

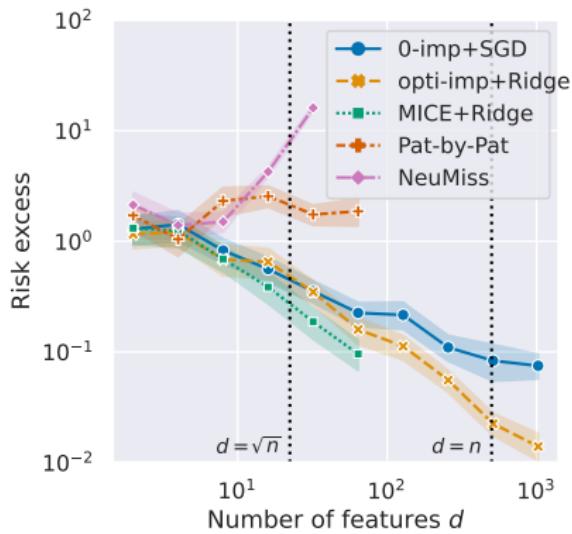
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2 possible approaches

- ▷ Patter-by-pattern methods
- ▷ Impute-then-regress procedures



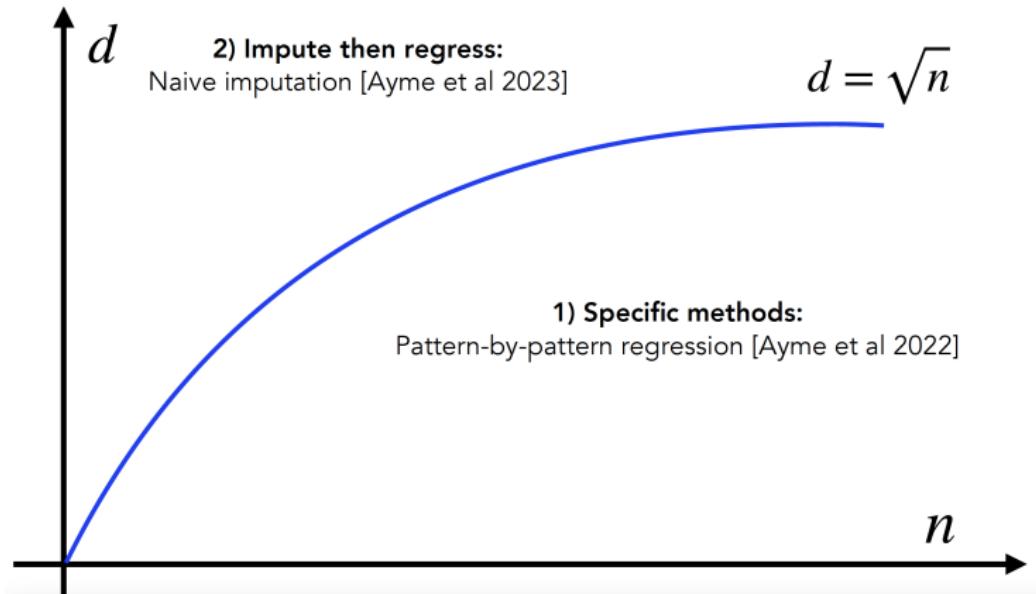
Fixed dimension



Fixed sample size

Different strategies for prediction

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- ▷ Dataset $\mathcal{D}_n = \{(Z_i, Y_i), i \in [n]\}$ where

$$Z_i = (X_{\text{obs}(M_i)}, M_i).$$

- ▷ New test point $Z = (X_{\text{obs}(M)}, M)$ (with **unknown** target Y).

Goal in prediction

Find a **linear function** \hat{f} that minimizes the risk

$$R_{\text{miss}}(\hat{f}) = \mathbb{E} \left[(\hat{f}(Z) - Y)^2 \right].$$

Pattern-by-pattern Bayes predictor

Consider either

▷ $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$ Gaussian (G)

or,

▷ $X|(M = m) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu^m, \Sigma^m)$ Gaussian pattern mixture model (GPMM)

Decompose the Bayes predictor

$$f^*(Z) = \sum_{m \in \mathcal{M}} f_m^*(X_{obs(m)}) \mathbb{1}_{M=m},$$

with f_m^* the Bayes predictor conditionally on the event $(M = m)$.

Proposition

[Le Morvan et al 2020]

If [(MCAR or MAR) and G] or GPMM then, for all $m \in \mathcal{M}$,

f_m^* is linear.

A missing-distribution-free upper bound

Predictor $\hat{f}(Z) = \sum_{m \in \mathcal{M}} \hat{f}_m(X_{obs(m)}) \mathbb{1}_{M=m}$ (pattern-by-pattern OLS)
 where \hat{f}_m is a modified least-square regression rule trained on

$$\mathcal{D}_m = \{(X_{i,obs(m)}, Y_i), M_i = m\}.$$

Theorem (simplified) [Le Morvan et al. 2020] [Ayme, Boyer, Dieuleveut, S. 2022]

If [(MCAR or MAR) and G] or GPMM then

$$\mathbb{E} \left[(\hat{f}(Z) - f^*(Z))^2 \right] \lesssim \log(n) 2^d \frac{d}{n}$$

where the constant depends on the level of noise.

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$$\mathbb{E} \left[(\hat{f}(Z) - f^*(Z))^2 \right] \lesssim \log(n) 2^d \frac{d}{n}$$

where the constant depends on the level of noise.

- ▷ This result does not depend on the distribution of missing patterns.
- ▷ Number of parameters is $p := d2^d$. This result suffers from the curse of dimensionality even with small d .

A missing pattern distribution adaptive bound

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Idea: Regression only on **high frequency** missing patterns

$$\hat{f}(Z) = \sum_{m \in \mathcal{M}} \hat{f}_m(X_{obs(m)}) \mathbb{1}_{M=m} \mathbb{1}_{|\mathcal{D}_m| \geq d}.$$

A missing pattern distribution adaptive bound

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Idea: Regression only on **high frequency** missing patterns

$$\hat{f}(Z) = \sum_{m \in \mathcal{M}} \hat{f}_m(X_{obs(m)}) \mathbb{1}_{M=m} \mathbb{1}_{|\mathcal{D}_m| \geq d}.$$

Theorem [Ayme, Boyer, Dieuleveut, S. 2022]

$$\mathbb{E} \left[\left(\hat{f}(Z) - f^*(Z) \right)^2 \right] \lesssim \log(n) \mathcal{E}_p(d/n),$$

with $\mathcal{E}_p(d/n) := \sum_m \min(p_m, d/n)$.

- ▷ Valid for MCAR, MAR and MNAR settings.
- ▷ Adaptive to missing data distribution via $\mathcal{E}_p(d/n) \leq \text{Card}(\mathcal{M})(d/n)$.

Examples

1. Uniform distribution: $\mathcal{E}_p\left(\frac{d}{n}\right) = 2^d d/n$
2. Bernoulli distribution: $M_j \sim \mathcal{B}(\varepsilon)$ with $\varepsilon \leq d/n$: $\mathcal{E}_p\left(\frac{d}{n}\right) = d^2/n$

A lower bound

Let \mathcal{P}_p be a class of data distributions $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} X|(M=m) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu^m, \Sigma^m) \\ \text{Linear model} \\ \mathbb{P}[M=m] = p_m \end{array} \right.$

$$\text{Minimax error } (p) = \underbrace{\min_{\tilde{f}}}_{\text{Best algo}} \quad \underbrace{\max_{\mathbb{P} \in \mathcal{P}_p}}_{\substack{\text{Worst case on a class} \\ \mathcal{P}_p \text{ of problems}}} \quad \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}} \left[(\tilde{f}(Z) - f^*(Z))^2 \right]$$

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Theorem

[Ayme, Boyer, Dieuleveut, S. 2022]

$$\sigma^2 \mathcal{E}_p \left(\frac{1}{n} \right) \lesssim \underset{\text{Minimax error}}{\min} (p) \leq \mathbb{E} \left[\left(\hat{f}(Z) - f^*(Z) \right)^2 \right] \lesssim \log(n) \mathcal{E}_p \left(\frac{d}{n} \right)$$

A lower bound

Let \mathcal{P}_p be a class of data distributions $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} X|(M=m) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu^m, \Sigma^m) \\ \text{Linear model} \\ \mathbb{P}[M=m] = p_m \end{array} \right.$

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$$\sigma^2 \mathcal{E}_p \left(\frac{1}{n} \right) \lesssim \text{Minimax error } (p) \leq \mathbb{E} \left[\left(\hat{f}(Z) - f^*(Z) \right)^2 \right] \lesssim \log(n) \mathcal{E}_p \left(\frac{d}{n} \right)$$

Examples

- ▷ Uniform distribution
- ▷ Bernoulli distribution $M_j \sim \mathcal{B}(\varepsilon)$
with $\varepsilon \leq d/n$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{E}_p \left(\frac{1}{n} \right) &= 2^d / n & \mathcal{E}_p \left(\frac{d}{n} \right) &= 2^d d / n \\ \mathcal{E}_p \left(\frac{1}{n} \right) &= d / n & \mathcal{E}_p \left(\frac{d}{n} \right) &= d^2 / n \end{aligned}$$

- ☞ For data regimes where n is large, several problems can be learned, even for MNAR.
- ☞ The procedure can be modified to adapt to the distribution of missing patterns.
- ☞ **The dimension is an issue**, even under the classical assumptions (MAR)

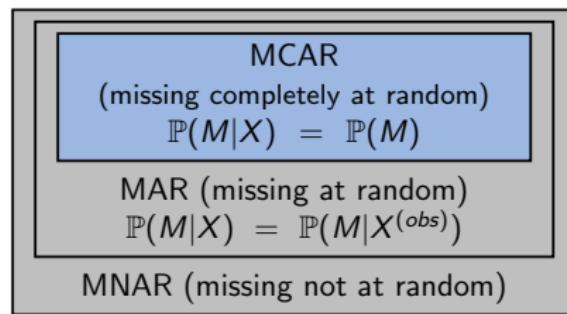
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- ▷ Impute-then-regress method
 - 1. Impute the missing values by 0 to get X_{imp} (e.g., via `df.fillna(0)`)
 - 2. Perform a SGD regression

Impute-then-regress?

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- ▷ Impute-then-regress method
 1. Impute the missing values by 0 to get X_{imp} (e.g., via `df.fillna(0)`)
 2. Perform a SGD regression
- ▷ Focus on MCAR values: $M_1, \dots, M_d \sim \mathcal{B}(\rho)$
 ρ = probability to be observed



impute by 0 = doesn't exploit observed values?

Risk decomposition

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- ▷ R^* = optimal risk without missing data
- ▷ R_{miss}^* = optimal risk with missing data

$$\Delta_{\text{miss}} := R_{\text{miss}}^* - R^* \quad (\text{missing data error})$$

- ▷ $R_{\text{imp}}(\theta) =$ the risk of $f_\theta(X_{\text{obs}}, M) = \theta^\top X_{\text{imp}}$
- ▷ $R_{\text{imp}}(\theta_{\text{imp}}^*) =$ optimal risk of linear prediction after imputation by 0

$$\Delta_{\text{imp}/\text{miss}} := R_{\text{imp}}(\theta_{\text{imp}}^*) - R_{\text{miss}}^* \quad (\text{imputation error})$$

- ▷ Risk decomposition:

$$R_{\text{miss}}(f_\theta) = R^* + \underbrace{\Delta_{\text{miss}} + \Delta_{\text{imp}/\text{miss}}}_{\text{missing data and imputation error}} + \underbrace{R_{\text{miss}}(f_\theta) - R_{\text{imp}}(\theta_{\text{imp}}^*)}_{\text{estimation/optimization error}}$$

Toy example: how imputed inputs disturb learning

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- ▷ Complete model
 - ◊ $Y = X_1$
 - ◊ $X = (X_1, \dots, X_1)$
 - ◊ $R^* = 0$
 - ◊ $M_1, \dots, M_d \sim \mathcal{B}(1/2)$

Toy example: how imputed inputs disturb learning

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- ▷ Complete model
 - ◊ $Y = X_1$
 - ◊ $X = (X_1, \dots, X_1)$
 - ◊ $R^* = 0$
 - ◊ $M_1, \dots, M_d \sim \mathcal{B}(1/2)$
- ▷ With **imputed** inputs and $\theta_1 = (1, 0, \dots, 0)^\top$
 - ◊ $X_{\text{imp}}^\top \theta_1 = X_1 M_1$
 - ◊ $R_{\text{imp}}(\theta_1) = \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}[Y^2]$
- ▷ With **imputed** inputs and $\theta_2 = 2(1/d, 1/d, \dots, 1/d)^\top$
 - ◊ $X_{\text{imp}}^\top \theta_2 = \frac{2}{d} X_1 \sum_j M_j$
 - ◊ $R_{\text{imp}}(\theta_2) = \frac{1}{d} \mathbb{E}[X_1^2]$
 - ◊ $\Delta_{\text{miss}} + \Delta_{\text{imp/miss}} \leq R_{\text{imp}}(\theta_2) - R^* \leq \frac{1}{d} \mathbb{E}[Y^2]$

Toy example: how imputed inputs disturb learning

- ▷ Complete model
 - ◊ $Y = X_1$
 - ◊ $X = (X_1, \dots, X_1)$
 - ◊ $R^* = 0$
 - ◊ $M_1, \dots, M_d \sim \mathcal{B}(1/2)$

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correlation \Rightarrow low imputation/missing values error ?

- ▷ Ridge-regularized risk with complete data

$$R_\lambda(\theta) = R(\theta) + \lambda \|\theta\|_2^2$$

- ▷ Standard in high-dimension settings

Theorem

[Ayme, Boyer, Dieuleveut, S. 2023]

Under the MCAR Bernoulli model of probability ρ of observation and $\text{Var}(X_j) = 1 \forall j$,

$$R_{\text{imp}}(\theta) = R(\rho\theta) + \rho(1 - \rho)\|\theta\|_2^2$$

Consequences

1. $\Delta_{\text{miss}} + \Delta_{\text{imp}/\text{miss}} = \text{ridge bias for } \lambda = \frac{1-\rho}{\rho}$
2. θ_{imp}^* on a small ball around 0 (implicit regularization)

- ☞ Imputed MCAR missing values seem to be at the same price of ridge regularization

Learning with low-rank and imputed-by-0 data

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- ▷ **Low-rank data:** covariance matrix $\Sigma = [XX^\top]$ is

$$\Sigma = \sum_{j=1}^r \lambda_j v_j v_j^\top,$$

with $\lambda_1 = \dots = \lambda_r$ and $r \ll d$.

- ▷ Bias on low-rank data:

$$\Delta_{\text{miss}} + \Delta_{\text{imp/miss}} \lesssim \frac{1 - \rho}{\rho} \frac{r}{d} \mathbb{E}[Y^2]$$

correlation \Rightarrow low imputation/missing values error !

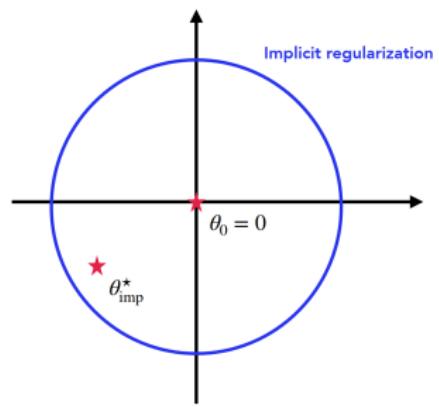
Learning with imputed-by-0 data via SGD

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- ▷ Averaged SGD iterates:

$$\begin{cases} \theta_{\text{imp},t} &= [I - \gamma X_{\text{imp},t} X_{\text{imp},t}^\top] \theta_{\text{imp},t-1} + \gamma Y_t X_{\text{imp},t} \\ \bar{\theta}_{\text{imp},n} &= \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{t=1}^n \theta_{\text{imp},t} \end{cases}$$

- ▷ Why use SGD ?
 1. Streaming online (one pass only)
 2. Minimizes directly the generalization risk R
 3. Friendly assumptions
 4. Leverage the implicit regularization of naive imputations choosing $\theta_{\text{imp},0} = 0$ and $\gamma = 1/d\sqrt{n}$.



Theorem

[Ayme, Boyer, Dieuleveut, S. 2023]

Under classical assumptions for SGD,

$$\mathbb{E} [R_{\text{imp}}(\bar{\theta}_{\text{imp},n})] - R^* \leq \Delta_{\text{miss}} + \Delta_{\text{imp}/\text{miss}} + \frac{d}{\sqrt{n}} \|\theta_{\text{imp}}^*\|_2^2 + \frac{\text{noise variance}}{\sqrt{n}}$$

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▷ Example: low-rank setting

$$\mathbb{E} [R_{\text{imp}}(\bar{\theta}_{\text{imp},n})] - R^* \lesssim \left(\frac{1}{\rho\sqrt{n}} + \frac{1-\rho}{d} \right) \frac{r}{d} \mathbb{E} Y^2 + \frac{\text{noise variance}}{\sqrt{n}}$$

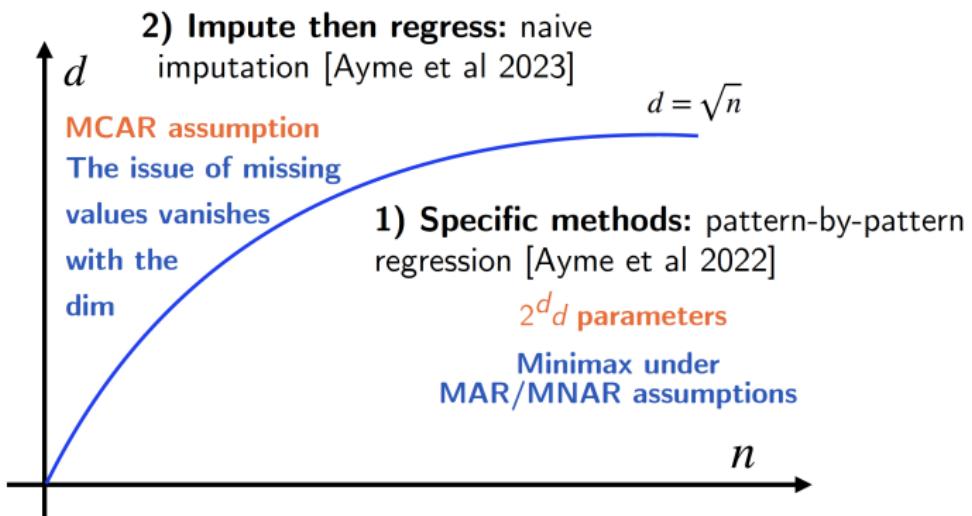
► Imputation bias vanishes for $d \gg \sqrt{n}$

Naive imputation implicitly regularizes HD linear models

- ▷ MCAR inputs
(observation rate = ρ)
- ▷ All in all

Performing
standard linear regression
on imputed-by-0 data

=
Adding a ridge
regularization w/ parameter
 $\lambda = \frac{1-\text{observation rate}}{\text{observation rate}}$



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LDA

Let $\mathbb{P}(Y = 1) = 0.5$ and $\forall k \in \{-1, 1\}, X|Y = k \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_k, \Sigma)$.

Bayes predictor for the complete case:

$$h_{\text{comp}}^*(x) := \text{sign} \left((\mu_1 - \mu_{-1})^\top \Sigma^{-1} \left(x - \frac{\mu_1 + \mu_{-1}}{2} \right) \right).$$

⁴⁶A primer on linear classification with missing data A.D.R. Lobo, A. Ayme, C. Boyer, E. Scornet

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Proposition: Bayes predictor for LDA+MCAR

Assume LDA + MCAR. Then the PbP Bayes classifier satisfies

$$\begin{aligned} h_m^*(x_{\text{obs}(m)}) &= \text{sign} \left((\mu_{1,\text{obs}(m)} - \mu_{-1,\text{obs}(m)})^\top \Sigma_{\text{obs}(m)}^{-1} \right. \\ &\quad \times \left. \left(x_{\text{obs}(m)} - \frac{\mu_{1,\text{obs}(m)} + \mu_{-1,\text{obs}(m)}}{2} \right) \right). \end{aligned}$$

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- ▷ PbP strategy is Bayes optimal
- ▷ Constant imputation is not optimal (if Σ is nondiagonal)
- ▷ Extension to MNAR scenarios (GPMM)

⁴⁶A primer on linear classification with missing data A.D.R. Lobo, A. Ayme, C. Boyer, E. Scornet

Logistic model

$$\mathbb{P}[Y = 1|X] = \sigma(\beta_0^* + \sum_j \beta_j^* X_j) \text{ with } \sigma(t) = 1/(1 + e^{-t}).$$

Bayes classifier: $g^*(\tilde{x}) = \mathbb{1}_{\eta^*(\tilde{x}) > 0.5}$ with $\eta^*(\tilde{x}) = \mathbb{E}[Y|\tilde{X} = \tilde{x}]$.

III-specified PbP logistic regression

Assume MCAR data in a logistic model for complete data with X_1, \dots, X_d independent Gaussian random variables. Let $m \in \{0, 1\}^d$ and assume that there exists a vector $\beta_m^* \in \mathbb{R}^{|\text{obs}(m)|+1}$ such that

$$\mathbb{P}(Y = 1|X_{\text{obs}(m)}, M = m) = \sigma\left(\beta_{0,m}^* + \sum_{j \in \text{obs}(m)} \beta_{j,m}^* X_j\right).$$

Then, for all $j \in \text{mis}(m)$, $\beta_j^* = 0$

Ill-specified PbP logistic regression

Assume MCAR data in a logistic model for complete data with X_1, \dots, X_d independent Gaussian random variables. Let $m \in \{0, 1\}^d$ and assume that there exists a vector $\beta_m^* \in \mathbb{R}^{|\text{obs}(m)|+1}$ such that

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Then, for all $j \in \text{mis}(m)$, $\beta_j^* = 0$

- ▷ Logistic model cannot hold on complete data AND on data with a given missing pattern
- ▷ Constant imputation Impute-then-Logistic-Regression is ill specified

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[Y | X_{\text{obs}(M)}, M = m] &= \mathbb{E}\left[\mathbb{E}[Y | X] | X_{\text{obs}(M)}\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[\sigma(X) | X_{\text{obs}(M)}\right] \\ &\neq \sigma\left(\mathbb{E}[\beta_0^* + \sum_{j=1}^d \beta_j^* X_j | X_{\text{obs}(M)}]\right).\end{aligned}$$

Denote $\Phi(t)$ the probit function: $\Phi(t) = (2\pi)^{-1/2} \int_{-\infty}^t e^{-t^2/2} dt$,

Theorem

Assume a logistic model on complete data and a GPMM:

$X|M = m \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_m, \Sigma_m)$. Then, for all m , the Bayes probability on pattern m , η_m^* , satisfies for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^{|\text{obs}(m)|}$,

$$\left| \eta_m^*(x) - \sigma \left(\frac{\alpha_{0,m} + \alpha_m^\top x}{\sqrt{1 + (\pi/8)\tilde{\sigma}_m^2}} \right) \right| \leq 2\|\varepsilon\|_\infty \approx 0.036,$$

where $\varepsilon(t) = \Phi(t) - \sigma(t\sqrt{8/\pi})$, and $\alpha_{0,m}, \alpha_m, \tilde{\sigma}_m^2$.

Theoretical ground for understanding why PbP logistic regression performs well in practice while being ill-specified.

See also⁴⁷

⁴⁷K.A. Verchand, A. Montanari, High-dimensional logistic regression with missing data: Imputation, regularization, and universality

⁴⁸C. Muller, E. Scornet, J. Josse, When Pattern-by-Pattern Works: Theoretical and Empirical Insights for Logistic Models with Missing Values

- ▷ Pattern-by-pattern (PbP): Logistic regression on each pattern

- ▷ Pattern-by-pattern (PbP)
- ▷ Mean imputation (Mean.IMP): Mean per covariate

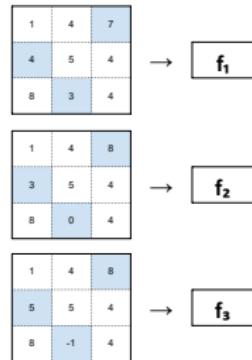
- ▷ Pattern-by-pattern (PbP)
- ▷ Mean imputation (Mean.IMP)
- ▷ Fully specified (SAEM): Fully parametrized model,
assuming normal covariates + logistic regression,
optimized by Iterative EM

- ▷ Pattern-by-pattern (PbP)
- ▷ Mean imputation (Mean.IMP)
- ▷ Fully specified (SAEM)
- ▷ Imputation by MICE (MICE.IMP): Iterative imputation by iterative MICE algorithm

Methods evaluated

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- ▷ Pattern-by-pattern (PbP)
- ▷ Mean imputation (Mean.IMP)
- ▷ Fully specified (SAEM)
- ▷ Imputation by MICE (MICE.IMP)
 - Allow multiple imputations (MICE. K .IMP): Fit logistic on each dataset, average predictions



Methods evaluated

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- ▷ Pattern-by-pattern (PbP)
- ▷ Mean imputation (Mean.IMP)
- ▷ Fully specified (SAEM)
- ▷ Imputation by MICE (MICE.IMP)
 - Allow multiple imputations (MICE.K.IMP)
 - Add M during imputation process (MICE.M.IMP)

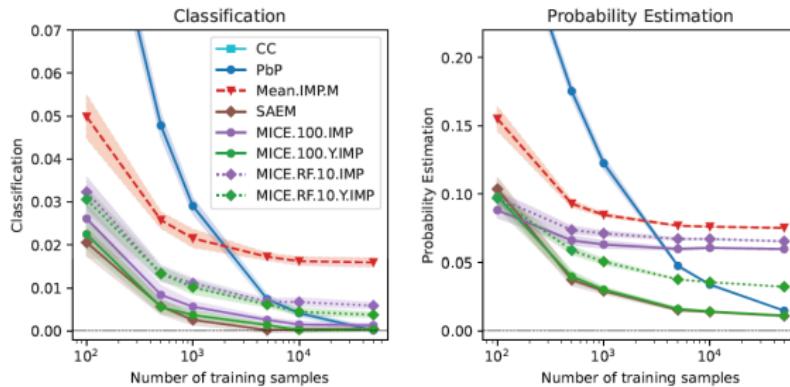
X'					
1	4	NA	0	0	1
NA	5	4	1	0	0
8	NA	4	0	1	0
NA	5	4	1	0	0
1	3	1	0	0	0
NA	1	4	1	0	0
7	8	4	0	0	0
4	5	NA	0	0	1

- ▷ Pattern-by-pattern (PbP)
- ▷ Mean imputation (Mean.IMP)
- ▷ Fully specified (SAEM)
- ▷ Imputation by MICE (MICE.IMP)
 - Allow multiple imputations (MICE.K.IMP)
 - Add M during imputation process (MICE.M.IMP)
 - Add Y during training of imputation process (MICE.Y.IMP)

X'

1	4	NA	0
NA	5	4	0
8	NA	4	1
NA	5	4	1
1	3	1	1
NA	1	4	0
7	8	4	0
4	5	NA	1

Gaussian features (MCAR)

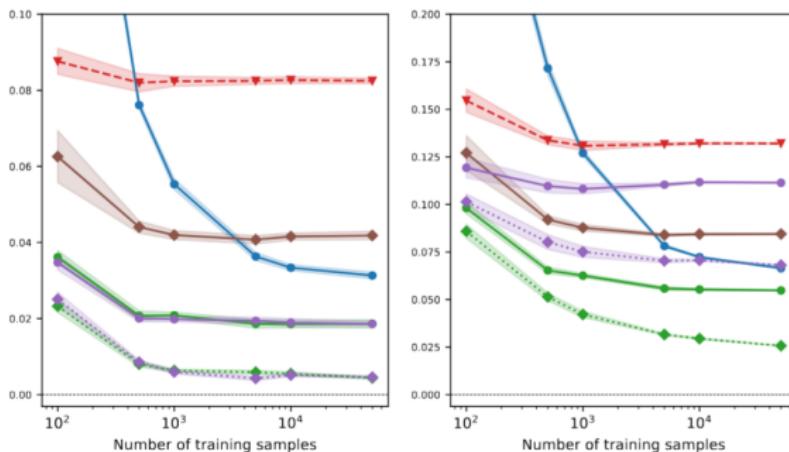


- ▷ $X \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma)$
- ▷ 5 dimensions
- ▷ 10 replicates
- ▷ Toeplitz correlation matrix (0.65 corr.)
- ▷ MCAR with prob. 0.25

-
- PbP approaching the Bayes prob. (large training set)
 - Necessary to use multiple imputations with MICE
 - Necessary to add Y to MICE imputation
 - SAEM and MICE.100.Y.IMP best overall

Non-linear features (MCAR)

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- ▷ X non-linear transformation of $\mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma)$
- ▷ 5 dimensions
- ▷ 10 replicates
- ▷ Σ Toeplitz matrix (0.65)
- ▷ MCAR with prob 0.25

-
- No method can estimate Bayes probabilities
 - SAEM suffers from misspecification
 - PbP not approaching Bayes, coherent with our Theorem

Non-linear features (MCAR): details per pattern

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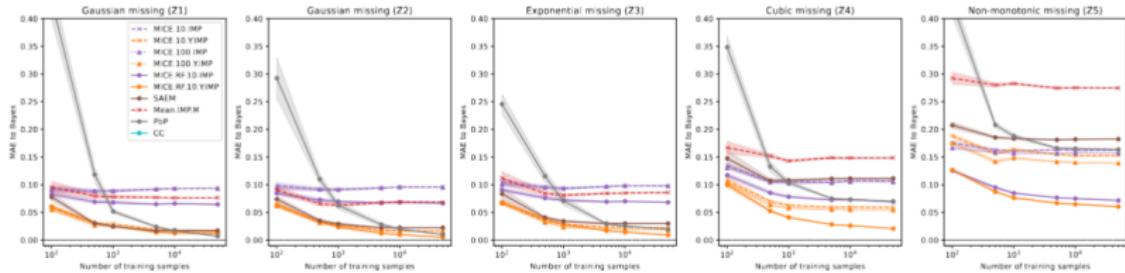
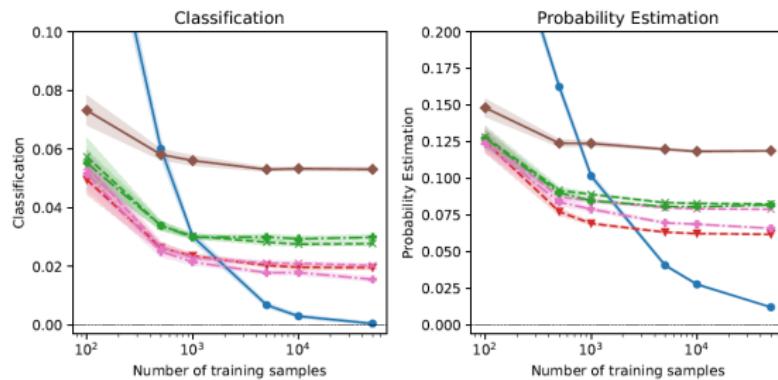


Figure C.7: Performances of selected procedures in terms of MAE from Bayes probabilities. The results are displayed by missing pattern in the test set (with one missing index: [1,0,0,0,0], ..., [0,0,0,0,1]). Means and standard errors over 10 replicates of non-linear features with MCAR missingness are displayed (see Section 5.1). The curves from MICE.10.IMP and MICE.100.IMP overlap in the first 4 plots.

Mixture of Gaussian (MNAR)

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- ▷ $X|M = m \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_m, \Sigma_m)$
- ▷ 5 dimensions
- ▷ 10 replicates
- ▷ Σ Toeplitz matrix
- ▷ MCAR with prob 0.25

-
- Only the PbP strategy performs well
 - Coherent with theory

- ▷ Theoretically, although misspecified, Pattern-by-pattern performs well under gaussian covariates (MCAR or Pattern Mixture Model)
- ▷ Confirmed experimentally: in GPMM-MNAR, PbP is one of the most competitive methods.

Empirically,

- ▷ MICE imputation consistently performing well in MCAR setting
 1. With the use of multiple imputations
 2. With the inclusion of Y in covariates
 3. But needs non-linear inner regressor for non-linear covariates
- ▷ M(N)AR settings are more tricky

1. Missing values mechanism
2. Single Imputation
3. Multiple Imputation
4. Imputation quality
5. Supervised Learning with Missing values
 - Decision trees as PbP predictors
 - Impute-then-regress procedures with consistent predictors
6. Linear models
 - Linear regression: A pattern-by-pattern approach
 - Linear regression: Impute-then-regress procedures via zero-imputation
 - Classification with missing values
7. Conclusion

Missing mechanisms

- ▷ Different missing data scenario (MCAR, MAR, MNAR).
- ▷ Both % of NA & structure matter (5% of NA can be an issue)
- ▷ MAR was designed for likelihood inference (e.g. EM algorithm) but can hide many complex distributions (distribution shift in MAR).
- ▷ Few implementations of EM strategies.

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- ▷ Few implementations of EM strategies.

Imputation

- ▷ Results in a complete data set, on which any method can be applied.
- ▷ *Imputation is both seductive & dangerous* (Dempster & Rubin, 1983).
 - ◊ Seductive: *can lull the user into the pleasant state of believing that the data are complete*
 - ◊ Dangerous: *it lumps together situations where the problem is minor enough to be handled in this way & situations where estimators applied to the imputed data have substantial biases.*

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Single imputation

- ▷ From simple (mean imputation) to more complex strategies (MissForest)
- ▷ Useful for point estimates
- ▷ Distort the marginal and joint distributions
- ▷ Lead to confidence interval with poor coverage

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Multiple imputation

- ▷ Look for an imputation that preserve the joint distribution of the data
- ▷ MI aims at estimating the parameters and their variability taking into account the uncertainty of the missing values
- ▷ Useful for confidence intervals
- ▷ Compare imputations with distributional metrics like energy distance
- ▷ mice-DRF promising (code available) - mice-Engression^a

^aShen & Meinshausen (2024). Engression: extrapolation through the lens of distributional regression. *JRSS B*.

Aim

Estimating the Bayes predictor in presence of missing values

$$f^*(\tilde{X}) = \sum_{m \in \{0,1\}^d} \mathbb{E}[Y | X_{obs(m)}, M = m] \mathbf{1}_{M=m}$$

Two common strategies:

- ▷ **Impute-then-regress strategies** - impute the data then learn on the imputed data set
 - ◊ Computationally efficient but possibly inconsistent
- ▷ **Pattern-by-pattern strategies** - use a different predictor for each missing pattern
 - ◊ Consistent by design but intractable in most situations

Decision trees

- ▷ Decision trees are among the few methods able to natively handle missing values (MIA)
- ▷ Amounts to PbP strategies with a data-driven selection of relevant patterns

Impute-then-regress

- ▷ Consistent for any imputation method when the predictor is universally consistent
- ▷ Use the same imputation for train and test sets
- ▷ In finite sample, some imputation may ease the training of the predictor (e.g., Conditional Imputation is not well-suited in general)
- ▷ Rethinking imputation: a good imputation is the one that makes the prediction easy

Pattern-by-Pattern

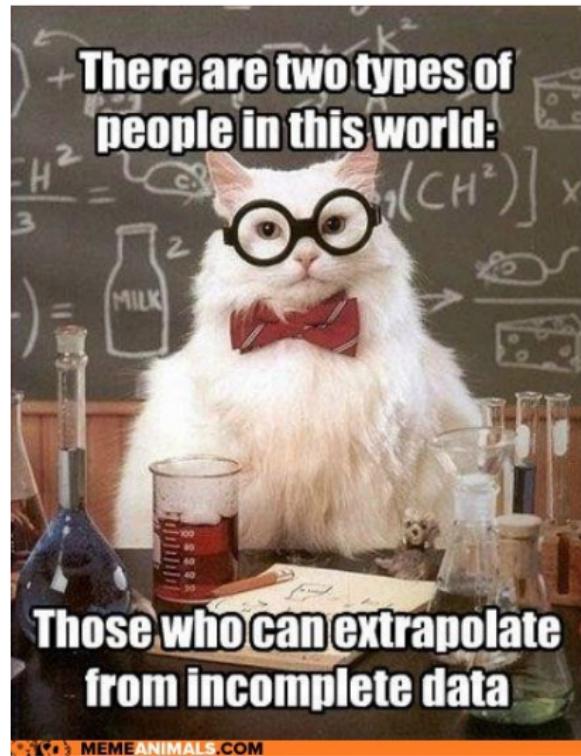
- ▷ Rate in $2^d/n$ in the worst case
- ▷ Improved by performing regressions on the most frequent patterns only
- ▷ Rate in d^2/n for MCAR Bernoulli, with a probability of missingness small enough
- ▷ MNAR/MAR is not suited for prediction (GPMM)

Impute-then-Regress

- ▷ Inconsistent in fixed dimension
- ▷ Consistent in high dimensions with a slow rate $n^{-1/2}$
- ▷ Imputation by zero amounts to a ridge regularization with a strength depending on the missing probability

Logistic regression model

- ▷ PbP and constant imputation result in inconsistent predictor
- ▷ But in presence of Gaussian features, Bayes probabilities are correctly estimated by PbP
- ▷ PbP competitive in GPMM-MNAR scenario but deteriorates when input distribution is not Gaussian



⁴⁹ More resources: <https://rmisstastic.netlify.app/>