#### Univariate Multiple Imputation Utrecht University Winter School: Missing Data in R



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### Outline

#### Imputation

Single Imputation Multiple Imputation

**MI-Based Analysis** 



## Imputation is Just Prediction\*

Imputation is nothing more than a type of prediction.

- 1. Train a model on the observed parts of the data,  $Y_{obs}$ .
  - Train the imputation model.
- 2. Predict the missing values,  $Y_{mis}$ .
  - Generate imputations.
- 3. Replace the missing values with these predictions.
  - Impute the missing data.



## \*Levels of Uncertainty Modeling

van Buuren (2018) provides a very useful classification of different imputation methods:

- 1. Simple Prediction
  - The missing data are naively filled with predicted values from some regression equation.
  - All uncertainty is ignored.
- 2. Prediction + Noise
  - A random residual error is added to each predicted value to create the imputations.
  - Only uncertainty in the predicted values is modeled.
  - The imputation model itself is assumed to be correct and error-free.
- 3. Prediction + Noise + Model Error
  - Uncertainty in the imputation model itself is also modeled.
  - Only way to get fully proper imputations in the sense of Rubin (1987).

#### Simulate Some Toy Data

```
library(mvtnorm)
library(dplyr)
nObs <- 1000 # Sample Size
pm <- 0.3 # Proportion Missing
sigma <- matrix(c(1.0, 0.5, 0.5, 1.0), ncol = 2)
dat0 <- rmvnorm(nObs, c(0, 0), sigma) %>% as.data.frame()
colnames(dat0) <- c("y", "x")</pre>
```

#### Simulate Some Toy Data

```
## Impose MAR Nonresponse:
dat1 <- dat0
mVec <- with(dat1, x < quantile(x, probs = pm))
dat1[mVec, "y"] <- NA
## Subset the data:
yMis <- dat1[mVec, ]
yObs <- dat1[!mVec, ]</pre>
```

#### Look at the Data

head(dat0, n = 5) % round(3)

y x 1 -0.961 -0.912 2 1.467 0.667 3 -0.361 -0.017 4 0.928 -0.447 5 -2.292 -2.678



#### Look at the Data



#### **Expected Imputation Model Parameters**



## Conditional Mean Substitution

```
## Generate imputations:
imps <- beta[1] + beta[2] * yMis$x
## Fill missing cells in Y:
dat1[mVec, "y"] <- imps
head(dat1, n = 5) %>% round(3)
y x
1 -0.566 -0.912
2 1.467 0.667
3 -0.361 -0.017
4 0.928 -0.447
5 -1.494 -2.678
```



#### Stochastic Regression Imputation

```
## Generate imputations:
imps <- imps +</pre>
    rnorm(nrow(yMis), 0, sigma)
## Fill missing cells in Y:
dat1[mVec, "y"] <- imps</pre>
head(dat1, n = 5) %>% round(3)
       V
            x
1 - 0.885 - 0.912
 1.467 0.667
2
3 -0.361 -0.017
 0.928 - 0.447
5 -0.390 -2.678
```



### Setting Up Proper MI

Proper MI also models uncertainty in the regression coefficients used to create the imputations.

- A different set of of coefficients is randomly sampled (using Bayesian simulation) to create each of the *M* imputations.
- The tricky part about implemented MI is deriving the distributions from which to sample these coefficients.

Our imputation model is simply a linear regression model:

$$Y = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$$

To fully account for model uncertainty, we need to randomly sample both  $\beta$  and var( $\varepsilon$ ) =  $\sigma^2$ .

Use Bayesian simulation to estimate posterior distributions for the imputation model parameters:



Recall the incomplete data from the single imputation examples.



Sample values of  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$ :

- $\beta_0 = -0.105$
- $\beta_1 = 0.56$

Define the predicted best-fit line:  $\hat{Y}_{mis} = -0.105 + 0.56 X_{mis}$ 



Sample a value of  $\sigma^2$ :

•  $\sigma^2 = 0.849$ 

Generate imputations using the same procedure described in Single Stochastic Regression Imputation:

$$Y_{imp} = \hat{Y}_{mis} + \varepsilon$$
$$\varepsilon \sim N(0, 0.849)$$



Sample values of  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$ :

- $\beta_0 = -0.053$
- $\beta_1 = 0.419$

Define the predicted best-fit line:  $\hat{Y}_{mis} = -0.053 + 0.419 X_{mis}$ 



Sample a value of  $\sigma^2$ :

•  $\sigma^2 = 0.888$ 

Generate imputations using the same procedure described in Single Stochastic Regression Imputation:

$$Y_{imp} = \hat{Y}_{mis} + \varepsilon$$
$$\varepsilon \sim N(0, 0.888)$$



Sample values of  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$ :

- $\beta_0 = -0.093$
- $\beta_1 = 0.565$

Define the predicted best-fit line:  $\hat{Y}_{mis} = -0.093 + 0.565 X_{mis}$ 



Sample a value of  $\sigma^2$ :

•  $\sigma^2 = 0.819$ 

Generate imputations using the same procedure described in Single Stochastic Regression Imputation:

$$Y_{imp} = \hat{Y}_{mis} + \varepsilon$$
$$\varepsilon \sim N(0, 0.819)$$



# **MI-BASED ANALYSIS**



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## Doing MI-Based Analysis

An MI-based data analysis consists of three phases:

- 1. The imputation phase
  - Replace missing values with *M* plausible estimates.
  - Produce *M* completed datasets.
- 2. The analysis phase
  - Estimate *M* replicates of your analysis model.
  - Fit the same model to each of the M datasets from Step 1.
- 3. The pooling phase
  - Combine the *M* sets of parameter estimates and standard errors from Step 2 into a single set of MI estimates.
  - Use these pooled parameter estimates and standard errors for inference.

Incomplete Dataset





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Rubin (1987) formulated a simple set of pooling rules for MI estimates.

• The MI point estimate of some interesting quantity,  $Q^*$ , is simply the mean of the M estimates,  $\{\hat{Q}_m\}$ :

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



#### **Pooling MI Estimates**

The MI variability estimate, *T*, is a slightly more complex entity.

• A weighted sum of the *within-imputation* variance, *W*, and the *between-imputation* variance, *B*.

$$W = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^{M} \widehat{SE}_{Q,m}^2$$
$$B = \frac{1}{M-1} \sum_{m=1}^{M} \left(\hat{Q}_m - Q^*\right)^2$$
$$T = W + (1 + M^{-1}) B$$
$$= W + B + \frac{B}{M}$$



After computing  $Q^*$  and T, we combine them in the usual way to get test statistics and confidence intervals.

$$t = \frac{Q^* - Q_0}{\sqrt{T}}$$
$$CI = Q^* \pm t_{crit}\sqrt{T}$$

We must take care with our *df*, though.

$$df = (M-1) \left[ 1 + \frac{W}{(1+M^{-1})B} \right]^2$$



## Fraction of Missing Information

Earlier today, we briefly discussed a very desirable measure of nonresponse: *fraction of missing information* (FMI).

$$FMI = rac{r + rac{2}{(df+3)}}{r+1} \approx rac{(1+M^{-1})B}{(1+M^{-1})B+W} \to rac{B}{B+W}$$

where

$$r = \frac{(1+M^{-1})B}{W}$$

The FMI gives us a sense of how much the missing data (and their treatment) have influence our parameter estimates.

• We should report the FMI for an estimated parameter along with other ancillary statistics (e.g., t-tests, p-values, effect sizes, etc.).

## Special Pooling Considerations

The Rubin (1987) pooling rules only hold when the parameter of interest, Q, follows an approximately normal sampling distribution.

• For substantially non-normal parameters, we may want to transform before pooling and back-transform the pooled estimate.

The following table, reproduced from van Buuren (2018), shows some recommended transformations.

Statistic	Transformation	Source
Correlation	Fisher's z	Schafer (1997)
Odds ratio	Logarithm	Agresti (2013)
Relative risk	Logarithm	Agresti (2013)
Hazard ratio	Logarithm	Marshall et al. (2009)
R <sup>2</sup>	Fisher's <i>z</i> on square root	Harel (2009)
Survival probabilities	Complementary log-log	Marshall et al. (2009)
Survival distribution	Logarithm	Marshall et al. (2009)

#### References

Agresti, A. (2013). *Categorical data analysis* (3rd ed.). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

- Harel, O. (2009). The estimation of  $r^2$  and adjusted  $r^2$  in incomplete data sets using multiple imputation. *Journal of Applied Statistics*, 36(10), 1109–1118. doi: 10.1080/02664760802553000
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