# Bayesian inference for sample surveys

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Module 16: missing data 3 – item

nonresponse

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# Item nonresponse

- Item nonresponse generally has complex "swiss-cheese" pattern
- Weighting methods are possible when the data have a monotone pattern, but are very difficult to develop for a general pattern
- Two variants of Bayes for item nonresponse:
  - Compute posterior predictive distribution of population quantities, given the observed data
  - Multiple imputation of draws from predictive distribution of missing values
- By conditioning fully on all observed data, these methods weaken MAR assumption

## Bayesian MCMC Computations

A convenient algorithmic approach for complex problems is to iterate between draws of the missing values and draws of the parameters:

$$(Y_{\text{mis}}^{(d,t+1)} \mid Y_{\text{obs}}, \theta^{(dt)}) \sim p(Y_{\text{mis}} \mid Y_{\text{obs}}, \theta^{(dt)})$$

$$(\theta^{(d,t+1)} \mid Y_{\text{obs}}, Y_{\text{mis}}^{(d,t+1)}) \sim p(\theta \mid Y_{\text{obs}}, Y_{\text{mis}}^{(d,t+1)})$$

As t tends to infinity, this sequence converges to a draw from the joint posterior distribution of  $(Y_{mis}, \theta)$ , as required.

- One of the first applications of the Gibbs' sampler (Tanner and Wong 1984)
  - Unlike the related EM algorithm, yields full posterior distribution, not just an ML estimate.
- Draws  $Y_{\text{mis}}^{(d,t)}$  of missing data can be used to create multiplyimputed data sets

# Multiple imputation

- Imputes *draws*, not means, from the predictive distribution of the missing values
- Creates D > 1 filled-in data sets with different values imputed
- Bayesian MI combining rules yield valid inferences under well-specified models – propagate imputation uncertainty, and averaging of estimates over MI data sets avoids the efficiency loss from imputing draws
- MI can also be used for non-MAR models, particularly for sensitivity analyses

# Idea of Multiple Imputation

Data matrix with missing values

**Variables** 

Cases

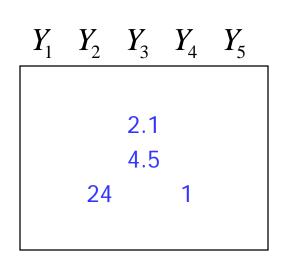
 $\hat{\mu}_1$  = mean based on all cases

$$\hat{\beta}_{51\cdot 1234} = ?$$

Impute to recover information in incomplete cases

# Single Imputation

• Impute missing values with predictions Estimate ( $se^2$ )



Dataset (*l*) 
$$\mu_1$$
  $\beta_{51\cdot1234}$   
1 12.6 (3.6<sup>2</sup>) 4.32 (1.95<sup>2</sup>)

Imputing best estimates biases slope - need to impute <u>draws</u>

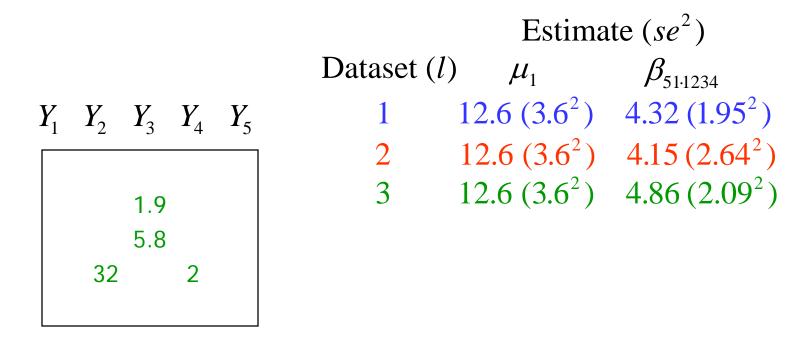
SE of slope is too low – imputation error is not accounted for

MI: repeat with other draws

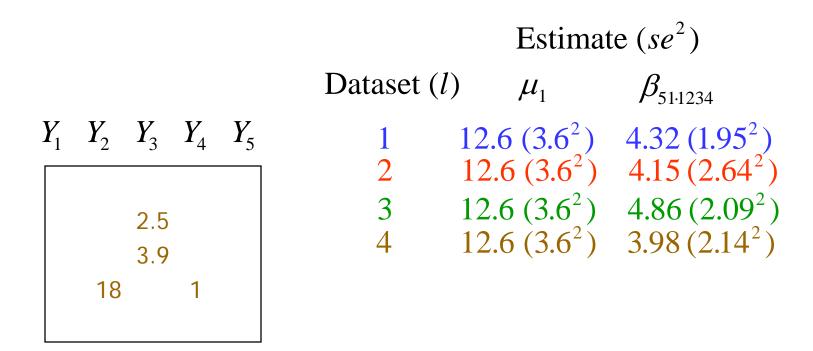
# Second imputed dataset

```
Estimate (se^2)
Y_1 \quad Y_2 \quad Y_3 \quad Y_4 \quad Y_5
2.7 \quad 5.1 \quad 31 \quad 1
Estimate (se^2)
\mu_1 \quad \beta_{51\cdot1234}
1 \quad 12.6 \quad (3.6^2) \quad 4.32 \quad (1.95^2)
2 \quad 12.6 \quad (3.6^2) \quad 4.15 \quad (2.64^2)
```

# Third imputed dataset



# Fourth imputed dataset



# Fifth imputed dataset

		Estimate $(se^2)$		
	Dataset $(l)$	$\mu_1$	$eta_{\scriptscriptstyle 51\cdot 1234}$	
$Y_1$ $Y_2$ $Y_3$ $Y_4$ $Y_5$	1	$12.6 (3.6^2)$	$4.32(1.95^2)$	
	2	$12.6 (3.6^2)$	$4.15(2.64^2)$	
2.3	3	$12.6 (3.6^2)$	$4.86(2.09^2)$	
4.2	4	$12.6 (3.6^2)$	$3.98(2.14^2)$	
25 2	5	$12.6 (3.6^2)$	$4.50(2.47^2)$	
	Mean	$12.6 (3.6^2)$	$4.36(2.27^2)$	
	Var	0	0.339	

### MI combining rules

Simulation approximations of posterior mean, variance yield the ML combining rules:

$$E(\theta \mid \mathbf{Y}_{\text{obs}}) \approx \frac{1}{D} \sum_{d=1}^{D} E(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \mathbf{Y}_{\text{obs}}, \mathbf{Y}_{\text{mis}}^{(d)}) = \frac{1}{D} \sum_{d=1}^{D} \hat{\theta}_{d}$$

where  $\hat{\theta}_d$  = is posterior mean from dth dataset

$$Var(\theta \mid \underline{Y}_{\text{obs}}) \approx \frac{1}{D} \sum_{d=1}^{D} W_d + (1 + 1/D) \frac{1}{D-1} \sum_{d=1}^{D} (\hat{\theta}_d - \overline{\theta}_D)^2$$

where  $W_d = \text{Var}(\theta \mid Y_{\text{obs}}, Y_{\text{mis}}^{(d)})$  is posterior variance from dth dataset

# MI Inferences (M=5)

$$\frac{\overline{\theta}}{\mu_{1}} \quad \overline{W} \qquad B \quad \sqrt{V} = \sqrt{\overline{W}} + (1 + \frac{1}{D})B \quad R = \frac{(1 + 1/D)B}{V}$$

$$\mu_{1} \quad 12.6 \quad 3.6^{2} \quad 0 \quad 3.6 \quad 0$$

$$\beta_{51.1234} \quad 4.36 \quad 2.27^{2} \quad 0.339 \quad 2.36 \quad 0.073$$

$$\overline{\theta}$$
 = MI estimate

$$\sqrt{V}$$
 = MI standard error

R = estimated fraction of missing information

### Advantages of MI

- Imputation model can differ from analysis model
  - By including variables not included in final analysis
  - Promotes consistency of treatment of missing data across multiple analyses
  - MI combining rules can also be applied when the complete-data inference is not Bayesian (e.g. designbased survey inference).
  - Assumptions in imputation model are then confined to the imputations – with little missing data, simple methods suffice
- Public use data set users can be provided MI's, spared task of building imputation model
  - MI analysis of imputed data is easy, using completedata methods (SAS PROC MIANALYZE)

### MI for parametric models

- Principled, MCMC methods for creating draws have predictable properties
- Parametric assumptions can be improved by usual data-analytic strategies, e.g. transformations
- Analysis of MI data sets can be based on less parametric methods if desired
- For monotone pattern, flexibility is achieved by *factoring* the joint distribution
- However, for general patterns, the requirement for a coherent joint distribution limits flexibility
  - E.g. multivariate normality assumes regressions are linear and additive

## Sequential regression MI (SRMI)

- Sequential regression MI (IVEware, MICE) regresses each variable with missing values in succession on all the other variables, with missing values of regressors filled in from earlier steps
- Iterates until imputations appear "stable"
- For parametric model, sequential imputation is essentially a form of Gibbs' sampler
- Flexibility allowed in regressions e.g. logit links for binary variables, nonlinear terms
- Conditionals may be incoherent do not correspond to well-specified joint d/n but gain in flexibility outweighs this theoretical drawback

# Example. Logistic regression simulation study

• True model:

$$X \sim N(0,1)$$
  
 $Logit[Pr(E=1|X)]=0.5+X$   
 $logit[Pr(D=1|E,X)]=0.25+0.5X+1.1E$ 

- Sample size: 500
- Number of Replicates: 5000
- Before Deletion Data Sets

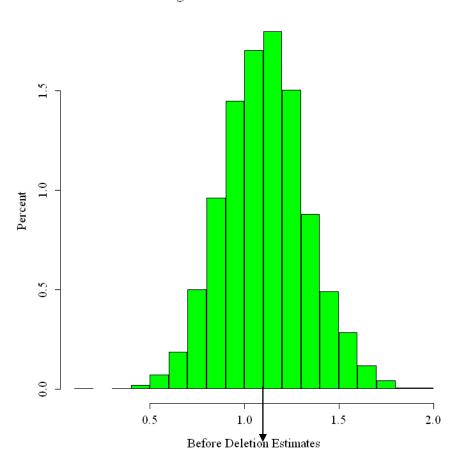
# Missing-Data Mechanism

- D and E : completely observed
- X : sometimes missing
- Missing Data Probabilities:

D=0,E=0: 
$$p_{00}$$
=0.19  
D=0,E=1:  $p_{01}$ =0.09  
D=1,E=0:  $p_{10}$ =0.015  
D=1,E=1:  $p_{11}$ =0.055

### Before Deletion Estimates

#### Histogram of 5000 Point Estimates

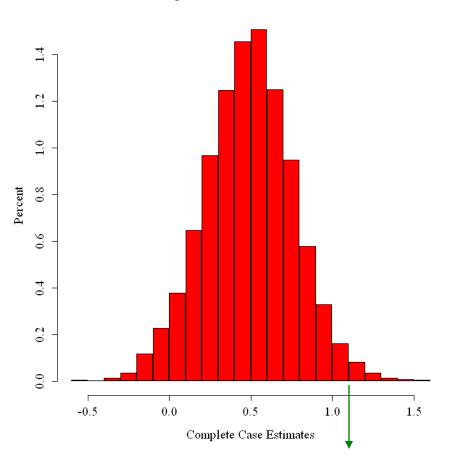


- Histogram of 5000
   estimates before deleting
   values of X
- logistic model logit Pr(D=1/E,X)

$$=\beta_0+\beta_1E+\beta_2X$$

# Complete-Case Estimates

#### Histogram of 5000 Point Estimates



Histogram of complete- case analysis estimates

Delete subjects with missing X values

True value = 1.1, serious negative bias

# MI for logistic regression example

• The model for the data implies that for missing values of *X*:

$$(X_i | D_i = d, E_i = e, \mu_{ed}, \sigma^2) \sim N(\mu_{ed}, \sigma^2)$$

- Improper MI: substitute estimates of  $\{\mu_{ed}\}, \sigma^2$
- Proper MI: Imputations are draws from the posterior predictive distribution
- Draw  $\sigma^2$ , then  $\mu_{ed}$  and then missing  $X_i$

### Predictive Distributions

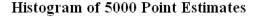
$$\sigma^{2(\ell)} \sim WSS / \chi_{r-4}^2$$
,

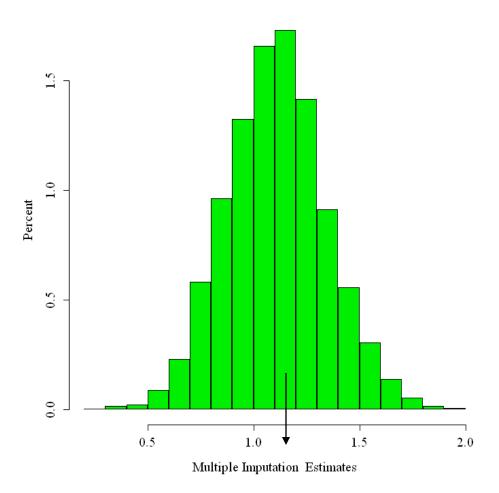
 $WSS$  = residual sum of squares,

 $r$  = number of complete cases

 $\mu_{ed}^{(\ell)} \sim N(\overline{x}_{ed}, \sigma^2 / r_{ed})$ 
 $\overline{x}_{ed}, r_{ed}$  = mean, complete cases in cell  $(e, d)$ 
 $X_{ed}^{(\ell)} \sim N(\mu_{ed}^{(\ell)}, \sigma^{2(\ell)})$ 

### Histogram of Multiple Imputation Estimates





- 5 Imputations per missing value
- 5 completed Datasets
- Analyze each separately
- Combine using the formulae given earlier

### Coverage and MSE of Various Methods

METHOD	COVERAGE (95% Nominal)	MSE	
Complete-case	37.86	0.4456	
Hot-Deck Single	90.28	0.0566	
Imputation			
Multiple	94.56	0.0547	
Imputation		0.0404	
Before Deletion	94.68	0.0494	

### Bayesian Theory of MI (Rubin, 1987)

For simplicity assume MAR -- MNAR also allowed

Model: 
$$f(Y | \theta) \Rightarrow \text{Likelihood } L(\theta | Y) \propto f(Y | \theta)$$

Prior distribution:  $\pi(\theta)$ ; md mechanism: MAR

$$Y = (Y_{obs}, Y_{mis}), Y_{obs} = observed data, Y_{mis} = missing data$$

Complete-data posterior distribution,

if there were no missing values:

$$p(\theta | Y_{\text{obs}}, Y_{\text{mis}}) \propto \pi(\theta) L(\theta | Y_{\text{obs}}, Y_{\text{mis}})$$

Posterior distribution given observed data:

$$p(\theta | Y_{\text{obs}}) \propto \pi(\theta) L(\theta | Y_{\text{obs}})$$

Theory relates these two distributions ...

# Relating the posteriors

• The posterior is related to the complete-data posterior by:

$$p(\theta | Y_{\text{obs}}) = \int p(\theta | Y_{\text{obs}}, Y_{\text{mis}}) p(Y_{\text{mis}} | Y_{\text{obs}}) dY_{\text{mis}}$$

$$\approx \frac{1}{D} \sum_{d=1}^{D} p(\theta | Y_{\text{obs}}, Y_{\text{mis}}^{(d)}), \text{ where } Y_{\text{mis}}^{(d)} \sim p(Y_{\text{mis}} | Y_{\text{obs}})$$

 $Y_{\text{mis}}^{(d)}$  is a draw from the predictive distribution of the missing values

The accuracy of the approximation increases with D and the fraction of observed data

### MI approximation to posterior mean

• Similar approximations yield MI combining rules:

$$E(\theta \mid Y_{\text{obs}}) = \int E(\theta \mid Y_{\text{obs}}, \underline{Y}_{\text{mis}}) p(\underline{Y}_{\text{mis}} \mid Y_{\text{obs}}) d\underline{Y}_{\text{mis}}$$

$$\approx \frac{1}{D} \sum_{d=1}^{D} E(\theta \mid Y_{\text{obs}}, \underline{Y}_{\text{mis}}^{(d)}) = \frac{1}{D} \sum_{d=1}^{D} \hat{\theta}_{d},$$

where  $\hat{\theta}_d$  = is posterior mean from dth imputed dataset

### MI approximation to posterior variance

$$Var(\theta | Y_{obs}) = E(\theta^2 | Y_{obs}) - (E(\theta | Y_{obs}))^2$$

Apply above approx to  $E(\theta | Y_{obs})$  and  $E(\theta^2 | Y_{obs})$ Algebra then yields:

$$\operatorname{Var}(\theta \mid Y_{\text{obs}}) \approx \overline{V} + B$$

$$\overline{V} = \frac{1}{D} \sum_{d=1}^{D} V_d$$
 = within-imputation variance,

$$V_d = \text{Var}(\theta \mid Y_{\text{obs}}, Y_{\text{mis}}^{(d)})$$
 is posterior variance from dth dataset

$$B = \frac{1}{D-1} \sum_{d=1}^{D} (\hat{\theta}_d - \overline{\theta}_D)^2 = \text{between-imputation variance}$$

### Refinements for small D

(A): 
$$Var(\theta \mid Y_{obs}) \approx \overline{V} + (1+1/D)B$$

(B) Replace normal reference distribution by t distribution with df

$$v = (D-1)\left(1 + \frac{D}{D+1}\frac{\overline{V}}{B}\right)^{2}$$

(C) For normal sample with variance based on  $v_{com}$  df, replace v by

$$v^* = (v^{-1} + \hat{v}_{obs}^{-1})^{-1}, \hat{v}_{obs} = (1 - \hat{\gamma}_D) \left(\frac{v_{com} + 1}{v_{com} + 3}\right) v_{com}$$

$$\hat{\gamma}_D = \frac{\left(1 + D^{-1}\right)B}{\overline{V} + \left(1 + D^{-1}\right)B} = \text{estimated fraction of missing information}$$

### Why MI for surveys?

- Software is widely available (IVEware, MICE, etc.)
- MI based on Bayes for a joint model for the data has optimal asymptoic properties under that model.
- Propagates imputation uncertainty in a way that is practical for public use files
- Flexible, using models that fully condition on observed data makes MAR assumption "as weak as possible"
- Applies to general patterns weighting methods do not generalize in a compelling way beyond monotone patterns

### Why MI for surveys?

- Allows inclusion of auxiliary variables in the imputation model that are not in the final analysis
- "Design-based" methods can be applied to multiply-imputed data, with MI combining rules: model assumptions only used to create the imputations (where assumptions are inevitable).

### Arguments against MI for surveys

- It's model-based, and I don't want to make assumptions but there is no assumption-free imputation method!
- Lack of congeniality between imputer model and analyst model
  - advice is to be inclusive of potential predictors, leading to at worst conservative inferences – parametric models allow main effects to be prioritized over high order interactions
  - Congeniality problem also applies to other methods that falsely claim to be assumption free
  - Perfection is the enemy of the good in simulation studies, MI tends to work well, because it is propagating imputation uncertainty

### Arguments against MI for surveys

- Misspecified parametric models can lead to problems with the imputes – for example, imputing log-transformed data and then exponentiating can lead to wild imputations
- So, important to plot the imputations to check that they are plausible
- With large samples, chained equations with predictive mean matching hot deck has some attractions, since only actual values are imputed
- But hot deck methods are less effective in small samples where good matches are lacking (Andridge & Little, 2010)

### Missing Not at Random Models

- Difficult problem, since information to fit non-MAR is limited and highly dependent on assumptions
- Sensitivity analysis is preferred approach this form of analysis is not appealing to consumers of statistics, who want clear answers
- Selection vs Pattern-Mixture models
  - Prefer pattern-mixture factorization since it is simpler to explain and implement
  - Offsets, Proxy Pattern-mixture analysis
- Missing covariates in regression
  - Subsample Ignorable Likelihood

# A simple pattern-mixture model

Giusti & Little (2011) extends this idea to a PM model for income nonresponse in a rotating panel survey:

- \* Two mechanisms (rotation MCAR, income nonresponse NMAR)
- \* Offset includes as a factor the residual sd, so smaller when good predictors are available
- \* Complex problem, but PM model is easy to interpret and fit Readily implemented extension of chained equation MI to MNAR models

### An Alternative: Proxy Pattern-Mixture Analysis

$$[y_i \mid x_i, r_{2i} = k] \sim G(\beta^{(k)} x_i, \tau^{2(k)})$$

$$\Pr(r_i = 1 \mid x_i, y_i) = g\left(y_i^*(\lambda)\right), \ y_i^*(\lambda) = \hat{y}(x_i) + \lambda y_i$$

$$\hat{y}(x_i) = \text{best predictor of } y_i$$

$$\text{MAR: } \lambda = 0, \text{ MNAR: } \lambda \neq 0$$

$$(\text{Andridge and Little 2011})$$

(\*) implies that  $[y_i \text{ indep } r_i \mid y_i^*(\lambda)]$ , which identifies the model

Interesting feature: g() is arbitrary, unspecified

NMAR model that avoids specifying missing data mechanism

PPMA: Sensitivity analysis for different choices of  $\lambda$ 

If  $x_i$  is a noisy measure of  $y_i$ , it may be plausible to assume  $\lambda = \infty$  (West and Little, 2013)

### Summary

- Bayesian approach to missing data meshes seamlessly with Bayesian approach to survey inference
  - Predict missing values as well as non-sampled values
- MAR key condition: MAR methods much easier if they can be justified
- Multiple imputation provides flexibility, allows design-based complete-data methods to be applied