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Doubly robust estimation in generalized linear models

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Abstract. A common aim of epidemiological research is to assess the association between a particular exposure and a particular outcome, controlling for a set of additional covariates. This is often done by using a regression model for the outcome, conditional on exposure and covariates. A commonly used class of models is the generalized linear models. The model parameters are typically estimated through maximum likelihood. If the model is correct, then the maximum likelihood estimator is consistent but may otherwise be inconsistent. Recently, a new class of estimators known as doubly robust estimators has been proposed. These estimators use two regression models, one for the outcome and one for the exposure, and are consistent if either model is correct, not necessarily both. Thus doubly robust estimators give the analyst two chances instead of only one to make valid inference. In this article, we describe a new Stata command, `drglm`, that implements the most common doubly robust estimators for generalized linear models.

Keywords: st0290, drglm, doubly robust, generalized linear model
1 Introduction

A common aim of epidemiological research is to assess the association between a particular exposure and a particular outcome, controlling for a set of additional covariates. This is often done by fitting a regression model for the outcome, conditional on exposure and covariates. A commonly used class of models is the generalized linear models (GLMs). The model parameters are typically estimated through maximum likelihood (ML). If the model is correct, then the ML estimator is consistent but may otherwise be inconsistent.

When the mechanisms that bring about the outcome are well understood, the outcome is a natural target for regression modeling. Sometimes, the researcher may have a better understanding of the exposure mechanisms, in which case the exposure may be a more natural target. For example, this could be the case when the exposure is a treatment or a medical drug, which are typically assigned to patients according to reasonably well-defined protocols. Robins, Mark, and Newey (1992) showed that exposure regression models, like outcome regression models, can be used to estimate the conditional exposure–outcome association, given covariates.

Often the researcher may not have a strong preference for either modeling strategy, in which case a doubly robust (DR) estimator is attractive. A DR estimator requires one model for the outcome and one model for the exposure but is consistent if either model is correct, not necessarily both. Thus a DR estimator gives the researcher two chances instead of only one to make valid inference. Over the last decade, DR estimators have been developed for various parameters (see Bang and Robins [2005] and the references therein).

In this article, we describe a new Stata command, drglm, that implements DR estimators for GLMs. The article is organized as follows: In section 2, we establish notation and definitions and define the target estimand. In section 3, we review estimators that use outcome regression models, estimators that use exposure regression models, and DR estimators. The DR estimators that we review in section 3 are special cases of more general estimators developed in Robins (2000) and Tchetgen Tchetgen and Robins (2010). In section 4, we present the drglm command with syntax and options. In section 5, we carry out a simulation study to investigate the performance of the DR estimators, and in section 6, we describe a practical example.

2 Target parameter

Let $A$ and $Y$ denote the exposure and outcome of interest, respectively. Let $L$ denote a vector of covariates that we wish to control for. We use $p(\cdot)$ generically for both population probabilities and densities, and we assume that data consist of $n$ independent and identically distributed observations from $p(Y, A, L)$. We use $E(\cdot)$ for population means and $\bar{E}(\cdot)$ for sample means; that is, $E(R) = \int rp(r)dr$, and $\bar{E}(R) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} R_i$ for any random variable $R$. 
A standard way to assess the conditional association between $A$ and $Y$, given $L$, is to use a GLM on the form

$$g\{E(Y|A, L; \beta, \gamma)\} = \beta A + \gamma^T L$$  \hspace{1cm} (1)$$

where $\beta$ quantifies the conditional $A$-$Y$ association, given $L$, and $g(\cdot)$ is a suitable link function. Typical link functions are the identity link (for continuous $Y$), the log link (for “counts”), and the logit link (for binary $Y$), for which $\beta$ is a mean difference, a log risk-ratio, and a log odds-ratio, respectively. Typically, a constant term (“intercept”) is included in the model. This can be achieved without changing notation by defining the first component of $L$ to be the constant 1. The model in (1) has no interaction term between $A$ and $L$; thus it assumes a constant strength of $A$-$Y$ association on the scale defined by $g(\cdot)$ across levels of $L$. To allow for interactions between $A$ and $L$ and between separate components of $L$, we consider GLMs on the form

$$g\{E(Y|A, L; \beta, \gamma)\} = \beta^T AX + \gamma^T V$$  \hspace{1cm} (2)$$

where $X$ is a $(p \times 1)$-dimensional function of $L$, and $V$ is a $(q \times 1)$-dimensional function of $L$. For instance, if $L = (L_1, L_2)$, $X = (1, L_1)$, and $V = (1, L_1, L_2, L_1 L_2)$, then (2) reduces to

$$g\{E(Y|A, L; \beta, \gamma)\} = \beta_0 A + \beta_1 AL_1 + \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 L_1 + \gamma_2 L_2 + \gamma_12 L_1 L_2$$

The model in (2) consists of two parts. The part

$$m(A, L; \beta) = g\{E(Y|A, L)\} - g\{E(Y|A = 0, L)\} = \beta^T AX$$  \hspace{1cm} (3)$$

quantifies the conditional $A$-$Y$ association, given $L$, and is typically of main interest; we refer to it as the “main model”. The parameter $\beta$ in the main model (3) is our target parameter. The part

$$g\{E(Y|A = 0, L; \gamma)\} = \gamma^T V$$  \hspace{1cm} (4)$$

is primarily included to control for $L$; we refer to it as the “outcome nuisance model”.

3 Estimators

3.1 Estimators that use the nuisance model for the outcome

We first consider an estimator of $\beta$ that uses the outcome nuisance model for $E(Y|A = 0, L)$ in (4). This estimator is obtained by solving the estimating equation

$$\bar{E} \left[ \left( \begin{array}{c} AX \\ V \end{array} \right) \{Y - E(Y|A, L; \beta, \gamma)\} \right] = 0$$  \hspace{1cm} (5)$$
Doubly robust estimators

for \((\beta^T, \gamma^T)^T\). We use \(\hat{\beta}_{OBE}\) to denote the first \(p\) elements of the solution to (5), where OBE stands for outcome-based estimation. Using the law of iterated expectations, we have that

\[
E \left[ \left( \frac{AX}{V} \right) \{Y - E(Y|A, L; \beta, \gamma)\} \right]
\]

which equals 0, so the estimating equation in (5) is unbiased when both (3) and (4) are correct. It follows from standard theory (Newey and McFadden 1994) that \(\hat{\beta}_{OBE}\) is consistent and asymptotically normal (CAN) when both (3) and (4) are correct.

In the standard use of GLMs, \(Y\) is assumed to follow a distribution in the exponential family, conditional on \(A\) and \(L\). If \(g(\cdot)\) is the canonical link function (for example, the identity link in the normal distribution, the log link in the Poisson distribution, and the logit link in the Bernoulli distribution), then \(\hat{\beta}_{OBE}\) is an ML estimator. \(\hat{\beta}_{OBE}\) is the default estimator produced by the \texttt{glm} command. We emphasize that \(\hat{\beta}_{OBE}\) is CAN even when it is not an ML estimator. The default standard errors produced by the \texttt{glm} command are consistent under the distributional assumption, but are generally inconsistent when the distributional assumption is incorrect. Consistent standard errors that do not rely on any distributional assumptions can be obtained through the "sandwich" formula by specifying the \texttt{vce(robust)} option in the \texttt{glm} command.

3.2 Estimators that use the nuisance model for the exposure

We next consider estimators of \(\beta\) that use the nuisance model for the exposure. We first give a heuristic argument for the case when \(g(\cdot)\) is the identity link. Suppose that the true value of \(\beta\) was known. We could then construct residuals on the form \(Y - m(A, L; \beta)\). These residuals unbiasedly predict \(E(Y|A = 0, L)\). Conditionally on \(L\), \(E(Y|A = 0, L)\) is a constant and therefore uncorrelated with \(A\). This argument suggests the following estimation strategy: find the value of \(\beta\) for which the residual \(Y - m(A, L; \beta)\) becomes conditionally uncorrelated with \(A\), given \(L\), in the sample. In terms of an estimating equation, we find the value of \(\beta\) that solves

\[
\tilde{E} \left[ X \{A - E(A|L)\} \{Y - m(A, L; \beta)\} \right] = 0 \tag{6}
\]

Equation (6) involves \(E(A|L)\), which typically is unknown. Therefore, we predict \(E(A|L)\) by using the exposure nuisance model in the form

\[
h\{E(A|L; \alpha)\} = \alpha^T Z \tag{7}
\]
where $h(\cdot)$ is a smooth link function not necessarily equal to $g(\cdot)$ used in the main model (3) and in the outcome model (4). $Z$ is an $(r \times 1)$-dimensional function of $L$, with the first element typically being the constant 1. We will allow for the identity link, the log link, and the logit link in the exposure nuisance (7). We fit the model in (7) by solving the unbiased estimating equation for $\alpha$,

$$\tilde{E}\left[Z\{A - E(A|L; \alpha)\}\right] = 0$$

and we replace the true value of $E(A|L)$ in (6) with the model-based prediction.

Combining these steps into one estimating equation for $(\beta^T, \alpha^T)^T$ gives

$$\tilde{E}\left[X\{A - E(A|L; \alpha)\}\{Y - m(A, L; \beta)\}\right] = 0$$

We use $\hat{\beta}_{EBE}$ to denote the first $p$ elements of the solution to (8), where EBE stands for exposure-based estimation. Using the law of iterated expectations, we have that

$$E\left[X\{A - E(A|L; \alpha)\}\{Y - m(A, L; \beta)\}\right] = E\left[E\{X\{A - E(A|L; \alpha)\}|L\}E(Y|A=0, L)\right]$$

if (3) with the identity link is correct. If (7) is also correct, then the right-hand side of (9) equals 0, so the estimating equation in (8) is unbiased when both (3) with the identity link and (7) are correct. Thus $\hat{\beta}_{EBE}$ is CAN when both (3) with the identity link and (7) are correct.

A minor modification is required when $g(\cdot)$ in (3) is the log link. For this link function, we replace $Y - m(A, L; \beta)$ on the first $p$ rows in (8) with $Y e^{-m(A, L; \beta)}$. Using the law of iterated expectations, we can easily show that this modified estimating equation is unbiased when both (3) with the log link and (7) are correct.

We now consider the case when $g(\cdot)$ is the logit link. For this link, we assume that both $A$ and $Y$ are binary (0/1). We use the nuisance model in the form

$$\text{logit}\{E(A|Y=0, L; \delta)\} = \delta^T W$$

where $W$ is an $(s \times 1)$-dimensional function of $L$, with the first element typically being the constant 1. Because of the symmetry of the odds ratio, (3) with the logit link and (10) together define the joint model

$$\text{logit}\{E(A|Y, L; \beta, \delta)\} = \beta^T Y X + \delta^T W$$

Under (3) with the logit link and (10), an ML estimator of $(\beta^T, \delta^T)^T$ is obtained by solving the estimating equation

$$\tilde{E}\left[\begin{pmatrix} Y X \\ W \end{pmatrix}\{A - E(A|Y, L; \beta, \delta)\}\right] = 0$$

Using the law of iterated expectations, we can show that the estimating equation in (11) is unbiased when both (3) with the logit link and (10) are correct. For simplicity, we use $\hat{\beta}_{EBE}$ to denote the first $p$ elements of the solution to either (8) or (11).
### 3.3 DR estimators

We finally consider DR estimators of \( \beta \). We first consider the case when \( g(\cdot) \) is the identity link. For this case, a DR estimator of \( \beta \) can be obtained by “combining” the estimating equations (5) and (8) into

\[
E \left[ \begin{bmatrix} X \{ A - E(A|L; \alpha) \} \{ Y - E(Y|A, L; \beta, \gamma) \} \\ AX/V \{ Y - E(Y|A, L; \beta^T, \gamma) \} \\ YX/W \{ A - E(A|Y, L; \beta^T, \delta) \} \end{bmatrix} \right] = 0
\]  

(12)

and solving for \((\beta^T, \beta^T, \gamma^T, \alpha^T)^T\). We use \( \hat{\beta}_{\text{DR}} \) to denote the first \( p \) elements of the solution to (12). It follows from a more general result in Robins (2000) that the estimating equation in (12) is unbiased if either (4) with the identity link or (7) is correct, together with the main model (3) with the identity link. Thus \( \hat{\beta}_{\text{DR}} \) is CAN if either of the nuisance models is correct, not necessarily both.

A minor modification is required when \( g(\cdot) \) is the log link. For this link function, we replace \( Y - E(Y|A, L; \beta, \gamma) = Y - m(A, L; \beta) - E(Y|A = 0, L; \gamma) \) on rows 1 through \( p \) in (12) with \( Ye^{-m(A,L;\beta)} - E(Y|A = 0, L; \gamma) \); and replace \( Y - E(Y|A, L; \beta^T, \gamma) = Y - m(A,L;\beta^T) - E(Y|A = 0, L; \gamma) \) on rows \( p + q + 1 \) through \( 2p + q + 1 \) in (12) with \( Ye^{-m(A,L;\beta^T)} - E(Y|A = 0, L; \gamma) \). Following Robins (2000), we can show that this modified estimating equation system is unbiased if either (4) with the log link or (7) is correct, together with the main model (3) with the log link.

We now consider the case when \( g(\cdot) \) is the logit link. For this case, a DR estimator of \( \beta \) can be obtained by solving the estimating equation

\[
E \left[ \begin{bmatrix} X \{ A - E^*(A|L; \beta, \gamma, \delta) \} \{ Y - E(Y|A, L; \beta, \gamma) \} \\ AX/V \{ Y - E(Y|A, L; \beta^T, \gamma) \} \\ YX/W \{ A - E(A|Y, L; \beta^T, \delta) \} \end{bmatrix} \right] = 0
\]  

(13)

for \((\beta^T, \beta^T, \gamma^T, \beta^T, \delta^T)^T\), where

\[
E^*(A|L; \beta, \gamma, \delta) = \left[ 1 + \frac{\{1 - E(A|Y = 0, L; \delta)\}E(Y|A = 0, L; \gamma)}{E(A|Y = 0, L; \delta)E(Y|A = 1, L; \beta, \gamma)} \right]^{-1}
\]

For simplicity, we use \( \hat{\beta}_{\text{DR}} \) to denote the first \( p \) elements of the solution to either (12) or (13). It follows from a more general result in Tchetgen Tchetgen and Robins (2010) that the estimating equation in (13) is unbiased if either (4) with the logit link or (10) is correct, together with the main model (3) with the log link.\(^1\)

---

1. Here we define \((\beta^T, \gamma^T, \alpha^T)^T\) as the asymptotic solution to the last \( p + q + r \) rows in (12) whether (4) and (7) are misspecified or not. It follows that the last \( p + q + r \) rows in (12) are unbiased by definition.

2. Here we define \((\beta^T, \gamma^T, \beta^T, \delta^T)^T\) as the asymptotic solution to the last \( p + q + p + s \) rows in (13) whether (4) and (10) are misspecified or not. It follows that the last \( p + q + p + s \) rows in (13) are unbiased by definition.
3.4 Standard errors

All estimators of $\beta$ that we have considered in section 3 are generalized method of moments estimators, also referred to as Z-estimators (van der Vaart 1998). Specifically, they are the first $p$ elements of the solution to an unbiased estimating equation on the form $E\{U(\theta)\} = 0$, where $\theta = (\beta^T, \eta^T)^T$, and $\eta$ is a nuisance parameter. It follows from general results on generalized method of moments estimators (Newey and McFadden 1994) that $n^{1/2}(\hat{\theta} - \theta)$ is asymptotically normal with mean 0 and variance-covariance matrix

$$
\Sigma = \left[ E \left\{ \frac{\partial U(\theta)}{\partial \theta^T} \right\} \right]^{-1} \text{Var}\{U(\theta)\} \left[ E \left\{ \frac{\partial U(\theta)}{\partial \theta^T} \right\} \right]^{-1}^T
$$

(14)

A consistent estimator of $\Sigma$ is obtained by replacing $\theta$ in (14) with the estimator $\hat{\theta}$ and the population moments in (14) with their sample counterparts.

3.5 A note on the possible combinations of link functions

The DR estimators that we have considered in section 3.3 only apply to main models on the parametric form in (3) and to the combination of link functions listed in table 1. In principle, it would be desirable to implement DR estimators that do not suffer from this limitation. In practice, though, such DR estimators typically require stronger modeling assumptions, or they may not even exist. For instance, when the outcome is binary and the exposure is continuous, it would be desirable to have a DR estimator that uses a logit link for the outcome and an identity link for the exposure. However, such an estimator requires not only a mean model for the exposure but also a fully specified model for the exposure distribution (Tchetgen Tchetgen and Robins 2010). This makes the estimator less robust and more computationally intensive. For binary outcomes and exposures, it would also be desirable to implement a DR estimator that uses probit links. However, to the best of our knowledge, no such DR estimator exists.

Table 1. Possible combinations of link functions

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4 The `drglm` command

`drglm` provides DR estimates for the main model (3) in GLMs.

4.1 Syntax

```
drglm depvar expvar [if] [in] [, main(varlist) outcome(varlist)
   exposure(varlist) olink(linkname) elink(linkname) level(#) obe ebe
   eform vce(vcetype)]
```

The `expvar` (exposure, treatment, predictor, or covariate) must be numerical. After `drglm` estimation, one can use postestimation commands such as `test`, `testparm`, `lincom`, and `predictnl`.

Options

`main(varlist)` determines which variables are used in the main model part of the estimator. The constant 1 is always added to `main(varlist)`. Then each variable in `main(varlist)` is multiplied by `expvar` and saved in the current dataset.

`outcome(varlist)` determines which variables are used in the outcome model part of the estimator. The constant 1 is always added to `outcome(varlist)`.

`exposure(varlist)` determines which variables are used in the exposure model part of the estimator. The constant 1 is always added to `exposure(varlist)`.

`olink(linkname)` specifies the link function of the outcome model (`identity`, `logit`, `log`). The default is `olink(identity)`. If `olink(logit)` is specified, `expvar` can take on only two values (either 0 or 1).

`elink(linkname)` specifies the link function of the exposure model (`identity`, `logit`, `log`). The default is `elink(identity)`.

`level(#)` specifies the confidence level, as a percentage, for confidence intervals. The default is `level(95)` or as set by `set level`.

`obe` specifies the outcome-based estimation.

`ebe` specifies the exposure-based estimation.

`eform` reports coefficient estimates as `exp(b)` rather than as `b`.

`vce(vcetype)` specifies the type of standard error reported. `vcetype` may be `robust`, `cluster clustvar`, `bootstrap`, or `jackknife`. The default is `vce(robust)`.
Saved results

drglm saves the following in e():

 Scalars
e(N) number of observations
e(rank) rank of e(V)

 Macros
e(cmd)     drglm
e(cmdline) command as typed model
e(depvar) name of dependent variable
e(elink) link function of the exposure
e(vcetype) title used to label Std. Err.
e(properties) b V e(estimator) type of estimator (dr, obe, or ebe)

 Matrices
e(b) coefficient vector
e(V) variance–covariance matrix of the estimators

 Functions
e(sample) marks estimation sample

5 Simulation study

To demonstrate the doubly robustness of the implemented estimators, we present the results from two simulation studies.

5.1 Simulation 1

We generated 1,000 samples of 500 observations each from the model

\[
\begin{align*}
L & = (L_1, L_2) \\
L_1 & \perp L_2 \\
L_1 & \sim N(0, 1) \\
L_2 & \sim N(0, 1) \\
A|L & \sim N\{E(A|L), 1\} \\
Y|A, L & \sim N\{E(Y|A, L), 1\} \\
E(A|L) & = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 L_1 + \alpha_2 L_2 + \alpha_{12} L_1 L_2 \\
E(Y|A = 0, L) & = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 L_1 + \gamma_2 L_2 + \gamma_{12} L_1 L_2 \\
m(A, L) & = E(Y|A, L) - E(Y|A = 0, L) \\
& = \beta_0 A + \beta_1 AL_1
\end{align*}
\]

with nuisance parameter \( \eta = (\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_{12}, \gamma_0, \gamma_1, \gamma_2, \gamma_{12}) = (0, 1, 1, -1.5, -1, -1, -1, 1.5) \) and target parameter \( \beta = (\beta_0, \beta_1) = (1.5, 1) \). For each sample, we calculated \( \hat{\beta}_{OBE}, \hat{\beta}_{EBE}, \) and \( \hat{\beta}_{DR} \) by using correct models for \( E(A|L), E(Y|A = 0, L) \), and \( m(A, L) \). We calculated the mean estimates (over the 1,000 samples), the mean theoretical standard errors (as obtained from the sandwich formula), the empirical standard errors, and the empirical coverage probabilities of the corresponding 95% Wald confi-
Doubly robust estimators

dence intervals (CIs). This procedure was repeated twice: we first used correct models for \(E(Y|A = 0, L)\) and \(m(A, L)\) but the incorrect model \(E(A|L) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 L_1 + \alpha_2 L_2\); we then used correct models for \(E(A|L)\) and \(m(A, L)\) but the incorrect model \(E(Y|A = 0, L) = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 L_1 + \gamma_2 L_2\). Table 2 shows the results. All three estimators work well under correct model specifications. The mean estimates are close to the true value of \(\beta\); the mean theoretical standard errors are close to the mean empirical standard errors; and the coverage probabilities of the CIs are very close to the nominal level of 95%. When the model for \(E(A|L)\) is misspecified, \(\hat{\beta}_{EBE}\) is biased. Similarly, when the model for \(E(Y|A = 0)\) is misspecified, \(\hat{\beta}_{OBE}\) is biased. \(\hat{\beta}_{DR}\) is unbiased even if either of these models is misspecified. The differences in empirical standard error for the three estimators are minor.

Table 2. Simulation results for the estimate of \(\beta_0\) and \(\beta_1\). I: Correct models for \(E(A|L)\), \(E(Y|A = 0, L)\), and \(E(Y|A, L) - E(Y|A = 0, L)\); II: Correct models for \(E(Y|A = 0, L)\) and \(E(Y|A, L) - E(Y|A = 0, L)\) and incorrect model for \(E(A|L)\); III: Correct models for \(E(A|L)\) and \(E(Y|A, L) - E(Y|A = 0, L)\) and incorrect model for \(E(Y|A = 0, L)\).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>(\hat{\beta}_{0,OBE})</th>
<th>(\hat{\beta}_{1,OBE})</th>
<th>(\hat{\beta}_{0,EBE})</th>
<th>(\hat{\beta}_{1,EBE})</th>
<th>(\hat{\beta}_{0,DR})</th>
<th>(\hat{\beta}_{1,DR})</th>
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<th>empirical standard error</th>
<th>coverage probability</th>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>(\hat{\beta}_{0,DR})</td>
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<td>0.05</td>
<td>94</td>
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<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.05</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.05</td>
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<td>0.02</td>
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<td>(\hat{\beta}_{0,OBE})</td>
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<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>(\hat{\beta}_{1,OBE})</td>
</tr>
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<td>III</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>(\hat{\beta}_{0,EBE})</td>
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<td>0.14</td>
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<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>96</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
5.2 Simulation 2

We generated 1,000 samples of 500 observations each from the model

\[
\begin{align*}
L &= (L_1, L_2) \\
L_1 &\perp L_2 \\
L_1 &\sim N(0, 1) \\
L_2 &\sim N(0, 1) \\
(A, Y) &= \in (0, 1) \\
\logit\left\{E(A|Y = 0, L)\right\} &= \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 L_1 + \alpha_2 L_2 + \alpha_{12} L_1 L_2 \\
\logit\left\{E(Y|A = 0, L)\right\} &= \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 L_1 + \gamma_2 L_2 + \gamma_{12} L_1 L_2 \\
m(A, L) &= \logit\left\{E(Y|A, L)\right\} - \logit\left\{E(Y|A = 0, L)\right\} \\
&= \beta_0 A + \beta_1 A L_1 \\
\end{align*}
\]

with nuisance parameter \(\eta = (\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_{12}, \gamma_0, \gamma_1, \gamma_2, \gamma_{12}) = (-1, 1, 1, -1.5, -1, -1, -1, 1.5)\) and target parameter \(\beta = (\beta_0, \beta_1) = (1.5, 1)\). For each sample, we calculated \(\hat{\beta}_{\text{OBE}}, \hat{\beta}_{\text{EBE}},\) and \(\hat{\beta}_{\text{DR}}\) by using correct models for both \(\logit\{E(A|Y = 0, L)\}\), \(\logit\{E(Y|A = 0, L)\}\), and \(m(A, L)\). We calculated the same summary measures as in simulation 1. This procedure was repeated twice: we first used correct models for \(\logit\{E(A|Y = 0, L)\}\) and \(m(A, L)\) but the incorrect model \(\logit\{E(A|Y = 0, L)\} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 L_1 + \alpha_2 L_2\); we then used correct models for \(\logit\{E(A|Y = 0, L)\}\) and \(m(A, L)\) but the incorrect model \(\logit\{E(Y|A = 0, L)\} = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 L_1 + \gamma_2 L_2\). Table 3 shows the results. All three estimators work well under correct model specifications. The mean estimates are close to the true value of \(\beta\); the mean theoretical standard errors are close to the mean empirical standard errors; and the coverage probabilities of the CIs are very close to the nominal level of 95%. When the model for \(E(A|L)\) is misspecified, \(\hat{\beta}_{\text{EBE}}\) is biased. Similarly, when the model for \(E(Y|A = 0)\) is misspecified, \(\hat{\beta}_{\text{OBE}}\) is biased. \(\hat{\beta}_{\text{DR}}\) is unbiased even if either of these models is misspecified. The differences in empirical standard error for the three estimators are minor.
Table 3. Simulation results for the estimate of $\beta_0$. I: Correct models for logit $\{E(A|Y = 0, L)\}$, logit $\{E(Y|A = 0, L)\}$, and logit $\{E(Y|A, L)\} - $logit $\{E(Y|A = 0, L)\}$; II: Correct models for logit $\{E(Y|A = 0, L)\}$ and logit $\{E(Y|A, L)\} - $logit $\{E(Y|A = 0, L)\}$ and incorrect model for logit $\{E(A|Y = 0, L)\}$; III: Correct models for logit $\{E(A|Y = 0, L)\}$ and logit $\{E(Y|A, L)\} - $logit $\{E(Y|A = 0, L)\}$ and incorrect model for logit $\{E(Y|A = 0, L)\}$.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>mean estimate</th>
<th>mean theoretical standard error</th>
<th>empirical standard error</th>
<th>coverage probability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>1.53</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.30</td>
<td>0.28</td>
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<td>0.27</td>
</tr>
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<td>$\hat{\beta}_{1,EBE}$</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>0.33</td>
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<tr>
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<td>$\hat{\beta}_{0,DR}$</td>
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<td>0.28</td>
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<tr>
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<td>$\hat{\beta}_{1,DR}$</td>
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<td>1.03</td>
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<td>$\hat{\beta}_{1,DR}$</td>
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<td>0.41</td>
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<td>III</td>
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<td>0.25</td>
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<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.25</td>
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<td>$\hat{\beta}_{0,EBE}$</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td>0.28</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>$\hat{\beta}_{1,EBE}$</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>0.33</td>
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<td>$\hat{\beta}_{0,DR}$</td>
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<td></td>
<td>$\hat{\beta}_{1,DR}$</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>0.37</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6 Example

Sjölander and Vansteelandt (2011) used data from the National Match Cohort (NMC) (Bellocco et al. 2010) to illustrate the use of DR estimators of attributable fractions. We use the same dataset to illustrate the use of the drglm command. The NMC was established in 1997, when 300,000 Swedes participated in a national fund-raising event organized by the Swedish Cancer Society. Every participant was asked to fill out a
questionnaire that included items on known or suspected risk factors for cardiovascular disease (CVD). Using the Swedish patient registry, the NMC followed participants until 2006, and each CVD event was recorded. Sjölander and Vansteelandt (2011) considered a binary outcome cvd, with cvd = 1 if a subject developed CVD before end of follow-up, and cvd = 0 otherwise. They considered a binary exposure bmi, with bmi = 0 for those subjects with baseline body mass index (BMI)—body weight in kilograms divided by height squared in meters—between 18.5 and 25 kg/m\(^2\) and bmi = 1 for subjects with baseline BMI outside this range. The range 18.5 < BMI < 25 kg/m\(^2\) is considered normal weight by the World Health Organization [World Health Organization 1995]. Based on self-reported history of physical activity, Sjölander and Vansteelandt (2011) constructed a continuous measure. They controlled for both age at baseline (age) and the constructed measure of physical activity (pa). The dataset nmc_sj of 41,295 individuals is a sample that can be requested from the authors; it can be used only to reproduce the current analysis.

A standard way to assess the association between bmi and cvd, controlling for age and pa, is to use the logistic regression model \( \logit \{ E(\text{cvd} | \text{bmi}, \text{age}, \text{pa}) \} = \beta_{\text{bmi}} + \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 \text{age} + \gamma_2 \text{pa} \). Fitting this model with the \texttt{logit} command gives the output below. The option \texttt{vce(robust)} is used to allow a comparison of the standard errors with the \texttt{drglm} command.

```plaintext
. use nmc_sj
    (National Match Cohort - SJ version)
. logit cvd bmi age pa, vce(robust) nolog
Logistic regression                      Number of obs = 41295
                                          Wald chi2(3) = 1345.18
                                          Prob > chi2 = 0.0000
Log pseudolikelihood = -27190.223     Pseudo R2 = 0.0253

                      Robust                  z    P>|z|    [95% Conf. Interval]
--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------
     cvd                  Coef.    Std. Err.    z     P>|z|       [95% Conf. Interval]
     bmi     .1464322    .044115    -3.32   0.001       .0599684     .2328959
     age     .0173548    .0006421   27.03   0.000       .0160964     .0186133
     pa    -.1348361    .0067156  -20.08   0.000       -.1479983    -.1216738
     _cons   -.7620794    .0434613  -17.53   0.000       -.8472621     -.6768968
```


Doubly robust estimators

If both the main model \( \logit\{E(\text{cvd}|\text{bmi, age, pa})\} - \logit\{E(\text{cvd}|\text{bmi} = 0, \text{age, pa})\} = \beta_{\text{bmi}} \) and the outcome nuisance model \( \logit\{E(\text{cvd}|\text{bmi} = 0, \text{age, pa})\} = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 \text{age} + \gamma_2 \text{pa} \) are correct, then the estimate of \( \beta \) is consistent. An identical analysis is performed by using the `drlm` command with the option `obe` (outcome-based estimator).

```stata
.drlm cvd bmi, outcome(age pa) olink(logit) elink(logit) obe
```

Generalized Linear Models
Number of obs = 41295
Estimator: Outcome Based
Link functions: Outcome[logit] Exposure[logit]

<table>
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<tr>
<th>cvd</th>
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<td>.044115</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>.0599684</td>
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</table>

As argued in section [3.2] a consistent estimate of \( \beta \) can also be obtained through the model \( \logit\{E(\text{bmi}|\text{cvd, age, pa})\} = \beta_{\text{cvd}} + \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \text{age} + \alpha_2 \text{pa} \). Fitting this model gives the output below.

```stata
.logit bmi cvd age pa, vce(robust) nolog
```

Logistic regression
Number of obs = 41295
Wald chi2(3) = 2618.37
Prob > chi2 = 0.0000
Log pseudolikelihood = -7552.0003 Pseudo R2 = 0.1837

<table>
<thead>
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<th></th>
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</tr>
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<td>-8.819944</td>
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If both the main model \( \logit\{E(\text{bmi}|\text{cvd, age, pa})\} - \logit\{E(\text{bmi}|\text{cvd} = 0, \text{age, pa})\} = \beta_{\text{cvd}} \) and the exposure nuisance model \( \logit\{E(\text{bmi}|\text{cvd} = 0, \text{age, pa})\} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \text{age} + \alpha_2 \text{pa} \) are correct, then the estimate of \( \beta \) is consistent. An identical analysis is performed by using the `drlm` command with the option `ebe` (exposure-based estimator).

```stata
.drlm cvd bmi, exposure(age pa) olink(logit) elink(logit) ebe
```

Generalized Linear Models
Number of obs = 41295
Estimator: Exposure Based
Link functions: Outcome[logit] Exposure[logit]

<table>
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<tbody>
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<td>.0445681</td>
<td>6.76</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>.2138798</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A DR estimate of $\beta$ that uses both nuisance models is obtained as follows:

```
.drglm cvd bmi, outcome(age pa) exposure(age pa) olink(logit) elink(logit)
```

Generalized Linear Models
Estimator: Double Robust
Link functions: Outcome[logit] Exposure[logit]

| Main bmi  | Robust Coef. | Std. Err. | z    | P>|z| | [95% Conf. Interval] |
|-----------|--------------|-----------|------|------|---------------------|
| cvd       |              |           |      |      |                     |
| main bmi  | 0.2991997    | 0.0442286 | 6.76 | 0.000 | 0.2125133 0.3858861 |

By not specifying the option `main()`, the main model becomes equal to

$$\logit \{E(cvd|bmi, pa, age)\} - \logit \{E(cvd|bmi = 0, pa, age)\} = \beta_{bmi}$$

Interpretation of the regression coefficient is usually done on an exponential scale (odds ratios rather than log odds-ratios). One can use either the `drglm`’s option `eform` or the postestimation command `lincom`. Compared with subjects with $18.5 < \text{BMI} < 25 \text{ kg/m}^2$, the odds of CVD for subjects with $\text{BMI} < 18.5$ or $\text{BMI} > 25$ were 31% higher (95% CI: [1.20, 1.43]).

```
.lincom bmi, eform
( 1) [main]bmi = 0
```

| Main bmi | exp(b) | Std. Err. | z    | P>|z| | [95% Conf. Interval] |
|----------|--------|-----------|------|------|---------------------|
| cvd      |        |           |      |      |                     |
| (1)      | 1.309507 | 0.0579729 | 6.09 | 0.000 | 1.200672 1.428207 |

We observe that the DR estimate of $\beta$ is very close to the estimate obtained through the exposure nuisance model (option `ebe`) but less close to the estimate obtained through the outcome nuisance model (option `obe`). This indicates that the exposure nuisance model may be reasonably correct, whereas the outcome nuisance model may suffer from more severe misspecifications.
We refined the nuisance models by taking into account nonlinearities for both age and pa. We modeled both quantitative covariates by using restricted cubic splines with three knots at fixed percentiles of the distribution.

```stata
. mkspline pas = pa, nk(3) cubic
. mkspline ages = age, nk(3) cubic
. drglm cvd bmi, outcome(ages1 ages2 pas1 pas2) exposure(ages1 ages2 pas1 pas2) olink(logit) elink(logit)
```

Generalized Linear Models

Estimator: Double Robust
Link functions: Outcome[logit] Exposure[logit]

| cvd | Coef. | Std. Err. | z     | P>|z|  | [95% Conf. Interval] |
|-----|-------|-----------|-------|-------|---------------------|
| main bmi | 0.2696505 | 0.0442708 | 6.09 | 0.000 | 0.2529 | .7564196 |

With the refined outcome and exposure nuisance model, we obtained $\hat{\beta}_{OBE} = 0.25$ and $\hat{\beta}_{EBE} = 0.27$, respectively. Whereas the refinement resulted in a change in $\hat{\beta}_{OBE}$ with $(0.15 - 0.25)/0.15 = -67\%$, it only resulted in a change in $\hat{\beta}_{EBE}$ with $(0.30 - 0.27)/0.30 = 10\%$. This further indicates that the misspecification in the simple outcome nuisance model was more severe than the misspecification in the simple exposure nuisance model.

We next considered the hypothesis that the association between BMI and CVD may vary with physical activity. Therefore, we specify the main model of the form below by specifying the `main(pa)` option.

$$\logit \{E(\text{cvd}|\text{bmi,pa,age})\} - \logit \{E(\text{cvd}|\text{bmi = 0,pa,age})\} = \beta_0 \text{bmi} + \beta_1 \text{bmipa}$$

```stata
. drglm cvd bmi, main(pa) outcome(ages1 ages2 pas1 pas2) exposure(ages1 ages2 pas1 pas2) olink(logit) elink(logit)
```

Generalized Linear Models

Estimator: Double Robust
Link functions: Outcome[logit] Exposure[logit]

| cvd | Coef. | Std. Err. | z     | P>|z|  | [95% Conf. Interval] |
|-----|-------|-----------|-------|-------|---------------------|
| main bmi | 0.2316385 | 0.1228567 | 1.89 | 0.069 | -0.0091562 | .4724332 |
| bmipa | 0.0106238 | 0.0319545 | 0.33 | 0.740 | -0.0520059 | .0732535 |
The variable bmipa is the product of bmi and pa created internally by the `drglm` command. The coefficient of the interaction term, bmipa is not statistically significant ($p = 0.740$). A test for overall no association between BMI on CVD is obtained with the postestimation command `testparm`.

```
. testparm bmi bmipa
( 1) [main]bmi = 0
( 2) [main]bmipa = 0
    ch12(  2) =   37.31
    Prob > ch12 =  0.0000
```

Because of the interaction between BMI and physical activity in the main model, to quantify the association between BMI (1 versus 0) and CVD, we need to consider a specific value for physical activity. The coefficient of BMI depends on physical activity via ($\beta_0 + \beta_1 pa$). For example, the odds ratios of BMI for the minimal (0), median (4), and maximal (8) physical activity level are calculated as follows:

```
. lincom _b[bmi] + _b[bmipa]*0, eform
    ( 1) [main]bmi = 0
     cvd    exp(b)    Std. Err.      z    P>|z|     [95% Conf. Interval]
(1)          1.260664    .154881    1.89   0.059    .9908856    1.603892

. lincom _b[bmi] + _b[bmipa]*4, eform
    ( 1) [main]bmi + 4*[main]bmipa = 0
     cvd    exp(b)    Std. Err.      z    P>|z|     [95% Conf. Interval]
(1)          1.315391    .0607068    5.94   0.000    1.201630    1.439921

. lincom _b[bmi] + _b[bmipa]*8, eform
    ( 1) [main]bmi + 8*[main]bmipa = 0
     cvd    exp(b)    Std. Err.      z    P>|z|     [95% Conf. Interval]
(1)          1.372493    .2028368    2.14   0.032    1.027339    1.833609
```
To present graphically how the odds ratio for CVD associated with BMI varies with physical activity (figure 1), we can use the convenient postestimation command `predictnl`.

```
predictnl logor = _b[bmi] + _b[bmipa]*pa, ci(lo hi)
  note: Confidence intervals calculated using Z critical values
  generate or = exp(logor)
  generate lb = exp(lo)
  generate ub = exp(hi)
  by pa, sort: generate flag = (_n == 1)
  twoway (line or lb ub pa, sort lp(l - -) lc(black black black)) if flag,
    > yscale(log) ytitle("Odds Ratio of BMI") xtitle("Physical activity")
    > legend(off) scheme(sj) ylabel(1(.2)1.8, angle(horiz) format(%3.2fc))
```

Figure 1. Odds ratio for CVD associated with BMI as function of physical activity

Although the logit link is by far the most common link for binary exposures and outcomes, all combinations listed in table 1 are possible. In table 4 we present $\hat{\beta}_{OBE}$, $\hat{\beta}_{EBE}$, and $\hat{\beta}_{DR}$ together with the corresponding 95% CIs, obtained by using the main model $g\{E(\text{cvd|bmi, age, pa})\} - g\{E(\text{cvd|bmi = 0, age, pa})\} = \beta$, the outcome nuisance model $g\{E(\text{cvd|bmi = 0, age, pa})\} = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 \text{age} + \gamma_2 \text{pa}$, and the exposure nuisance model $h\{E(\text{bmi|age, pa})\} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \text{age} + \alpha_2 \text{pa}$ for each of the first six link-function combinations in table 1. We remind the reader that the interpretation of $\beta$ depends on the choice of link function in the main model.
Table 4. Estimated values of $\hat{\beta}$ using three estimators (outcome based, exposure based, and DR) and various combinations of link functions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>main/outcome link</th>
<th>exposure link</th>
<th>$\hat{\beta}_{OBE}$ 95% CI</th>
<th>$\hat{\beta}_{EBE}$ 95% CI</th>
<th>$\hat{\beta}_{DR}$ 95% CI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>identity</td>
<td>identity</td>
<td>0.04 [0.02, 0.06]</td>
<td>0.04 [0.02, 0.06]</td>
<td>0.04 [0.02, 0.06]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>identity</td>
<td>log</td>
<td>0.04 [0.02, 0.06]</td>
<td>0.08 [0.06, 0.10]</td>
<td>0.08 [0.06, 0.10]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>identity</td>
<td>logit</td>
<td>0.04 [0.02, 0.06]</td>
<td>0.07 [0.05, 0.10]</td>
<td>0.07 [0.05, 0.10]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>log</td>
<td>identity</td>
<td>0.06 [0.02, 0.11]</td>
<td>0.08 [0.03, 0.12]</td>
<td>0.06 [0.02, 0.10]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>log</td>
<td>log</td>
<td>0.06 [0.02, 0.11]</td>
<td>0.16 [0.12, 0.20]</td>
<td>0.16 [0.12, 0.21]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>log</td>
<td>logit</td>
<td>0.06 [0.02, 0.11]</td>
<td>0.15 [0.11, 0.19]</td>
<td>0.15 [0.11, 0.20]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Let us consider two alternative DR measures of association with logit as exposure link. When the outcome link is identity, the regression coefficient is a difference in mean outcome.

```
. drglm cvd bmi, outcome(age pa) exposure(age pa) olink(identity) elink(logit)
```

Generalized Linear Models

|              | Robust | Coef. Std. Err. | z  | P>|z| | [95% Conf. Interval] |
|--------------|--------|-----------------|----|------|---------------------|
| cvd          | main   | bmi             | .0738476 | .0109156 | 6.77 | 0.000 | .0524533 | .0952418 |

The CVD risk difference comparing subjects with $18.5 < \text{BMI} < 25 \text{kg/m}^2$ versus subjects with $\text{BMI} < 18.5$ or $\text{BMI} > 25$ was 7% (95% CI: [5%, 10%]). If the outcome link instead is log, the regression coefficient is a log risk-ratio.

```
. drglm cvd bmi, outcome(age pa) exposure(age pa) olink(log) elink(logit) eform
```

Generalized Linear Models

|              | Robust | exp(b) Std. Err. | z  | P>|z| | [95% Conf. Interval] |
|--------------|--------|------------------|----|------|---------------------|
| cvd          | main   | bmi             | 1.165457 | .0248518 | 7.18 | 0.000 | 1.117752 | 1.215198 |

Compared with subjects with $18.5 < \text{BMI} < 25 \text{kg/m}^2$, the risk of CVD for subjects with $\text{BMI} < 18.5$ or $\text{BMI} > 25$ was 17% higher (95% CI: [1.12, 1.22]).
7 Discussion

In this article, we have presented the new Stata command \texttt{drglm}, which carries out DR estimation in GLMs. The DR estimators use two regression models and are consistent if either model is correct, not necessarily both. In our simulated scenarios, the DR estimators were almost as efficient as the more “standard” estimators, which used only one regression model. Furthermore, in our simulated scenarios, the estimators that used only one regression model were severely biased whenever the model was incorrect. These results speak in favor of the DR estimators.

The target parameter $\beta$ is a subpopulation parameter; it quantifies the conditional $A\mbox{-}Y$ association, given covariates $L$ (that is, the association in each subpopulation defined by a distinct level of $L$). In the special case when $g(\cdot)$ is the identity link or the log link, and there are no interactions between $A$ and $L$ in the main model, $\beta$ may be interpreted as a population parameter because of the collapsibility of mean differences and log risk-ratios. In the general case (that is, for a link function other than the identity link and the log link and with interactions between $A$ and $Y$), it is possible to construct DR estimators for population parameters through inverse probability weighting. These methods have been implemented in Stata by Emsley et al. (2008).

In practice, it is unlikely for any model to be exactly correct. Several authors have investigated the performance of DR estimators in various contexts when both working models are misspecified (Bang and Robins 2005; Davidian, Tsiatis, and Leon 2005; Kang and Schafer 2007). These authors have drawn somewhat different conclusions. Bang and Robins (2005) state: “In our opinion, a DR estimator has the following advantage that argues for its routine use: if either the [outcome] model or the [exposure] model is nearly correct, then the bias of a DR estimator . . . will be small”. In contrast, Kang and Schafer (2007) provided a simulated example where DR estimators were outperformed by estimators that rely on only one regression model; all involved models being moderately misspecified. They concluded that “two wrong models are not necessarily better than one”.

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9 References


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