

Statistical Methods for Analysis with Missing Data

Lecture 16: pattern-mixture models (continued), sensitivity analysis

Mauricio Sadinle

Department of Biostatistics

W UNIVERSITY *of* WASHINGTON

Previous Lecture

Introduction to

- ▶ The fundamental issue of non-identifiability
- ▶ General strategy for identification
- ▶ Pattern-mixture models

Today's Lecture

- ▶ Common identifying assumptions for pattern-mixture models
 - ▶ Reading: Chapter 6 of the lecture notes of Davidian and Tsiatis
- ▶ Itemwise conditionally independent nonresponse
- ▶ Properties of classes of full-data distributions
- ▶ Sensitivity analysis
 - ▶ Reading: Chapter 7 of the lecture notes of Davidian and Tsiatis

Outline

Recap from Previous Lecture

Common Identifying Assumptions for Pattern-Mixture Models

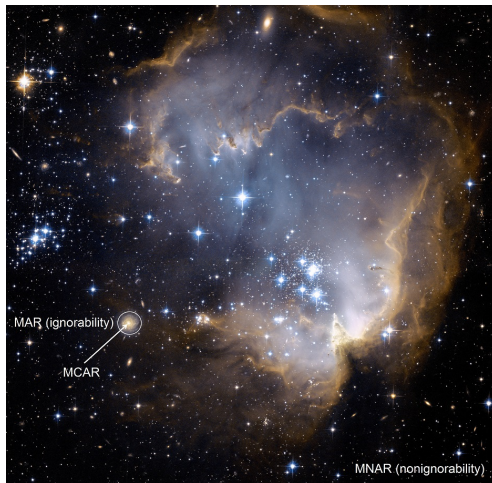
Itemwise Conditionally Independent Nonresponse

Properties of Classes of Full-Data Distributions

Sensitivity Analysis

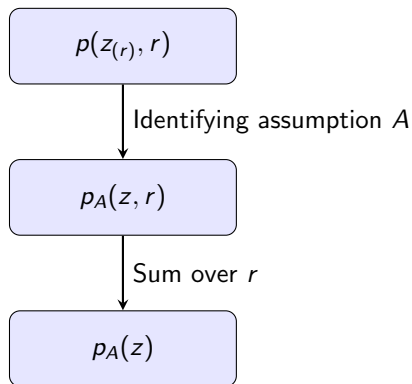
Moving Away from MAR?

- ▶ In which direction do we go??
- ▶ Remember: there is a universe of missing-data assumptions:



Identification Strategies

- ▶ Inference with missing data is impossible without identification assumptions
- ▶ Identification strategies generally follow this structure:



Pattern-Mixture Models

- ▶ Pattern-mixture models (Little, JASA 1993) provide a transparent way of specifying missing data assumptions
- ▶ The pattern-mixture model factorization explicitly reveals:

$$p(z) = \sum_{r \in \{0,1\}^K} \overbrace{p(z_{(\bar{r})} \mid z_{(r)}, r)}^{\text{needs identifying assumption}} \underbrace{p(z_{(r)} \mid r)p(r)}_{\text{can be estimated from data}}$$

- ▶ Explicitly shows what needs identifying assumptions and what can be obtained from data alone
- ▶ Identifying assumptions explicitly or implicitly amount to constructing $\{p(z_{(\bar{r})} \mid z_{(r)}, r)\}_r$ from $\{p(z_{(r)}, r)\}_r$

Dropout in Longitudinal Study

If missingness only comes from subjects dropping out

- ▶ Missingness patterns are uniquely summarized by the dropout time

$$D = 1 + \sum_{j=1}^T R_j$$

- ▶ The *observed data* are obtained as realizations of

$$(Z_{(D)}, D)$$

- ▶ If $D = d$, $Z_{(d)} = (Z_1, \dots, Z_{d-1})$ and $Z_{(\vec{d})} = (Z_d, \dots, Z_T)$
- ▶ Pattern-mixture model requires modeling the observed-data distribution:
 - ▶ $p(D = d)$: simply take empirical frequency
 - ▶ $p(z_{(d)} \mid D = d)$: depends on variables' types

Identifying Assumptions for PMMs Under Dropout

- ▶ In general, how to obtain $\{p(z_{(\bar{d})} \mid z_{(d)}, d)\}_d$ from $\{p(z_{(d)}, d)\}_d$?
- ▶ Note that

$$p(z_{(\bar{d})} \mid z_{(d)}, d) = \prod_{\ell=d}^T p(z_{\ell} \mid z_{(\ell)}, d)$$

- ▶ Example: for $T = 3$, we need to identify:

- ▶ If $D = 3$,

$$p(z_{(\bar{3})} \mid z_{(3)}, D = 3) = p(z_3 \mid z_1, z_2, D = 3)$$

- ▶ If $D = 2$,

$$p(z_{(\bar{2})} \mid z_{(2)}, D = 2) = p(z_2 \mid z_1, D = 2)p(z_3 \mid z_1, z_2, D = 2)$$

Identifying Assumptions for PMMs Under Dropout

- ▶ In general, how to obtain $\{p(z_{(\bar{d})} \mid z_{(d)}, d)\}_d$ from $\{p(z_{(d)}, d)\}_d$?
- ▶ Note that

$$p(z_{(\bar{d})} \mid z_{(d)}, d) = \prod_{\ell=d}^T p(z_{\ell} \mid z_{(\ell)}, d)$$

- ▶ Example: for $T = 3$, we need to identify:
 - ▶ If $D = 3$,

$$p(z_{(\bar{3})} \mid z_{(3)}, D = 3) = p(z_3 \mid z_1, z_2, D = 3)$$

- ▶ If $D = 2$,

$$p(z_{(\bar{2})} \mid z_{(2)}, D = 2) = p(z_2 \mid z_1, D = 2)p(z_3 \mid z_1, z_2, D = 2)$$

Identifying Assumptions for PMMs Under Dropout

- ▶ In general, how to obtain $\{p(z_{(\bar{d})} \mid z_{(d)}, d)\}_d$ from $\{p(z_{(d)}, d)\}_d$?
- ▶ Note that

$$p(z_{(\bar{d})} \mid z_{(d)}, d) = \prod_{\ell=d}^T p(z_{\ell} \mid z_{(\ell)}, d)$$

- ▶ Example: for $T = 3$, we need to identify:
 - ▶ If $D = 3$,

$$p(z_{(\bar{3})} \mid z_{(3)}, D = 3) = p(z_3 \mid z_1, z_2, D = 3)$$

- ▶ If $D = 2$,

$$p(z_{(\bar{2})} \mid z_{(2)}, D = 2) = p(z_2 \mid z_1, D = 2)p(z_3 \mid z_1, z_2, D = 2)$$

Outline

Recap from Previous Lecture

Common Identifying Assumptions for Pattern-Mixture Models

Itemwise Conditionally Independent Nonresponse

Properties of Classes of Full-Data Distributions

Sensitivity Analysis

The Complete-Case Identifying Assumption

Little (JASA 1993) proposed to assume:

$$p_{CC}(z_\ell \mid z_{(\ell)}, D = d) \equiv p(z_\ell \mid z_{(\ell)}, D = T + 1),$$

for all $\ell \geq d$, $d = 1, \dots, T$.

- ▶ Distributions for $D = T + 1$ are identifiable from complete cases
- ▶ Example: for $T = 3$, we have:

- ▶ For $D = 3$,

$$p_{CC}(z_3 \mid z_1, z_2, D = 3) \equiv p(z_3 \mid z_1, z_2, D = 4)$$

- ▶ If $D = 2$,

$$p_{CC}(z_2 \mid z_1, D = 2) \equiv p(z_2 \mid z_1, D = 4)$$

$$p_{CC}(z_3 \mid z_1, z_2, D = 2) \equiv p(z_3 \mid z_1, z_2, D = 4)$$

The Complete-Case Identifying Assumption

Little (JASA 1993) proposed to assume:

$$p_{CC}(z_\ell \mid z_{(\ell)}, D = d) \equiv p(z_\ell \mid z_{(\ell)}, D = T + 1),$$

for all $\ell \geq d$, $d = 1, \dots, T$.

- ▶ Distributions for $D = T + 1$ are identifiable from complete cases
- ▶ Example: for $T = 3$, we have:

- ▶ For $D = 3$,

$$p_{CC}(z_3 \mid z_1, z_2, D = 3) \equiv p(z_3 \mid z_1, z_2, D = 4)$$

- ▶ If $D = 2$,

$$p_{CC}(z_2 \mid z_1, D = 2) \equiv p(z_2 \mid z_1, D = 4)$$

$$p_{CC}(z_3 \mid z_1, z_2, D = 2) \equiv p(z_3 \mid z_1, z_2, D = 4)$$

The Complete-Case Identifying Assumption

Little (JASA 1993) proposed to assume:

$$p_{CC}(z_\ell \mid z_{(\ell)}, D = d) \equiv p(z_\ell \mid z_{(\ell)}, D = T + 1),$$

for all $\ell \geq d$, $d = 1, \dots, T$.

- ▶ Distributions for $D = T + 1$ are identifiable from complete cases
- ▶ Example: for $T = 3$, we have:
 - ▶ For $D = 3$,

$$p_{CC}(z_3 \mid z_1, z_2, D = 3) \equiv p(z_3 \mid z_1, z_2, D = 4)$$

- ▶ If $D = 2$,

$$p_{CC}(z_2 \mid z_1, D = 2) \equiv p(z_2 \mid z_1, D = 4)$$

$$p_{CC}(z_3 \mid z_1, z_2, D = 2) \equiv p(z_3 \mid z_1, z_2, D = 4)$$

The Complete-Case Identifying Assumption

Little (JASA 1993) proposed to assume:

$$p_{CC}(z_\ell \mid z_{(\ell)}, D = d) \equiv p(z_\ell \mid z_{(\ell)}, D = T + 1),$$

for all $\ell \geq d$, $d = 1, \dots, T$.

- ▶ Distributions for $D = T + 1$ are identifiable from complete cases
- ▶ Example: for $T = 3$, we have:
 - ▶ For $D = 3$,

$$p_{CC}(z_3 \mid z_1, z_2, D = 3) \equiv p(z_3 \mid z_1, z_2, D = 4)$$

- ▶ If $D = 2$,

$$p_{CC}(z_2 \mid z_1, D = 2) \equiv p(z_2 \mid z_1, D = 4)$$

$$p_{CC}(z_3 \mid z_1, z_2, D = 2) \equiv p(z_3 \mid z_1, z_2, D = 4)$$

The Complete-Case Identifying Assumption

Little (JASA 1993) proposed to assume:

$$p_{CC}(z_\ell \mid z_{(\ell)}, D = d) \equiv p(z_\ell \mid z_{(\ell)}, D = T + 1),$$

for all $\ell \geq d$, $d = 1, \dots, T$.

- ▶ Distributions for $D = T + 1$ are identifiable from complete cases
- ▶ Example: for $T = 3$, we have:
 - ▶ For $D = 3$,

$$p_{CC}(z_3 \mid z_1, z_2, D = 3) \equiv p(z_3 \mid z_1, z_2, D = 4)$$

- ▶ If $D = 2$,

$$p_{CC}(z_2 \mid z_1, D = 2) \equiv p(z_2 \mid z_1, D = 4)$$

$$p_{CC}(z_3 \mid z_1, z_2, D = 2) \equiv p(z_3 \mid z_1, z_2, D = 4)$$

The Neighboring-Case Identifying Assumption

The extrapolation distributions could also be obtained from the closest dropout pattern where ℓ is available:

$$p_{NC}(z_\ell \mid z_{(\ell)}, D = d) \equiv p(z_\ell \mid z_{(\ell)}, D = \ell + 1),$$

for all $\ell \geq d$, $d = 1, \dots, T$.

- ▶ Among observations with $D = \ell + 1$ we get to observe z_ℓ and $z_{(\ell)}$
- ▶ We could think that observations with $D = \ell + 1$ are the best for basing extrapolation of the values of Z_ℓ
 - ▶ For example, among observations where Z_ℓ is available, those who dropout at time $\ell + 1$ might be the most similar to those that dropout at time ℓ
- ▶ **HW4:** say $T = 3$, write down this restriction for $\ell \geq d$, $d = 1, 2, 3$.

The Neighboring-Case Identifying Assumption

The extrapolation distributions could also be obtained from the closest dropout pattern where ℓ is available:

$$p_{NC}(z_\ell \mid z_{(\ell)}, D = d) \equiv p(z_\ell \mid z_{(\ell)}, D = \ell + 1),$$

for all $\ell \geq d$, $d = 1, \dots, T$.

- ▶ Among observations with $D = \ell + 1$ we get to observe z_ℓ and $z_{(\ell)}$
- ▶ We could think that observations with $D = \ell + 1$ are the best for basing extrapolation of the values of Z_ℓ
 - ▶ For example, among observations where Z_ℓ is available, those who dropout at time $\ell + 1$ might be the most similar to those that dropout at time ℓ
- ▶ **HW4:** say $T = 3$, write down this restriction for $\ell \geq d$, $d = 1, 2, 3$.

The Neighboring-Case Identifying Assumption

The extrapolation distributions could also be obtained from the closest dropout pattern where ℓ is available:

$$p_{NC}(z_\ell \mid z_{(\ell)}, D = d) \equiv p(z_\ell \mid z_{(\ell)}, D = \ell + 1),$$

for all $\ell \geq d$, $d = 1, \dots, T$.

- ▶ Among observations with $D = \ell + 1$ we get to observe z_ℓ and $z_{(\ell)}$
- ▶ We could think that observations with $D = \ell + 1$ are the best for basing extrapolation of the values of Z_ℓ
 - ▶ For example, among observations where Z_ℓ is available, those who dropout at time $\ell + 1$ might be the most similar to those that dropout at time ℓ
- ▶ **HW4:** say $T = 3$, write down this restriction for $\ell \geq d$, $d = 1, 2, 3$.

The Neighboring-Case Identifying Assumption

The extrapolation distributions could also be obtained from the closest dropout pattern where ℓ is available:

$$p_{NC}(z_\ell \mid z_{(\ell)}, D = d) \equiv p(z_\ell \mid z_{(\ell)}, D = \ell + 1),$$

for all $\ell \geq d$, $d = 1, \dots, T$.

- ▶ Among observations with $D = \ell + 1$ we get to observe z_ℓ and $z_{(\ell)}$
- ▶ We could think that observations with $D = \ell + 1$ are the best for basing extrapolation of the values of Z_ℓ
 - ▶ For example, among observations where Z_ℓ is available, those who dropout at time $\ell + 1$ might be the most similar to those that dropout at time ℓ
- ▶ **HW4:** say $T = 3$, write down this restriction for $\ell \geq d$, $d = 1, 2, 3$.

The Neighboring-Case Identifying Assumption

The extrapolation distributions could also be obtained from the closest dropout pattern where ℓ is available:

$$p_{NC}(z_\ell \mid z_{(\ell)}, D = d) \equiv p(z_\ell \mid z_{(\ell)}, D = \ell + 1),$$

for all $\ell \geq d$, $d = 1, \dots, T$.

- ▶ Among observations with $D = \ell + 1$ we get to observe z_ℓ and $z_{(\ell)}$
- ▶ We could think that observations with $D = \ell + 1$ are the best for basing extrapolation of the values of Z_ℓ
 - ▶ For example, among observations where Z_ℓ is available, those who dropout at time $\ell + 1$ might be the most similar to those that dropout at time ℓ
- ▶ **HW4:** say $T = 3$, write down this restriction for $\ell \geq d$, $d = 1, 2, 3$.

The Available-Case Identifying Assumption

Here, the extrapolation distributions are obtained from all available cases where ℓ is available:

$$p_{AC}(z_\ell \mid z_{(\ell)}, D = d) \equiv p(z_\ell \mid z_{(\ell)}, D > \ell),$$

for all $\ell \geq d$, $d = 1, \dots, T$.

- ▶ Among all observations with $D > \ell$ we get to observe z_ℓ and $z_{(\ell)}$
- ▶ We could think that this approach maximizes the use of available information for basing extrapolation of the values of Z_ℓ
- ▶ **HW4:** say $T = 3$, write down this restriction for $\ell \geq d$, $d = 1, 2, 3$.
- ▶ **HW4:** under monotone nonresponse, the AC assumption is equivalent to MAR

The Available-Case Identifying Assumption

Here, the extrapolation distributions are obtained from all available cases where ℓ is available:

$$p_{AC}(z_\ell \mid z_{(\ell)}, D = d) \equiv p(z_\ell \mid z_{(\ell)}, D > \ell),$$

for all $\ell \geq d$, $d = 1, \dots, T$.

- ▶ Among all observations with $D > \ell$ we get to observe z_ℓ and $z_{(\ell)}$
- ▶ We could think that this approach maximizes the use of available information for basing extrapolation of the values of Z_ℓ
- ▶ **HW4:** say $T = 3$, write down this restriction for $\ell \geq d$, $d = 1, 2, 3$.
- ▶ **HW4:** under monotone nonresponse, the AC assumption is equivalent to MAR

The Available-Case Identifying Assumption

Here, the extrapolation distributions are obtained from all available cases where ℓ is available:

$$p_{AC}(z_\ell \mid z_{(\ell)}, D = d) \equiv p(z_\ell \mid z_{(\ell)}, D > \ell),$$

for all $\ell \geq d$, $d = 1, \dots, T$.

- ▶ Among all observations with $D > \ell$ we get to observe z_ℓ and $z_{(\ell)}$
- ▶ We could think that this approach maximizes the use of available information for basing extrapolation of the values of Z_ℓ
- ▶ **HW4:** say $T = 3$, write down this restriction for $\ell \geq d$, $d = 1, 2, 3$.
- ▶ **HW4:** under monotone nonresponse, the AC assumption is equivalent to MAR

The Available-Case Identifying Assumption

Here, the extrapolation distributions are obtained from all available cases where ℓ is available:

$$p_{AC}(z_\ell \mid z_{(\ell)}, D = d) \equiv p(z_\ell \mid z_{(\ell)}, D > \ell),$$

for all $\ell \geq d$, $d = 1, \dots, T$.

- ▶ Among all observations with $D > \ell$ we get to observe z_ℓ and $z_{(\ell)}$
- ▶ We could think that this approach maximizes the use of available information for basing extrapolation of the values of Z_ℓ
- ▶ **HW4:** say $T = 3$, write down this restriction for $\ell \geq d$, $d = 1, 2, 3$.
- ▶ **HW4:** under monotone nonresponse, the AC assumption is equivalent to MAR

The Available-Case Identifying Assumption

Here, the extrapolation distributions are obtained from all available cases where ℓ is available:

$$p_{AC}(z_\ell \mid z_{(\ell)}, D = d) \equiv p(z_\ell \mid z_{(\ell)}, D > \ell),$$

for all $\ell \geq d$, $d = 1, \dots, T$.

- ▶ Among all observations with $D > \ell$ we get to observe z_ℓ and $z_{(\ell)}$
- ▶ We could think that this approach maximizes the use of available information for basing extrapolation of the values of Z_ℓ
- ▶ **HW4:** say $T = 3$, write down this restriction for $\ell \geq d$, $d = 1, 2, 3$.
- ▶ **HW4:** under monotone nonresponse, the AC assumption is equivalent to MAR

Outline

Recap from Previous Lecture

Common Identifying Assumptions for Pattern-Mixture Models

Itemwise Conditionally Independent Nonresponse

Properties of Classes of Full-Data Distributions

Sensitivity Analysis

Itemwise Conditionally Independent Nonresponse

- ▶ Identification assumptions can also be expressed as restrictions on the full-data distribution
- ▶ The *itemwise conditionally independent nonresponse* (ICIN)¹ assumption says that

$$Z_j \perp\!\!\!\perp R_j \mid Z_{-j}, R_{-j}, \quad \text{for all } j = 1, \dots, K,$$

where $Z_{-j} = (\dots, Z_{j-1}, Z_{j+1}, \dots)$, $R_{-j} = (\dots, R_{j-1}, R_{j+1}, \dots)$

- ▶ Remark: Z_j and R_j being conditionally independent does not imply marginal independence

¹Sadinle & Reiter (Biometrika 2017): <https://doi.org/10.1093/biomet/asw063>

Itemwise Conditionally Independent Nonresponse

- ▶ Identification assumptions can also be expressed as restrictions on the full-data distribution
- ▶ The *itemwise conditionally independent nonresponse* (ICIN)¹ assumption says that

$$Z_j \perp\!\!\!\perp R_j \mid Z_{-j}, R_{-j}, \quad \text{for all } j = 1, \dots, K,$$

where $Z_{-j} = (\dots, Z_{j-1}, Z_{j+1}, \dots)$, $R_{-j} = (\dots, R_{j-1}, R_{j+1}, \dots)$

- ▶ Remark: Z_j and R_j being conditionally independent does not imply marginal independence

¹Sadinle & Reiter (Biometrika 2017): <https://doi.org/10.1093/biomet/asw063>

ICIN Distribution

- ▶ Sadinle & Reiter showed how to construct a full-data distribution that encodes ICIN given an observed-data distribution
- ▶ For each missingness pattern $r \in \{0, 1\}^K$, given $p(z_{(r)}, r) > 0$, let the function $\eta_r : \mathcal{Z}_{(r)} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ be defined recursively as

$$\eta_r(z_{(r)}) = \log p(z_{(r)}, r) - \log \int_{\mathcal{Z}_{(\bar{r})}} \exp \left\{ \sum_{\bar{r}' \prec \bar{r}} \eta_{r'}(z_{(r')}) \right\} \mu(dz_{(\bar{r})}).$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} p_{ICIN}(z, r) &= \exp \left\{ \sum_{\bar{r}' \prec \bar{r}} \eta_{r'}(z_{(r')}) \right\} \\ &= p(z_{(r)}, r) \frac{\exp \left\{ \sum_{\bar{r}' \prec \bar{r}} \eta_{r'}(z_{(r')}) \right\}}{\int_{\mathcal{Z}_{(\bar{r})}} \exp \left\{ \sum_{\bar{r}' \prec \bar{r}} \eta_{r'}(z_{(r')}) \right\} \mu(dz_{(\bar{r})})} \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ Therefore ICIN can be seen as a restriction for pattern-mixture models!

ICIN Distribution

- ▶ Sadinle & Reiter showed how to construct a full-data distribution that encodes ICIN given an observed-data distribution
- ▶ For each missingness pattern $r \in \{0, 1\}^K$, given $p(z_{(r)}, r) > 0$, let the function $\eta_r : \mathcal{Z}_{(r)} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ be defined recursively as

$$\eta_r(z_{(r)}) = \log p(z_{(r)}, r) - \log \int_{\mathcal{Z}_{(\bar{r})}} \exp \left\{ \sum_{\bar{r}' \prec \bar{r}} \eta_{r'}(z_{(r')}) \right\} \mu(dz_{(\bar{r})}).$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} p_{ICIN}(z, r) &= \exp \left\{ \sum_{\bar{r}' \prec \bar{r}} \eta_{r'}(z_{(r')}) \right\} \\ &= p(z_{(r)}, r) \frac{\exp \left\{ \sum_{\bar{r}' \prec \bar{r}} \eta_{r'}(z_{(r')}) \right\}}{\int_{\mathcal{Z}_{(\bar{r})}} \exp \left\{ \sum_{\bar{r}' \prec \bar{r}} \eta_{r'}(z_{(r')}) \right\} \mu(dz_{(\bar{r})})} \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ Therefore ICIN can be seen as a restriction for pattern-mixture models!

Outline

Recap from Previous Lecture

Common Identifying Assumptions for Pattern-Mixture Models

Itemwise Conditionally Independent Nonresponse

Properties of Classes of Full-Data Distributions

Sensitivity Analysis

Properties of Full-Data Distributions

- ▶ Assumptions covered so far: MCAR, MAR, CC, NC, AC, ICIN
- ▶ Can we talk about properties of the implied classes of full-data distributions?²
 - ▶ Observational equivalence
 - ▶ Full-data identifiability
 - ▶ (Observed-data) identifiability
 - ▶ Nonparametric identifiability

²Taken from Sadinle & Reiter (forthcoming in Biometrika):

<https://arxiv.org/pdf/1902.06043.pdf>

Observational Equivalence

- ▶ Two full-data distributions are said to be *observationally equivalent* if their implied observed-data distributions are the same
- ▶ This is, say I have two full-data distributions:

$$p_A(z_{(\bar{r})}, z_{(r)}, r) \quad \text{and} \quad p_B(z_{(\bar{r})}, z_{(r)}, r).$$

If

$$\int p_A(z_{(\bar{r})}, z_{(r)}, r) \, dz_{(\bar{r})} = \int p_B(z_{(\bar{r})}, z_{(r)}, r) \, dz_{(\bar{r})}$$

for all $(z_{(r)}, r)$, then they are *observationally equivalent*

- ▶ **HW4:** the full-data distributions obtained under the CC, NC, and AC assumptions are observationally equivalent (under dropout)
- ▶ This is an important feature in *sensitivity analysis*, because differences in inferences will be due to the different identifying assumptions and not due to different fits to the observed data!

Observational Equivalence

- ▶ Two full-data distributions are said to be *observationally equivalent* if their implied observed-data distributions are the same
- ▶ This is, say I have two full-data distributions:

$$p_A(z_{(\bar{r})}, z_{(r)}, r) \quad \text{and} \quad p_B(z_{(\bar{r})}, z_{(r)}, r).$$

If

$$\int p_A(z_{(\bar{r})}, z_{(r)}, r) \, dz_{(\bar{r})} = \int p_B(z_{(\bar{r})}, z_{(r)}, r) \, dz_{(\bar{r})}$$

for all $(z_{(r)}, r)$, then they are *observationally equivalent*

- ▶ **HW4:** the full-data distributions obtained under the CC, NC, and AC assumptions are observationally equivalent (under dropout)
- ▶ This is an important feature in *sensitivity analysis*, because differences in inferences will be due to the different identifying assumptions and not due to different fits to the observed data!

Observational Equivalence

- ▶ Two full-data distributions are said to be *observationally equivalent* if their implied observed-data distributions are the same
- ▶ This is, say I have two full-data distributions:

$$p_A(z_{(\bar{r})}, z_{(r)}, r) \quad \text{and} \quad p_B(z_{(\bar{r})}, z_{(r)}, r).$$

If

$$\int p_A(z_{(\bar{r})}, z_{(r)}, r) \, dz_{(\bar{r})} = \int p_B(z_{(\bar{r})}, z_{(r)}, r) \, dz_{(\bar{r})}$$

for all $(z_{(r)}, r)$, then they are *observationally equivalent*

- ▶ **HW4:** the full-data distributions obtained under the CC, NC, and AC assumptions are observationally equivalent (under dropout)
- ▶ This is an important feature in *sensitivity analysis*, because differences in inferences will be due to the different identifying assumptions and not due to different fits to the observed data!

Observational Equivalence

- ▶ Two full-data distributions are said to be *observationally equivalent* if their implied observed-data distributions are the same
- ▶ This is, say I have two full-data distributions:

$$p_A(z_{(\bar{r})}, z_{(r)}, r) \quad \text{and} \quad p_B(z_{(\bar{r})}, z_{(r)}, r).$$

If

$$\int p_A(z_{(\bar{r})}, z_{(r)}, r) \, dz_{(\bar{r})} = \int p_B(z_{(\bar{r})}, z_{(r)}, r) \, dz_{(\bar{r})}$$

for all $(z_{(r)}, r)$, then they are *observationally equivalent*

- ▶ **HW4:** the full-data distributions obtained under the CC, NC, and AC assumptions are observationally equivalent (under dropout)
- ▶ This is an important feature in *sensitivity analysis*, because differences in inferences will be due to the different identifying assumptions and not due to different fits to the observed data!

Observational Equivalence

- ▶ Two full-data distributions are said to be *observationally equivalent* if their implied observed-data distributions are the same
- ▶ This is, say I have two full-data distributions:

$$p_A(z_{(\bar{r})}, z_{(r)}, r) \quad \text{and} \quad p_B(z_{(\bar{r})}, z_{(r)}, r).$$

If

$$\int p_A(z_{(\bar{r})}, z_{(r)}, r) \, dz_{(\bar{r})} = \int p_B(z_{(\bar{r})}, z_{(r)}, r) \, dz_{(\bar{r})}$$

for all $(z_{(r)}, r)$, then they are *observationally equivalent*

- ▶ **HW4:** the full-data distributions obtained under the CC, NC, and AC assumptions are observationally equivalent (under dropout)
- ▶ This is an important feature in *sensitivity analysis*, because differences in inferences will be due to the different identifying assumptions and not due to different fits to the observed data!

Observational Equivalence

- ▶ Two full-data distributions are said to be *observationally equivalent* if their implied observed-data distributions are the same
- ▶ This is, say I have two full-data distributions:

$$p_A(z_{(\bar{r})}, z_{(r)}, r) \quad \text{and} \quad p_B(z_{(\bar{r})}, z_{(r)}, r).$$

If

$$\int p_A(z_{(\bar{r})}, z_{(r)}, r) \, dz_{(\bar{r})} = \int p_B(z_{(\bar{r})}, z_{(r)}, r) \, dz_{(\bar{r})}$$

for all $(z_{(r)}, r)$, then they are *observationally equivalent*

- ▶ **HW4:** the full-data distributions obtained under the CC, NC, and AC assumptions are observationally equivalent (under dropout)
- ▶ This is an important feature in *sensitivity analysis*, because differences in inferences will be due to the different identifying assumptions and not due to different fits to the observed data!

Full-Data Identifiability

- ▶ \mathcal{C}_Θ : class of full-data distributions
- ▶ Θ : parameter space, either finite- or infinite-dimensional
- ▶ Say we were able to observe Z regardless of the value of R
- ▶ Identifiability of \mathcal{C}_Θ in the usual sense (e.g., Lehmann & Casella 1998, p. 24) here is referred to as *full-data identifiability*
- ▶ A class of full-data distributions \mathcal{C}_Θ is said to be *full-data identifiable* if there exists a bijection from Θ to \mathcal{C}_Θ
- ▶ Full-data identifiability is an elementary requirement which simply says that the class is properly parameterized

Full-Data Identifiability

- ▶ \mathcal{C}_Θ : class of full-data distributions
- ▶ Θ : parameter space, either finite- or infinite-dimensional
- ▶ Say we were able to observe Z regardless of the value of R
- ▶ Identifiability of \mathcal{C}_Θ in the usual sense (e.g., Lehmann & Casella 1998, p. 24) here is referred to as *full-data identifiability*
- ▶ A class of full-data distributions \mathcal{C}_Θ is said to be *full-data identifiable* if there exists a bijection from Θ to \mathcal{C}_Θ
- ▶ Full-data identifiability is an elementary requirement which simply says that the class is properly parameterized

Full-Data Identifiability

- ▶ \mathcal{C}_Θ : class of full-data distributions
- ▶ Θ : parameter space, either finite- or infinite-dimensional
- ▶ Say we were able to observe Z regardless of the value of R
- ▶ Identifiability of \mathcal{C}_Θ in the usual sense (e.g., Lehmann & Casella 1998, p. 24) here is referred to as *full-data identifiability*
- ▶ A class of full-data distributions \mathcal{C}_Θ is said to be *full-data identifiable* if there exists a bijection from Θ to \mathcal{C}_Θ
- ▶ Full-data identifiability is an elementary requirement which simply says that the class is properly parameterized

Full-Data Identifiability

- ▶ \mathcal{C}_Θ : class of full-data distributions
- ▶ Θ : parameter space, either finite- or infinite-dimensional
- ▶ Say we were able to observe Z regardless of the value of R
- ▶ Identifiability of \mathcal{C}_Θ in the usual sense (e.g., Lehmann & Casella 1998, p. 24) here is referred to as *full-data identifiability*
- ▶ A class of full-data distributions \mathcal{C}_Θ is said to be *full-data identifiable* if there exists a bijection from Θ to \mathcal{C}_Θ
- ▶ Full-data identifiability is an elementary requirement which simply says that the class is properly parameterized

Full-Data Identifiability

- ▶ \mathcal{C}_Θ : class of full-data distributions
- ▶ Θ : parameter space, either finite- or infinite-dimensional
- ▶ Say we were able to observe Z regardless of the value of R
- ▶ Identifiability of \mathcal{C}_Θ in the usual sense (e.g., Lehmann & Casella 1998, p. 24) here is referred to as *full-data identifiability*
- ▶ A class of full-data distributions \mathcal{C}_Θ is said to be *full-data identifiable* if there exists a bijection from Θ to \mathcal{C}_Θ
- ▶ Full-data identifiability is an elementary requirement which simply says that the class is properly parameterized

Full-Data Identifiability

- ▶ \mathcal{C}_Θ : class of full-data distributions
- ▶ Θ : parameter space, either finite- or infinite-dimensional
- ▶ Say we were able to observe Z regardless of the value of R
- ▶ Identifiability of \mathcal{C}_Θ in the usual sense (e.g., Lehmann & Casella 1998, p. 24) here is referred to as *full-data identifiability*
- ▶ A class of full-data distributions \mathcal{C}_Θ is said to be *full-data identifiable* if there exists a bijection from Θ to \mathcal{C}_Θ
- ▶ Full-data identifiability is an elementary requirement which simply says that the class is properly parameterized

(Observed-Data) Identifiability

- ▶ $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta)$: the class of observed-data distributions implied by \mathcal{C}_Θ
- ▶ A class of full-data distributions \mathcal{C}_Θ is said to be *identifiable* if there exist bijections from Θ to \mathcal{C}_Θ and from $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta)$ to \mathcal{C}_Θ
 - ▶ First bijection: full-data identifiability for \mathcal{C}_Θ
 - ▶ Second bijection: we need a unique way to go back and forth from $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta)$ to \mathcal{C}_Θ
 - ▶ These imply a third bijection between $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta)$ and Θ : the common notion of identifiability applied to $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta)$

(Observed-Data) Identifiability

- ▶ $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta)$: the class of observed-data distributions implied by \mathcal{C}_Θ
- ▶ A class of full-data distributions \mathcal{C}_Θ is said to be *identifiable* if there exist bijections from Θ to \mathcal{C}_Θ and from $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta)$ to \mathcal{C}_Θ
 - ▶ First bijection: full-data identifiability for \mathcal{C}_Θ
 - ▶ Second bijection: we need a unique way to go back and forth from $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta)$ to \mathcal{C}_Θ
 - ▶ These imply a third bijection between $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta)$ and Θ : the common notion of identifiability applied to $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta)$

(Observed-Data) Identifiability

- ▶ $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta)$: the class of observed-data distributions implied by \mathcal{C}_Θ
- ▶ A class of full-data distributions \mathcal{C}_Θ is said to be *identifiable* if there exist bijections from Θ to \mathcal{C}_Θ and from $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta)$ to \mathcal{C}_Θ
 - ▶ First bijection: full-data identifiability for \mathcal{C}_Θ
 - ▶ Second bijection: we need a unique way to go back and forth from $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta)$ to \mathcal{C}_Θ
 - ▶ These imply a third bijection between $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta)$ and Θ : the common notion of identifiability applied to $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta)$

(Observed-Data) Identifiability

- ▶ $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta)$: the class of observed-data distributions implied by \mathcal{C}_Θ
- ▶ A class of full-data distributions \mathcal{C}_Θ is said to be *identifiable* if there exist bijections from Θ to \mathcal{C}_Θ and from $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta)$ to \mathcal{C}_Θ
 - ▶ First bijection: full-data identifiability for \mathcal{C}_Θ
 - ▶ Second bijection: we need a unique way to go back and forth from $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta)$ to \mathcal{C}_Θ
 - ▶ These imply a third bijection between $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta)$ and Θ : the common notion of identifiability applied to $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta)$

(Observed-Data) Identifiability

- ▶ $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta)$: the class of observed-data distributions implied by \mathcal{C}_Θ
- ▶ A class of full-data distributions \mathcal{C}_Θ is said to be *identifiable* if there exist bijections from Θ to \mathcal{C}_Θ and from $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta)$ to \mathcal{C}_Θ
 - ▶ First bijection: full-data identifiability for \mathcal{C}_Θ
 - ▶ Second bijection: we need a unique way to go back and forth from $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta)$ to \mathcal{C}_Θ
 - ▶ These imply a third bijection between $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta)$ and Θ : the common notion of identifiability applied to $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta)$

Nonparametric Identifiability

- ▶ \mathcal{G} : all possible observed-data distributions
- ▶ Say $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta)$ is a proper subset of \mathcal{G} : \mathcal{C}_Θ imposes parametric restrictions on what could be nonparametrically recovered from observed data alone
- ▶ \mathcal{C}_Θ is said to be *nonparametrically identifiable* if it is identifiable and $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta) = \mathcal{G}$
- ▶ Also known as nonparametric saturation or just-identification (Robins 1997, Vansteelandt et al. 2006, Hoonhout & Ridder 2018)
- ▶ Bijection between Θ and $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta) = \mathcal{G}$: we can think of a nonparametrically identifiable class as being indexed by the set of all observed-data distributions \mathcal{G}

Nonparametric Identifiability

- ▶ \mathcal{G} : all possible observed-data distributions
- ▶ Say $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta)$ is a proper subset of \mathcal{G} : \mathcal{C}_Θ imposes parametric restrictions on what could be nonparametrically recovered from observed data alone
- ▶ \mathcal{C}_Θ is said to be *nonparametrically identifiable* if it is identifiable and $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta) = \mathcal{G}$
- ▶ Also known as nonparametric saturation or just-identification (Robins 1997, Vansteelandt et al. 2006, Hoonhout & Ridder 2018)
- ▶ Bijection between Θ and $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta) = \mathcal{G}$: we can think of a nonparametrically identifiable class as being indexed by the set of all observed-data distributions \mathcal{G}

Nonparametric Identifiability

- ▶ \mathcal{G} : all possible observed-data distributions
- ▶ Say $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta)$ is a proper subset of \mathcal{G} : \mathcal{C}_Θ imposes parametric restrictions on what could be nonparametrically recovered from observed data alone
- ▶ \mathcal{C}_Θ is said to be *nonparametrically identifiable* if it is identifiable and $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta) = \mathcal{G}$
- ▶ Also known as nonparametric saturation or just-identification (Robins 1997, Vansteelandt et al. 2006, Hoonhout & Ridder 2018)
- ▶ Bijection between Θ and $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta) = \mathcal{G}$: we can think of a nonparametrically identifiable class as being indexed by the set of all observed-data distributions \mathcal{G}

Nonparametric Identifiability

- ▶ \mathcal{G} : all possible observed-data distributions
- ▶ Say $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta)$ is a proper subset of \mathcal{G} : \mathcal{C}_Θ imposes parametric restrictions on what could be nonparametrically recovered from observed data alone
- ▶ \mathcal{C}_Θ is said to be *nonparametrically identifiable* if it is identifiable and $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta) = \mathcal{G}$
- ▶ Also known as nonparametric saturation or just-identification (Robins 1997, Vansteelandt et al. 2006, Hoonhout & Ridder 2018)
- ▶ Bijection between Θ and $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta) = \mathcal{G}$: we can think of a nonparametrically identifiable class as being indexed by the set of all observed-data distributions \mathcal{G}

Nonparametric Identifiability

- ▶ \mathcal{G} : all possible observed-data distributions
- ▶ Say $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta)$ is a proper subset of \mathcal{G} : \mathcal{C}_Θ imposes parametric restrictions on what could be nonparametrically recovered from observed data alone
- ▶ \mathcal{C}_Θ is said to be *nonparametrically identifiable* if it is identifiable and $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta) = \mathcal{G}$
- ▶ Also known as nonparametric saturation or just-identification (Robins 1997, Vansteelandt et al. 2006, Hoonhout & Ridder 2018)
- ▶ Bijection between Θ and $\text{obs}(\mathcal{C}_\Theta) = \mathcal{G}$: we can think of a nonparametrically identifiable class as being indexed by the set of all observed-data distributions \mathcal{G}

Nonparametric Identifiability

- ▶ Two nonparametrically identifiable classes are necessarily observationally equivalent
- ▶ Nonparametric identification additionally guarantees that these restrictions do not constrain the observed-data distribution, and therefore cannot be rejected based on the observed data
- ▶ Nonparametric identification is therefore a basic desirable property, particularly useful for comparing inferences under different missing data assumptions
- ▶ **HW4**: the full-data distributions obtained under the CC, NC, and AC assumptions are nonparametric identified
- ▶ Fun fact: MAR and ICIN lead to nonparametric identification

Nonparametric Identifiability

- ▶ Two nonparametrically identifiable classes are necessarily observationally equivalent
- ▶ Nonparametric identification additionally guarantees that these restrictions do not constrain the observed-data distribution, and therefore cannot be rejected based on the observed data
- ▶ Nonparametric identification is therefore a basic desirable property, particularly useful for comparing inferences under different missing data assumptions
- ▶ **HW4**: the full-data distributions obtained under the CC, NC, and AC assumptions are nonparametric identified
- ▶ Fun fact: MAR and ICIN lead to nonparametric identification

Nonparametric Identifiability

- ▶ Two nonparametrically identifiable classes are necessarily observationally equivalent
- ▶ Nonparametric identification additionally guarantees that these restrictions do not constrain the observed-data distribution, and therefore cannot be rejected based on the observed data
- ▶ Nonparametric identification is therefore a basic desirable property, particularly useful for comparing inferences under different missing data assumptions
- ▶ HW4: the full-data distributions obtained under the CC, NC, and AC assumptions are nonparametric identified
- ▶ Fun fact: MAR and ICIN lead to nonparametric identification

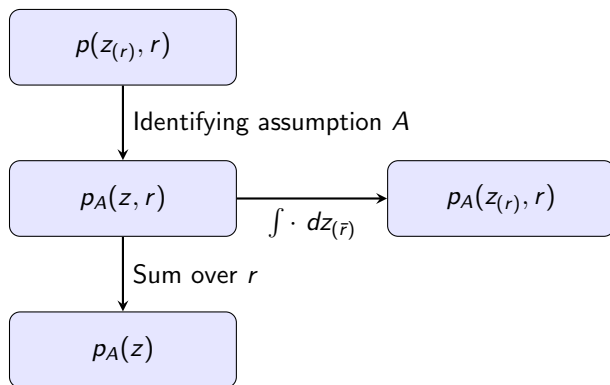
Nonparametric Identifiability

- ▶ Two nonparametrically identifiable classes are necessarily observationally equivalent
- ▶ Nonparametric identification additionally guarantees that these restrictions do not constrain the observed-data distribution, and therefore cannot be rejected based on the observed data
- ▶ Nonparametric identification is therefore a basic desirable property, particularly useful for comparing inferences under different missing data assumptions
- ▶ **HW4:** the full-data distributions obtained under the CC, NC, and AC assumptions are nonparametric identified
- ▶ Fun fact: MAR and ICIN lead to nonparametric identification

Nonparametric Identifiability

- ▶ Two nonparametrically identifiable classes are necessarily observationally equivalent
- ▶ Nonparametric identification additionally guarantees that these restrictions do not constrain the observed-data distribution, and therefore cannot be rejected based on the observed data
- ▶ Nonparametric identification is therefore a basic desirable property, particularly useful for comparing inferences under different missing data assumptions
- ▶ **HW4:** the full-data distributions obtained under the CC, NC, and AC assumptions are nonparametric identified
- ▶ Fun fact: MAR and ICIN lead to nonparametric identification

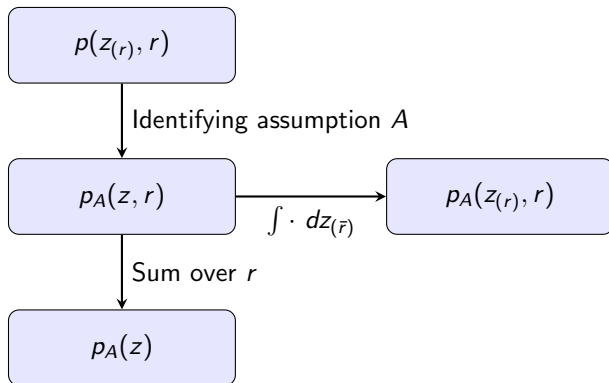
Nonparametric Identifiability



If $p_A(z(r), r) = p(z(r), r)$, then A leads to nonparametric identification:

- ▶ A does not impose restrictions on observed-data distribution
- ▶ A cannot be rejected from observed data alone

Nonparametric Identifiability



If $p_A(z(r), r) = p(z(r), r)$, then A leads to nonparametric identification:

- ▶ A does not impose restrictions on observed-data distribution
- ▶ A cannot be rejected from observed data alone

Outline

Recap from Previous Lecture

Common Identifying Assumptions for Pattern-Mixture Models

Itemwise Conditionally Independent Nonresponse

Properties of Classes of Full-Data Distributions

Sensitivity Analysis

Sensitivity Analysis

Based on Scharfstein et al. (Biometrics 2018)³:

- ▶ *Local sensitivity analysis*

- ▶ Make a missing-data assumption A , explore changes in inferences implied by departures from A in a “neighborhood” around A
 - ▶ See Chapter 7 of the lecture notes of Davidian and Tsiatis for more on this

- ▶ *Global sensitivity analysis*

- ▶ Make completely different missing-data assumptions, explore inferences under all such assumptions
 - ▶ We will illustrate global sensitivity analysis with an example presented by Sadinle & Reiter (2017)

³<https://doi.org/10.1111/biom.12729>

The Slovenian Plebiscite Data Revisited

- ▶ Slovenians voted for independence from Yugoslavia in a plebiscite in 1991
- ▶ The Slovenian public opinion survey included these questions:
 1. Independence: Are you in favor of Slovenian independence?
 2. Secession: Are you in favor of Slovenia's secession from Yugoslavia?
 3. Attendance: Will you attend the plebiscite?
- ▶ Rubin, Stern and Vehovar (1995) analyzed these three questions under MAR
- ▶ Plebiscite results give us the proportions of non-attendants and attendants in favor of independence

The Slovenian Plebiscite Data Revisited

- ▶ Slovenians voted for independence from Yugoslavia in a plebiscite in 1991
- ▶ The Slovenian public opinion survey included these questions:
 1. Independence: Are you in favor of Slovenian independence?
 2. Secession: Are you in favor of Slovenia's secession from Yugoslavia?
 3. Attendance: Will you attend the plebiscite?
- ▶ Rubin, Stern and Vehovar (1995) analyzed these three questions under MAR
- ▶ Plebiscite results give us the proportions of non-attendants and attendants in favor of independence

The Slovenian Plebiscite Data Revisited

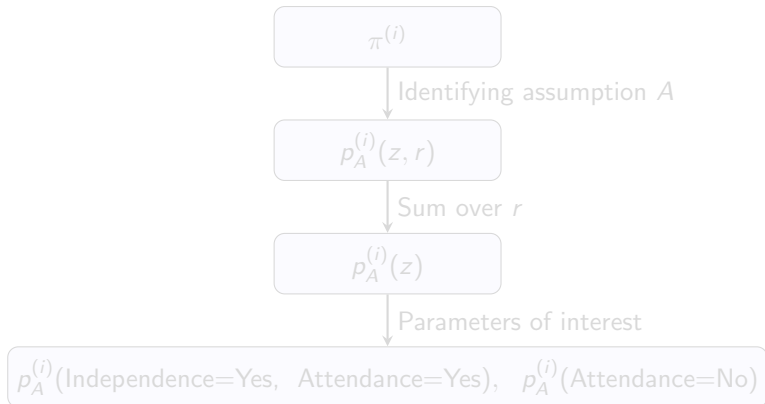
Table 1. SPO Survey Results ($n = 2,074$)

Secession	Attendance	Independence		
		Yes	No	Don't know
Yes	Yes	1,191	8	21
	No	8	0	4
	Don't Know	107	3	9
No	Yes	158	68	29
	No	7	14	3
	Don't Know	18	43	31
Don't Know	Yes	90	2	109
	No	1	2	25
	Don't Know	19	8	96

Taken from Rubin, Stern and Vehovar (JASA, 1995)

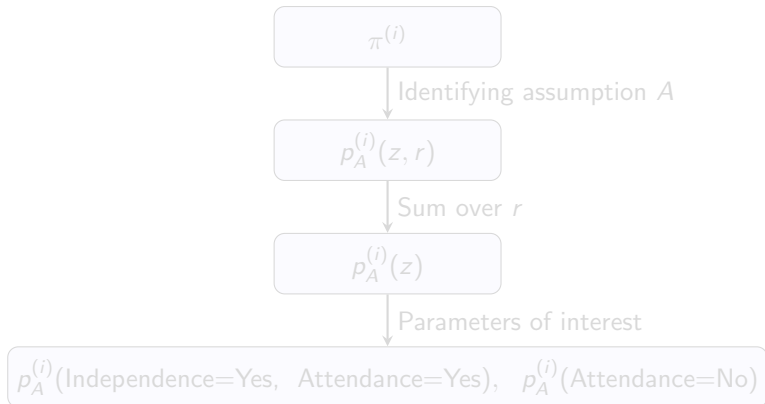
Slovenian Data: a Bayesian Approach

- ▶ Let $\pi_{z(r),r} = p(z(r), r)$, $\pi = \{\pi_{z(r),r}\}$
- ▶ Draw $\pi^{(i)}$ from posterior of π given the Slovenian data (problems 9 and 10 of HW3)
- ▶ Do, for $i = 1, \dots, m$:



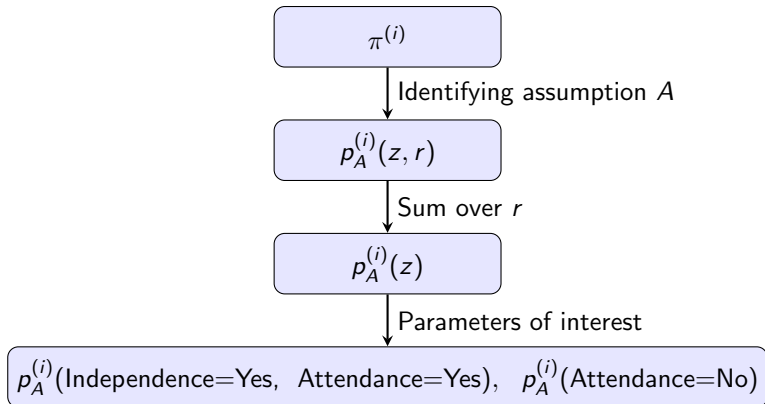
Slovenian Data: a Bayesian Approach

- ▶ Let $\pi_{z(r),r} = p(z(r), r)$, $\pi = \{\pi_{z(r),r}\}$
- ▶ Draw $\pi^{(i)}$ from posterior of π given the Slovenian data (problems 9 and 10 of HW3)
- ▶ Do, for $i = 1, \dots, m$:



Slovenian Data: a Bayesian Approach

- ▶ Let $\pi_{z(r),r} = p(z(r), r)$, $\pi = \{\pi_{z(r),r}\}$
- ▶ Draw $\pi^{(i)}$ from posterior of π given the Slovenian data (problems 9 and 10 of HW3)
- ▶ Do, for $i = 1, \dots, m$:



Global Sensitivity Analysis for The Slovenian Data

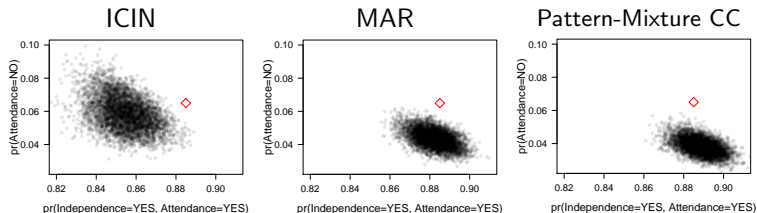


Figure: Samples from joint posterior distributions of $p(\text{Independence} = \text{Yes}, \text{Attendance} = \text{Yes})$ and $p(\text{Attendance} = \text{No})$. Red diamond: results of plebiscite.

- All of these identifying assumptions lead to nonparametric identifiability!

Global Sensitivity Analysis for The Slovenian Data

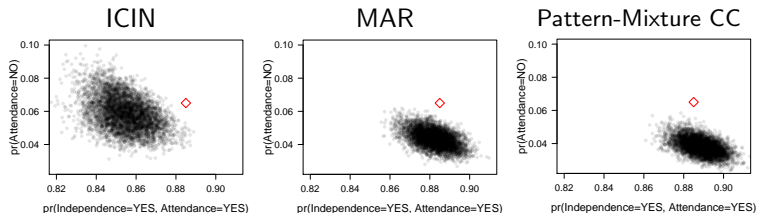


Figure: Samples from joint posterior distributions of $p(\text{Independence} = \text{Yes}, \text{Attendance} = \text{Yes})$ and $p(\text{Attendance} = \text{No})$. Red diamond: results of plebiscite.

- All of these identifying assumptions lead to nonparametric identifiability!

Summary

Main take-aways from today's lecture:

- ▶ Pattern-mixture models provide an alternative way of thinking about missing data
- ▶ Ensuring identifiability is key when moving away from MAR
- ▶ Nonparametric identifiability is an important and desirable property
- ▶ Sensitivity analyses are recommended

Summary

Main take-aways from this class:

- ▶ The fundamental problem of inference with missing data: *it is impossible without extra, usually untestable, assumptions on how missingness arises*
- ▶ Willing to assume MAR?: plethora of approaches readily available:
 - ▶ Frequentist likelihood-based inference (EM algorithm)
 - ▶ Bayesian inference (Data Augmentation / Gibbs samplers)
 - ▶ Multiple imputation (although worry about uncongeniality)
 - ▶ Inverse-probability weighting (also, double robust procedures)(they also could handle nonignorable missingness – current area of research)
- ▶ Avoid ad-hoc approaches such as single imputation and complete-case analysis

Thank you for your patience and participation!

THE END