AN ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION OF

Title: Unconditional Estimating Equation Approaches for Missing Data.

Abstract approved:

Annie Qu    David S. Birkes

Missing data can lead to biased and inefficient estimation if the missing mechanism is not
taken into account in the analysis. In this dissertation we propose two estimators that,
under fairly general conditions, are asymptotically unbiased. The first proposed estimator
assume the data are missing at random (MAR) and does not require a model for the
missing mechanism. The second estimator allows the missingness to be nonignorable
and requires a model for the mechanism. Both proposed approaches utilize generalized
estimating equations (GEE) based on unconditional models.

One main advantage of the proposed approaches is that they do not require full spec-
ification of the likelihood. They only need the first few moments of the response variables
and covariates. Another advantage is that they can easily handle arbitrary missing pat-
terns. Using simulation, we investigate the efficiency of the proposed approaches relative
to the weighted GEE (WEE) and multiple imputation (MI) estimators. The proposed
estimators are as efficient as WEE and MI estimators when the latter two approaches use
the correct model to obtain weights or impute missing values.
Unconditional Estimating Equation Approaches
for Missing Data

by
Lin Lu

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Lin Lu, Author
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CONTRIBUTION OF AUTHORS

Dr. Annie Qu proposed the original questions that motivated this research. She also contributed to the development of the methodologies, and edited and reviewed the manuscripts as co-author.

Dr. David Birkes contributed to the development of the methodologies, and edited and reviewed the manuscripts as co-author.
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1.1 Background

Missing data occurs frequently in longitudinal studies. It is well known that missing data can lead serious bias and inefficient estimation if the missingness is not taken into account in the analysis (Afifi, and Elashoff, 1966, Rubin, 1976). Therefore, it is desirable to develop statistical method for handling missing data problem.


Most existing methods are based on likelihood approaches (Ibrahim et al., 1990, 1996, 1999, Lin, 2002, Wu, 2004, Roy, 2005). These approaches require full specification of a joint distribution of response variables and covariates. In practice, the full likelihood is often unknown, and if the specification of likelihood is not valid, the likelihood-based approaches could still cause biased and inefficient estimators. Weighted estimating equation and imputation methods were developed to handle missing values. These approaches do not require full likelihood, but they still rely on modeling assumptions for missingness mechanism or requires imputing missing values under missing at random.

1.2 Missingness Mechanisms

Missing data can occur in response variables, covariates, or both. There are several missing patterns. For example, data could have univariate missing pattern, with one variable having missing values; or it could have a monotonic missing pattern, such as drop-out; or
it could have arbitrary intermittent missing.

Little and Rubin (1987) distinguished the missing patterns and missingness mechanisms. The missing patterns produce missingness indicator matrix based on observed and missing values, while the missingness mechanisms consider how the missingness is related to observed and missing values, either missing or observed. The missingness mechanisms are important because both estimation and inference for missing data depend on the missingness mechanisms. Rubin (1976) classified missingness mechanisms under three categories: missing completely at random (MCAR), missing at random (MAR), and informative missing (IM). MCAR and MAR are referred to as ignorable missing and IM is referred to as nonignorable missing. The main difference between ignorable and non-ignorable missingness is whether the missingness depends on missing values or not. Little and Rubin (1987, 2002) define missingness mechanism based on likelihood function as follows.

Let $Y = (y_{ij})$ be the complete data, $\theta$ be the unknown parameters, and $R$ be the missingness indicator matrix, where each element $r_{ij}$ of $R$ is either 1 if $y_{ij}$ is observed or 0 if $y_{ij}$ is missing. If the missingness is MCAR, where the missingness does not depend on the data $Y$, we have the conditional distribution of $R$ given $Y$ and $\theta$, say $f(R|Y, \theta)$, is given as follows

$$f(R|Y, \theta) = f(R|\theta), \text{ for all } Y, \theta.$$  

If the missingness is MAR, where the missingness depends on observed data, we have the conditional distribution of $R$ given $Y$ and $\Theta$ as

$$f(R|Y, \theta) = f(R|Y_{obs}, \theta), \text{ for all } Y_{mis}, \theta.$$  

If the missingness is IM, where the missingness depends on both observed and unobserved data, the conditional distribution of $R$ given $Y$ and $\theta$ can be written as

$$f(R|Y, \theta) = f(R|Y, \theta), \text{ for all } Y, \theta.$$
1.3 Models for Longitudinal Data

Longitudinal studies are interested in obtaining treatment effect over time. Subjects are measured over time. In general, estimators obtained by repeated measure design are more efficient than those from cross-sectional designs. However, it is more challenge to analyze longitudinal data than cross-sectional data since the observations within the same subject are no longer independent any more.

Major approaches for longitudinal analysis include: marginal regression models (Liang and Zeger, 1986), and mixed-effect regression models (Laird and Gibbons, 1982). Diggle et al (1994) also provides a detailed review of marginal models, random effect models, and transition models. We provide a brief introduction for these approaches.

1.3.1 Generalized Estimating Equations

Marginal models, which investigate population average have the same interpretation as cross-sectional studies. The marginal models model correlation among the repeated observations for a subject directly through correlation matrix of the error term.

One of the most popular techniques used to handle marginal models is the generalized estimating equations (GEE) approach, proposed by Liang and Zeger (1986). The GEE approach is used to model the marginal expectation of responses as a function of a set of covariates. Let \( X_i = (x_{i1}, ..., x_{iT}) \) be a \( T \times P \) covariates matrix, where \( x_{it} = (x_{it1}, ..., x_{itP}) \), \( y_{it} \) be the response variable, \( Y_i = (y_{i1}, ..., y_{iT}) \) be a \( 1 \times T \) vector of responses, and \( \mu_{it} = \text{E}(y_{it}), i = 1, ..., N \) and \( t = 1, ..., T \). Assume the marginal regression model is given as

\[
g(\mu_{it}) = x_{it} \beta, \tag{1.1}
\]

where \( \beta \) is the \( P \times 1 \) regression parameters of interest and \( g(.) \) is a link function. Assuming the \( T \times T \) covariance matrix for \( Y_i \) is

\[
V(\alpha) = \phi A_i^{\frac{1}{2}} R(\alpha) A_i^{\frac{1}{2}},
\]

where \( A \) is a diagonal matrix of variance functions, \( R(\alpha) \) is the working correlation matrix of \( Y \), \( \alpha \) is the correlation parameter, and \( \phi \) is a dispersion parameter. The GEE estimators
for regression parameters are the solutions of

\[ \sum_{i=1}^{N} D_i V(\alpha)^{-1} (Y_i - \mu_i) = 0, \]

where \( D_i = \frac{\partial \mu_i}{\partial \beta} \).

The GEE estimators are consistent if the mean model in (1.1) is correctly specified. Moreover, the GEE estimators are still consistent if the correlation structure is misspecified. Liang and Zeger (1986) referred \( V(\alpha) \) as a working covariance matrix because it does not need to be correctly specified. However, a correctly specified working correlation matrix can improve the efficiency of estimators.

An empirical sandwich estimator can be used to estimate the variance of estimators. Another available estimator is the model-based estimator, which is only consistent if both the mean model and the covariance structure are correctly specified. Generally, the empirical variance estimator is preferred when the number of clusters is large. When the number of clusters is small, the model based variance estimator may have better properties (Prentice 1988).

1.3.2 Linear Mixed Model

The linear regression model has the following form

\[ E(y_i) = x_i \beta, \]

where the regression coefficients \( \beta \) are fixed for all subjects. Mixed-effect models are appropriate if the subject specific effect is of interest.

Mixed effect model is able to take heteroscedastic variation into account and estimates group trends over time. In addition, it provides information of how different subjects change across time. Compared with marginal models, mixed effects models introduce model correlations through random effects in mean structure.

Laird and Ware (1982) and Verbeke et al (2000) provide more applications of linear mixed models. Here we provide a brief introduction. The generalized linear mixed model
has the following form

\[ g(\mu_i) = x_i \beta + z_i b_i, \]

where \( \mu_i = E(y_i); g(\cdot) \) is a link function; \( \beta \) is the fixed-effect coefficient; \( z_i \) is the \( r \times 1 \) vector of random effect variables; and \( b_i \) is the random-effect coefficients for group \( i \), and assume to have \( N_q(0, \psi) \) distribution. The subject varies through the random effect.

The estimators of parameters in the linear mixed model can be solved by the maximum likelihood method. In longitudinal studies, it is often assumed that the \( y_{it}|b_i \) in \( y_i = (t_1, \ldots, y_{iT}) \) are independent. Let \( f_{\theta}(y_{it}|x_{it}, b_i) \) be the conditional density of response variable. The likelihood of a generalized linear mixed model (GLMM) can be expressed as

\[ \int \prod_{j} f_{\theta}(y_{it}|b_i, x_{ij}) f_D(b_i) \, db_i. \]

However, the integration does not have explicit form in general so that the numerical approximation for the likelihood is needed.

### 1.3.3 Transition Model

Diggle et al. (2002) introduced the transition models. The transition model is an extension of the generalized linear model, which is constructed by applying a generalized linear model for the marginal mean and specifying conditional dependence of current outcomes based on past outcomes. For repeated measurements in transition model, past outcome and covariates are modeled as covariates for current outcome. Transition models are also called Markov models. That is, the conditional mean of \( y_{it} \) for subject \( i \) at time \( t \) depends on covariates and prior responses. The simplest transition model is that the responses are conditionally independent from each other given the previous time. For example, suppose the transition model is a linear function of previous outcomes

\[ E(y_{it}|y_{i1}, \ldots, y_{i(t-1)}, x_i) = \sum_{r=1}^{t-1} \alpha_r(y_{ir}). \]

For a first-order Markov model, we have

\[ f(y_{it}|y_{i1}, \ldots, y_{it-1}; \alpha) = f(y_{it}|y_{it-1}). \]
The likelihood contribution from subject \( i \) is given by
\[
f(y_{i1}, y_{i2}, \ldots, y_{iT_i}; \alpha) = f(y_{i1}; \alpha) \prod_{t=2}^{T_i} f(y_{it} | y_{it-1}).
\]

In general, the estimators of parameters in transition models can be obtained by the maximum likelihood methods.

Diggle et al (2000) mention that the transition models are intractable in general if many nuisance parameters are involved and need to be estimated. Therefore, it often requires more assumptions in order to specify the entire likelihood.

### 1.4 Analysis of Missing Data in Longitudinal Study

When missingness is not MCAR, the estimators using complete-case only are biased and not efficient. Therefore, it is important to incorporate missing data information in the data analysis. We provide several existing methods to handle missing data.

#### 1.4.1 Maximum Likelihood Approach

Likelihood based method is the most fundamental approach. Suppose that \( Y \) is the response variable with density function \( f(Y | \theta) \), where \( \theta \) is the parameters. The inference based on maximum likelihood is a model-based inference about the parameters \( \theta \).

Let \( Y \) be observed data and \( Z \) be missing data, \( Y \) and \( Z \) form the complete data. Let \( f_i \) be the density function of the \( i^{th} \) subject of complete data with parameters \( \theta \). The likelihood of the complete data is given by
\[
L(\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^{N} f_i(\theta).
\]

By Bayes' Rule and the law of total probability, the probability of missing data given the observed data can be expressed as:
\[
p(Z | Y, \theta) = \frac{p(Y, Z | \theta)}{p(Y | \theta)} = \frac{p(Y | Z, \theta)p(Z | \theta)}{\int p(Y | Z, \theta)p(Z | \theta)dZ}.
\]

This requires the density function of \( p(Y | Z, \theta) \) and \( p(Z | \theta) \).

The major approach for obtaining maximum likelihood estimator where there is missing data is by applying the expectation and maximization (EM) algorithm. Hartley (1958) proposes the earliest version of EM; Dempster, Laird, and Rubin (1977) formalizes EM
and provides a proof of convergence. EM is particularly useful if the completed likelihood function is easy to formulate. EM is an iterative optimization method to estimate some unknown parameters based on given data and with some hidden variables or missing values, which requires to be integrated out. An EM algorithm updates $\theta$ in two steps. The first step is expectation. The expectation of $Q(\theta)$ is given by

$$Q(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_Z [\log L(Y, Z|\theta)|Y] = \int \log L(Y, Z|\theta)p(Y, Z|\theta)dZ.$$

Once the parameters, $\theta$, of the $Q$ are known in the first step, $Q$ is fully determined and can be maximized in the second step of an EM algorithm. The second step is maximization, that is,

$$\theta_{n+1} = \max_\theta Q(\theta).$$

In other words, $\theta_{n+1}$ is the value that maximizes the expectation of the complete data log-likelihood with the observed variables given the previous parameter value.

The EM algorithm is able to handle missing values under MAR and informative missing. Once the joint probability distribution of data and missingness mechanism is obtained, the conditional likelihood given missing data can be determined and the missing values can be integrated out. The estimations of parameters are given by maximizing the conditional log likelihood. However, EM algorithms depend on distributional assumptions so that the estimators could still be biased and inefficient when the distribution assumptions are misspecified. EM could also be extremely slow computationally if the integration of missing information involves high dimension.

1.4.2 Weighted Generalized Estimating Equations

The original idea of weighted approach for handling missing data is from weighting strategies for finite population surveys (Horvitz and Thompson, 1952) to obtain unbiased estimator. The weighted method assigns weight to each observed-case to adjust for sampling bias. Robins et al. extend this idea and propose the weighted estimating equations approach (1994, 1995). The weighted estimating equations approach weights the observed subjects with the inverse probability of being observed. This approach is valid when the
missingness is MAR and given the model for estimating the probability for missingness mechanism is correctly specified. The consistent estimators of $\beta$ can be obtained by solving

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{K} D_i^\prime V_i^{-1} W_i (Y_i - \mu_i) = 0,
$$

(1.2)

where $D_i = \frac{\partial \mu_i}{\partial \beta}$ and $V_i = A_i^{1/2} R A_i^{1/2}$ is a $T \times T$ working covariate matrix for $Y_i$ and $R$ is a $T \times T$ working correlation matrix, which are assumed known. The choice of working correlation affects the efficiency of estimator. The missingness is taken into account through specification of a $T \times T$ diagonal weighting matrix of $W_i$, $W_i = \text{diag}\{R_i w_i^1, ..., R_i w_i^T\}$, and $R_{it} = 1$ if the $i^{th}$ subject is observed at time $t$, and 0 otherwise. That is, $W_i$ provides weight for the observed visits and 0 for the unobserved visits. The weight $w_{it}$ is the inverse of the probability where the $i^{th}$ subject is observed at the $t^{th}$ visit, $w_{it}$ is often unknown and needs to be estimated.

It requires modeling the missing process in order to obtain the weights $w_{it}$. We denote $\lambda_{it} = P(R_{it} = 1|R_i(t-1) = 1, X_i, Y_i, \alpha)$ as the probability of a response being observed at time $t$ for the $i^{th}$ subject given the subject is observed at the time $t-1$. If the missingness is assumed to be MAR, we have

$$
\lambda_{it} = P(R_{it} = 1|R_i(t-1) = 1, X_i, Y_{i1}, ..., Y_{i(t-1)}, \alpha),
$$

where the missingness mechanism only depends on observed data and may be specified up to a $q \times 1$ vector of unknown parameters $\alpha$. Here $\lambda_{it}$ can be modeled as a logistic regression model of $Z_{it}$, a vector of predictor, which may include missingness indicator variables, covariates and previous responses.

$$
\logit \lambda_{it}(\alpha) = Z_{it}\alpha.
$$

Therefore the weight $w_{it}$, the inverse of the unconditional probability of being observed at time $t$, can be calculated as,

$$
\hat{w}_{it} = \frac{1}{\lambda_{i1} \times \ldots \times \lambda_{it}}, \quad i = 2, ..., T
$$
and \( \hat{w}_{11} = 1 \). The weighted GEE estimator by solving equation (1.2) is consistent and the asymptotic variance of \( \beta \) is

\[
\left( \sum_{i=1}^{K} D_i V_i^{-1} W_i D_i \right)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{K} E_i E_i' \left( \sum_{i=1}^{K} D_i V_i^{-1} W_i D_i \right)^{-1},
\]

(1.3)

where \( E_i = U_i - \left( \sum_{i=1}^{K} U_i S_i \right) \left( \sum_{i=1}^{K} S_i S_i' \right) S_i \), \( U_i = D_i' V_i^{-1} W_i (Y_i - \pi_i) \), and \( S_i = \sum_t R_{it} Z_{it} (R_{it} - \lambda_{it}) \) is the score component for the \( i^{th} \) subject from the missingness mechanism model (Robins et al., 1995). The use of \( \sum_{i=1}^{K} E_i E_i' \) instead of \( \sum_{i=1}^{K} U_i U_i' \) adjusts for the variation of \( \alpha \) estimation.

### 1.4.3 Imputation

The imputation approach is first proposed by Rubin (1976) to handle missing values. There are two types of imputation. One is single imputation and another is multiple imputation. Single imputation computes a value for each missing value. There could be the mean estimation, or simply using available data in the same strata, or predicting missing values from a regression model. In general, single imputation does not reflect the uncertainty about the predictions of the missing values; the standard error based on single imputation estimators can be underestimated.

Instead of single imputation, a multiple imputation proposed by Rubin (1978) replaces missing value with a set of imputing values, which also represent the uncertainty about the true value. Paik (1997) and Schafer (1997) provide through overview of the method. The multiple imputed values along with observed data are analyzed as if they are from complete data. The multiple imputation method requires combining results from each imputation.

The way of combining results from multiple imputation is given as follows. Let \( m \) be the number of multiple imputations and \( \hat{\psi}_i \) be the estimator, and \( \hat{V}_i \) be the variance of the estimator from the \( i^{th} \) imputation. The combined estimator from the multiple imputations is the average of the estimator from each imputation,

\[
\bar{\psi} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \hat{\psi}_i.
\]
The variance of $\bar{\psi}$ is a combination of within imputation variance and between imputation variance:

$$\text{Var}(\bar{\psi}) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \hat{V}_i + \frac{m+1}{m} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (\hat{\psi}_i - \bar{\psi})^2.$$ 

## 1.5 Organization of the Dissertation

Chapter 2 introduces an approach based on unconditional generalized estimating equations, which can handle missing values when missingness is ignorable. Contrast to the weighted GEE or imputation methods, when the missingness mechanism is MAR, unconditional generalized estimating equations approach does not require modeling the missing indicator to obtain weights or to impute the missing values. It uses available observed data to estimate the parameters of interest. The main advantage of the proposed approach is that it does not require full specification of likelihood or model assumptions of the missingness mechanism, it only requires the first few moments of the response variables and covariates.

Chapter 3 proposes a different approach based on unconditional estimating equations, which can handle nonignorable missing data. This approach requires modeling assumption for the missing mechanism but does not require fully specification of the joint distribution of response variables, covariates, and missingness mechanism. It also has computational advantages compare to the maximum likelihood approach and multiple imputation approach.
Unconditional Estimating Equation Approach for Ignorable Missingness

Lin Lu, Annie Qu, David Birkes

Abstract

We present an unconditional estimating equation approach to handle missing data that is missing at random (MAR). When generalized estimating equations (GEEs) are used in a regression analysis, one usually regards the covariates as fixed, but in our approach we regard them as random. One advantage of our approach is that it does not require modeling the missingness mechanism, in contrast to the weighted generalized estimating equation (WEE) method, which must model the missingness mechanism in order to obtain weights. Also, it does not require working with the conditional distributions that the multiple imputation method uses to impute missing values. In addition, it does not require fully specifying likelihood function, but only requires the first few moments of response variables and covariates. We use simulation to investigate the finite-sample efficiency of the proposed approach relative to the weighted GEE and multiple imputation approaches. Data examples are also provided for illustration.

2.1 Introduction

Missing data could occur in various studies such as design based study or observational study. It could also occur on response variables, or covariates, or both. Missing data especially occurs often in longitudinal studies where subjects measured over time may dropout early or have intermittent missing observations. If the missingness mechanism is not taken into account in the analysis, missing data can cause serious bias and lead
to inefficient estimation (Afifi, and Elashoff, 1966; Rubin, 1976). Therefore developing efficient method to handle the missing data has become increasingly important.

Rubin (1976) classified missingness mechanisms into three categories: missing completely at random (MCAR), where missingness does not depend on observed data; missing at random (MAR), where missingness only depends on the observed data; and informative missing (IM), where missingness could also depend on unobserved data, and the missing information can not be recovered by known information.


However, the likelihood based approaches require full specification of a joint distribution of response variables and covariates. This assumption might be very restrictive in practice. In addition, if this assumption is violated, the likelihood-based approaches could still lead to biased and inefficient estimation. In contrast, imputation and WEE do not require full likelihood functions, however, these approaches still rely on strong modeling assumptions for modeling missingness mechanism or imputing missing values.

In this paper, we propose a semiparametric approach to handle missing data with missing at random. This new approach uses unconditional modeling for estimating equations under MAR. The proposed approach does not require modeling the missing mechanism to estimate weights as in WEE. It also does not require modeling the relation between missing values and observed values as in imputation approach. In addition, the proposed approach does not require fully specification of the likelihood function, but only needs the first few moments of response variables and covariates.

Our contribution is to construct estimating equation based on unconditional expectation of all possible variables and solve these estimating equation simultaneously. This
approach is able to handle both continuous and discrete response variables. It is also able to handle missing response or missing covariates. In addition, it can incorporate correlation information for clustered data. We show the proposed estimator is a consistent and asymptotically normal.

This paper is organized as follows. We provide model framework and notations in Section 2.2. Then we introduce the unconditional estimating equation method and the asymptotic properties in Section 2.3. The applications of the proposed method and simulation studies are given in Sections 2.4 and 2.5. The discussion and conclusion are given in Section 2.6.

2.2 Models and Notation

We first provide generalized linear models (GLM) and generalized estimating equations (GEE) briefly. The generalized linear model was introduced by McCullagh and Nelder (1983) where the mean of response and covariates have following relation:

\[ g(\mu_i) = x_i^T \beta. \]

2.2.1 Generalized estimating equations

The generalized estimating equations (Liang and Zeger, 1986) is a widely used marginal approach when the full likelihood function is difficult to specify since it only requires the first two moments of the distribution. Marginal models are appropriate when the inference to population average is of interest. GEE can handle multivariate response variables. In addition, the GEE estimator is consistent when the working correlation is misspecified.

For the longitudinal data setting, suppose that \( N \) independent subjects are measured from time 1 to \( T \). For each independent subject \( i \) \( (i = 1, ..., N) \), \( y_{it} \) is a response variable and \( X_i = (x_{i1}, ..., x_{iT})' \) is a \( T \times P \) covariates matrix. Let \( \mu_{it} = E(y_{it}|X_i, \beta) \) be the mean of the response \( y_{it} \). The marginal regression model is given as

\[ g(\mu_{it}) = x_{it}^T \beta, \] (2.1)
where $\beta$ is the $P \times 1$ regression parameters of interest and $g(\cdot)$ is a link function. Denote $y_i = (y_{i1}, \ldots, y_{iT})$ as a $T$ dimensional response vector. The covariance of $y_i$ ($T \times T$ matrix) has the following form:

$$V(\alpha) = \phi_y A_i^\frac{1}{2} R(\alpha) A_i^\frac{1}{2},$$

where $A$ is a diagonal marginal variance matrix, $R(\alpha)$ is the working correlation matrix of $Y$, $\alpha$ is the correlation parameters, and $\phi_y$ is a dispersion parameter. The GEE estimators for the regression parameters are the solutions of

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} D_i' V_i(\mu_i, \alpha)^{-1} (Y_i - \mu_i) = 0,$$

(2.2)

where $D_i = \frac{\partial \mu_i}{\partial \beta}$, and $\alpha$ can be estimated by the method of moments using Pearson residuals. If the missingness is MCAR, the GEE estimator is consistent even when the working correlation is misspecified.

### 2.2.2 Estimating Equation Approaches for Missing Data

The weighted generalized estimating equations (Robins et al., 1995) and multiple imputation GEE method (Paik, 1997) are effective to handle MAR for longitudinal data. The WEE provides consistent estimators even if the working correlation model is misspecified. However, it requires the model for predicting the probability of missingness to be correctly specified. The WGEE estimator solves

$$\sum_{i=1}^{K} D_i' V_i^{-1} W_i \{Y_i - \mu_i(X_i, \beta)\} = 0,$$

(2.3)

where $W_i$ is a diagonal weighting matrix with the $t^{th}$ diagonal components representing the inverse of the probability being observed at the $t^{th}$ visit for the $i^{th}$ subject. Clearly, any observations with low probability of being observed will have more weights on the estimating equation in (2.3).

The multiple imputation GEE approach is based on filling the missing data with imputed values, and the number of multiple imputation typically ranges between 3 and 10 (Rubin, 1987, p.114). The parameters are estimated by solving the GEE in (2.2)
and replacing the missing response by the imputed response. Rubin (1987, ch4) and Schafer (1997) provide the valid inference from multiple imputation. Specifically, the final estimator and inference are obtained by combining results for multiple imputation. See Section 2.4.1 for more details.

2.3 Unconditional Estimating Equation Approach

Let the response variable \( y_i = (y_{i1}, ..., y_{iT})' \) be a \( T \)-dimensional vector with variance-covariance matrix \( \Sigma \). We consider two types of covariates in the model. One is time-varying covariate, \( X_i^* = (x_{i1}^*, ..., x_{iT}^*)' \), which is a \( T \times P \) matrix. Another is time-invariant covariate, \( x_i^{**} = (x_{i1}^{**}, ..., x_{iQ}^{**})' \), which is a \( Q \times 1 \) vector. We denote

\[
x_i = \begin{pmatrix}
x_{i1}^* \\
\vdots \\
x_{iT}^* \\
x_i^{**}
\end{pmatrix},
\]

which is a \( (T \times P + Q) \times 1 \) covariate vector. Missing values could occur both in \( y_i \) and \( x_i \).

Covariates \( x_i \) are treated as random variables and the mean and variance are given as follows

\[
E(x_i) = \mu_x, \quad \text{Var}(x_i) = \Sigma_x.
\]

Let \( u_i = (y_i', x_i') \), here \( u_i \)'s are independent identical distributed, and have the first two moments as follows

\[
E(u_i) = \mu_u(\psi), \quad \text{Var}(u_i) = V(\mu, \alpha). \quad (2.4)
\]

We denote \( \psi = (\beta, \phi, \gamma) \), where \( \beta \) is a vector of regression parameters in (2.1), \( \phi \) is a set of joint parameters of \( y_i \) and \( x_i \), and \( \gamma \) is a vector of parameters for \( x_i \). Here \( \mu \) and \( V \) are known functions of \( \psi \). We assume \( V \) is known. If it is unknown, we can estimate it empirically.
The main idea of the unconditional estimating equation is to construct estimating equations simultaneously associated with $y_i$ and covariates $x_i$. The quasilikelihood equation with respect to $\psi$ is

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} D V^{-1} (u_i - \mu_u) = 0,$$

(2.5)

where $D = \partial \mu_u / \partial \psi'$. Since $\mu_u$ does not depend on a specific subject index $i$, $D$ also does not depend on index $i$. So equation (2.5) can be written as

$$D V^{-1} (\bar{u} - \mu_u) = 0,$$

(2.6)

where $\bar{u} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} u_i$ is the mean of $u_i$.

We obtain $\hat{\psi}$ by solving estimating equations (2.6). For complete data if we take expectation of equation (2.6),

$$E(D V^{-1} (\bar{u} - \mu_u)) = D V^{-1} (E(\bar{u}) - \mu_u) = 0,$$

(2.7)

Therefore, the estimating equation (2.6) is an unbiased estimating equation. We have the following theorem.

**Theorem 2.1.** The estimator $\hat{\psi}$ is $\sqrt{N}$-consistent, and $N^{1/2}(\hat{\psi} - \psi)$ is asymptotically multivariate normal with mean zero and the asymptotic covariance matrix as

$$(D V^{-1} D)^{-1}.$$

The matrix $(D V^{-1} D)^{-1}$ is $k \times k$ where $k$ is the number of parameters that need to be estimated. For this matrix to be invertible, we need the rank of $D$ to be at least $k$, and in particular, we need the number of rows of $D$ to be at least $k$. The number of rows of $D$ is equal to the number of variables in $u_i$. Above we defined $u_i = (y_i', x_i')'$, but if the number of single variables (response variables $y$ and covariates $x$) are not enough, we can include some products of $y$ and $x$.

Suppose some values of response variables and/or some values of covariates are missing and assume that the missingness is MAR. Let $R_i$ be a $N \times G$ missingness indicator matrix where $G = T + T \times P + Q$ (there are $T$ response variables, $T \times P$ time varying covariates, and $Q$ time invariant covariates), where $R_{ig} = 1$ if $u_{ig}$ is observed and $R_{ig} = 0$ if $u_{ig}$ is missing.
Subjects can be grouped by the pattern of $R$. We denote $r$ as different missing patterns, where $r = 1, ..., M$. For example, if $G = 3$, there could be $M = 2^3 - 1$ possible different missing patterns. Let $U_r$ be the observed values under missing pattern $r$ and $g(U, \psi)$ be an estimating function for the hypothetical complete data such that $E(g(U, \psi)) = 0$. We have following Lemmas

**Lemma 2.1.** Under the MAR assumption,

$$E_{\psi}(g(U, \psi)|R = r, U_r = u) = E_{\psi}(g(U, \psi)|U_r = u).$$

The conditional expectation $E_{\psi}(g(U, \psi)|R = r, U_r = u)$ has information equivalent to $E_{\psi}(g(U, \psi)|U_r = u)$, which does not depend on missingness mechanism.

**Lemma 2.2.** Under MAR assumption, we have

$$E(\sum_r E_{\psi}(g(U, \psi)|R = r, U_r = u)) = 0.$$  

For each missing pattern $r$, we have

$$\sum_r \mu_r' V_{r}^{-1}(U_r - \mu_r) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} D_i^r V_i^{-1} E(u_i - \mu_i|U^o_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} (D_i^r)^o V_i^{-1} (u^o_i - \mu^o_i). \quad (2.8)$$

This approach assume that the missing values can be replaced by conditional expectation of $E(U^m_i|U^o_i)$. Therefore, it uses all available information and also provides consistent estimators when missingness is MAR.

For a specified subject $i$, if it belongs to the missing pattern $r$, the corresponding quasi-score is

$$D_i^r V_{ir}^{-1}(U_{ir} - \mu_{ir}),$$

where $\mu_{ir}$ consists of the expectation of the response variables and the observed covariates, and $V_{ir}$ is the corresponding variance-covariance matrix where $R_{ir} = 1$.

The quasi-score containing subjects with the same missing pattern $r$ is

$$D_i^r V_{ir}^{-1}(U_r - \mu_r) = \sum_{ir} D_i^r V_{ir}^{-1}(U_{ir} - \mu_{ir}).$$
Therefore the quasi-score for all missing patterns has the following form

\[
\sum_r \sum_{r_i} D'_r V_r^{-1}(U_r - \mu_r) = 0. \tag{2.9}
\]

The parameter \( \psi \) is estimated by solving the equation (2.9). Let \( p_r = \lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{n_r}{N} \), where \( n_r \) is the number of the subjects for missing pattern \( r \).

**Theorem 2.2.** The estimator of \( \psi \) by solving the equation (2.9) is an consistent estimator of \( \psi \) under MAR, and \( N^{1/2}(\hat{\psi} - \psi) \) is asymptotically multivariate normal with mean zero and the covariance matrix as \((\sum_r p_r D'_r V_r^{-1} D'_r)^{-1}\).

### 2.3.1 Example

In this section, we provide an example to illustrate the proposed method. Although this example only shows how to handle continuous responses and missing one covariate, our approach is not limited and can be applied to discrete responses or missing response.

Suppose that each subject is measured at time \( t = 1, 2 \). The response variables are \( y_{i1}, y_{i2} \), and the covariate \( x_i \) are continuous. We assume \( x_i \) has mean \( \mu_x \), and considered the following marginal regression model

\[
y_{it} = \beta_t (t - 1) + \beta_x x_i + \epsilon_{it}, \tag{2.10}
\]

where \( \epsilon_{i1} \) and \( \epsilon_{i2} \) are distributed as a bivariate normal with mean \( 0 \) and the covariance matrix as \( \Sigma \). Based on the regression model, the unconditional mean of \( y_{it} \) is \( E(y_{it}) = \beta_t (t - 1) + \beta_x \mu_x \).

We assume that both \( y_{i1}, y_{i2} \) are observed but \( x_i \) has some missing values. Here \( u_i = (y_{i1}, y_{i2}, x_i) \), and \( E(u_i) = (\mu_{y1}, \mu_{y2}, \mu_x)' = (\beta_x \mu_x, \beta_t + \beta_x \mu_x, \mu_x)' \). There are three parameters \( (\beta_t, \beta_x, \mu_x) \), where the first two are the parameters of interest and the last one is the nuisance parameter. The missingness indicator is \( R_i = (1, 1, R_{xi}) \), where \( R_{xi} = 1 \) if \( x_i \) is observed and \( R_{xi} = 0 \) if \( x_i \) is missing. There are two missing patterns here. One is \( r_1 = (1, 1, 1) \) where the data are completed and another is \( r_2 = (1, 1, 0) \) for incomplete
cases. Define

\[
\dot{\mu}' = \begin{pmatrix}
\frac{\partial \mu_1}{\partial \beta_x} & \frac{\partial \mu_2}{\partial \beta_x} & \frac{\partial \mu_x}{\partial \beta_x} \\
\frac{\partial \mu_1}{\partial \beta_x} & \frac{\partial \mu_2}{\partial \beta_x} & \frac{\partial \mu_x}{\partial \beta_x} \\
\frac{\partial \mu_1}{\partial \beta_x} & \frac{\partial \mu_2}{\partial \beta_x} & \frac{\partial \mu_x}{\partial \beta_x}
\end{pmatrix}.
\]

For the complete data where \( r = 1 \), we have

\[
\dot{\mu}'_1 V_1^{-1}(u_1 - \mu_1) = \sum_{i=1}^{n_1} \dot{\mu}'_1 V_1^{-1}(u_i - \mu_i)
\]

\[
= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\
\mu_x & \mu_x & 0 \\
\beta_x & \beta_x & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix}
v_{y_1} & v_{y_12} & v_{xy_1} \\
v_{y_12} & v_{y_2} & v_{xy_2} \\
v_{xy_1} & v_{xy_2} & v_x
\end{pmatrix}^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n_1} \begin{pmatrix} y_{i1} - \beta_x \mu_x \\
y_{i2} - (\beta_t + \beta_x \mu_x) \\
x_i - \mu_x
\end{pmatrix}.
\]

For the missing pattern \( r = 2 \) where the covariance is missing, we have

\[
\dot{\mu}'_2 V_2^{-1}(u_2 - \mu_2) = \sum_{i=1}^{n_2} \dot{\mu}'_2 V_2^{-1}(u_i - \mu_i)
\]

\[
= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\
\mu_x & \mu_x \\
\beta_x & \beta_x \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix}
v_{y_1} & v_{y_12} \\
v_{y_12} & v_{y_2} \\
v_{xy_1} & v_{xy_2}
\end{pmatrix}^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n_2} \begin{pmatrix} y_{i1} - \beta_x \mu_x \\
y_{i2} - (\beta_t + \beta_x \mu_x)
\end{pmatrix}.
\]

Therefore combining both missing patterns, we have estimating equations:

\[
\sum_{r=1}^{2} \dot{\mu}'_r V_r^{-1}(u_r - \mu_r) = 0.
\]

The estimators of \( \beta_t \), \( \beta_x \), and \( \mu \) are obtained by solving the above equations.

As we mentioned before, we may add cross products into \( u_i \) to estimate all parameters. Here is an example. Let us consider model

\[
y_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 t + \beta_2 x_i + \epsilon_i,
\]

where \( t \) is the time. Suppose there are two time points, and we have two outcomes \( y_1 \) and \( y_2 \), and one covariate \( x \). There are four parameters needed to be estimated \( \beta_0 \), \( \beta_1 \), \( \beta_2 \), and \( \mu_x \). If \( u_i \) only includes single variables \( y_{i1} \), \( y_{i2} \) and \( x_i \), then there are only three independent equations for four parameters. Therefore, we need to add the product of \( y_{i1} \) and \( x_i \), and the product of \( y_{i2} \) and \( x_i \) to \( u_i \), which allows us to have enough equations to solve the parameters.
2.4 Application

In this section, we apply the proposed approach for existing data sets with missing values. The first data studies contracepting women. It has monotone missing responses. The second data set studies hip fracture women. It contains both missing response variables and covariates. We compare the proposed method with multiple imputation method (Paik, 1997, Lipsitz et al., 2000) and the weighted approach (Robins et al., 1995) for these data sets.

2.4.1 Contracepting Women Data

This data is a longitudinal randomized clinical trial studying contracepting women (Machin et al, 1988, Fitzmauris, 2000). In this trial 1151 women receive an injection of either 100 or 150 mg of depot-medroxyprogesterone acetate (DMPA) at the beginning of the study and receive three additional injections at 90-day intervals.

Throughout the study each woman is required to complete a menstrual diary. The diary data is used to generate a sequence of binary responses for each subject according to whether or not she has experienced amenorrhea in the four successive three-month intervals. There is monotone dropout missingness. More than 30% of subjects dropped out before the completion of the trial.

The marginal regression model (Fitzmauris, 2000) is formulated as

\[
\text{logit} \, pr(y_{it} = 1|x_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 (t-1) + \beta_2 (t-1)^2 + \beta_3 x_i + \beta_4 x_i \times (t-1) + \beta_5 x_i \times (t-1)^2,
\]  

(2.11)

where \( t = 0, 1, 2, 3 \) and \( x_i \) is the treatment. We denote \( x_i = 0 \) for DMPA dose 100mg and \( x_i = 1 \) for DMPA dose 150mg.

To illustrate our method, we assume covariate \( x \) as random variable. There are seven parameters involved in the model with \( \psi = (\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \beta_4, \beta_5, \mu_x) \). This requires at least seven variables in the \( u_i \). We use all response variables and covariates, and the cross products of \( y \) and \( x \) additionally,

\[
u_i = [y_{i1}, y_{i2}, y_{i3}, y_{i4}, x_i, (xy_1)_i, (xy_2)_i, (xy_3)_i, (xy_4)_i].
\]  

(2.12)
There are four possible different missing patterns including complete case with \( R = (1, 0, 0, 0), (1, 1, 0, 0), (1, 1, 1, 0), (1, 1, 1, 1) \). For different missing pattern, we use subset of (2.12) according to the missing pattern.

We compare our approach with the weighted approach and the multiple imputation. We briefly describe the weighted method here. In the weighted approach, the probability of being observed is modeled as

\[
Pr(R_{it} = 1|y_1, ..., y_{it}, x_i) = \frac{e^{\theta_0 + \gamma_1 y_i + \ldots + \gamma_{t-1} y_{it-1} + \gamma x_i}}{1 + e^{\theta_0 + \gamma_1 y_i + \ldots + \gamma_{t-1} y_{it-1} + \gamma x_i}}.
\]

The weights \( W_i \) in (2.3) are calculated by taking the inverse of the above estimated probability of \( y_{it} \) being observed. The covariance matrix of \( \hat{\beta} \) of the weighted GEE (Robins et al., 1995) is given by

\[
\Sigma_{\beta} = \left( \sum_{i=1}^{K} \frac{\partial \mu_i'}{\partial \beta} V_i^{-1} \frac{\partial \mu_i}{\partial \beta} \right)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{K} E_i E_i' \left( \sum_{i=1}^{K} \frac{\partial \mu_i'}{\partial \beta} V_i^{-1} \frac{\partial \mu_i}{\partial \beta} \right)^{-1},
\]

where \( E_i = U_i - (\sum_{i=1}^{K} U_i S_i') (\sum_{i=1}^{K} S_i S_i') S_i \), \( U_i = \frac{\partial \mu_i'}{\partial \beta} V_i^{-1} (Y_i - \nu_i(\hat{\beta})) \), and \( S_i = \sum_{t} R_{it-1} Z_{it} (R_{it} - \lambda_{it}) \) is the score component for the \( i^{th} \) subject from the missingness mechanism model (Robins et al., 1995, Preisser et al., 2002).

For the multiple imputation, we replace the missing values sequentially based on the imputation using logistic model:

\[
Pr(y_{it} = 1|y_1, ..., y_{it}, x_i) = \frac{e^{\alpha_0 + \alpha_1 y_i + \ldots + \alpha_{t-1} y_{it-1} + \alpha x_i}}{1 + e^{\alpha_0 + \alpha_1 y_i + \ldots + \alpha_{t-1} y_{it-1} + \alpha x_i}}.
\]

The estimator of multiple imputation is the average of estimators from each imputation. The covariance of estimator (Rubin, 1978) is given by

\[
\Sigma(\beta) = \bar{U} + (1 + \frac{1}{m}) B,
\]
where \( m \) is the number of the multiple imputations, and \( \bar{U} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^{m} U_j \) is the average of within-imputation variance, where \( U_j \) is the variance associated with \( \beta_j \) with

\[
U_j = \left( \sum_{i=1}^{K} \frac{\partial \mu'_i}{\partial \beta} V^{-1}_i \frac{\partial \mu_i}{\partial \beta} \right)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{K} \frac{\partial \mu'_i}{\partial \beta} V^{-1}_i (Y_i - \mu_i(\hat{\beta})) (Y_i - \mu_i(\hat{\beta}))' V^{-1}_i \frac{\partial \mu_i}{\partial \beta} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{K} \frac{\partial \mu'_i}{\partial \beta} V^{-1}_i \frac{\partial \mu_i}{\partial \beta} \right)^{-1}.
\]

Here \( B = \frac{1}{m-1} \sum_{j=1}^{m} (\beta_j - \bar{\beta})^2 \) is the variance between imputations.

Table 1 shows that multiple imputation provides highest standard errors among three approaches. The proposed approach and the weighted method provide similar estimates. However, the weighted method provides the lowest standard errors among these three approaches.

### 2.4.2 Arbitrary Missing Pattern Data

The second example investigates (Allison, 2001) 220 caucasian women, at least 60 years old, who are treated surgically for hip fractures in Philadelphia area (Mossey, Knott, and Craik, 1990). They are interviewed three times after the hospital release: at 2 months, 6 months, and 12 months. The outcome variable is a measurement of depression, on a scale from 0 to 60. The four related covariates are the number of self-care that could be completed without assistance \((x_1, \text{ranges from 0 to 3})\), the degree of pain experienced by the patient \((x_2, \text{ranges from 0 (none) to 6 (constant)})\), self-rated health \((x_3, \text{measured on a four-point scale, 1 = poor, 4 = excellent})\), and whether able to walk without aid at home \((x_4, 0 = \text{no} \text{ and } 1 = \text{yes})\).

The goal of this study is to investigate the relation between depression and the other four predictors. The linear regression model is given by

\[
y_{it} = \beta_1 x_{i1t} + \ldots + \beta_4 x_{i4t} + \beta_5 w_1 + \beta_6 w_2 + \epsilon_{it},
\]

where \( y_{it} \) is the depression score for the person \( i \) at time \( t \), \( w_1 \) and \( w_2 \) are two indicator variables for time \((w_1 = 1 \text{ if time at 2 months, and } w_1 = 0 \text{ otherwise. } w_2 = 1 \text{ if time at 6 months and } w_1 = 0 \text{ otherwise.})\), and the error \( \epsilon_i = (\epsilon_{i1}, \ldots, \epsilon_{it}) \) is distributed as mean \( 0 \) and variance \( \Sigma \). Here except \( x_4 \) is binary variable and the rest of covariates are continuous variables.
For this data example, the missing values have arbitrary missing pattern (intermittent
missing) so that the WEE is not applicable. We compared the proposed approach with
the multiple imputation (Paik, 1997, Lipsitz et al., 2000). We imputed the missing values
for month 2 first then for month 6 and month 12 and within the same time period, we
imputed the missing values in covariates first, and then the response variables. We apply
the GEE using imputed values along with the observed values.

Table 2 provides the estimates and standard errors for the estimators. The estimate
for \( x_3 \) is similar for both approaches. The estimates for time effect (coefficients of \( w_1 \) and
\( w_2 \)) are significant from both approaches. The number of self-care (\( x_1 \)) and the degree of
pain (\( x_2 \)) do not have significant effect on depression score based on our proposed approach
while they are significant effect based on the multiple imputation approach.

2.4.3 Missing Covariate

We use the subset of the second data example to create missing covariates. We select 138
subjects with complete responses. We consider a relatively simpler model and is given by

\[
y_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{it} + \beta_2 w_1 + \beta_3 w_2 + \epsilon_{it}.
\]

We make the missing patterns of \( x_2 \) as monotone. There are about 24% of the
covariate missing. We compare the proposed approach with the multiple imputation
(Paik, 1997, Lipsitz et al., 2000) and the weighted GEE (Robins et al., 1994). For the
multiple imputation approach, we imputed missing values for \( t = 1 \) first then for \( t = 2 \)
and 3. We apply the GEE based on imputed values and observed data.

For the weighted method, the probability of being observed is modeled as

\[
Pr(R_{it} = 1|y_{1t},...,y_{it},x_{i1},...,x_{it}) = \frac{e^{g_i^{\gamma}}}{1 + e^{g_i^{\gamma}}},
\]

where \( g_i \) is a combination of elements in \((y_{i1},...,y_{i-t-1},x_{i2})\).

Table 3 provides the estimates and standard errors for all approaches. The estimates
of all three approaches are similar and all of them show significance of all effects. The
standard error of estimators are similar.
2.5 Simulations

We conduct several simulations to study the finite sample performance of the unconditional estimating equation approach. The first two simulations are artificial and the other two are based on application data. We compare the proposed approach with the WEE and imputation method. For the first two simulations, the complete data are generated from sample size $N = 250$ for each simulation. There is only one covariate $x$ and it had missing values. All responses are observed. The true missingness mechanism is specified such that the missingness depends on the observed response variables. This ensures that the missingness is MAR. The true missingness mechanism follows logistic model

$$
\text{logit } pr(R_i = 1|y_{it}, x_i) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 y_{i1} + \alpha_2 y_{i2} + \alpha_3 y_{i3}.
$$

(2.13)

2.5.1 Continuous Response

In this section, we simulate response variables and covariates both as continuous. We generate $x_i$ from normal distribution with $\mu_x = 2$ and $\sigma^2_x = 1$. The response variables are assumed to follow the linear model

$$
y_{it} = \beta_t (t - 1) + \beta_x x_i + \epsilon_{it}, \quad t = 1, 2, 3
$$

The error term $(\epsilon_{i1}, \epsilon_{i2}, \epsilon_{i3})$ are generated to be correlated with exchangeable correlation structure ($\rho$). We set $\beta_t = 0.5$, $\beta_x = 1$, and $\alpha_1 = -1$, $\alpha_2 = 1$ in (2.13). We study the performance under different correlations. We set $\rho = 0.25$ for low, $\rho = 0.25$ for median, and $\rho = 0.25$ for high correlation. We chose different values of $\alpha_0$ and $\alpha_3$ so that the amount of missing data varies. The bias of the estimators and the square root of mean square error (RMSE) are given in Table 4. The standard deviations of the estimators are not in the table because they are very close to RMSE. The missing rates are about 36% and 60% for the two setups.

Table 4 indicates that the proposed method and the multiple imputation method yield nearly unbiased estimators of $\beta_t$ and $\beta_x$ with the biases for $\beta_x$ less than 0.2% and for the bias for $\beta_t$ always less than 0.4%. Among these approaches, the weighted GEE has the highest RMSE. The RMSE of the proposed approach is smaller than or equal
to that of multiple imputation for both $\beta_t$ and $\beta_x$. In addition, when the correlation among responses increases, the proposed approach tends to have smaller RMSE for $\beta_t$ and similar RMSE for $\beta_x$. When the missing rate increases, the RMSE for all three approaches decreases. Moreover, the RMSE of the proposed approach is slightly smaller than that of multiple imputation for both $\beta_t$ and $\beta_x$.

2.5.2 Binary Response

In this section, we simulated both response variables and covariate as binary. Here $x_i$'s are generated from a Bernoulli distribution with the probability of success as 0.5. The marginal model for $E(y_{it} | x_i)$ is given as follows

$$\logit \ pr(y_{it} = 1 | x_i) = \beta_t(t - 1) + \beta_x x_i, \ t = 1, 2$$

The response variables $(y_{i1}, y_{i2})$ are generated to be correlated with exchangeable correlation structure with correlation $\rho$. We set $\beta_t = 0.5$, $\beta_x = 1$, $\alpha_1 = 1$, and $\alpha_3 = 0$. Similar to the last simulation, we set $\rho = 0.25$ for low, $\rho = 0.25$ for median, and $\rho = 0.25$ for high correlation, we choose different values of $\alpha_0$ and $\alpha_2$ so that the amount of missing data varies.

The bias and square root of mean square error are given in Table 5. The missing rates are around 30% and 60% for the two setups, respectively. Table 5 indicates that the proposed method yields nearly unbiased estimators of $\beta_t$ and $\beta_x$ with the biases for $\beta_t$ are less than 1% and $\beta_x$ are less than 3%. The WEE and the multiple imputation approach yield similar biases when correlation among response is low or median. When the correlation is high, the biases of the proposed estimators are smaller than those of the other two approaches. Among these approaches, the RMSE of the proposed approach is less than or equal to that of weighted GEE or multiple imputation. When the correlation is high, the ratios of RMSE of the proposed approach relative to the multiple imputation or the weighted approach are nearly 0.5 for $\hat{\beta}_t$ and are less than 0.82 for $\hat{\beta}_x$. 
2.5.3 Simulation Based on Contracepting Women Data

We simulate data based on the women contracepting data with the sample size as 250. Both response variables and covariate are binary variables. The response variables given the covariate $x$ follow a logistic model:

$$\text{logit } pr(y_{it} = 1) = \beta_0 + \beta_t(t - 1) + \beta_x x_i \quad t = 1, \ldots, 4.$$  

Correlated response variables are generated following the procedure by Preisser (2002) and the covariate is generated by Bernoulli distribution with the mean as the sample mean of $x$ from the women contracepting data. The missing values occur in responses only. The true missingness mechanism is specified such that the missingness is monotone and depends on the previous observed outcome. This ensured that the missing is MAR. The missingness indicator $R_{it}$ is 1 if $y_{it}$ is observed and 0 if $y_{it}$ is missing, where $t = 2, 3, 4$. There is no missing in $y_1$. The true missingness mechanism follows logistic model and only depends on the previous response $y$.

$$\text{logit } pr(R_{it} = 1|y_{i1}, \ldots, y_{it}, x_i) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 y_{i(t-1)}. \quad (2.14)$$

We choose $\alpha$ such that the missing rate is about 27% and also with another missing rate as 53%.

The bias and standard error of the estimators are provided in Table 6. The multiple imputation and the weighted GEE have similar biases when the model for the missingness mechanism or the model for imputing missing values are correctly specified. The proposed approach gives slightly larger biases. The standard errors for all three approaches are similar. But when the model of missingness mechanism or the model for imputing missing values are misspecified, the proposed approach has smaller biases than the WEE and the multiple imputation estimators. When sample size increases, the variances of estimators from all three approaches are similar.
2.5.4 Simulation Based on Monotone Missing Covariate Example

We simulate data based on hip fracture data with missing covariates. The mean of response \((y_1, y_2, y_3)\) given covariate \(x_{it3}\) is

\[
E(y_{it}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{it2} + \beta_2 w_1 + \beta_3 w_2 ,
\]

and the covariance is \(\Sigma_y\). Three covariates are generated by multinormal distribution with mean \((\mu_{x1}, \mu_{x2}, \mu_{x3})\) and covariance \(\Sigma_x\). They are truncated according to the range of \(x_1, x_2,\) and \(x_3\). We use \(x_2\) as covariate in (2.15) and the other two covariates for modeling missingness mechanism.

The means and covariances of \(y\) and covariates are based on the sample mean and variance of the data. The missingness only occurs in the covariate. The true missingness mechanism is specified as monotone missing given by

\[
\begin{cases}
\logit Pr(R_{it} = 1) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 y_{it} + \alpha_2 x_{it1} + \alpha_3 x_{it2}, \\
Pr(R_{it} = 1) = 0 \quad \text{if} \ R_{it-1} = 0.
\end{cases}
\]

All \(\alpha\)'s are obtained based on the information of observed data. The sample size for this simulation is 250 and the missing rate are 27% and 41% respectively. The bias and standard error are given in Table 7. The biases of the proposed approach are equal to or smaller than those of WEE and multiple imputation. The standard errors of the proposed approach are equal to or slightly larger than those of WEE and multiple imputation. If the model for the weights or the model for the imputation are misspecified, the proposed approach has smaller biases than the other two approaches. For two missing rates, all three approaches have similar trends, with more biases and larger standard errors of estimators when the missing rate increases.

2.5.5 Simulation Based on Arbitrary Missing Pattern

In this simulation, the data is generated based on the hip fracture example. The response variables \((y_1, y_2, y_3)\) are generated with the mean

\[
E(y_{it}) = \beta_1 x_{it3} + \beta_2 w_1 + \beta_3 w_2 ,
\]
and a random error with variance \((\sigma^2_{y_1}, \sigma^2_{y_2}, \sigma^2_{y_3})\) and exchangeable correlation structure. We set \(\rho = 0.25, 0.5,\) and 0.75 for low, median, and high correlation. Three covariates are generated by multinormal distribution with mean \((\mu_{x_1}, \mu_{x_2}, \mu_{x_3})\) and covariance \(\Sigma_x\). They are truncated according to the range of \(x_1, x_2,\) and \(x_3\). We use \(x_3\) as covariate in (2.15) and the other two covariates for modeling missingness mechanism.

The means, variances and covariances of the responses and covariates are based on the sample mean and variance of the data. The missing values occur in both covariates and responses. The true missingness mechanism is modeled as

\[ Pr(R_{it} = 1) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_2 x_{it1} + \alpha_3 x_{it2}, \]

and \(R_{x3t}\) and \(R_{yt}\) are generated with the same correlation as from the hip fracture data. All \(\alpha\)’s are obtained from the information of the observed data. The sample size for this simulation is 200.

Since the weighted approach can not handle this kind of missing data, Table 8 provides the bias and standard errors for our approach and the imputation method. Our proposed approach has smaller biases and standard errors than multiple imputation for time effect. As for covariate, the proposed estimator has smaller bias than multiple imputation estimator, but the standard error of our estimator is similar to or slightly larger than that of multiple imputation.

### 2.6 Discussion and Conclusion

The unconditional estimating equation approach is mainly based on unconditional expectation of all possible variables including the responses and covariates and relies on approximation to the multivariate normal distribution. The main advantage of the unconditional estimating equation approach is that it does not require modeling for missingness mechanism or imputing the missing values.

Our simulation studies for different missing situations suggest that the proposed approach has negligible bias and the bias was found to be less than 2\% in general. The variance of the proposed estimators is smaller than or equal to that of the weighted and
the imputation approaches in most cases.

Furthermore, the proposed method can be easily applied to arbitrary missing patterns. While the WEE can not be easily extended in this case. The sequential imputation approach (Paik, 1997) can be extended to arbitrary missing patterns. but it does not perform as well as the proposed approach based on the simulation results.

There are some drawbacks of the proposed approach. In particular, it does not perform well for the models when matrix $D$ is close to singular, because there can be convergence problem. But this problem could be solved by including cross products of response variables and covariates in data matrix.
Reference

Table 1: Estimates and Standard Errors for Contracepting Women Data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>estimate</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Int</td>
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<td>-1.5537</td>
<td>0.1074</td>
<td>-14.4665</td>
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<td>0.0967</td>
<td>-15.4323</td>
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<tr>
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<td>trt</td>
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<td>0.6594</td>
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<td>-1.6488</td>
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Table 2: Estimates and Standard Errors for Arbitrary Missing Pattern Data

<table>
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<th>P-value</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$x_1$</td>
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<td>0.2241</td>
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<td>0.2122</td>
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<td>$x_2$</td>
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<td>$\hat{\beta}_MI$</td>
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<td>$x_3$</td>
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<td>11.6689</td>
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<td>$x_4$</td>
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<td>-3.9146</td>
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</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>$\hat{\beta}_MI$</td>
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<td>0.7392</td>
<td>11.7013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$w_2$</td>
<td>$\hat{\beta}_prop$</td>
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<td>13.4924</td>
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<td>8.0443</td>
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Table 3: Estimates and standard errors for missing covariate

<table>
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<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>4.6880</td>
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<tr>
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<td>$\hat{\beta}_MI$</td>
<td>2.2801</td>
<td>0.4895</td>
<td>4.6580</td>
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<td>2.4715</td>
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<td>5.2306</td>
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<td>$x_2$</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\hat{\beta}_MI$</td>
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<td>0.2115</td>
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<tr>
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<td>$\hat{\beta}_prop$</td>
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<td>0.2173</td>
<td>3.3852</td>
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<tr>
<td>$w_1$</td>
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<td>9.4847</td>
<td>0.5410</td>
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<td>$w_2$</td>
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</table>
Table 4: Simulation results for continuous data based on 250 sample and 1000 simulations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$\rho$=0.25</th>
<th>$\rho$=0.5</th>
<th>$\rho$=0.75</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\alpha_0$=-1, $\alpha_3$=0</td>
<td>$\beta_0$</td>
<td>$\beta_3$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>missr=36%</td>
<td>$bias_{\beta_0}$</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>$bias_{\beta_3}$</td>
<td>0.0767</td>
<td>0.0412</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$RMSE_{\beta_0}$</td>
<td>0.0006</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$RMSE_{\beta_3}$</td>
<td>0.0221</td>
<td>0.0147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>missr=60%</td>
<td>$bias_{\beta_0}$</td>
<td>0.0039</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$bias_{\beta_3}$</td>
<td>0.0558</td>
<td>0.0390</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$RMSE_{\beta_0}$</td>
<td>0.0005</td>
<td>0.0005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$RMSE_{\beta_3}$</td>
<td>0.0159</td>
<td>0.0130</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: $missr$ represents the missing rate of the data, e.g. 36% means 36% subjects have missing values.

Table 5: Simulation results for binary data based on 250 sample size and 1000 simulations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$\rho$=0.25</th>
<th>$\rho$=0.5</th>
<th>$\rho$=0.75</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\alpha_0$=-1, $\alpha_3$=0</td>
<td>$\beta_w$</td>
<td>$\beta_{MI}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>missr=32%</td>
<td>$bias_{\beta_0}$</td>
<td>0.0109</td>
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<tr>
<td>$bias_{\beta_3}$</td>
<td>0.1838</td>
<td>0.1722</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$RMSE_{\beta_0}$</td>
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<td>0.2765</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$RMSE_{\beta_3}$</td>
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<td>0.0028</td>
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<tr>
<td>missr=60%</td>
<td>$bias_{\beta_0}$</td>
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<tr>
<td>$bias_{\beta_3}$</td>
<td>0.0227</td>
<td>0.0356</td>
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<td>$RMSE_{\beta_0}$</td>
<td>0.3140</td>
<td>0.3118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$RMSE_{\beta_3}$</td>
<td>0.0006</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: $missr$ represents the missing rate of the data, e.g. 32% means 32% subjects have missing values.

Table 6: Estimates and standard error for the simulation based on contracepting women data with sample size 250

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WEE</th>
<th>WEE(Y)</th>
<th>MI</th>
<th>MI(Y)</th>
<th>Prop</th>
<th>true $\beta$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mir=27%</td>
<td>int</td>
<td>0.6108(0.3286)</td>
<td>0.7448(0.3534)</td>
<td>0.8226(0.3156)</td>
<td>1.1698(0.2913)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$x$</td>
<td>-0.0836(0.1512)</td>
<td>-0.0918(0.1580)</td>
<td>-0.3099(0.1371)</td>
<td>-0.4886(0.1256)</td>
<td>-0.1111(0.1551)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mir=53%</td>
<td>int</td>
<td>-1.5200(0.1644)</td>
<td>-1.4674(0.1640)</td>
<td>-1.5219(0.1632)</td>
<td>-1.4657(0.1611)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$x$</td>
<td>0.2599(0.2064)</td>
<td>0.2783(0.1811)</td>
<td>0.2624(0.1801)</td>
<td>0.2777(0.1775)</td>
<td>0.2700(0.1810)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: $mir$ represents the missing rate of the data, e.g. 27% means 27% subjects have missing values.

Table 7: Biases and standard errors for the simulation based on missing covariates with sample size 250

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WEE</th>
<th>WEE(Y)</th>
<th>MI</th>
<th>MI(Y)</th>
<th>Prop</th>
<th>true $\beta$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mir=26%</td>
<td>int</td>
<td>0.6500(0.3477)</td>
<td>0.7998(0.3779)</td>
<td>0.9488(0.3105)</td>
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<td>$x$</td>
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<td>-0.4045(0.1355)</td>
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<tr>
<td>mir=41%</td>
<td>int</td>
<td>0.4020(0.3952)</td>
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<tr>
<td>$x$</td>
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<td>-0.5250(0.3542)</td>
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Note: $mir$ represents the missing rate of the data, e.g. 26% means 26% subjects have missing values.
Table 8: Simulation results for continuous data based on missing covariates data with sample size of 200 and simulation size of 1000

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\hat{\beta}_{M1}$</td>
<td>$\hat{\beta}_{p}$</td>
<td>$\hat{\beta}_{M1}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>missr=37%</td>
<td>$\hat{\beta}_x$=2.5824</td>
<td>$\hat{\beta}_p$=2.5048</td>
<td>$\hat{\beta}_x$=2.5906</td>
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Note: missr represents the missing rate of the data, e.g. 37% means 37% subjects have missing values.
Unconditional Estimating Equation Approach for Nonignorable Missingness

Lin Lu, David Birkes, Annie Qu

Abstract

Given regression data from a sample of independent subjects, we propose a new approach to estimating regression coefficients when some data are missing and the missingness mechanism is nonignorable. For a complete data set, with no missing values, an estimate of the vector of regression coefficients can be obtained as the solution to a generalized estimating equation (GEE) based on the difference between the vector of outcomes and its expectation conditional on the covariates. When data are missing, our approach uses an “unconditional” generalized estimating equation, based on the difference between a vector of “extended-sense” outcomes and its unconditional expectation. Extended-sense outcomes include (1) the original outcomes in the complete data set multiplied by their missingness indicators, (2) the covariates in the complete data set multiplied by their missingness indicators, (3) the missingness indicators, and (4) selected products of these variables. The advantage of an estimating-equation approach is that fewer distributional assumptions are needed in comparison to maximum likelihood (ML) and explicitly modeled multiple imputation (MI). Weighted estimating-equation (WEE) estimators have the same advantage of requiring few distributional assumptions, but our estimator can be easier to obtain in some situations. Through simulation we investigate the efficiency of the proposed estimator relative to ML, MI, and WEE estimators. The unconditional estimating-equation (UEE) estimator is as efficient as the other three estimators when the missingness mechanism is correctly specified.
3.1 Introduction

Missing data occur frequently in scientific research, for many reasons, such as if subjects drop out of a longitudinal study before its completion, or if the data is missing by human error. The missing-data mechanism could be ignorable, where missingness only depends on observed information, or it could be nonignorable (or informative), where missingness depends on unobserved information. Considerable research has been done on statistical methods for handling ignorable missingness; see Little and Rubin (2002), Schafer (1997), Allison (2002), Ibrahim, Chen, Lipsitz, and Herring (2005), Robins, Rotnitzky, and Zhao (1994, 1995), Davidian, Tsiatis, and Leon (2005).

The problem of nonignorable missingness is appreciably more difficult to deal with since the missingness mechanism depends on missing values, which of course are unobserved. Existing methods for nonignorable missingness include likelihood methods (Diggle and Kenward 1994; Ibrahim, Lipsitz, and Chen 1999), Bayesian analyses (Huang, Chen, and Ibrahim 2005), multiple imputation methods (Paik 1997), and weighted GEE methods (Rotnitzky, Robins, and Scharfstein 1998). Maximum likelihood (ML) requires specification of a full joint likelihood for the data, including the missingness indicators. A Bayesian approach also requires a full likelihood, plus specification of a prior distribution on the parameters. Multiple imputation (MI) in many settings (Kenward and Carpenter 2007, section 4) involves specification of the conditional distribution of the missing data given the observed data and sometimes the missingness indicators. Some versions of MI (Paik 1997), weighted estimating-equation (WEE) estimation and the unconditional estimating-equation (UEE) we proposed require only that certain moments of the data be specified.

In this paper, we propose a semiparametric approach to handle missing data. The procedure is partially parametric in so far as moments of the data, including the missingness indicators, are expressed in parametric form, and it is partially nonparametric in so far as no further distributional assumptions are made. When no data are missing, a commonly used method for estimating regression coefficients in a generalized linear model is to solve a generalized estimating equation (GEE) (Liang and Zeger 1986). A GEE is based on the difference between the vector of outcomes and its expectation conditional
on the covariates, which are regarded as fixed. In the proposed method, the covariates are regarded as random. Our unconditional estimating equation (UEE) is based on the difference between a vector of “extended-sense” outcomes and its unconditional expectation. Extended-sense outcomes include (1) the original outcomes in the complete data set multiplied by their missingness indicators, (2) the covariates in the complete data set multiplied by their missingness indicators, (3) the missingness indicators, and (4) selected products of these variables.

Treating the covariates as extended-sense outcomes is suggested by Kenward and Carpenter (2007, p. 203). Inclusion of the missingness indicators as extended-sense outcomes is similar to the joint estimating-equation approach of Zhao, Lipsitz, and Lew (1996), but their estimating equation is based on conditional expectations. The idea of an extended-sense outcome vector including an original outcome, a covariate, and a missingness indicator appears in the weighted estimating equation derived by Lipsitz, Ibrahim, and Zhao (1999).

In a typical ML estimation, one must postulate a parametric model for the joint distribution of the data and missingness indicators. In multiple imputation (MI), the imputation is often done by postulating a parametric model for simulating missing values given the observed data. Estimating-equation approaches such as WEE and UEE are semiparametric in that a parametric expression is required only for certain moments of the data and missingness indicators, and no further restrictions are placed on the distribution of the data. To be assured that an ML or explicitly modeled MI estimator is consistent, the postulated distributions should be true. For a WEE or UEE estimator to be consistent, one needs only the weaker condition that that the postulated expressions for the moments are true, regardless of the distribution of the “residuals”. Here the moment is the expectation of some quantity, namely, a power of an observation. The corresponding “residual” is the difference between the quantity and the moment.

This article is organized as follows. The GEE, ML, MI, and WEE estimation procedures are discussed further in Section 3.2. In Section 3.3 we give the model and notation and introduce the UEE estimator. Its asymptotic properties are stated in Theorem 3.1.
The proposed method is illustrated in two simple examples. In Section 3.5 UEE estimation is applied to three real data sets. In Section 3.4 three simulation studies are presented, based on models taken from the applications in the preceding section. Discussion and conclusions are given in Section 3.6.

3.2 Background and Available Approaches

The generalized estimating equations (GEE) (Liang and Zeger, 1986) is a widely used when the full likelihood function is difficult to specify and the inference of population average is of interest. The GEE estimator is also consistent when the working correlation is misspecified. However, the GEE estimator is biased if the missing mechanism is not missing completely at random.

The weighted generalized estimating equations (WEE) (Robins et al., 1995) and multiple imputation GEE methods e.g. (Paik, 1997) are effective to remove biases for missing at random (MAR), where missingness depends on observed data only. WEE provides consistent estimators even if the working correlation model is misspecified. However, it requires that the model for predicting the probability of missingness is correctly specified. The WEE estimator solves the weighted GEE equations with weights of the inverse of the probability being observed. The WEE estimator is biased if the missing mechanism is not ignorable.

The multiple imputation GEE approach (Paik, 1997, Xie, 1997, Lipsitz, 2000) fills the missing data with imputed values. The number of multiple imputation is discussed by Rubin (1987, p.114). The parameters are estimated by solving the GEE equations with missing response being substituting by the imputed values. Rubin (1987, ch4) and Schafer (1997, p.109) provide valid inferences for multiple imputation approaches. Multiple imputation is able to handle nonignorable missing if the distribution of missing variables can be modeled by observed variables and missingness indicators. However, this approach requires Bayesian technique for computation.

Likelihood approaches for handling missing data are based on a likelihood function by assuming a specific model assumptions. The main technique for computing maximum
likelihood estimators from incomplete data is the expectation and maximization (EM) algorithm (Hartley, 1958, Dempster, Laird, and Rubin, 1977). EM is particularly useful when the maximum likelihood estimation of a complete data model is not difficult to compute. The EM algorithm is able to handle nonignorable missingness. However, it requires specification of full likelihood and it could be extremely slow when the likelihood function is complicated.

3.3 Proposed Method

Let the response variable $y_i = (y_{i1}, \ldots, y_{iT})'$ be a $T$-dimensional vector with variance-covariance matrix $\Sigma$ and mean $E(y_i)$, which satisfies

$$E(y_i) = \mu_i = g(\mu_i) = x_i \beta.$$  (3.1)

where $\beta$ is the $P \times 1$ regression parameters of interest and $g(\cdot)$ is a link function.

We consider two types of covariates in the model. One is time-varying covariate, $X^*_i = (x^*_i1, \ldots, x^*_iT)'$, and is a $T \times P$ matrix. The other is time-invariant covariate, $x^{**}_i = (x^{**}_i1, \ldots, x^{**}_iQ)'$, which is a $Q \times 1$ vector. We denote

$$x_i = \begin{pmatrix} x^*_i \\ \vdots \\ x^{**}_i \end{pmatrix},$$

which is a $(T \times P + Q) \times 1$ covariate vector. Missing values could occur in $y_i$ or $x_i$, or both.

Covariates $x_i$ are treated as random variables and the mean and variance are given as follows

$$E(x_i) = \mu_x, \quad \text{var}(x_i) = \Sigma_x.$$  

Let $U_i = (y'_i, x'_i)$, $U_i$'s are independent identical distributed, which have the following first two moments,

$$E(U_i) = \mu_u(\psi), \quad \text{Var}(U_i) = V(\mu_u, \alpha).$$  (3.2)
We denote $\psi = (\beta, \phi, \gamma)$, where $\beta$ is a vector of regression parameters in (3.1), $\phi$ is a set of joint parameters of $y_i$ and $x_i$, and $\gamma$ is a vector of parameters for $x_i$. Here $\mu$ and $V$ are known functions of $\psi$. We assume $V$ is known. If it is unknown, we can estimate it empirically.

Suppose some of responses $Y_i$ or covariates $X_i$ are missing and the missingness is either MAR or informative missingness. Let $R$ be a $N \times G$ missingness indicator matrix where $G$ is the number of the variables with missing values. Let $R_{ig} = 1$ if $U_{ig}$ is observed and $R_{ig} = 0$ if $U_{ig}$ is missing.

The joint probability of missingness indicators can be expressed as

$$p(R_{i1}, ..., R_{ig} | u_i, \tau) = p(R_{ig} | R_{i1}, ..., R_{ig-1}, u_i, \tau_g) \times p(R_{ig-1} | R_{i1}, ..., R_{ig-2}, u_i, \tau_{g-1}) \times ... \times p(R_{i1} | u_i, \tau_1),$$

where $\tau = (\tau'_1, ..., \tau'_{g-1}, \tau'_g)'$ is a vector of parameters for missingness indicator. The number of parameters can be reduced by using this sequential probability (Lipsitz et al., 2000).

Since the missingness indicators are always binary outcome, they can be modeled as logistic regression. For any missingness indicator, we model it as

$$\mu_{R_{ig} | R_{i1}, ..., R_{ig-1}, u_i, \tau} = \frac{\exp(U_i\tau^u + \sum_{j=1}^{g-1} R_{ij}\tau^r_j)}{1 + \exp(U_i\tau^u + \sum_{j=1}^{g-1} R_{ij}\tau^r_j)},$$

where $\tau^u$ are coefficients for $U$ and $\tau^r$ are coefficients for missingness indicators. Therefore, a joint probability of missingness indicators can be modeled as a sequence of logistic models.

Let $w_i = (U_i^o, R_i \odot U_i^m, R_i)'$ and define 0 multiply by a missing-values equals 0, where $w_i$ is a vector of data, $U_i^o$ includes variables without any missing values, $U_i^m$ includes variables with missing values, and $\odot$ is element-wise multiplication. Therefore, the “extended-sense” outcome $w_i$ does not include any missing values. All missing values are replaced by zeros, which incorporates the effect of missingness indicators.

We have $w_i$ as i.i.d, with first two moments as follows

$$E(w_i) = \mu_w(\psi_w, \phi), \quad \text{var}(w_i | S) = V(\mu_w, \phi),$$  (3.3)
We denote \( \psi = (\beta, \phi, \gamma, \alpha) \), where \( \beta \) is a vector of regression parameters in (3.1), \( \gamma \) is a vector of parameters for \( x_i \), \( \alpha \) is a vector of parameters for missingness indicator, and \( \phi \) is a set of joint parameters of \( y_i, x_i, \) and \( R_i \). Here \( \mu_w \) and \( V \) are known functions of \( \psi \).

We assume \( V \) is known. If it is unknown, we can estimate it empirically.

The main idea of this approach is to construct unconditional estimating equations for \( w \). The quasilikelihood equation with respect to \( \psi_w \) is

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{N} D'_w V^{-1}(w_i - \mu_w) = D'_w V^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (w_i - \mu_w) = 0,
\]

where \( D_w = \partial \mu_w / \partial \psi' \). Since \( \mu_w \) does not depend on a specific subject index \( i \), \( D \) also does not depend on index \( i \). So equation (3.4) can be written as

\[
D'_w V^{-1}(\bar{w} - \mu_w) = 0,
\]

where \( \bar{w} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} w_i}{N} \) is the mean of \( w_i \).

We obtain \( \hat{\psi}_w \) by solving estimating equations (3.5). If we take expectation of equation (3.5),

\[
E(D'_w V^{-1}(\bar{w} - \mu_w)) = D'_w V^{-1}(E(\bar{w}) - \mu_w) = 0,
\]

Therefore, the estimating equation (3.5) is an unbiased estimating equation. We have the following theorem for consistency and asymptotical normality of \( \hat{\psi}_w \).

**Theorem 3.1.** The estimator \( \hat{\psi}_w \) is \( \sqrt{N} \)-consistent, \( N^{1/2}(\hat{\psi}_w - \psi_w) \) is asymptotically multivariate normal with mean zero, with the asymptotic covariance matrix as

\[
(D'_w V^{-1}D_w)^{-1}.
\]

The matrix \( (D'_w V^{-1}D_w)^{-1} \) is \( k \times k \) where \( k \) is the number of parameters that need to be estimated. For this matrix to be invertible, we need the rank of \( D \) to be at least \( k \), and in particular, we need the number of rows of \( D \) to be at least \( k \). The number of rows of \( D \) is equal to the number of variables in \( w_i \). Above we defined \( w_i = (U^o, R_i \odot U^m, R_i)' \), but if the number of single variables \( (U^o, R \odot U^m, R) \) are not enough, we can include some products of \( U^o, R \odot U^m, \) and \( R \).
In order to apply GEE for \( w_i \), we need to implement the expectation of \( w_i \). For example, considering missingness indicator \( R_{ig} \), the expectation of \( R_{ig} \) is

\[
\sum_{R_{ig}} R_{ig} p(R_{ig}) = p(R_{ig}) = p(R_{ig} = 1|R_{i1}, ..., R_{ig-1}, w_i)p(R_{i1}, ..., R_{ig-1}, w_i).
\] (3.7)

Equation (3.7) can be written as

\[
\int_{w_i} \sum_{R_{i1}, ..., R_{ig-1}} p(R_{ig} = 1|R_{i1}, ..., R_{ig-1}, w_i, \alpha) \times p(R_{i1}, ..., R_{ig-1}|w_i, \alpha)p(w_i).
\]

To evaluate the integral above, the full specification of the distribution of \((R_{i1}, ..., R_{ig}, w_i)\) is required. To avoid specifying the joint distribution of \((R_{i1}, ..., R_{ig}, w_i)\), we use the multivariate normal approximation (Whittle, 1961, Crowder, 1985, Lipsitz et al., 2000) to evaluate the joint distribution. For the multinormal distribution, the conditional distribution of \( W_1 \) given \( W_2 = w_2 \) is multivariate normal with mean

\[
\mu_1 + V_{12} V_2^{-1}(w_2 - \mu_2),
\]

and the covariance

\[
V_1 - V_{12} V_2^{-1} V_{12}^\prime.
\]

For binary variables, the conditional distribution of one variable \( W_1 = 1 \) given \( W_2 = w_2 \) is

\[
p(W_1 = 1|W_2 = w_2) = \text{E}(W_1|W_2 = w_2). \] (3.8)

By Taylor expansion, equation (3.8) becomes

\[
p(W_1 = 1|W_2 = w_2) \approx \mu_1 + V_{12} V_2^{-1}(w_2 - \mu_2).
\]

However, this proposed approach requires to model missingness indicator correctly. If the model of missingness is misspecified, equation (3.4) may be biased, also the proposed approach would not be as efficient as the model of the missingness is correctly specified.

For informative missingness, the choice of variables in the model of missingness indicator is important. If the model for the missingness indicator can not be determined with certainty, sensitivity analysis is needed to decide the model for \( R_i \). Sensitivity analysis,
which fit a range of different nonignorable missing patterns by changing a subset of parameters. Discussions about sensitivity analysis can be found in Rubin (1977), Zhu and Lee (2001), Verbeek et al. (2001), Molenberghs et al. (2001), and Kenward (1998).

### 3.3.1 Examples

In this section, we provide two simple examples to illustrate the proposed method. The first example shows how to handle missing covariates under ignorable missingness for continuous variables. The second example shows how to handle the missing response under nonignorable missingness for binary response variables. Although these examples show how to handle missing responses or covariates, the proposed approach is able to handle both missing response and covariates.

**Example 1** Consider a generalized linear model

\[ y_i = \beta x_i + \epsilon_i, \]

where \( \epsilon_i \) has a normal distribution with mean 0 and variance \( \sigma^2 \), and \( x_i \) has \( N(\mu_x, \sigma^2_x) \).

Suppose \( y_i \) is observed but \( x_i \) has some missing values. The missingness indicator \( r_i = 1 \) for \( x_i \) being observed and \( r_i = 0 \) for \( x_i \) being missing. The true probability of \( x_i \) being observed is

\[ Pr(r_i = 1|y_i, x_i) = \frac{\exp(\alpha y_i)}{1 + \exp(\alpha y_i)}. \]

We model the probability of \( x_i \) being observed as the true given in (3.10). There are three parameters \( \beta, \alpha, \) and \( \mu_x \) that need to be estimated. Let \( W_i = (r_i, y_i, r_i \cdot x_i) \). We solve following equation to obtain estimators for the three parameters.

\[ D'_w V_w^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (W_i - \mu_w) = 0, \]

The unconditional mean of \( y_i \) is \( \text{E}(y) = \mu_y = \beta \mu_x \), and let \( \mu_r \) be the mean of \( r_i \) and \( \mu_{rx} \) be the mean of \( r_i \cdot x_i \), the unconditional mean of \( W_i \) can be expressed as

\[ \mu_w = \text{E}(W_i) = \begin{pmatrix} E(r) \\ E(y) \\ E(rx) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mu_r \\ \mu_y \\ \mu_{rx} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \int_y \frac{\exp(\alpha y)}{1 + \exp(\alpha y)} f(y) dy \\ \beta \mu_x \\ \int_x \int_y \frac{\exp(\alpha y)}{1 + \exp(\alpha y)} x f(y|x) f(x) dxdy \end{pmatrix}. \]
where \( f(y) \) is the density of \( y \), \( f(y|x) \) is the density of \( y \) given \( x \), and \( f(x) \) is the density of \( x \), which are given by
\[
\begin{align*}
f(y) &= \frac{\exp\left(-\frac{(y - \mu_y)^2}{(2\sigma_y)^2}\right)}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_y^2}} \\
f(y|x) &= \frac{\exp\left(-\frac{(y - \beta x)^2}{(2\sigma_x)^2}\right)}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_x^2}} \\
f(x) &= \frac{\exp\left(-\frac{(x - \mu_x)^2}{(2\sigma_x)^2}\right)}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_x^2}}.
\end{align*}
\]

Let \( A_1 = \Pr(r = 1|y) = \frac{e^{\alpha y}}{1 + e^{\alpha y}} \), \( A_2 = \frac{\partial \Pr(r = 1|y)}{\partial \alpha} = \frac{ye^{\alpha y}(1 + e^{\alpha y})}{(1 + e^{\alpha y})^2} \), \( D \) can be written as
\[
D' = \left(\begin{array}{ccc}
\frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \beta} & \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \beta} & \frac{\partial \mu_x}{\partial \beta} \\
\frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \alpha} & \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \beta} & \frac{\partial \mu_x}{\partial \alpha} \\
\frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \mu_x} & \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \mu_x} & \frac{\partial \mu_x}{\partial \mu_x}
\end{array}\right)
\left(\begin{array}{c}
\int_y A_1 \frac{\partial f(y)}{\partial \beta} \, dy \\
\int_y A_1 \frac{\partial f(y|x)}{\partial \beta} f(x) \, dx \, dy \\
\int_y A_1 \frac{\partial f(y)}{\partial \alpha} \, dy \\
\int_x A_1 x f(x) \frac{\partial f(y|x)}{\partial \alpha} \, dx \, dy \\
\int_y A_2 f(y) dy \\
\int_y A_2 f(y|x) f(x) \, dx \, dy \\
\int_y A_1 \frac{\partial f(y)}{\partial \mu_x} \, dy \\
\int_x A_1 x f(x) \frac{\partial f(y|x)}{\partial \mu_x} \, dx \, dy \\
\int_x A_1 x f(x) \frac{\partial f(y|x)}{\partial \mu_x} \, dx \, dy
\end{array}\right),
\]

Since \( D' \) does not have an explicit form, the numerical integration is needed. In addition, \( V \) matrix in equation (3.11) can be estimated empirically. We solve \( \hat{\beta} \), \( \hat{\alpha} \), and \( \hat{\mu}_x \) from equation (3.11).

**Example 2** Suppose that each subject is measured at time \( t = 1, 2 \). The response variables are \( y_{i1} \) and \( y_{i2} \), and the covariate \( x_i \) is binary. We assume that \( x_i \) has a Bernoulli distribution with mean \( \mu_x \). Considered \( y_{it} \) follows the logistic regression model
\[
\logit y_{it} = \beta_t (t - 1) + \beta x_i.
\]

Based on the regression model, the unconditional mean of \( y_{it} \) is
\[
\mu_t = E(y_{it}) = \frac{e^{\beta_t (t-1) + \beta \mu_x}}{1 + e^{\beta_t (t-1) + \beta \mu_x}} + \frac{e^{\beta_t (t-1) (1 - \mu_x)}}{1 + e^{\beta_t (t-1) (1 - \mu_x)}}.
\]

We assume that both \( y_{i1} \), \( x_i \) are observed but \( y_{i2} \) has some missing values. The missingness indicator for \( y_{i2} \) is \( r_i \). The missingness indicator is
\[
\logit r_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 y_{i2}.
\]
We model the missingness indicator following the true missingness indicator. There are five parameters \((\beta_t, \beta, \alpha_0, \alpha_1, \mu_x)\) that need to be estimated. If \(w_i\) only includes single variables \(y_{i1}, r_i * y_{i2} \ x_i\), and \(r_i\), then there are only four independent equations for five parameters. Therefore, we need to add at least one cross product from \(y_{i1}, r_i * y_{i2} \ x_i\), and \(r_i\) to obtain enough equations to solve the parameters. Let \(W_i = (r_i, y_{i1}, x_i * y_{i1}, r_i * y_{i2}, x_i)\), we solve the following equation to obtain estimators for the parameters.

\[
D'_w V_w^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (W_i - \mu_w) = 0, \tag{3.14}
\]

The expectation of \(W_i\) is given as follows

\[
\mu_w = E(W_i) = \begin{pmatrix}
\mu_r \\
\mu_{y_1} \\
\mu_{x y_1} \\
\mu_{r y_2} \\
\mu_x
\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}
\frac{e^{\alpha_0 + \alpha_1}}{1 + e^{\alpha_0 + \alpha_1}} \mu_2 + \frac{e^\alpha}{1 + e^\alpha} (1 - \mu_2) \\
\mu_1 \\
\frac{e^\beta}{1 + e^\beta} \mu_x \\
\frac{e^{\alpha_0 + \alpha_1}}{1 + e^{\alpha_0 + \alpha_1}} \mu_2 \\
\mu_x
\end{pmatrix}
\]

Let

\[
A_1 = \frac{e^{\alpha_0 + \alpha_1}}{1 + e^{\alpha_0 + \alpha_1}} \\
A_2 = \frac{e^\alpha}{1 + e^\alpha} \\
B_1 = \frac{\partial A_1}{\partial \alpha_0} = \frac{\partial A_1}{\partial \alpha_1} = \frac{e^{\alpha_0 + \alpha_1}}{(1 + e^{\alpha_0 + \alpha_1})^2} \\
B_2 = \frac{\partial A_2}{\partial \alpha_0} = \frac{e^{\alpha_0}}{(1 + e^{\alpha_0})^2} \\
\mu_{1\beta} = \frac{e^{\beta_t + \beta}}{(1 + e^{\beta_t + \beta})^2} \\
\mu_{2\beta} = \frac{e^{\beta_t}}{(1 + e^{\beta_t})^2}
\]
\[ D' \text{ can be written as} \]
\[
\begin{pmatrix}
\frac{\partial \mu_1}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial \mu_{x1}}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial \mu_{x2}}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial \mu_x}{\partial r} \\
\frac{\partial \mu_1}{\partial \beta} & \frac{\partial \mu_{x1}}{\partial \beta} & \frac{\partial \mu_{x2}}{\partial \beta} & \frac{\partial \mu_x}{\partial \beta} \\
\frac{\partial \mu_1}{\partial \alpha_0} & \frac{\partial \mu_{x1}}{\partial \alpha_0} & \frac{\partial \mu_{x2}}{\partial \alpha_0} & \frac{\partial \mu_x}{\partial \alpha_0} \\
\frac{\partial \mu_1}{\partial \mu_x} & \frac{\partial \mu_{x1}}{\partial \mu_x} & \frac{\partial \mu_{x2}}{\partial \mu_x} & \frac{\partial \mu_x}{\partial \mu_x}
\end{pmatrix}
\]
\[
= \begin{pmatrix}
(A_1 - A_2) \mu_1 \beta \mu_x + \mu_2 \beta (1 - \mu_x) & 0 & 0 & A_1 \mu_1 \beta \mu_x + \mu_2 \beta (1 - \mu_x) & 0 \\
(A_1 - A_2) \mu_1 \beta \mu_x & \frac{e^\beta}{(1 + e^\beta)^2} & \frac{e^\beta}{(1 + e^\beta)^2} & A_1 \mu_1 \beta \mu_x & 0 \\
B_1 \mu_2 + B_2 (1 - \mu_2) & 0 & 0 & B_1 \mu_2 & 0 \\
B_1 \mu_2 & 0 & 0 & B_1 \mu_2 & 0 \\
(A_1 - A_2) \left( \frac{e^{\beta \mu_x + \beta}}{1 + e^{\beta \mu_x + \beta}} - \frac{e^{\beta \mu_x}}{1 + e^{\beta \mu_x}} \right) & \frac{e^\beta}{1 + e^\beta} - \frac{1}{2} & \frac{e^\beta}{1 + e^\beta} & A_1 \left( \frac{e^{\beta \mu_x + \beta}}{1 + e^{\beta \mu_x + \beta}} - \frac{e^{\beta \mu_x}}{1 + e^{\beta \mu_x}} \right) & 1
\end{pmatrix}
\]

All estimates of parameters are obtained by solving equation (3.14).

### 3.4 Application

In this section, we apply the proposed approach for existing data sets with missing values. The first data studies translaryngeal intubation. It is a special case of longitudinal model-GLM with some missing covariate values. The second data studies contracepting women. It has monotone missing responses. The third data set studies hip fracture women. It contains both missing response variables and covariates. We compare the proposed method with multiple imputation method (Paik, 1997, Lipsitz et al., 2000), the weighted approach (Robins et al., 1995), and maximum likelihood approach for these data sets.

#### 3.4.1 TLI Data

The data is based on a translaryngeal intubation study (Ibrahim, 1990 and Colice, Stukel, and Dain, 1989). The data set involves a study of 82 patients who experienced translaryngeal intubation (TLI) for more than four days and are prospectively evaluated for laryngeal complications. The study is designed to identify a group of patients experiencing prolonged TLI (more than four days) and to prospectively evaluate the incidence and
the type of laryngeal complications they might suffer. The data are collected from the patients during the period of TLI. Three covariates (serum albumin $x_1$, Serum creatinine $x_2$, and the ratio of laryngeal size to tracheal tube size $x_3$) are incomplete. The response variable is dichotomized to 0 or 1, with 0 representing no damage of the larynx at baseline, and 1 otherwise. All covariates are dichotomized too. More details of this data is given by Ibrahim (1990).

The marginal regression model for this data is

$$\text{logit } pr(y_i = 1|x_{1i},x_{2i},x_{3i}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1i} + \beta_2 x_{2i} + \beta_3 x_{3i}. \quad (3.15)$$

For the proposed approach, we treat response variable and covariates as random variables. The “extended-sense” outcomes include $y$, $x$ and cross products of $y$ and $x$, namely,

$$[y, R_1 x_1, R_2 x_2, R_3 x_3, R_1 y x_1, R_2 y x_2, R_3 y x_3], \quad (3.16)$$

where $R_1$, $R_2$, and $R_3$ are missingness indicators for $x_1$, $x_2$, and $x_3$ and $R_{ki} \times x_{ki}$ is $x_{ki}$ if $R_{ki} = 1$ and 0 if $R_{ki} = 0$, where $k = 1, 2, 3$. The missingness indicators are modeled as

$$Pr(R_{ki} = 1|y_i, x_{1i}, x_{2i}, x_{3i}) = \frac{e^{g_i'\alpha}}{1 + e^{g_i'\alpha}},$$

where $g_i$ is a combination of the elements of $(y_i, x_{1i}, x_{2i}, x_{3i})$. Because the missingness indicator for TLI data is assumed as MAR, we only use variable $y$ in $g$.

We compare the proposed method with multiple imputation methods (Paik, 1997, Lipsitz et al., 2000) and the maximum likelihood approach (Ibrahim, 1990). For multiple imputation, conditional models are used to impute the missing outcome data. We impute missing values in $x_1$, $x_2$, $x_3$ by drawing a random sample from a Bernoulli distribution with probability of success

$$Pr(x_{ki} = 1|y_i, x_{k-1i}) = \frac{e^{m_i'\gamma}}{1 + e^{m_i'\gamma}}, \quad k = 1, 2, 3$$

where $m_i$ is some combination of the elements of $(y_i, x_{obs})$. In particular, $m_1 = (y)$, $m_2 = (x_1, y)$, and $m_3 = (x_1, x_2, y)$. The imputed data along with observed data are analyzed by GLM. Five imputations are generated.
For the maximum likelihood approach, it is followed by Ibrahim (1990). Since all covariates are binary variables, we specify a joint discrete distribution on $X' = (x_1, x_2, x_3)$ as

$$f(x_i | \gamma) = \prod_{j=1}^{3} I(X_{ij})^\gamma,$$

where $I(X_i)$ is an indicator function. For each missing $X_i$, we fill missing values by the possible values (0 and 1) multiplying by the corresponding probability $Pr(X_i^m | X_i^o, y_i)$. Then obtain parameters by solving weighted generalized linear model.

The results are given in table 9. Table 9 indicates that all estimations are not significantly different from 0. All three methods yield similar estimates and variances.

### 3.4.2 Contracepting Women Data

This data is a longitudinal randomized clinical trial studying contracepting women (Machin et al, 1988, Fitzmauris, 2000). In this trial 1151 women receive an injection of either 100 or 150 mg of depot-medroxyprogesterone acetate (DMPA) at the beginning of the study and receive three additional injections at 90-day intervals.

Throughout the study each woman is required to complete a menstrual diary. The diary data is used to generate a sequence of binary responses for each subject according to whether or not she has experienced amenorrhea in the four successive three-month intervals. There is monotone dropout missingness. More than 30% of subjects dropped out before the completion of the trial.

The regression model (Fitzmauris, 2000) is formulated as

$$\text{logit } pr(y_{it} = 1 | x_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 (t-1) + \beta_2 (t-1)^2 + \beta_3 x_i + \beta_4 x_i \times (t-1) + \beta_5 x_i \times (t-1)^2, \ (3.17)$$

where $t = 0, 1, 2, 3$ and $x_i$ is the treatment. We denote $x_i = 0$ for DMPA dose 100mg and $x_i = 1$ for DMPA dose 150mg.

For the proposed approach, we treat response variables, missingness indicators, and covariates as random variables. Since the missingness indicator is MAR and missing pattern is monotone, the missingness indicators are modeled as

$$Pr(R_{it} = 1 | y_{i1}, ..., y_{i4}, x_i) = \frac{e^{g^\prime \alpha}}{1 + e^{g^\prime \alpha}},$$
where the missingness indicator $R_{it} = 1$ if $y_{it+1}$ is observed and $R_{it} = 0$ if $y_{it+1}$ is missing and $g_i$ is a combination of the elements of $(y_{i1}, ..., y_{it}, x_i)$. In this example, $g_1$ includes $y_1$, $g_2$ includes $y_2$, and $g_3$ includes $y_3$ based on data. There are 13 parameters (six $\beta$’s, $\mu_x$, six $\alpha$’s) need to be estimated. The “extended-sense” outcomes include all response variables, covariate, missingness indicators, and cross products of $y$ and $x$, $R$, namely,

$$[y_1, xy_1, R_1y_2, R_1xy_2, R_2y_3, R_2xy_3, R_4y_4, R_3xy_4, x, R_1, R_2, R_3, R_1y_1, R_2y_2, R_3y_3].$$ (3.18)

We apply unconditional GEE to $w$ to solve all parameters.

We compare our approaches with the weighted, multiple imputation and our proposed approach in chapter 2. For our proposed approach in chapter 2, we use all response variables, covariates and the cross products of $y$ and $x$ in data matrix, $U = [y_1, y_2, y_3, y_4, xy_1, xy_2, xy_3, xy_4, x]$.

We briefly describe the weighted method here. In the weighted approach, the probability of an observation being observed is modeled as

$$Pr(R_{it} = 1 | y_{i1}, ..., y_{it}, x_i) = \frac{e^{g_i'\gamma}}{1 + e^{g_i'\gamma}},$$

where $g_i$ is a combination of the elements of $(y_{i1}, ..., y_{it}, x_i)$. Specifically, for this application, we modeled the probability of $y_{it}$ being observed condition on previous responses and covariate $x_i$ as

$$\lambda_{it} = Pr(R_{it} = 1 | y_{i1}, ..., y_{it-1}, x_i) = \frac{e^{\gamma_0 + \gamma_1y_{i1} + ... + \gamma_{t-1}y_{it-1} + \gamma x_i}}{1 + e^{\gamma_0 + \gamma_1y_{i1} + ... + \gamma_{t-1}y_{it-1} + \gamma x_i}}.$$

The weights $W_i$ in (2.3) are calculated by taking the inverse of the above estimated probability of $y_{it}$ being observed. The covariance matrix of $\beta$ of the weighted GEE (Robins et al., 1995) is given by

$$\Sigma_\beta = \left( \sum_{i=1}^{K} \frac{\partial \mu_i'}{\partial \beta} V_i^{-1} W_i \frac{\partial \mu_i}{\partial \beta} \right)^{-1} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{K} \frac{\partial \mu_i'}{\partial \beta} V_i^{-1} W_i \frac{\partial \mu_i}{\partial \beta} \right)^{-1},$$

where $E_i = U_i - \left( \sum_{i=1}^{K} U_i S_i' \right) \left( \sum_{i=1}^{K} S_i S_i' \right) S_i$, $U_i = \frac{\partial \mu_i'}{\partial \beta} V_i^{-1} (Y_i - \mu_i(\hat{\beta}))$, and $S_i = \sum_{t} R_{it-1} Z_{it}(R_{it} - \lambda_{it})$ is the score component for the $i^{th}$ subject from the missingness indicator model (Robins et al., 1995, Preisser et al., 2002).
For the multiple imputation, we replace the missing values sequentially based on the imputation using logistic model:

\[ Pr(y_{it} = 1|y_1, \ldots, y_{it-1}, x_i) = \frac{e^{\alpha_0 + \alpha_1 y_1 + \ldots + \alpha_{t-1} y_{it-1} + \alpha x_i}}{1 + e^{\alpha_0 + \alpha_1 y_1 + \ldots + \alpha_{t-1} y_{it-1} + \alpha x_i}}. \]

The estimator of multiple imputation is the average of estimators from each imputation. The covariance of estimator (Rubin, 1978) is given by

\[ \Sigma(\beta) = \bar{U} + \left(1 + \frac{1}{m}\right)B, \]

where \( m \) is the number of the multiple imputations, and \( \bar{U} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^{m} U_j \) is the average of within-imputation variance, where \( U_j \) is the variance associated with \( \beta_j \) with

\[ U_j = \left( \sum_{i=1}^{K} \frac{\partial \mu_i}{\partial \beta} V_i^{-1} \frac{\partial \mu_i}{\partial \beta} \right)^{-1} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{K} \frac{\partial \mu_i}{\partial \beta} V_i^{-1} (Y_i - \mu_i(\hat{\beta})) (Y_i - \mu_i(\hat{\beta}))' V_i^{-1} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{K} \frac{\partial \mu_i}{\partial \beta} V_i^{-1} \frac{\partial \mu_i}{\partial \beta} \right)^{-1} \right). \]

Here \( B = \frac{1}{m-1} \sum_{j=1}^{m} (\beta_j - \bar{\beta})^2 \) is the variance between imputations.

The results are given in table 10. The proposed approach I and II and the weighted method give similar standard errors for most of the regressors. The only exception is the effect of \( time^2 \), the proposed approach II shows that the effect is significant but the other three approaches show no significance. Multiple imputation provides similar estimations to the other three approaches but has highest standard errors among all approaches.

### 3.4.3 Missing Covariate

This example investigates (Allison, 2001) 220 caucasian women, at least 60 years old, who are treated surgically for hip fractures in Philadelphia area (Mossey, Knott, and Craik, 1990). They are interviewed three times after the hospital release: at 2 months, 6 months, and 12 months. The outcome variable is a measurement of depression, on a scale from 0 to 60. The four related covariates are the number of self-care that could be completed without assistance \((x_1, \text{ranges from 0 to 3})\), the degree of pain experienced by the patient \((x_2, \text{ranges from 0 (none) to 6 (constant)})\), self-rated health \((x_3, \text{measured on a four-point scale, } 1 = \text{poor}, 4 = \text{excellent})\), and whether able to walk without aid at home \((x_4, 0 = \text{no and 1 = yes})\).
We use the subset of the second data example to create missing covariates. We select 138 subjects with complete responses. We consider a relatively simpler model and is given by

\[ y_{it} = \beta_1 x_{it2} + \beta_2 w_1 + \beta_3 w_2 + \epsilon_{it}. \]

We make the missing patterns of \( x_2 \) as monotone. There are about 24% of the covariate missing. We compare the proposed approach with the multiple imputation (Paik, 1997, Lipsitz et al., 2000) and the weighted GEE (Robins et al., 1994). For the multiple imputation approach, we imputed missing values for \( t = 1 \) first then for \( t = 2 \) and 3. We apply the GEE based on imputed values and observed data.

For the proposed approach, since the missingness indicator is MAR and missing pattern is monotone, the missingness indicators are modeled as

\[ \Pr(R_{it} = 1 | y_{i1}, ..., y_{it3}, x_{i1}, ..., x_{i3}) = \frac{e^{g_i^\alpha}}{1 + e^{g_i^\alpha}}, \]

where the missingness indicator \( R_{it} = 1 \) if \( x_{it} \) is observed and \( R_{it} = 0 \) if \( x_{it} \) is missing and \( g_i \) is a combination of the elements of \((y_{i1}, ..., y_{it3}, x_{i1}, ..., x_{i3})\). In this example, \( g_1 \) includes \( y_1 \), \( g_2 \) includes \( y_2 \), and \( g_3 \) includes \( y_3 \) based on data. There are 12 parameters (three \( \beta \)'s, three \( \mu_x \), six \( \alpha \)'s) need to be estimated. The “extended-sense” outcomes include all response variables, covariate, missingness indicators, and cross products of \( y \) and \( x \), \( R \), namely,

\[ [y_1, R_1 x_1, R_1 x_1 y_1, y_2, R_2 x_2, R_2 x_2 y_2, y_3 R_3 x_3, R_3 x_3 y_3, R_1, R_2, R_3, R_1 y_1, R_2 y_2, R_3 y_3]. \] (3.19)

We apply unconditional GEE to \( w \) to solve all parameters.

For the weighted method, the probability of being observed is modeled as

\[ \Pr(R_{it} = 1 | y_1, ..., y_{it}, x_{i1}, ..., x_{it}) = \frac{e^{g_i^\gamma}}{1 + e^{g_i^\gamma}}, \]

where \( g_i \) is a combination of elements in \((y_{i1}, ..., y_{it-1}, x_{i2})\).

For our proposed approach in chapter 2, we use

\[ U = [y_1, y_2, y_3, x_1, x_2, x_3, x_1 y_1, x_2 y_2, x_3 y_3]. \]

The results are given in table 11. The results show that all four approaches give similar estimations. Two proposed approaches provide slight larger standard errors.
3.5 Simulations

We conduct several simulations to study the finite sample performance of the proposed approach for ignorable and informative missingness. Parameters in the simulations are based on the example data.

3.5.1 Simulation Based on TLI Data

Simulations are conducted based on the TLI data (Ibrahim, 1990). There is one response variable and three covariates. The missing values occur on the covariate. The response variable is fully observed. The covariates are generated as correlated binary variables based on the sample means and covariance of observed $x_1$, $x_2$, and $x_3$. The response variable is generated with the logistic model

\[
\logit \ pr(y_i = 1|x_{1i}, x_{2i}, x_{3i}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{1i} + \beta_2 x_{2i} + \beta_3 x_{3i}. \tag{3.20}
\]

All $\beta$‘s in (3.20) are estimated from data by using GLM based on complete data.

The true missingness indicator is specified such that the missingness depends on the observed outcome data. This ensures that the missing is MAR. The missingness indicator $R_{ki}$ is 1 if $x_{ki}$ is observed and 0 if $x_{ki}$ is missing, $k = 1, 2, 3$. The probability of $x_{ki}$ being observed is given as

\[
\logit \ pr(R_{ki} = 1|y_i, x_{ki}) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 y_i. \tag{3.21}
\]

All $\alpha$‘s are modified based on data to increase the missing rate. The missing rate is about 32 $. The simulation uses same sample size 82.

The second simulation based on this data modifies $\beta_3$ and increases sample size to 200. Also $\alpha$ are changed to obtain different missing rate.

We compare our proposed approach with multiple imputation (Paik, 1997) and maximum likelihood approach (Ibrahim, 1990) based on the simulation size of 1000. The biases and standard errors for the first simulation are given in Table 12 and for the second are given in 13.

Table 12 indicates that the proposed approach and the maximum likelihood approach yield similar biases and the biases are smaller than the multiple imputation estimates.
The standard errors of the proposed approach and the maximum likelihood approach are similar but they are larger than those of the multiple imputation estimates.

Table 13 indicates that the proposed approach and the multiple imputation have similar biases and standard errors, although the maximum likelihood approach yields smaller biases and standard errors for the intercept and $x_1$, it has larger biases and standard errors on $x_2$ and $x_3$. When missing rate increases, the biases increase for all three approaches.

### 3.5.2 Simulation Based on Women Data

We simulate data based on the women contracepting data with the sample size as 250. Both response variables and covariate are binary variables. The response variables given the covariate $x$ follow a logistic model:

$$
\text{logit } \Pr(y_{it} = 1) = \beta_0 + \beta_t (t-1) + \beta_x x_{it} \quad t = 1, \ldots, 4.
$$

Correlated response variables are generated following the procedure by Preisser (2002) and the covariate is generated by Bernoulli distribution with the mean as the sample mean of $x$ from the women contracepting data. The missing values occur in responses only. The true missingness indicator is specified such that the missingness is monotone and depends on the previous observed outcome. This ensured that the missing is MAR. The missingness indicator $R_{it}$ is 1 if $y_{it}$ is observed and 0 if $y_{it}$ is missing, where $t = 2, 3, 4$. There is no missing in $y_1$. The true missingness indicator follows logistic model and only depends on the previous response $y$.

$$
\text{logit } \Pr(R_{it} = 1 | y_{i1}, \ldots, y_{it}, x_{i}) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 y_{i(t-1)}.
$$

(3.22)

We choose $\alpha$ such that the missing rate is about 27% and also with another missing rate as 53%.

The bias and standard error of the estimators are provided in Table 14. When the missingness indicators are correctly specified, the proposed approach has smallest biases for most of the estimations and has similar standard error for most of the estimators to multiple imputation. The standard errors of these two approaches are smaller than those
of the weighted GEE estimators (with correctly specified missingness indicator) and our first proposed approach.

3.5.3 Simulation Based on Missing covariates Data

We simulate data based on hip fracture data with missing covariates. The means of response \((y_1, y_2, y_3)\) given covariate \(x_{it2}\) are

\[
E(y_{it}) = \beta_1 x_{it2} + \beta_2 w_1 + \beta_3 w_2 , \tag{3.23}
\]

and the covariance is \(\Sigma_y\). Three covariates are generated by multinormal distribution with mean \(\mu_{x2}\) and covariance \(\Sigma_{x2}\). They are truncated according to the range of \(x_2\).

The means and covariances of \(y\) and covariates are based on the sample mean and variance of the data. The missingness only occurs in the covariate. The true missingness indicator is specified such that the missingness is informative.

\[
Pr(R_{it} = 1) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 y_{it} + \alpha_2 x_{it} .
\]

The parameters \(\alpha_0\) and \(\alpha_1\) are based on the estimates from the data, but \(\alpha_2\) is artificial. We set \(\alpha_2 = 0.5\). We compare our proposed approach with maximum likelihood approach (EM approach). For both approach, we model the missingness indicator the same as true missingness indicator. We also show results for weighted method and multiple imputation for reference.

The biases and standard errors are provided in Table 15. The results are based on 500 simulations with sample size 200. The table shows that our proposed approach and maximum likelihood approach having similar biases and standard errors for covariate effects, but the proposed approach has slightly smaller biases and standard errors than maximum likelihood approach for time effects. Since the missingness indicator is informative, the weighted approach and multiple imputation do not give consistent estimations. Table 15 show that multiple imputation gives more biases and larger standard errors than weighted method, while weighted method gives slightly larger biases and standard errors than our proposed approach and the maximum likelihood approach.
3.6 Discussion and conclusion

The proposed approach is based on unconditional expectation of all possible variables and an approximation to the multivariate normal distribution. This approach avoids complete specifying the full joint distribution of all variables. Although it requires some assumptions about the distributions of covariates and associations among them, in general they are easy to satisfy.

Similar to the weighted method, our approach requires model assumptions for missingness indicator, but it can easily handle nonignorable missingness without full specification of the joint distribution of covariates, responses, and missingness indicator. In addition, our proposed approach can easily extend to arbitrary missing pattern while the weighted method and multiple imputation cannot.

The simulation studies suggest that the proposed approach has negligible bias. The simulation results also indicate that the bias and the variances of the proposed estimators are comparable to the multiple imputation, weighted method, or maximum likelihood. But since there are many possible missing data configurations, it is difficult to draw definitive conclusions from limited simulations.

There are some drawbacks of the proposed approach. In particular, it does not perform well for the models when matrix $D$ is close to singular, because there can be convergence problem. But this problem could be solved by including cross products of variables in response variables, covariates, and missingness indicators.
Reference

Table 9: Estimates for TLI

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Table 10: Estimates for Women data

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<td>5.0669</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$t^2$</td>
<td>$\hat{\beta}_{M1}$</td>
<td>0.0299</td>
<td>0.0604</td>
<td>0.4950</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\hat{\beta}_{w}$</td>
<td>-0.0058</td>
<td>0.0256</td>
<td>-0.2266</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\hat{\beta}_{propI}$</td>
<td>0.0019</td>
<td>0.0398</td>
<td>0.0477</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\hat{\beta}_{propII}$</td>
<td>-0.0971</td>
<td>0.0368</td>
<td>2.6386</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trt</td>
<td>$\hat{\beta}_{M1}$</td>
<td>0.1024</td>
<td>0.1553</td>
<td>0.6594</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\hat{\beta}_{w}$</td>
<td>0.1057</td>
<td>0.1395</td>
<td>0.7577</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\hat{\beta}_{propI}$</td>
<td>0.1057</td>
<td>0.1412</td>
<td>0.7486</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\hat{\beta}_{propII}$</td>
<td>0.1141</td>
<td>0.1545</td>
<td>0.7385</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trt*t</td>
<td>$\hat{\beta}_{M1}$</td>
<td>0.4734</td>
<td>0.2763</td>
<td>1.7134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\hat{\beta}_{w}$</td>
<td>0.4069</td>
<td>0.1559</td>
<td>2.6100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\hat{\beta}_{propI}$</td>
<td>0.4248</td>
<td>0.1829</td>
<td>2.3226</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\hat{\beta}_{propII}$</td>
<td>0.4272</td>
<td>0.1791</td>
<td>2.3853</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trt*t^2</td>
<td>$\hat{\beta}_{M1}$</td>
<td>-0.1446</td>
<td>0.0877</td>
<td>-1.6488</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\hat{\beta}_{w}$</td>
<td>-0.1318</td>
<td>0.0374</td>
<td>-3.5241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\hat{\beta}_{propI}$</td>
<td>-0.1271</td>
<td>0.0559</td>
<td>-2.2737</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\hat{\beta}_{propII}$</td>
<td>-0.1341</td>
<td>0.0383</td>
<td>-3.5031</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 11: Estimates for missing covariate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>( \hat{\beta}_{MI} )</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( x_1 )</td>
<td>1.4949</td>
<td>0.1716</td>
<td>8.7115</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \hat{\beta}_{w} )</td>
<td>1.4080</td>
<td>0.1744</td>
<td>8.0734</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \hat{\beta}_{propI} )</td>
<td>1.8694</td>
<td>0.2485</td>
<td>7.5227</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \hat{\beta}_{prop} )</td>
<td>1.8887</td>
<td>0.2669</td>
<td>7.0764</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>( \hat{\beta}_{MI} )</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( w_1 )</td>
<td>10.5166</td>
<td>0.6187</td>
<td>16.9979</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \hat{\beta}_{w} )</td>
<td>11.2639</td>
<td>0.4926</td>
<td>22.8662</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \hat{\beta}_{propI} )</td>
<td>10.1055</td>
<td>0.6629</td>
<td>15.2444</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \hat{\beta}_{prop} )</td>
<td>10.0871</td>
<td>0.6579</td>
<td>15.3323</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>( \hat{\beta}_{MI} )</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( w_2 )</td>
<td>9.4779</td>
<td>0.5283</td>
<td>17.9404</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \hat{\beta}_{w} )</td>
<td>10.3455</td>
<td>0.5273</td>
<td>19.6198</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \hat{\beta}_{propI} )</td>
<td>9.3242</td>
<td>0.5500</td>
<td>16.9531</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \hat{\beta}_{prop} )</td>
<td>10.0871</td>
<td>0.6579</td>
<td>15.3323</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 12: Biases, square root of mean squared errors (RMSE) and standard errors for simulation based on TLI with sample size 82

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>true ( \beta )</th>
<th>ML</th>
<th>MI</th>
<th>Prop</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Est</td>
<td>Int</td>
<td>-0.1642</td>
<td>-0.0364</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMSE(std)</td>
<td>0.3416 (0.3397)</td>
<td>0.2701 (0.2631)</td>
<td>0.3457 (0.3439)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Est</td>
<td>( x_1 )</td>
<td>-0.4013</td>
<td>0.0182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMSE(std)</td>
<td>0.4743 (0.4740)</td>
<td>0.4422 (0.3911)</td>
<td>0.4752 (0.4748)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Est</td>
<td>( x_2 )</td>
<td>0.3554</td>
<td>0.0932</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMSE(std)</td>
<td>0.5859 (0.5784)</td>
<td>0.4864 (0.4688)</td>
<td>0.5861 (0.5801)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Est</td>
<td>( x_3 )</td>
<td>0.1093</td>
<td>0.0590</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMSE(std)</td>
<td>0.8084 (0.8062)</td>
<td>0.6008 (0.6007)</td>
<td>0.8108 (0.8108)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 13: Biases and standard errors for simulation based on TLI with sample size 200

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>beta</th>
<th>ML</th>
<th>MI</th>
<th>Prop</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mir=40 %</td>
<td>Bias</td>
<td>Int</td>
<td>-0.1642</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>std</td>
<td>0.2792</td>
<td>0.2801</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bias</td>
<td>( x_1 )</td>
<td>-0.4013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>std</td>
<td>0.4520</td>
<td>0.4558</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bias</td>
<td>( x_2 )</td>
<td>0.3554</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>std</td>
<td>0.5131</td>
<td>0.4530</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bias</td>
<td>( x_3 )</td>
<td>1.6093</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>std</td>
<td>0.5801</td>
<td>0.4901</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mir=70 %</td>
<td>Bias</td>
<td>Int</td>
<td>-0.1642</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>std</td>
<td>0.2891</td>
<td>0.3178</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bias</td>
<td>( x_1 )</td>
<td>-0.4013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>std</td>
<td>0.5081</td>
<td>0.6001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bias</td>
<td>( x_2 )</td>
<td>0.3554</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>std</td>
<td>0.5383</td>
<td>0.5810</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bias</td>
<td>( x_3 )</td>
<td>1.6093</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>std</td>
<td>0.5889</td>
<td>0.5427</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: mir represents the missing rate of the data, e.g. 40% means 40% subjects have missing values.
Table 14: Biases and standard errors for the simulation based on women data with sample size 250

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>mir=27%</th>
<th>Est</th>
<th>true ( \beta )</th>
<th>WEE</th>
<th>MI</th>
<th>PropI</th>
<th>PropII</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Int</td>
<td>-1.5072</td>
<td>-0.0158</td>
<td>-0.0133</td>
<td>-0.0350</td>
<td>-0.0072</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>std</td>
<td>0.1644 0.1641</td>
<td>0.1686</td>
<td>0.1640</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>time</td>
<td>0.5114 0.0115</td>
<td>0.0026</td>
<td>0.0004</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>std</td>
<td>0.0640 0.0562</td>
<td>0.0654</td>
<td>0.0622</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Est</td>
<td>x 0.2653 -0.0058</td>
<td>-0.0029</td>
<td>0.0124</td>
<td>-0.0010</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>std</td>
<td>0.2064 0.1801</td>
<td>0.1810</td>
<td>0.1800</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>mir=53%</th>
<th>Est</th>
<th>true ( \beta )</th>
<th>WEE</th>
<th>MI</th>
<th>PropI</th>
<th>PropII</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Int</td>
<td>-1.5072</td>
<td>-0.0058</td>
<td>-0.0100</td>
<td>-0.0048</td>
<td>-0.0072</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>std</td>
<td>0.1909 0.1868</td>
<td>0.1948</td>
<td>0.1910</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>time</td>
<td>0.5114 -0.0129</td>
<td>0.0009</td>
<td>0.0204</td>
<td>0.0021</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>std</td>
<td>0.0842 0.0731</td>
<td>0.0860</td>
<td>0.0738</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Est</td>
<td>x 0.2653 0.0008</td>
<td>0.0152</td>
<td>-0.0108</td>
<td>-0.0100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>std</td>
<td>0.2329 0.2220</td>
<td>0.2417</td>
<td>0.2310</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: mir represents the missing rate of the data, e.g. 27% means 27% subjects have missing values.

Table 15: Estimates and standard errors for 500 simulation based on missing covariates data with sample size of 200

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>missingrate</th>
<th>true ( \beta )</th>
<th>WEE</th>
<th>MI</th>
<th>ML</th>
<th>Prop</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Est</td>
<td>n=200</td>
<td>2.3853</td>
<td>2.4374</td>
<td>2.2538</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>std</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.1116</td>
<td>0.1315</td>
<td>0.0990</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Est</td>
<td>time</td>
<td>8.2119</td>
<td>7.9560</td>
<td>9.2176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>std</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.5891</td>
<td>0.6776</td>
<td>0.5192</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>std</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.4032</td>
<td>0.8326</td>
<td>0.4008</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
General Conclusion

This dissertation proposed a class of semiparametric estimators, which is consistent when missingness mechanism is either ignorable or nonignorable. The proposed estimators are based on unconditional model, therefore, we have certain assumptions on covariates and associations among covariates. But they do not require full specification of the distributions, only the first few moments of covariates are necessary, and generally only the first and second moments, which makes the assumptions are easy to meet. This is a significant advantage over likelihood-based approaches.

When missingness mechanism is MAR, The proposed approaches does not require additional model assumptions for missingness mechanism, only use available cases to obtain consistent estimators. This is a significant advantage over weighted and multiple imputation methods.

The results of the simulation study suggest that the proposed approaches have negligible bias either under MAR or nonignorable missingness. The simulation results also indicate that the bias of the estimators from the proposed approach is comparable to the imputation, weighted method, and maximum likelihood approach in most of the situations. The variances of the proposed estimators are comparable to those of the weighted and imputation approaches for missing covariates or missing both. Under missing response situation, the first propose approach has larger variances than the weighted GEE and multiple imputation. But the second propose approach has similar or smaller variances than the weighted GEE and multiple imputation when missingness is correctly specified.

The proposed approach can easily handle nonignorable missingness. But weighted method cannot be extended to nonignorable missingness easily, while the multiple imputation has to use Bayesian imputation approach.

Furthermore, the proposed method can easily be applied to arbitrary missing patterns. The weighted method cannot be easily extended to arbitrary missing patterns. Sequential imputation approach (Paik, 1997) could be extended to arbitrary missing patterns, but it
does perform as well as the proposed approach based on the simulation results.

Although currently we have no extensive simulation study results available, we con-
jecture that the proposed method will perform well for other types of data sets, it will be
very interesting to study the results of applying the approach to other types of data sets
(such as count data). If the future research could overcome the numerical difficulties in
solving unconditional equations, we could apply these approach more easily and widely.

Since we have numerical difficulties in solving unconditional equations and lots of
nusiance parameters sometime, we are considering using conditional model or partial con-
ditional model to handle missing values. We are developing methodology based on con-
ditional model, which has similar idea to the approach proposed by Lipsitz et al. (2000),
the approach based on conditional model could reduce the number of parameters. We
think partial conditional model is another way to handle missing values. The partial con-
ditional model we mentioned here means we treat fully observed covariates not as random
variables but treat covariates with missing values as random variables. By this way, we
could reduce the number of parameters and make the equations more easily to solve.
Bibliography

APPENDIX
Proofs of the Theorems

Proofs in Chapter 2

Proof of Lemma 2.1: We write

\[ E_{\psi}(g(U, \psi)\mid R = r, U_r = u) = \sum_u g(U; \psi)P_{\psi}(U = u \mid R = r, U_r = u) \]
\[ = \sum_u g(U; \psi) \frac{P_{\psi}(U = u, R = r, U_r = u)}{P_r(R = r, U_r = u)} \]
\[ = \sum_u g(U; \psi) \frac{P_{\psi}(R = r \mid U = u, U_r = u)P_{\psi}(U = u, U_r = u)}{P_r(R = r \mid U_r = u)P_{\psi}(U_r = u)}. \]

Under the MAR assumption, we have

\[ P_{\psi}(R = r \mid U = u, U_r = u) = P_{\psi}(R = r \mid U_r = u). \]

Therefore,

\[ \sum_u g(U; \psi) \frac{P_{\psi}(R = r \mid U = u, U_r = u)P_{\psi}(U = u, U_r = u)}{P_r(R = r \mid U_r = u)P_{\psi}(U_r = u)} \]
\[ = \sum_u g(U; \psi) \frac{P_{\psi}(U = u, U_r = u)}{P_{\psi}(U_r = u)} \]
\[ = \sum_u g(U; \psi)P_{\psi}(U = u \mid U_r = u). \]

Proof of Lemma 2.2: The estimating function \( g(U, \psi) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} D'V^{-1}(U_i - \mu_i) \), where \( D = \partial \mu / \partial \psi \).

\[ \sum_r E_{\psi}(g(U, \psi)\mid R_r, U_r = u = \sum_r E_{\psi}(g(U, \psi)\mid U_r = u. \]

We write \( U_i \) as two parts

\[ U_i = \begin{pmatrix} U_{i_o} \\ U_{i_m} \end{pmatrix}. \]
Therefore, the covariance matrix \( V_i \) can be partitioned as

\[
V_i = \begin{pmatrix}
V_i^O & V_i^{mo} \\
V_i^{mo} & V_i^m
\end{pmatrix}.
\]

Using the conditional expectation. We have

\[
E(U_i|U_i^o) = E\left( \begin{pmatrix} U_i^o \\ U_i^m \end{pmatrix} | U_i^o \right) = \begin{pmatrix}
E(U_i^o|U_i^o) \\
E(U_i^m|U_i^o)
\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} U_i^o \\ E(U_i^m|U_i^o) \end{pmatrix}.
\]

If \( U_i \) has a multivariate normal distribution, we have

\[
\begin{pmatrix} U_i^o - \mu_i \\ E(U_i^m - \mu_i|U_i^o) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}
U_i^o - \mu_i \\
V_i^{mo}(V_i^o)^{-1}(U_i^o - \mu_i)
\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} I \\ V_i^{mo}(V_i^o)^{-1} \end{pmatrix}(U_i^o - \mu_i).
\] (4.1)

If \( U_i \) does not have a multivariate normal distribution, by Taylor expansion, equation (4.1) becomes

\[
\begin{pmatrix} U_i^o - \mu_i \\ E(U_i^m - \mu_i|U_i^o) \end{pmatrix} \approx \begin{pmatrix} I \\ V_i^{mo}(V_i^o)^{-1} \end{pmatrix}(U_i^o - \mu_i).
\] (4.2)

Let \( H = V_i^o - V_i^{om}(V_i^m)^{-1}(V_i^{mo})' \), \( D = V_i^m \), and \( B = V_i^{om} = (V_i^{mo})' \), we have

\[
V^{-1}\begin{pmatrix} U_i^o - \mu_i \\ E(U_i^m - \mu_i|U_i^o) \end{pmatrix}.
\] (4.3)

Since \( BD^{-1}B' = V_i^o - H \), we have

\[
H^{-1} - H^{-1}BD^{-1}B'(V_i^o)^{-1} = H^{-1} - H^{-1}(V_i^o - H)(V_i^o)^{-1} = (V_i^o)^{-1},
\]

and

\[
-D^{-1}B'H^{-1} + D^{-1}B'(V_i^o)^{-1} + D^{-1}B'H^{-1}BD^{-1}B'(V_i^o)^{-1} \\
= -D^{-1}B'H^{-1} + D^{-1}B'(V_i^o)^{-1} + D^{-1}B'H^{-1}(V_i^o - H)(V_i^o)^{-1} = 0.
\]
Therefore, (4.3) becomes

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
H^{-1} & -H^{-1}BD^{-1} \\
-D^{-1}B'H^{-1} & D^{-1} + D^{-1}B'H^{-1}BD^{-1}
\end{pmatrix}
\begin{pmatrix}
I \\
V_i^{mo}(V_i^o)^{-1}
\end{pmatrix}
\begin{pmatrix}
(U_i^o - \mu_i) \\
(U_i^o - \mu_i)
\end{pmatrix}
\]

\[
= \begin{pmatrix}
H^{-1} - H^{-1}BD^{-1}V_i^{mo}(V_i^o)^{-1} \\
-D^{-1}B'H^{-1} + D^{-1} + D^{-1}B'H^{-1}BD^{-1}V_i^{mo}(V_i^o)^{-1}
\end{pmatrix}
\begin{pmatrix}
(U_i^o - \mu_i) \\
(U_i^o - \mu_i)
\end{pmatrix}
\]

For a specific pattern \( s \), we write \( D \) as

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
D_o \\
D_m
\end{pmatrix}
\]

the quasi-score is

\[
E_{\psi}\{g(U, \psi) | R_r, U_r = u\} = \sum_{i=1}^{n_r} D'(V_i^o)^{-1}(U_i^o - \mu_i^o) = \sum_{i=1}^{n_r} (D_o')^t(V_i^o)^{-1}(U_i^o - \mu_i^o) = 0.
\]

Therefore,

\[
\sum_r E_{\psi}\{g(U, \psi) | R_r, U_r = u\} = \sum_r \sum_{i=1}^{n_r} (D_o')^t(V_i^o)^{-1}(U_i^o - \mu_i^o) = 0.
\]

**Proof of consistency 2.1:** We assume that all subjects are i.i.d. The log quasilikelihood for the \( i^{th} \) subject is \( V^{-1}(u_i - \mu) \), so that the log likelihood for all subjects is \( \sum_{i=1}^{N} V^{-1}(u_i - \mu) \). The estimators \( \hat{\psi} \) maximize the log quasilikelihood,

\[
Q_n(\psi) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} V^{-1}(u_i - \mu).
\]

The log quasilikelihood function \( Q_n(\psi) \) depends on data. Define

\[
Q(\psi) = E_{\psi}V^{-1}(u_i - \mu).
\]

where \( E_{\psi} \) is the expectation with respect to the true parameter \( \psi_0 \). By law of large numbers, for any \( \psi \),

\[
Q_n(\psi) \rightarrow E_{\psi_0}V^{-1}(u_i - \mu) = Q(\psi).
\]

Note that \( Q(\psi) \) only depends on \( \psi \).
**Lemma** For any $Q(\psi), Q(\psi_0)$ unless

$$P[Q(\psi) = Q(\psi_0)] = 1.$$ 

Proof: Let us consider the difference

$$Q(\psi) - Q(\psi_0) = E_{\psi_0}[V^{-1}(u_i - \mu_\psi) - V^{-1}(u_i - \mu_{\psi_0})]$$
$$\leq E_{\psi_0}[\frac{F(u_i, \psi)}{F(u_i, \psi_0)} - 1] = 0,$$

where $F(u_i, \psi)$ and $F(u_i, \psi_0)$ are quasilikelihood functions.

We know $\psi$ maximizes $Q_n(\psi)$, and $\psi_0$ maximizes $Q(\psi)$ and for all $\psi$, we have $Q_n(\psi) \to Q(\psi)$ by LLN. Therefore, since two functions $Q_n(\psi)$ and $Q(\psi)$ are getting closer, the points of maximum should also get closer which exactly means the constistency.

**Proof of Theorem 2.1:** We assume that all subjects are i.i.d. The log quasilikelihood for the $i^{th}$ subject is $V^{-1}(u_i - \mu)$, so that the log likelihood for all subjects is $\sum_{i=1}^{N} V^{-1}(u_i - \mu)$.

**Proof of constistency:** We assume that all subjects are i.i.d. The log quasilikelihood for the $i^{th}$ subject is $V^{-1}(u_i - \mu)$, so that the log likelihood for all subjects is $\sum_{i=1}^{N} V^{-1}(u_i - \mu)$. The estimators $\hat{\psi}$ maximize the log quasilikelihood,

$$Q_n(\psi) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} V^{-1}(u_i - \mu).$$

The log quasilikelihood function $Q_n(\psi)$ depends on data. Define

$$Q(\psi) = E_\psi V^{-1}(u_i - \mu),$$

where $E_\psi$ is the expectation with respect to the true parameter $\psi_0$. By law of large numbers, for any $\psi$,

$$Q_n(\psi) \to E_{\psi_0} V^{-1}(u_i - \mu) = Q(\psi).$$

Note that $Q(\psi)$ only depends on $\psi$. 
Lemma  For any $Q(\psi), Q(\psi_0)Q(\psi_0)$ unless 

$$P[Q(\psi) = Q(\psi_0)] = 1.$$ 

Proof: Let us consider the difference

$$Q(\psi) - Q(\psi_0) = E_{\psi_0}[V^{-1}(u_i - \mu_\psi) - V^{-1}(u_i - \mu_{\psi_0})]$$

$$\leq E_{\psi_0}[F(u_i, \psi)/F(u_i, \psi_0) - 1] = 0,$$

where $F(u_i, \psi)$ and $F(u_i, \psi_0)$ are quasilikelihood functions.

We know $\psi$ maximizes $Q_n(\psi)$, and $\psi_0$ maximizes $Q(\psi)$ and for all $\psi$, we have $Q_n(\psi) \to Q(\psi)$ by LLN. Therefore, since two functions $Q_n(\psi)$ and $Q(\psi)$ are getting closer, the points of maximum should also get closer which exactly means the consistency.

The estimators $\hat{\psi}$ maximize the log quasilikelihood,

$$Q_n(\psi) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} V^{-1}(u_i - \mu).$$

We have

$$Q'_n(\psi) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} D'V^{-1}(u_i - \mu) = 0,$$

where $D = \partial \mu / \partial \psi$.

Use first-order Taylor expansion, we have

$$f(a) = f(a_0) + \nabla f^T(a_1)(a - a_0),$$  \hspace{1cm} (4.4)$$

with $f(\psi) = Q'_n(\psi)$, and $a_0 = \psi_0$, where $\psi_0$ is the true parameter. Let $Q''_n(\psi) = \partial Q'/\partial \psi$, by (4.4) we can write

$$0 = Q'_n(\hat{\psi}) = Q'_n(\psi_0) + Q''_n(\psi_1)(\hat{\psi} - \psi_0) \text{ for } \psi_1 \in [\hat{\psi}, \psi_0],$$

and therefore

$$(\hat{\psi} - \psi_0) = (Q''_n(\psi_1))^{-1}(Q'_n(\hat{\psi}) - Q'_n(\psi_0)) = -(Q''_n(\psi_1))^{-1}Q'_n(\psi_0).$$  \hspace{1cm} (4.5)$$
The mean of \(-Q'_n(\psi_0)\) is

\[
E(Q'_n(\psi_0)) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} D'V^{-1}(E(u_i) - \mu) = 0,
\]

and the variance of \(-Q'_n(\psi_0)\) is

\[
\text{var}[Q'_n(\psi_0)] = \frac{1}{N} D'V^{-1} \text{var}\{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (u_i - \mu)\} V^{-1}D
\]

By the central limit theorem, \(Q'_n(\psi_0)\) converges to \(N(0, D'V^{-1}D)\) in distribution. By

the weak law of large numbers, \(Q''_n(\psi_1)\) converges to the mean of \(Q''_n(\psi_1)\)

\[
E(Q''_n(\psi_1)) = E\left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \partial D'/\partial \psi V^{-1}(u_i - \mu) - D'V^{-1}D\right]
\]

\[
= -D'V^{-1}D.
\]

Therefore, we have

\[
-Q''_n(\psi_1)^{-1}Q'_n(\psi_0) \rightarrow^d N(0, (D'V^{-1}D)^{-1}).
\]

Therefore, we have

\[
\sqrt{N}(\hat{\psi} - \psi_0) = \sqrt{N}(-Q''_n(\psi_1)^{-1}Q'_n(\psi_0)) \rightarrow^d N(0, (D'V^{-1}D)^{-1}).
\]

**Proof of Theorem 2.2:** We assume that all subjects are i.i.d. The log quasilikelihood for \(I^{th}\) subject in \(s\) pattern is \(V_r^{-1}(u_{ri} - \mu_r)\), so that the log likelihood for all subjects is

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{N} V^{-1}(u_i - \mu) = \sum_{r} \sum_{i=1}^{n_r} V_r^{-1}(u_{ri} - \mu_r).
\]

The estimator \(\hat{\psi}\) from the proposed approach maximizes the log likelihood,

\[
Q_n(\psi) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{r} \sum_{i=1}^{n_r} V_r^{-1}(u_{ri} - \mu_r).
\]

By Lemma 2.2, we have

\[
Q'_n(\psi) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{r} \sum_{i=1}^{n_r} D'_rV_r^{-1}(u_{ri} - \mu_r) = 0,
\]
where $D_r = \partial \mu_r / \partial \psi$.

By first-order Taylor expansion,

$$f(a) = f(a_0) + \nabla f^T (a_1)(a - a_0),$$

with $f(\psi) = Q'_n(\psi)$, $a_0 = \psi_0$, where $\psi_0$ is the true parameter. Let $Q''_n(\psi) = \partial Q' / \partial \psi$, by (4.6) we can write

$$0 = Q'_n(\hat{\psi}) = Q'_n(\psi_0) + Q''_n(\psi_1)(\hat{\psi} - \psi_0) \text{ for } \psi_1 \in [\hat{\psi}, \psi_0],$$

and therefore

$$(\hat{\psi} - \psi_0) = (Q''_n(\psi_1))^{-1}(Q'_n(\hat{\psi}) - Q'_n(\psi_0)) = -(Q''_n(\psi_1))^{-1}Q'_n(\psi_0). \quad (4.7)$$

The mean of $-Q'_n(\psi_0)$ is

$$E(Q'_n(\psi_0)) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_r \sum_{i=1}^{n_r} D'_r V_{r}^{-1}(E(u_{r_i}) - \mu_r) = 0,$$

and the variance of $-Q'_n(\psi_0)$ is

$$\text{var}[Q'_n(\psi_0)] = \frac{1}{N} D'_r V_{r}^{-1} \text{var} \left[ \sum_r \sum_{i=1}^{n_r} (u_{r_i} - \mu_r) V_{r}^{-1} D_r \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} D'_r V_{r}^{-1} \sum_r \sum_{i=1}^{n_r} (\text{var}(u_{r_i} - \mu_r)) V_{r}^{-1} D_r = \sum_r \sum_{i=1}^{n_r} D'_r V_{r}^{-1} D_r.$$

By the central limit theorem, the numerator in (4.7) converges to $N(0, \sum_r \sum_{i=1}^{n_r} D'_r V_{r}^{-1} D_r)$ in distribution. By the weak law of large numbers, the denominator in (4.7) converges to the mean of $Q''_n(\psi_1)$

$$E(Q''_n(\psi_1)) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_r \sum_{i=1}^{n_r} D'_r V_{r}^{-1} D_r \partial D'_r / \partial \psi V_{r}^{-1} (u_{r_i} - \mu_r) - \sum_r \sum_{i=1}^{n_r} D'_r V_{r}^{-1} D_r$$

$$= - \sum_r \sum_{i=1}^{n_r} D'_r V_{r}^{-1} D_r.$$

Therefore, we have

$$-Q''_n(\psi_1)^{-1}Q'_n(\psi_0) \rightarrow d N(0, \left( \sum_r \sum_{i=1}^{n_r} D'_r V_{r}^{-1} D_r \right)^{-1}).$$

Therefore, we have

$$\sqrt{N}(\hat{\psi} - \psi_0) = \sqrt{N}(-Q''_n(\psi_1)^{-1}Q'_n(\psi_0)) \rightarrow d N(0, \left( \sum_r \sum_{i=1}^{n_r} D'_r V_{r}^{-1} D_r \right)^{-1}).$$
Proofs in Chapter 3

Proof of Theorem 3.1: We assume that all subjects are i.i.d. The log quasilikelihood for the $i^{th}$ subject is $V^{-1}(w_i - \mu)$, so that the log likelihood for all subjects is $\sum_{i=1}^{N} V^{-1}(w_i - \mu)$. The estimators $\hat{\psi}$ maximize the log quasilikelihood,

$$Q_n(\psi) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} V^{-1}(w_i - \mu).$$

We have

$$Q'_n(\psi) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} D'V^{-1}(w_i - \mu) = 0,$$

where $D = \partial \mu / \partial \psi$.

Use first-order Taylor expansion, we have

$$f(a) = f(a_0) + \nabla f^T (a - a_0),$$

with $f(\psi) = Q'_n(\psi)$, and $a_0 = \psi_0$, where $\psi_0$ is the true parameter. Let $Q''_n(\psi) = \partial Q' / \partial \psi$, by (4.8) we can write

$$0 = Q'_n(\psi) = Q'_n(\psi_0) + Q''_n(\psi_1)(\hat{\psi} - \psi_0) \quad \text{for} \quad \psi_1 \in [\hat{\psi}, \psi_0],$$

and therefore

$$(\hat{\psi} - \psi_0) = (Q''_n(\psi_1))^{-1}(Q'_n(\psi) - Q'_n(\psi_0)) = -(Q''_n(\psi_1))^{-1}Q'_n(\psi_0).$$

The mean of $-Q'_n(\psi_0)$ is

$$E(Q'_n(\psi_0)) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} D'V^{-1}(E(w_i) - \mu) = 0,$$

and the variance of $-Q'_n(\psi_0)$ is

$$\text{var}[Q'_n(\psi_0)] = \frac{1}{N} D'V^{-1} \text{var}\{ \sum_{i=1}^{N} (w_i - \mu) \} V^{-1} D$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} D'V^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \{ \text{var}(w_i - \mu) \} V^{-1} D' = D'V^{-1} D.$$
By the central limit theorem, $Q'_n(\psi_0)$ converges to $N(0, D'V^{-1}D)$ in distribution. By the weak law of large numbers, $Q''_n(\psi_1)$ converges to the mean of $Q''_n(\psi_1)$

$$E(Q''_n(\psi_1)) = E\left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{\partial D'/\partial \psi V^{-1}}{}(w_i - \mu) - D'V^{-1}D\right]$$

$$= -D'V^{-1}D.$$

Therefore, we have

$$-(Q''_n(\psi_1))^{-1}Q'_n(\psi_0) \rightarrow^d N(0, (D'V^{-1}D)^{-1})).$$

Therefore, we have

$$\sqrt{N}(\hat{\psi} - \psi_0) = \sqrt{N}(-(Q''_n(\psi_1))^{-1}Q'_n(\psi_0)) \rightarrow^d N(0, (D'V^{-1}D)^{-1})).$$
Table 16: TLI data

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