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Constrained Maximum Likelihood Estimation for Model Calibration Using Summary-Level Information From External Big Data Sources

Nilanjan CHATTERJEE, Yi-Hau CHEN, Paige MAAS, and Raymond J. CARROLL

Information from various public and private data sources of extremely large sample sizes are now increasingly available for research purposes. Statistical methods are needed for using information from such big data sources while analyzing data from individual studies that may collect more detailed information required for addressing specific hypotheses of interest. In this article, we consider the problem of building regression models based on individual-level data from an “internal” study while using summary-level information, such as information on parameters for reduced models, from an “external” big data source. We identify a set of very general constraints that link internal and external models. These constraints are used to develop a framework for semiparametric maximum likelihood inference that allows the distribution of covariates to be estimated using either the internal sample or an external reference sample. We develop extensions for handling complex stratified sampling designs, such as case-control sampling, for the internal study. Asymptotic theory and variance estimators are developed for each case. We use simulation studies and a real data application to assess the performance of the proposed methods in contrast to the generalized regression calibration methodology that is popular in the sample survey literature. Supplementary materials for this article are available online.

KEY WORDS: Case-control study; Empirical likelihood; Generalized regression estimator; Misspecified model; Profile-likelihood.

1. INTRODUCTION

Population-based biomedical science is now going through a paradigm shift as extremely large datasets are becoming increasingly available for research purposes. Sources of such big data include, but are not limited to, population-based census data, disease registries, health care databases, and various consortia of individual studies. The power of such large datasets lies in their sample size. They, however, often do not contain detailed information at the level of individual analytic studies, which may be much smaller in size, but have been designed to answer specific hypotheses of interest. There is a growing need for a statistical framework for combining information from datasets that are large but have relatively crude information with that available from studies that are small but contain more detailed information on each subject. Methods that can work with summary-level information, as opposed to individual-level data, are particularly appealing due to practical reasons such as data sharing, storage, and computing, as well as for ethical reasons, such as maintenance of the privacy of the study subjects and protection of the future research interests of data-generating institutions and investigators.

In this article, we consider the problem of building regression models using individual-level information from an analytic

study while incorporating summary-level information from an external large data source. Our goal is to work within a semiparametric framework that allows the distribution of all covariates to remain completely unspecified, so that analysis results are not sensitive to modeling assumptions. One class of methods that could potentially be used for this purpose is to use calibration techniques that are popular in sample-survey theory. Chen and Chen (2000), for example, studied the extension of the generalized regression (GR) method for developing regression models using data from double sampling or two-phase designs in cases where the internal study is a subsample of the external one. There exists a rich literature on how to form optimal calibration equations for improving efficiency of parameter estimates within various classes of unbiased estimators (Deville and Särndal 1992; Robins, Rotnitzki, and Zhao 1994; Wu and Sitter 2001; Wu 2003; Lumley, Shaw, and Dai 2011). Unlike GR, however, the application of many of these more optimal methods in the current setting requires access to individual-level data from the external study.

The methodology for “model-based” maximum likelihood estimation has also been studied previously in some special cases of this problem, where it can be assumed that the covariate information available in the external data source can be summarized into discrete strata. In particular, in the setting of two-phase studies where it can be assumed that the internal study is a subsample of the external study, a number of researchers have proposed semiparametric maximum likelihood (SPML) methods for various types of regression models, while accounting for complex sampling designs (Breslow and Holubkov 1997; Scott and Wild 1997; Lawless, Wild, and Kalbfleisch 1999). Most recently, Qin et al. (2015) studied the problem of fitting a logistic regression model to case-control data using information on

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stratum-specific disease probability rates from external sources. The assumption that only discretized information is available from the external source is a major limitation of these methods. In practice, the external dataset may often include combinations of many variables and summarizing this information into strata can be subjective and inefficient.

In this article, we develop a general SPML estimation methodology, where we assume that the external information is summarized, not by a discrete set of strata defined by the study variables, but by a finite set of parameters obtained from fitting a model to the external data. We identify very general equations imposed by the external model, regardless of whether the model is correctly specified or not, and use these equations to develop constrained maximum likelihood (CML) estimation methodology. The broad framework allows arbitrary types of covariates and arbitrary types of regression models, including nonnested models for the internal and external data and complex sampling designs. For inference, we consider an empirical likelihood estimation technique, as well as a synthetic maximum likelihood approach that allows incorporating externally available estimates of the covariate distribution. We evaluate the performance of these maximum likelihood methods together with the GR-type calibration estimator in a wide variety of settings of practical interest. Finally, we illustrate an application of the method for developing an updated model for predicting risk of breast cancer using multiple data sources.

2. METHODS

2.1 Models and Notation

Let Y be an outcome of interest and X be a set of covariates. We assume a model for the predictive distribution $g_\theta(y|x)$ has been built based on an external big dataset. In general, we will assume that we only have access to the model parameters, θ , but not necessarily to the individual-level data from the “external” study based on which the original model was built. We assume that data on Y , X and a new set of covariates Z are available to us from an “internal” study for building a model of the form $f_\beta(y|x, z)$. Throughout, we will refer to $f_\beta(y|x, z)$ and $g_\theta(y|x)$ as the “full” and “reduced” models, respectively. We assume $f_\beta(y|x, z)$ is correctly specified, but the external model $g_\theta(Y|X)$ need not be. In practice, although all models are going to be wrong to some extent, investigators will control the specification $f_\beta(Y|X, Z)$ and can carry out suitable model diagnostics. Let $F(X, Z)$ denote the distribution function of all risk factors for the underlying population, which, for the time being, is assumed to be the same for the “external” and “internal” studies. This assumption, however, will be inspected more closely later.

2.2 The Key Constraints Relating Model Parameters of Full and Reduced Models

Let $U(Y|X; \theta) = \partial \log\{g_\theta(Y|X)\} / \partial \theta$ be the score function associated with the reduced model, and θ the parameter in the reduced model. The population parameter value θ^* of θ underlying the external reduced model satisfies the equation

$$E\{U(Y|X, \theta^*)\} = \int U(y|x, \theta^*) \text{pr}(y|x) \text{pr}(x) dy dx = 0, \quad (1)$$

where $\text{pr}(y, x) = \text{pr}(y|x)\text{pr}(x)$ is the true underlying joint distribution of (Y, X) . When the model $g_\theta(y|x)$ is misspecified, $g_\theta(y|x) \neq \text{pr}(y|x)$, but (1) still holds true under mild conditions (e.g., White 1982). Under the assumption that $f_\beta(Y|X, Z)$ is correctly specified, we can write

$$\text{pr}(y|x) = \int f_{\beta_0}(y|z, x) \text{pr}(z|x) dz,$$

with β_0 the true value of β . Thus, the constraint imposed by Equation (1) can be rewritten, after changing some ordering of integrals, as

$$\int_{Z, X} \left\{ \int_Y U(Y|X, \theta^*) f_{\beta_0}(Y|X, Z) dY \right\} dF(X, Z) = 0. \quad (2)$$

The equation essentially converts the external information to a set of constraints, which we use in our analysis of internal data to improve efficiency of parameter estimates and generalizability of models. The dimension of the constraints is the same as the number of parameters by which the external model has been summarized.

Figure 1 provides a geometric perspective for how the external reduced model provides information for building the full model based on the internal study. The true probability distribution for $P_0(Y|X, Z)$ (shown in the left panel), which is assumed to belong to the class generated by a parametric family $f_\beta(Y|X, Z)$, induces a true value for $P_0(Y|X) = \int f_{\beta_0}(Y|X, z) dF(z|X) dz$ (shown in the right panel). The reduced model space under consideration, $g_\theta(Y|X)$, may not contain $P_0(Y|X)$. Nevertheless, a value of $\theta = \theta^*$ that solves the score equation $E\{U(Y|X, \theta)\} = 0$ has a valid interpretation in that it minimizes the Kullback-Leibler distance (Huber 1967; White 1982) between the fixed $P_0(Y|X)$ and the model space of $g_\theta(Y|X)$. Thus, from a reverse perspective, it is intuitive that if the value of θ^* is given, then the search for β_0 could be constrained to a space so that $P_{\theta^*}(Y|X)$ remains the minimizer between the model space of $g_\theta(Y|X)$ and any fixed point in the induced model space of $P_\beta(Y|X) = \int f_\beta(Y|X, z) dF(z|X) dz$. In the figure, the constrained space for the induced model is represented by the chord AB .

2.3 Semiparametric Maximum Likelihood

One class of methodology we consider is SPML methodology that allows the distribution $F(X, Z)$ to be completely unspecified. Importantly, two-phase design maximum likelihood methodology requires X to be discrete as the number of constraints increases with the number of distinct levels of (Y, X) . In contrast, here Y and X can be arbitrary in nature and yet the number of constraints, defined by the dimension of the reduced model parameter θ , remains finite.

2.3.1 Maximum-Likelihood Under Simple Random Sampling for the Internal Studies. Suppose we have data on (Y_i, X_i, Z_i) for $i = 1, \dots, N$ randomly selected subjects in the internal study. The likelihood is given by

$$L_{\beta, F} = \prod_{i=1}^N f_\beta(Y_i|X_i, Z_i) dF(X_i, Z_i).$$

Our goal is to maximize $\log\{L_{\beta, F}\}$ with respect to β and $F(\cdot)$ while maintaining the constraint given by (2). We assume that

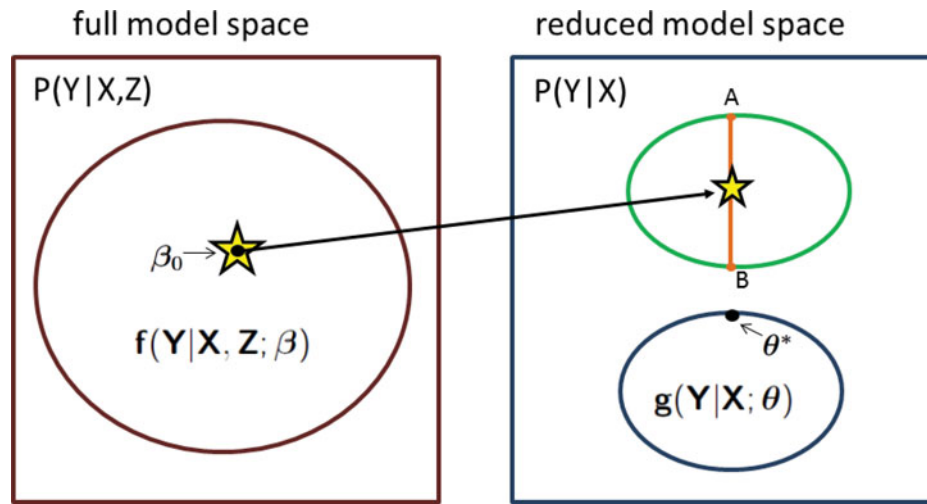


Figure 1. Geometric interpretation of the problem. The true distribution function $P_0(Y|X)$ for Y given (X, Z) across all values of β is depicted in the left panel, with the true value of β , that is, β_0 shown. In the right top panel, we see the true distribution function $P_0(Y|X)$ for Y given X across all values of β with β_0 shown. The assumed external data model is given in the bottom right panel across all values of θ , with the solution θ^* to (1) being shown as the minimizer of the Kullback-Leibler distance between the fixed $P_0(Y|X)$ and the model space of $g_\theta(Y|X)$.

θ^* is given to us externally, that is, θ is fixed at θ^* . Thus, from now on, for simplicity we use θ to denote θ^* .

Define

$$u_\beta(X, Z; \theta) = \int_Y U(Y|X, \theta) f_\beta(Y|X, Z) dY. \quad (3)$$

We propose to maximize $l_\lambda = \log(L_{\beta,F}) + \lambda^T \int u_\beta(X, Z; \theta) dF(X, Z)$, where λ is a vector of Lagrange multipliers with the same dimension as θ . Assuming that nonparametric maximum likelihood estimation (NPMLE) of $F(X, Z)$ has masses only at the unique observed data points in the internal study, $F(\cdot, \cdot)$ can be characterized by the corresponding masses $(\delta_1, \dots, \delta_m)$, where m denotes the number of unique values of (X_i, Z_i) , $i = 1, \dots, N$. Using standard empirical likelihood (or profile likelihood) computation steps (see e.g., Qin and Lawless 1994; Scott and Wild 1997), we can show that the values of β and λ that satisfy the CML equations also satisfy the score-equations associated with a “pseudo-log-likelihood” given by

$$l_{\beta,\lambda}^* = \sum_{i=1}^N \log \left\{ \frac{f_\beta(Y_i|X_i, Z_i)}{1 - \lambda^T u_\beta(X_i, Z_i; \theta)} \right\}. \quad (4)$$

The derivation of (4) is given in the Appendix.

2.3.2 Maximum Likelihood Under a Case-Control Sampling Design for the Internal Study. Even if we only have a case-control or retrospective sample from the internal study, as long as we have the external reduced model for the underlying population, we can estimate all of the parameters of the full model $f_\beta(Y|X, Z)$ using this CML approach. A special case is when the external information is simply the disease prevalence in the underlying population; it is well known that such information can be used to augment the case-control sample to estimate all of the parameters of a logistic or other binary disease risk models (see e.g., Scott and Wild 1997).

Suppose Y is binary and let $p_1 = \text{pr}(Y = 1) = 1 - p_0 = \int f_\beta(Y = 1|x, z) dF(x, z)$ denote the underlying marginal disease probability in the population, for arbitrary values of β . The

likelihood for the internal case-control study is given by

$$L_{\beta,F}^{cc} = \left\{ \prod_{i=1}^{N_1+N_0} f_\beta(Y_i|X_i, Z_i) dF(X_i, Z_i) \right\} \times p_1^{-N_1} p_0^{-N_0}, \quad (5)$$

where N_1 and N_0 denote the numbers of cases and controls sampled. The goal is to maximize $l_\lambda^{cc} = \log(L_{\beta,F}^{cc}) + \lambda^T \int u_\beta(X, Z; \theta) dF(X, Z)$. Again, assuming that the NPMLE of $F(X, Z)$ has masses only within the unique observed data points of (X_i, Z_i) , $i = 1, \dots, N_1 + N_0$, in the Appendix we show that the CML estimation problem is equivalent to solving the score equation associated with the pseudo-log-likelihood

$$l_{\beta,\lambda,\mu_1}^{*,cc} = \sum_{i=1}^N \log \left\{ \frac{f_\beta(Y_i|X_i, Z_i)}{\sum_y f_\beta(y|X_i, Z_i) \mu_y - \lambda^T u_\beta(X_i, Z_i; \theta)} \right\} + \sum_y N_y \log(\mu_y). \quad (6)$$

The pseudo-log-likelihood in the case-control sampling setting requires introduction of one additional nuisance parameter $\mu_1 = N_1/p_1$, with $\mu_0 = N_0/p_0$ defined by μ_1 .

The problem stated above has a strong connection with methodology in two-phase design SPML estimation as developed by Scott and Wild (1997) and Breslow and Holubkov (1997). In fact, if the data (Y, X) from the external study can be summarized into a frequency table defined by fixed sets of strata, this problem essentially can be studied using previous theory with some modification for the fact that the internal study may not be a subset of the external study. The categorization of phase-I covariate data (X) is needed in these and other previously developed semiparametric methods, as all of them intrinsically rely on functionals that are smoothed over Z but not X . In contrast, in our maximum likelihood theory, the constraints are represented by functionals that are smoothed with respect to both X and Z . As a result, we avoid the “curse of dimensionality” problem that is typically faced in semiparametric estimation theory for covariate missing data and measurement

error problems; see Roeder, Carroll, and Lindsay (1996) for a discussion on the latter topic.

2.3.3 Numerical Computation and Asymptotic Theory. For ease of exposition, when discussing computation and asymptotic theory, we transform the parameter μ_1 to α defined in Appendix S.2 of the online supplementary materials for the case-control design. Further, we absorb the parameter α into β in the case-control design, so that the notation for certain functions such as $u_\beta(X, Z; \theta)$ can be unified under both the simple random and case-control sampling designs.

As mentioned above and detailed in the Appendix, the pseudo-log-likelihood given in (4) or (6) is in fact the Lagrange function for the constrained log-likelihood obtained by Lagrange multipliers and profiling out the infinite dimensional parameter $F(\cdot, \cdot)$. By the theory of Lagrange multipliers (Chiang and Wainwright 1984), the proposed semiparametric CML estimator for β_0 , denoted by $\hat{\beta}$, is then obtained by directly solving for the stationary point, indeed the saddle point, over the expanded parameter space $\eta = (\beta^T, \lambda^T)^T$ for the pseudo-log-likelihood function. We solve the resulting stationary equation to obtain $\hat{\beta}$ by the usual Newton-Raphson method, which is quite stable and performs efficiently in our numerical studies when the initial value of λ is set to 0. In the simulations and data analysis performed in this work, all results converged within 10 iterations of the Newton-Raphson algorithm employed. Numerical optimizations were performed using PROC IML of SAS (version 9.3). Formulas for the score and Hessian for both simple random sampling and for case-control studies are given in Appendix S.2 of the online supplementary materials.

Let $\hat{\eta} = (\hat{\beta}^T, \hat{\lambda}^T)^T$ be the stationary point of the pseudo-log-likelihood function given in (4) or (6); namely, $\hat{\eta}$ is the solution to the score equation $\partial l_{\beta, \lambda}^* / \partial \eta = 0$ or $\partial l_{\beta, \lambda}^{*, cc} / \partial \eta = 0$ when the internal study is under simple random or case-control sampling. Explicit expressions for the score function, the first derivative of the pseudo-log-likelihood with respect to $\eta = (\beta^T, \lambda^T)^T$, are given in Appendix S.2 in the online supplementary materials. The following result confirms that the CML estimator for β can be obtained by solving the score equation. The proof is detailed in Appendix S.5 of the online supplementary materials.

Lemma 1. Under regularity conditions for model $f_\beta(y|x, z)$ and conditions (i)–(iv) given in Appendix S.4 of the online supplementary materials, the pseudo-log-likelihood function $l_{\beta, \lambda}^*$ or $l_{\beta, \lambda}^{*, cc}$ is maximized at $\beta = \hat{\beta}$ with probability one, and $\hat{\eta} = (\hat{\beta}, \hat{\lambda})$ is the solution to $\partial l_{\beta, \lambda}^* / \partial \eta = 0$ or $\partial l_{\beta, \lambda}^{*, cc} / \partial \eta = 0$.

The following proposition establishes the asymptotic normality of the CML estimator proposed.

Proposition 1. Let $\hat{\eta} = (\hat{\beta}^T, \hat{\lambda}^T)^T$ be the solution to $\partial l_{\beta, \lambda}^* / \partial \eta = 0$ or $\partial l_{\beta, \lambda}^{*, cc} / \partial \eta = 0$, and $\eta_0 = (\beta_0^T, 0)^T$ with β_0 the true value of β , 0 denoting an ℓ -vector of zeros and ℓ the dimension of λ . Under regularity conditions for $f_\beta(y|x, z)$ and conditions (i)–(v) in Appendix S.4 of the online supplementary materials, as $N \rightarrow \infty$, $N^{1/2}(\hat{\eta} - \eta_0)$ converges in distribution to a zero-mean normal distribution with covariance matrix given by

$$\begin{pmatrix} (B + CL^{-1}C^T)^{-1} & O \\ O & (L + C^T B^{-1}C)^{-1} \end{pmatrix}, \quad (7)$$

where $B = E\{i_{\beta\beta}(Y, X, Z)\}$, $C = E\{c_\beta(X, Z; \theta)\}$, and $L = E\{u_\beta(X, Z)u_\beta^T(X, Z)\}$, and where $i_{\beta\beta}(Y, X, Z)$ and $c_\beta(X, Z; \theta)$ are defined in (S.4) and (S.2), respectively, in Appendix S.2 in the online supplementary materials.

The proof is in Appendix S.5 of the online supplementary materials. A simple consistent estimator for the covariance matrix (7) is obtained by using the corresponding sample means for the expected quantities in the expression. In Section S.5 of the online supplementary materials, we show how to modify Proposition 1 when there is uncertainty about θ when it is estimated from a finite external study.

From Proposition 1 we see two interesting facts. First, the asymptotic variance of $\hat{\beta}$ is $(B + CL^{-1}C^T)^{-1} = B^{-1} - B^{-1}C(L + C^T B^{-1}C)^{-1}C^T B^{-1}$, and hence the CML estimator is asymptotically more efficient than the estimator based only on internal sample data, whose asymptotic variance is B^{-1} . Second, $\hat{\beta}$ and $\hat{\lambda}$ are asymptotically uncorrelated, a phenomenon also shared by other empirical likelihood methods.

As we noted earlier, the CML method we propose utilizes empirical-likelihood (EL) and closely related profile-likelihood methodology developed earlier by Qin and Lawless (1994) and Scott and Wild (1997), respectively. When we were writing the rejoinder to the discussions, we were made aware of additional literature in the use of EL methodology for incorporating auxiliary data. Imbens and Lancaster (1994) discussed how to define constraints on regression parameters from summary-level external data in a simple setting. Qin (2000) described how the empirical-likelihood framework developed by Qin and Lawless (1994) can be used for incorporating auxiliary information in a general context. We would like to acknowledge that under simple random sampling (Section 2.3.1), the estimating equations (Equation 4) underlying the proposed CML estimator and corresponding asymptotic theory can be developed following steps described Qin (2000) provided the auxiliary information is summarized using the constraints we formulate. Under the case-control sampling design for the internal study, however, the underlying estimating equations (Equation (6)) takes a different form. In particular, even when the underlying model is logistic regression, the effect of case-control sampling cannot be generally ignored in CML unlike in standard internal-only analysis. In Proposition 1, we provide asymptotic theory for the CML estimator under both random and case-control sampling designs. We further note that the steps shown for development in the setting of case-control sampling will allow fairly straight forward generalization of these estimators under more complex stratified sampling schemes for the internal study.

2.4 Synthetic Maximum Likelihood

So far we have assumed that the underlying populations for the internal and external studies are identical, which may be violated in practice. In particular, as we will demonstrate through simulation studies, various types of calibrations methods, either maximum likelihood or not, can lead to substantial bias in parameter estimates if the distributions of the underlying risk factors are different between the internal and external populations. In this section, we consider the situation when an external reference sample may be available for unbiased estimation of the covariate distribution for the external population.

Let $F^\dagger(X, Z)$ denote the underlying distribution for the external population, and consider the setting where it differs from the distribution $F(X, Z)$ in the internal population. We continue to assume that the regression model $f_\beta(Y|X, Z)$ correctly holds for both of the populations and that the underlying true parameters β_0 are the same. We assume data are available from the external reference sample in the form $(X_j^\dagger, Z_j^\dagger)$, $j = 1, \dots, N_r$, where N_r is the size of the external reference sample. When the internal study sample is obtained under the simple random sampling design, the synthetic constrained log-likelihood is defined as $l_{\beta, \lambda}^\dagger = \log(L_{\beta, F}) + \lambda^T \int u_\beta(X, Z; \theta) d\tilde{F}^\dagger(X, Z)$, with \tilde{F}^\dagger the empirical distribution of (X^\dagger, Z^\dagger) in the external reference sample, and the synthetic constrained maximum likelihood (SCML) estimator $(\tilde{\beta}, \tilde{\lambda})$ for (β, λ) can be obtained by solving the estimating equations $\partial l_{\beta, \lambda}^\dagger / \partial \beta = 0$ and $\partial l_{\beta, \lambda}^\dagger / \partial \lambda = 0$, completely ignoring $F(\cdot, \cdot)$ because it factors out from the likelihood of the internal study.

When the internal sample represents a case-control study, however, the synthetic constrained log-likelihood is defined as

$$l_{\beta, \lambda, F}^{\dagger, cc} = \log(L_{\beta, F}^{cc}) + \lambda^T \int u_\beta(X, Z; \theta) d\tilde{F}^\dagger(X, Z),$$

from which $F(\cdot, \cdot)$ cannot be factored out. As before, we consider NPMLE estimation of $F(X, Z)$ allowing it to have masses at each of the unique observed data points of (X_i, Z_i) ($i = 1 \dots, N_1 + N_0$) in the internal study. In this setting, following Prentice and Pyke (1979) we can show that the SCML estimate of β can be obtained by maximization of a pseudo-log-likelihood of the form

$$l_{\beta, \lambda, \alpha}^{\dagger, cc} = \log(L_{\beta, \alpha}^{cc}) + \lambda^T \int u_\beta(X, Z; \theta) d\tilde{F}^\dagger(X, Z),$$

where

$$L_{\beta, \alpha}^{cc} = \prod_{i=1}^N p_{\beta, \alpha}(Y_i | X_i, Z_i),$$

with

$$p_{\beta, \alpha}(y|x, z) = \frac{\mu_y f_\beta(y|x, z)}{\sum_y \mu_y f_\beta(y|x, z)} = \frac{\exp(\alpha y) f_\beta(y|x, z)}{\sum_y \exp(\alpha y) f_\beta(y|x, z)} \quad (8)$$

and $\alpha = \log(\mu_1/\mu_0)$. Here, $L_{\beta, \alpha}^{cc}$ corresponds to the standard “prospective likelihood” for case-control data that is known to produce equivalent inference for β as the retrospective likelihood (Prentice and Pyke 1979; Scott and Wild 1997). In general, a likelihood of the form (8) may not be able to identify all of the parameters of the original model without additional information. In particular, for the logistic model, the intercept parameters become completely confounded by the nuisance parameters α and cannot be estimated from case-control data alone. However, in the setting considered here, the additional constraint (2) defined by the external model allows estimation of all of the parameters of the full model even when the distribution of the risk-factors may differ in the two underlying populations.

2.4.1 Computation and Asymptotic Theory. As in the procedure considered in Section 2.3, we use the Newton-Raphson method to solve the stationary equations for the synthetic constrained log-likelihood $l_{\beta, \lambda}^\dagger$ or $l_{\beta, \lambda, \alpha}^{\dagger, cc}$, depending on whether the internal study is based on simple random or case-control sam-

pling. Formulas for the score and Hessian for simple random sampling and for case-control sampling are given in Appendix S.3 of the online supplementary materials.

As mentioned previously, to simplify exposition, in the case-control setting we absorb the nuisance parameter α into β , and let $\eta = (\beta^T, \lambda^T)^T$. Denote by q and ℓ the dimensions of β and λ . The following lemma shows that $\tilde{\beta}$ obtained from $\partial l_{\beta, \lambda}^\dagger / \partial \eta = 0$ or $\partial l_{\beta, \lambda}^{\dagger, cc} / \partial \eta = 0$ indeed maximizes the log-likelihood function $\log(L_{\beta, F})$ or $\log(L_{\beta, \alpha}^{cc})$ with probability tending to one under the constraint $\int u_\beta(X, Z; \theta) d\tilde{F}^\dagger(X, Z) = 0$.

Lemma 2. Suppose that $q > \ell$, and $N_r/N \rightarrow \kappa > 0$. Under regularity conditions for the model $f_\beta(y|x, z)$ and conditions (i)–(iv) given in Appendix S.4 of the online supplementary materials, the log-likelihood functions $\log(L_{\beta, F})$ or $\log(L_{\beta, \alpha}^{cc})$ is maximized at $\beta = \tilde{\beta}$ with probability approaching one under the constraint $\int u_\beta(X, Z; \theta) d\tilde{F}^\dagger(X, Z) = 0$, where $\tilde{\beta}$ is in the interior of a neighborhood of true parameter value β_0 , and $\tilde{\eta} = (\tilde{\beta}^T, \tilde{\lambda}^T)^T$ is the solution to $\partial l_{\beta, \lambda}^{\dagger, cc} / \partial \eta = 0$ or $\partial l_{\beta, \lambda}^\dagger / \partial \eta = 0$.

We also provide asymptotic distribution theory for the SCML estimator $\tilde{\eta} = (\tilde{\beta}^T, \tilde{\lambda}^T)^T$. The proofs of these theoretical results are given in Appendix S.5 of the online supplementary materials.

Proposition 2. Recall that $N_r/N \rightarrow \kappa > 0$. Let $\eta_0 = (\beta_0^T, 0)^T$ with 0 denoting a ℓ -vector of zeros and ℓ the dimension of λ . Under the assumptions in Lemma 2 and condition (v) in Appendix S.4 of the online supplementary materials, the estimator $\tilde{\eta} = (\tilde{\beta}^T, \tilde{\lambda}^T)^T$ satisfying $\partial l_{\beta, \lambda}^\dagger / \partial \eta = 0$ or $\partial l_{\beta, \lambda}^{\dagger, cc} / \partial \eta = 0$ is asymptotically normal as $N \rightarrow \infty$, such that $N^{1/2}(\tilde{\eta} - \eta_0)$ converges in distribution to a zero-mean normal distribution with covariance matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} B^{-1} - B^{-1}CG^{-1}(G - \kappa^{-1}L)G^{-1}C^TB^{-1} & -\kappa^{-2}B^{-1}CG^{-1}LG^{-1} \\ -\kappa^{-2}G^{-1}LG^{-1}C^TB^{-1} & \kappa^{-2}G^{-1}(G + \kappa^{-1}L)G^{-1} \end{pmatrix}, \quad (9)$$

where with E^\dagger denoting expectation over the external covariate distribution $F^\dagger(X, Z)$, $G = C^TB^{-1}C$, $B = E\{i_{\beta\beta}(Y, X, Z)\}$, $C = E^\dagger\{c_\beta(X, Z; \theta)\}$, $L = E^\dagger\{u_\beta(X, Z)u_\beta^T(X, Z)\}$, and $i_{\beta\beta}(Y, X, Z)$ and $c_\beta(X, Z; \theta)$ defined in (S.4) and (S.2), respectively, in Appendix S.2 of the online supplementary materials.

The variance-covariance matrix (9) for $\tilde{\eta}$ can be readily estimated by replacing the component quantities in the expression with their sample analogies. In Section S.5 of the online supplementary materials, we show how to modify Proposition 2 when there is uncertainty in the parameter estimates of the external study.

From Propositions 1 and 2, we see differences between $(\hat{\beta}, \hat{\lambda})$ and $(\tilde{\beta}, \tilde{\lambda})$ in their asymptotic theory. First, unlike $\hat{\beta}$, the SCML estimator $\tilde{\beta}$ is not guaranteed to be more efficient than the internal-sample only estimator. However, $\tilde{\beta}$ is usually more efficient than the latter estimator, especially when κ is large, that is, the size of the reference sample for estimating $F(\cdot, \cdot)$ is sufficiently large relative to that of the internal sample. In particular, in the special case of $\kappa \rightarrow \infty$, the matrix $B^{-1}CG^{-1}C^TB^{-1}$ is positive definite and hence $\tilde{\beta}$ is always more efficient than that of the internal-sample only estimator. Second, unlike $(\hat{\beta}, \hat{\lambda})$, $(\tilde{\beta}, \tilde{\lambda})$

are correlated asymptotically, although the correlation vanishes as $\kappa \rightarrow \infty$.

3. SIMULATION STUDIES

We conduct simulation studies to evaluate the performance of the proposed methods in a wide variety of settings of practical interest. We consider developing models for a binary outcome Y using logistic and nonlogistic link functions. In all simulations, it is assumed (X, Z) is bivariate normal with zero marginal means, unit marginal variances, and a correlation of 0.3.

In other numerical studies (not shown here), the conclusions from simulation studies did not change qualitatively if we used an alternative to the bivariate normal distribution for simulating (X, Z) .

We study three different settings, in two of which we assume that the full model of interest has the form

$$h^{-1}\{\text{pr}(D = 1)\} = \beta_0 + \beta_X X + \beta_Z Z + \beta_{XZ} XZ,$$

where h^{-1} denotes the inverse link function corresponding to a logistic or a probit model. In one of these settings, we assume that the external model is *under-specified* but involves both covariates with the form

$$h^{-1}\{\text{pr}(D = 1)\} = \theta_0 + \theta_X X + \theta_Z Z,$$

and in the second setting we assume that the external model is *missing* the covariate Z altogether and has the form

$$h^{-1}\{\text{pr}(D = 1)\} = \theta_0 + \theta_X X.$$

In the third setting, we consider a *measurement error* problem where it is assumed that Z is the true covariate of interest and X is a surrogate of Z in the sense that Y is independent of X given Z . In this setting, we assume that the full and reduced models of interest are

$$h^{-1}\{\text{pr}(D = 1)\} = \beta_0 + \beta_Z Z$$

and

$$h^{-1}\{\text{pr}(D = 1)\} = \theta_0 + \theta_X X,$$

respectively.

In each setting, we simulate data under the correct full model given a set of parameter values and then obtain the values of external parameters by fitting the reduced model, which by definition is incorrectly specified, to a very large dataset. In the *under-specified* and *missing covariate* scenarios, the parameter values of the true model $(\beta_0, \beta_X, \beta_Z, \beta_{XZ}) = (-1.6, 0.4, 0.4, 0.2)$; in the *measurement error* scenario, they are $(\beta_0, \beta_Z) = (-1.6, 0.4)$. In all models, the parameter specifications lead to a population disease prevalence around 20%. For simulating case-control samples for the internal study, in each simulation, we first generate a random sample and then select fixed and equal numbers of cases and controls. In both the simple random and case-control sampling settings, the size of the internal sample is $N = 1000$. The external data are generated with a very large sample size and fixed throughout the simulations.

As a benchmark for comparison, in each simulation, in addition to the CML estimator proposed, we obtain the internal-sample-only estimate $\hat{\beta}^I$, and implement a GR estimator, popular in the survey literature and developed for regression inference with double or two-phase sampling by Chen and Chen (2000).

Specifically, the estimator takes the form

$$\hat{\beta}^{\text{GR}} = \hat{\beta}^I + H_1^{-1} C_{12} C_{22}^{-1} H_2 (\hat{\theta}^E - \hat{\theta}^I). \quad (10)$$

In (10), $\hat{\theta}^E$ and $\hat{\theta}^I$ are estimates for θ using the external and internal samples, respectively, while

$$H_1 = E_I \{ \partial s_\beta(Y, X, Z) / \partial \beta^T \} = -B,$$

$$H_2 = E_I \{ \partial U(Y|X; \theta) / \partial \theta^T \},$$

$$C_{22} = E_I \{ U(Y|X; \theta) U^T(Y|X; \theta) \},$$

$$C_{12} = E_I \{ s_\beta(Y, X, Z) U^T(Y|X; \theta) \},$$

where $s_\beta(Y, X, Z) = \partial \log f_\beta(Y|X, Z) / \partial \beta$, and where E_I denotes the sample expectation based on the internal study. In the current implementation of such a calibration method, unlike in the original proposal, we disregard the uncertainty associated with $\hat{\theta}^E$, since in the current setting such uncertainty is assumed to be negligible compared with the uncertainty in the internal sample. As shown in Chen and Chen (2000), the asymptotic covariance matrix of $\sqrt{N} \hat{\beta}^{\text{GR}}$ is given as

$$B^{-1} - B^{-1} C_{12} C_{22}^{-1} C_{12}^T B^{-1}, \quad (11)$$

which accounts for the uncertainty of $\hat{\theta}^I$, and can be estimated by replacing each component quantity with its sample analogue.

Further, since the method of Chen and Chen (2000) was originally developed for simple random sampling designs only, when implementing their method for logistic regression analysis of a case-control design, we make an ad-hoc modification to GR estimator, which we denote as mGR. Instead of applying the calibration formula (10) to the full set of regression parameters β , we apply it only to the subset of β excluding the intercept parameter. Such a modification is based on the rationale that, according to Prentice and Pyke (1979), for $f_\beta(\cdot)$ following a logistic regression model, the prospective maximum likelihood estimator provides valid and efficient estimates of all the parameters of the model except the intercept.

Tables 1–3 display simulation results with $N = 1000$. We also examine the cases with $N = 400$, which lead to similar conclusions and are relegated to Tables S.1–S.4 in the online supplementary materials. From Tables 1–3 we conclude that the CML estimator $\hat{\beta}^{\text{CML}}$ is always more efficient than the internal-sample-only estimator $\hat{\beta}^I$. For the *under-specified* and *missing covariate* scenarios, substantial efficiency gains are observed for regression parameters corresponding to the covariates that are also included in the reduced model fitted with external data, that is, for $(\beta_0, \beta_X, \beta_Z)$ and (β_0, β_X) , respectively. In the *measurement error* setting, the efficiency gain is observed for the main covariate of interest (Z) where the reduced model only includes an error-prone surrogate (X). These observations hold under both the simple random and case-control sampling designs. Under the simple random sampling design, the estimator $\hat{\beta}^{\text{GR}}$ performs similarly to or slightly worse than our estimator $\hat{\beta}^{\text{CML}}$ in the *under-specified* and *missing covariate* settings. However, in the *measurement error* setting, $\hat{\beta}^{\text{GR}}$ is far less efficient than $\hat{\beta}^{\text{CML}}$. Under the case-control sampling design, the mGR estimator incurred substantial bias in the *under-specified* setting, but not in the other two settings. From these simulation results and those conducted in a smaller sample-size setting ($N = 400$), we can conclude that the asymptotic distribution theory provided in Proposition 1 for $\hat{\beta}^{\text{CML}}$ performs quite

Table 1. Simulation results for the *under-specification* setting, in which the full model of interest has the form $h^{-1}\{\text{pr}(D = 1)\} = \beta_0 + \beta_X X + \beta_Z Z + \beta_{XZ} XZ$, where h^{-1} denotes the inverse link function corresponding to a logistic model, and where the external model is *under-specified* but involves both covariates with the form $h^{-1}\{\text{pr}(D = 1)\} = \theta_0 + \theta_X X + \theta_Z Z$

	β_0			β_X			β_Z			β_{XZ}		
	Int	GR/mGR	CML	Int	GR/mGR	CML	Int	GR/mGR	CML	Int	GR/mGR	CML
Simple random; $N = 1000$												
Bias	−8.94	−0.79	−1.12	2.42	2.16	2.46	1.29	1.29	1.65	1.39	1.30	1.87
SE	91.4	24.4	24.4	96.8	20.1	19.9	94.3	20.2	19.8	89.4	89.6	89.3
ESE	91.8	22.9	23.5	92.3	19.8	19.7	92.4	19.9	19.8	85.8	85.3	86.9
MSE	8.42	0.59	0.59	9.38	0.41	0.40	8.89	0.41	0.39	7.98	8.02	7.97
CP	95.4	88.6	90.8	94.3	94.6	95.2	94.6	94.4	95.5	93.6	93.4	93.8
Case-control; $N = 1000$												
Bias	—	—	1.70	2.40	28.4	2.23	5.06	27.6	1.73	−1.51	−1.20	−2.30
SE	—	—	17.4	75.7	11.3	16.7	72.2	11.4	16.6	72.9	72.8	71.7
ESE	—	—	16.6	73.3	11.6	16.5	73.1	11.6	16.5	71.4	71.3	70.1
MSE	—	—	0.30	5.73	0.93	0.28	5.24	0.89	0.28	5.31	5.29	5.15
CP	—	—	90.7	94.2	31.4	94.5	95.4	33.1	94.8	94.7	94.6	93.7

NOTE: Results multiplied by 10^3 are presented, and the coverage probabilities are reported as percents. Int, internal-data only method; GR, generalized regression; mGR, modified GR for case-control sampling; CML, constrained maximum likelihood; ESE, estimated standard error; MSE, mean squared error; CP, coverage probability of a 95% confidence interval.

well, as seen by the generally close agreement between the estimated (ESE) and simulation standard errors (SE), and between the nominal and simulation coverage probabilities of the Wald-type confidence intervals based on asymptotic normality. Tables S.5–S.7 in the online supplementary materials show the performance of the different estimators in the setting of probit models under the random-sampling design. The results are generally similar to those for the logistic model in Tables 1–3.

We next investigate the properties of the different estimators when the distribution of (X, Z) differs between the internal and external populations. All of the steps are identical as before except that we assume $\text{corr}(X, Z)$ is 0.1 in the external population. In this scenario, we implement the SCML method assuming a reference sample for the external population is available to estimate the underlying covariate distribution. We assume that the sample size for the reference sample is the same as that

of the internal study, and in each simulation the random reference sample for (X, Z) is drawn from the distribution that is the same as that for the external population. We obtain the value of the external parameter by fitting a reduced model to a very large dataset simulated using the external covariate distribution. Table 4 shows the results under the *missing covariate* setting for logistic regression with simple random and case-control sampling.

Since results from the regression calibration $\hat{\beta}^{\text{GR}}$ and the CML $\hat{\beta}^{\text{CML}}$ estimates are quite similar in this setting, results for the former are omitted in Table 4. As can be seen in Table 4, $\hat{\beta}$, as well as $\hat{\beta}^{\text{GR}}$, is subject to remarkable bias for parameters corresponding to the covariates included in the reduced model. This is expected since $\hat{\beta}$, as well as $\hat{\beta}^{\text{GR}}$, is derived under the assumption of complete homogeneity between the internal and external studies, and incorporation of the inconsistent external

Table 2. Simulation results for the *missing covariate* setting, in which the full model of interest has the form $h^{-1}\{\text{pr}(D = 1)\} = \beta_0 + \beta_X X + \beta_Z Z + \beta_{XZ} XZ$, where h^{-1} denotes the inverse link function corresponding to a logistic model, and where the external model is $h^{-1}\{\text{pr}(D = 1)\} = \theta_0 + \theta_X X$

	β_0			β_X			β_Z			β_{XZ}		
	Int	GR/mGR	CML	Int	GR/mGR	CML	Int	GR/mGR	CML	Int	GR/mGR	CML
Simple random; $N = 1000$												
Bias	−8.94	2.67	2.84	2.42	3.30	3.37	1.29	1.50	0.95	1.33	1.27	2.42
SE	91.4	32.5	32.4	96.8	39.0	38.9	94.3	94.4	94.3	89.4	89.4	89.5
ESE	91.8	32.1	32.3	92.3	38.8	38.9	92.4	92.3	92.5	85.8	85.6	86.9
MSE	8.42	1.06	1.06	9.38	1.53	1.53	8.89	8.91	8.89	7.98	7.99	8.01
CP	95.4	94.7	95.3	94.3	93.4	94.0	94.6	94.5	95.1	93.6	93.7	93.8
Case-control; $N = 1000$												
Bias	—	—	2.59	2.40	14.8	0.88	5.06	5.01	5.11	−1.51	−1.53	−1.57
SE	—	—	22.7	75.7	25.1	26.8	72.2	72.3	72.2	72.9	72.9	72.8
ESE	—	—	22.8	73.3	26.1	27.9	73.1	73.2	73.2	71.4	71.4	71.6
MSE	—	—	0.52	5.73	0.85	0.72	5.24	5.24	5.24	5.31	5.31	5.30
CP	—	—	94.7	94.2	91.3	96.2	95.4	95.6	95.4	94.7	94.4	94.5

NOTE: Results multiplied by 10^3 are presented, and the coverage probabilities are reported as percents. Int, internal-data only method; GR, generalized regression; mGR, modified GR for case-control sampling; CML, constrained maximum likelihood; ESE, estimated standard error; MSE, mean squared error; CP, coverage probability of a 95% confidence interval.

Table 3. Simulation results for the *measurement error* setting in which the full and reduced models are $h^{-1}\{\text{pr}(D = 1)\} = \beta_0 + \beta_Z Z$ and $h^{-1}\{\text{pr}(D = 1)\} = \theta_0 + \theta_X X$, respectively, and where h^{-1} denotes the inverse link function corresponding to a logistic model

	β_0			β_Z		
	Int	GR/mGR	CML	Int	GR/mGR	CML
Simple random; $N = 1000$						
Bias	-2.12	-3.73	0.20	0.80	1.23	1.13
SE	87.7	25.1	15.1	89.6	84.7	40.1
ESE	87.1	23.9	15.2	86.3	82.5	38.7
MSE	7.69	0.64	0.23	8.02	7.17	1.61
CP	95.9	92.6	94.1	94.2	94.0	94.1
Case-control; $N = 1000$						
Bias	—	—	0.99	2.85	2.91	1.74
SE	—	—	12.8	66.0	62.5	37.6
ESE	—	—	12.9	66.6	63.8	36.3
MSE	—	—	0.16	4.36	3.63	1.42
CP	—	—	95.6	95.7	96.1	94.6

NOTE: Results presented are multiplied by 10^3 , and the coverage probability is in percents. Int, internal-data only method; GR, generalized regression; mGR, modified GR for case-control sampling; CML, constrained maximum likelihood; ESE, estimated standard error; MSE, mean squared error; CP, coverage probability of a 95% confidence interval.

information can result in biased parameter estimates. On the other hand, we see from Table 4 that the SCML estimate $\hat{\beta}$ performs quite well under both the simple random and case-control sampling: it is virtually unbiased, and more efficient than the estimate $\hat{\beta}^I$ based on the internal sample only. The efficiency gain of $\hat{\beta}$ over $\hat{\beta}^I$ is particularly large for parameters corresponding to the covariates included in the reduced model. The standard error estimators and confidence intervals based on Proposition 2 for the SCML estimation perform quite well in the settings considered.

4. DATA APPLICATION: BREAST CANCER RISK MODELING

We illustrate an application of our methodology by re-analysis of data from the Breast Cancer Detection and Demonstration Project (BCDDP) used by Chen et al. (2006) for

building a model for breast cancer risk prediction. The Breast Cancer Risk Assessment Tool (BCRAT), sometimes known as the *Gail Model*, is a widely used model for predicting the risk of breast cancer based on a handful of standard risk factors, including age at menarche (agemen), age at first live birth (ageflb), weight, number of first-degree relatives with breast cancer (numrel), and number of previous biopsies (nbiops). Chen et al. (2006) developed an updated model, known as BCRAT2, to include mammographic density (MD), the areal proportion of breast tissue that is radiographically dense, that is known to be a strong risk factor for breast cancer. They used data available from 1217 cases and 1610 controls within the BCDDP study on whom data were available on these standard risk factors as well as MD. To increase efficiency, however, they used two-phase design methodology, using data on standard risk factors that were available on a larger sample of subjects, including about 2808 cases and 3119 controls within the BCDDP study. Details of the BCDDP study design, case-control sample selections,

Table 4. Simulation results for the *missing covariate* setting as in the caption for Table 2, but when the covariate distributions are different between the internal and external populations

	β_0			β_X			β_Z			β_{XZ}		
	Int	CML	SCML	Int	CML	SCML	Int	CML	SCML	Int	CML	SCML
Simple random; $N = N_r = 1000$												
Bias	-8.61	-32.4	-1.67	4.33	-85.2	2.63	1.10	0.30	-0.69	1.38	4.41	-0.04
SE	91.9	32.2	27.6	96.8	38.4	30.7	97.9	97.9	96.8	89.3	89.5	88.0
ESE	91.8	33.5	26.2	92.5	39.2	30.1	92.5	92.5	91.0	85.9	85.2	85.6
MSE	8.51	2.09	0.76	9.39	8.72	0.95	9.58	9.58	9.36	7.97	8.03	7.74
CP	95.3	90.6	92.0	93.5	42.3	93.0	93.2	93.3	93.4	93.5	93.6	93.9
Case-control; $N = N_r = 1000$												
Bias	—	-27.0	-1.13	0.76	-89.0	0.58	2.74	4.15	1.94	4.03	-1.90	2.30
SE	—	23.6	23.1	71.4	27.1	26.8	74.1	74.1	73.6	73.7	73.5	72.7
ESE	—	23.2	23.1	73.3	27.9	27.4	73.3	72.7	72.5	71.6	69.8	71.2
MSE	—	1.29	0.53	5.09	8.65	0.72	5.50	5.51	5.42	5.45	5.40	5.29
CP	—	82.0	94.2	95.0	7.9	93.7	94.3	94.0	94.1	93.6	93.5	94.3

NOTE: Results multiplied by 10^3 are presented, and the coverage probabilities are reported as percents. Int, internal-data only method; CML, constrained maximum likelihood; SCML, synthetic constrained maximum likelihood method; ESE, estimated standard error; MSE, mean squared error; CP, coverage probability of a 95% confidence interval.

and two-phase design methodology used can be found in their previous publication (Chen et al. 2006, 2008).

Within the last decade, epidemiologic studies of cancers and many other chronic diseases have gone through a major transition due to the formation of various consortia that allow for the powerful analysis of common factors across many studies based on a very large set of samples. For example, two major consortia have been formed to study breast cancer: one based on cohort studies, for example, the BPC3 study of Canzian et al. (2010), and the other based on case-control studies (Breast Cancer Association Consortium 2006). These studies have led to extremely powerful investigation of various types of hypotheses, such as genetic association, based on tens of thousands of cases and controls depending on the types of risk factors that are being analyzed. Many of the studies participating in these consortia have standard risk factors available, although sometimes in a crude form. However, MD, which is much harder to evaluate, is rarely available in these studies.

To illustrate the utility of the proposed methodology, we develop a model for predicting breast cancer risk using data available on the full set of risk factors from the 1217 cases and 1610 controls of the “internal” BCDDP study and calibrating to the parameters from a standard risk factor model built from 12,802 cases and 14,296 controls from the “external” BPC3 consortium. The BPC3 standard risk factor model did not include MD or the number of biopsies (nbiops); it included family history (famhist) as yes/no instead of the actual number of affected relatives, and recorded weight in tertiles as opposed to a continuous variable. We used only summary-level information from the BPC3 study, namely the estimates of the log-odds-ratio parameters and their standard errors. Our goal is to build a model similar to BCRAT2, that is, a model with the standard risk factors as coded in BCRAT, and MD.

Table 5 presents the results for model fit based on CML- and GR-based calibration approaches, together with the standard logistic regression analysis of the BCDDP data alone. In the model, the variable *agemen* is trichotomized according to age at menarche ≥ 14 , 12–13, or < 12 , and the two dummy variables for the latter two categories are denoted as *agemen1* and *agemen2*; the variable *ageflb* is categorized into four groups according to age at first live birth < 20 , 20–24, 25–29, and ≥ 30 , and the latter three groups are denoted as *ageflb1*, *ageflb2*, and *ageflb3*. For both CML and GR methods, the standard errors were adjusted to account for uncertainty in the parameter estimates of the external model (see Appendix S.5 in online supplementary materials as well as in the proofs of Propositions 1 and 2). As expected, both CML and GR methods led to much smaller standard errors for the parameter estimates associated with covariates included in the external model than the analysis of the BCDDP data alone. For a number of these factors, including number of first-degree relatives with breast cancer and age at menarche, the use of the external model seems to change point estimates of model coefficients to a degree that cannot be explained by uncertainty alone. Closer inspection of the estimates of the parameters of the reduced model from the internal and external studies, also shown in Table 5, indicates that breast cancer associations for these two factors were different between the two studies to a degree that may be indicative of true population differences. Since BPC3 represents a consortium of cohort studies underlying a broader population than that underlying the

BCDDP study, a risk model that is built based on the calibrated estimates could potentially be more broadly applicable. However, future validation studies would be needed to verify such an assertion.

Of the two calibration estimators, both CML and GR method produced comparable point estimates, but CML produced noticeably smaller standard errors for number of first-degree relatives with breast cancer and weight, two variables that were included in cruder forms in the external model. These results are consistent with higher efficiency of CML over GR in the simulation setting of *measurement error*. For the number of previous biopsies and MD, two factors that were not included in the external model, both CML and GR produced results similar to the standard analysis of the BCDDP data alone. In Table S.8 of the online supplementary materials, we present results for CML and GR proceeding as though the external model parameters came from a dataset that is so large that uncertainty can be ignored. In this case, as expected, we observe that the efficiency of both CML and GR further increases relative to BCDDP-only analysis. Moreover, the relative efficiency of CML over GR increases for the parameters associated with weight and number of first-degree relatives with breast cancer.

5. DISCUSSION

We have proposed alternative maximum likelihood methods for using information from external big datasets while building refined regression models based on an individual analytic study. External information, when properly used, can increase both efficiency of underlying parameter estimates and the generalizability of the overall models to broader populations. In recognition of the potential of external data, survey methodologists have long used various types of “design-based” or “model-assisted” calibration techniques for estimating target parameters of interest without relying on a full probability model for the data. In this report, we provide a framework for a very general model-based, yet semiparametric, maximum likelihood inferential framework that requires only summary-level information from external sources.

Our simulation studies and data analysis show that the CML and SCML methods can achieve major efficiency gains over GR-type calibration estimators for covariates in a model that are measured with a poorer instrument in the external study. On the other hand, for covariates that are measured the same way in the external and internal studies, the efficiency of these two methods was similar. It is, however, noteworthy that the modified GR estimator we implemented for the case-control study is not a proper model-free calibration estimator in the sense survey methodologists use. The method is only applicable for logistic models and is likely to be more efficient than a proper design-based GR estimator when the model is correct. Future research is merited to explore the theoretical properties of such modified GR estimators and their connection with ML estimators.

Our simulation studies show that model calibration using external information has important caveats as well. In particular, if the risk factor distribution differs between the underlying populations for the internal and external studies, any type of calibration method, model-based or not, can produce severe bias in estimates of the underlying regression parameters, even when the regression relationship $f_{\beta}(Y|X, Z)$ is

Table 5. Analysis results of BCDDP data

Full model ^a				Reduced model ^a		
Variable	Internal data Est. (SE)	mGR Est. (SE)	CML Est. (SE)	Variable	Internal data Est. (SE)	External data Est. (SE)
numrel	0.648 (0.090)	0.371 (0.038)	0.297 (0.033)	famhist	0.716 (0.101)	0.354 (0.030)
agemen1	0.083 (0.091)	0.074 (0.034)	0.077 (0.035)	agemen1	0.059 (0.090)	0.052 (0.030)
agemen2	0.468 (0.124)	0.185 (0.041)	0.167 (0.042)	agemen2	0.387 (0.120)	0.081 (0.031)
ageflb1	−0.018 (0.146)	−0.109 (0.054)	−0.117 (0.057)	ageflb1	0.046 (0.142)	−0.053 (0.048)
ageflb2	0.086 (0.144)	0.003 (0.052)	−0.005 (0.055)	ageflb2	0.261 (0.139)	0.171 (0.043)
ageflb3	0.251 (0.173)	0.173 (0.067)	0.163 (0.070)	ageflb3	0.449 (0.167)	0.358 (0.057)
weight	0.020 (0.004)	0.022 (0.003)	0.024 (0.002)	weight1	0.061 (0.088)	0.106 (0.031)
				weight2	0.135 (0.106)	0.214 (0.031)
nbips	0.180 (0.070)	0.178 (0.069)	0.165 (0.073)			
MD	0.430 (0.044)	0.428 (0.045)	0.441 (0.047)			

NOTE: The variables in the full model include: number of first-degree relatives with breast cancer (numrel), age at menarche (two dummy variables agemen1–agemen2 according to ≥ 14 , 12–13, or < 12 years), age at first live birth (three dummy variables ageflb1–ageflb3 according to < 20 , 20–24, 25–29, and ≥ 30 years), **weight (in kg)**, number of previous biopsies (nbips), and **mammographic density (MD)**. The variables in the reduced model include: family history (famhist, binary according to yes/no), age at menarche (two dummy variables agemen1–agemen2 according to ≥ 14 , 12–13, or < 12 years), age at first live birth (three dummy variables ageflb1–ageflb3 according to < 20 , 20–24, 25–29, and ≥ 30 years), and weight (two dummy variables weight1–weight2 according to < 62.6 , 62.6–73.1, and ≥ 73.1 kg). ^aAdjusted for 5-year age strata. mGR, modified GR for case-control sampling; CML, constrained maximum likelihood; Est., estimated coefficient; SE, estimated standard error.

exactly the same in the two populations. The assumption of complete exchangeability of populations that is required in calibration methods is more likely to be violated in the kind of applications we envision than in survey-sampling or two-phase design applications, where by design there is a common underlying population. Ideally, in this setting, model calibration should be performed with respect to a risk factor distribution that is representative of the external population. Our SCML method allows this by importing covariate distributions from an external reference sample. Even when such a sample is not available, the SCML method can be used to perform sensitivity analysis under various hypothetical or simulated covariate distributions that may be considered realistic for the external population. It is further important to note that likelihood-based methods require the assumption that the full model $f_\beta(Y|X, Z)$ is correctly specified for both the internal and the external populations. Although the internal study can be used for performing model diagnostics for the underlying population, the assumption is not testable for the external population because of lack of information on Z and inaccessibility of individual-level data.

The proposed methods may have applications in other areas, such as bench-marking small area estimates to match larger area estimates (Mugglin and Carlin 1998; Bell, Datta, and Ghosh 2013; Zhang et al. 2014), analyzing randomized clinical trial data so that they are generalizable to larger populations (Greenhouse et al. 2008; Frangakis 2009; Stuart et al. 2011; Pearl and Bareinboim 2014; Hartman et al. 2015), and standardization and control of confounding for observational studies (Keiding and Clayton 2014). In general, we foresee that model synthesis using disparate types of data sources will be increasingly important for biomedical research in the future. The key constraints we identify to relate models of varying size, that is, Equation (2), could be useful for model synthesis in more general settings than we have considered here. More research is needed to extend the framework for developing models incorporating information from studies that may have collected different, possibly overlapping, sets of covariates. In this setting, each

study or a combination of studies that collect similar covariates can provide information on a particular type of reduced model. Future research is also merited to explore methods that can incorporate these constraints in a “softer” fashion to account for sources of uncertainty of the external models and their parameters.

APPENDIX: DERIVATION OF THE PSEUDO-LOG-LIKELIHOOD

We first derive the pseudo-log-likelihood (4) under the simple random sampling design. The semiparametric likelihood $L_{\beta,F} = \prod_{i=1}^N f_\beta(Y_i|X_i, Z_i) dF(X_i, Z_i)$ is to be maximized under the constraint $\int u_\beta(X, Z; \theta) dF(X, Z) = 0$, where $u_\beta(X, Z; \theta)$ is defined in (3), and F is treated nonparametrically by assigning masses $(\delta_1, \dots, \delta_m)$ to the unique values of the data (X_i, Z_i) ($i = 1, \dots, N$), with m the number of unique data points and $\sum_{j=1}^m \delta_j = 1$. Let n_j be the number of (X_i, Z_i) equal to the j th distinct pair value. For notational convenience, write $f_{\beta,i} = f_\beta(Y_i, X_i, Z_i)$, $u_{\beta,i} = u_\beta(X_i, Z_i; \theta)$, and $F_i = F(X_i, Z_i)$ ($i = 1, \dots, N$). Applying the Lagrange multiplier method, we solve the stationary point to

$$\sum_{i=1}^N \log f_{\beta,i} + \sum_{j=1}^m n_j \log \delta_j + \lambda^T \sum_{j=1}^m u_{\beta,j} \delta_j + \phi \left(\sum_{j=1}^m \delta_j - 1 \right),$$

where λ and ϕ are Lagrange multipliers. By differentiating with respect to λ and ϕ , we obtain the stationary equations, $\sum_{j=1}^m u_{\beta,j} \delta_j = 0$ and $\sum_{j=1}^m \delta_j = 1$, as desired. Further, by differentiating with respect to δ_j , we obtain the stationary equation

$$\frac{n_j}{\delta_j} + \lambda^T u_{\beta,j} + \phi = 0,$$

which, by multiplying δ_j and summing over j on both sides, leads to $\phi = -N$ since $\sum_{j=1}^m u_{\beta,j} \delta_j = 0$ and $\sum_{j=1}^m \delta_j = 1$. Hence,

$$\delta_j = \frac{1}{n_j} \frac{1}{N - \lambda^T u_{\beta,j}}, \quad j = 1, \dots, m.$$

Plugging this δ_j into $\log(L_{\beta,F})$ results in a profile likelihood that is equivalent to (4), with λ rescaled by a factor of N .

Now consider the semiparametric CML under the case-control sampling design of the internal study. In this case we want to maximize the

case-control log-likelihood $\log(L_{\beta,F}^{cc})$ given in (5) subject to the constraint $\int u_{\beta}(X, Z; \theta) dF(X, Z) = 0$. Define $f_{\beta,i}^y = f_{\beta}(Y_i = y | X_i, Z_i)$ for $y = 0, 1$, $p_1 = \sum_{j=1}^m f_{\beta,j}^1 \delta_j$, and $p_0 = 1 - p_1 = \sum_{j=1}^m f_{\beta,j}^0 \delta_j$. By the characterization of F as above and the Lagrange multiplier method, we solve the stationary equation for

$$\sum_{i=1}^N \log f_{\beta,i} + \sum_{j=1}^m n_j \log \delta_j + \lambda^T \sum_{j=1}^m u_{\beta,j} \delta_j + \phi \left(\sum_{j=1}^m \delta_j - 1 \right) - N_1 \log \sum_{j=1}^m f_{\beta,j}^1 \delta_j - N_0 \log \left(1 - \sum_{j=1}^m f_{\beta,j}^1 \delta_j \right).$$

Again, by differentiating with respect to λ and ϕ , we obtain the stationary equations: $\sum_{j=1}^m u_{\beta,j} \delta_j = 0$ and $\sum_{j=1}^m \delta_j = 1$. The stationary equation by differentiating δ_j leads to

$$\frac{n_j}{\delta_j} + \lambda^T u_{\beta,j} + \phi - N_1 \frac{f_{\beta,j}^1}{p_1} - N_0 \frac{f_{\beta,j}^0}{p_0} = 0.$$

Multiplying by δ_j , and summing over j on both sides, leads to $\phi = 0$ given $\sum_{j=1}^m u_{\beta,j} \delta_j = 0$ and $\sum_{j=1}^m \delta_j = 1$. Hence,

$$\delta_j = \frac{1}{\mu_1 f_{\beta,j}^1 + \mu_0 f_{\beta,j}^0 - \lambda^T u_{\beta,j}}, \quad j = 1, \dots, m,$$

where $\mu_y = N_y/p_y$ ($y = 0, 1$) and μ_0 in fact links to μ_1 since $p_0 = 1 - p_1$. Plugging δ_j into $\log(L_{\beta,F}^{cc})$ then gives the profile likelihood equivalent to (6).

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

S.1: Additional Simulation Results

S.2: The Score Function and Negative Hessian Matrix for Pseudo-Loglikelihood

S.3: The Score Function and Negative Hessian Matrix for Synthetic Constrained Likelihood

S.4: Conditions for The Theoretical Results

S.5: Proofs of Lemmas and Propositions

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