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Multiple imputation of covariates by substantive-model compatible fully conditional specification

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Abstract. Multiple imputation is a practical, principled approach to handling missing data. When used to impute missing values in covariates of regression models, imputation models may be misspecified if they are not compatible with the substantive model of interest for the outcome. In this article, we introduce the smcfcs command, which imputes covariates by substantive-model compatible fully conditional specification. This modifies the popular fully conditional specification or chained-equations approach to multiple imputation by imputing each covariate compatibly with a user-specified substantive model. We compare the smcfcs command with standard fully conditional specification imputation using mi impute chained in a simulation study and illustrative analysis of data from a study investigating time to tumor recurrence in breast cancer.

Keywords: st0387, smcfcs, multiple imputation, substantive model compatible, congenial, interactions, nonlinearities

1 Introduction

Missing data are a common issue in empirical research, reducing statistical power and potentially causing bias in parameter estimates. Multiple imputation (MI) has become one of the most popular approaches for handling missing data (van Buuren 2007). For each missing value, MI creates multiple plausible imputations based on a model for the conditional distribution of the variable being imputed given other variables, thus creating a number of completed or imputed datasets. Each imputed dataset is then analyzed separately and identically, giving estimates of parameters of interest and corresponding standard errors. These are then combined using rules derived by Rubin (1987). Virtually all implementations of MI in software packages assume data are missing at random (MAR), which means that the probability that data are missing is independent of the unobserved values, conditional on the observed values (Rubin 1976).

1.1 Fully conditional specification

As originally conceived, parametric MI involves specification of a joint model for the partially observed variables, conditional on any fully observed variables (joint model MI). A popular alternative to joint model MI is the fully conditional specification (FCS) or chained-equations approach (White, Royston, and Wood 2011; van Buuren 2007). FCS MI involves specifying a series of univariate models for the conditional distribution of each partially observed variable given the other variables. This approach permits great flexibility because an appropriate regression model can be selected for each variable (for example, linear regression for continuous variables or logistic regression for binary variables). Consequently, FCS MI is particularly appealing in settings where multiple variables have missing data, some of which are continuous and some of which are discrete. In Stata, the FCS approach was originally implemented by Royston (2005) as the user-written command ice, but since version 12, it has been available through the official Stata mi impute chained command.

1.2 Multiple imputation of covariates

In this article, we focus on the setting in which some values are missing in the covariates of a substantive model of interest. Correctly specifying imputation models for covariates can be challenging, particularly when the substantive model relating the outcome to the covariates includes nonlinear covariate effects or interactions between covariates. For example, Seaman, Bartlett, and White (2012) show that for a linear regression substantive model with quadratic effects of a (marginally) normal covariate, imputation models implemented in existing MI software are misspecified and give biased estimates. Similarly, when the substantive model includes an interaction, commonly chosen imputation models may be misspecified. Even when the MAR assumption holds, misspecification of the imputation model generally results in biased estimates of the substantive-model parameters. In the aforementioned examples, the misspecification can be attributed to the imputation and substantive models being incompatible (sometimes referred to as uncongenial). Loosely speaking, the imputation and substantive models are compatible if there exists a joint model for covariate and outcome with conditional distributions equal to those given by the imputation and substantive models. While compatibility between the imputation and substantive models does not guarantee that the former is correctly specified, provided that the substantive model is correctly specified, incompatibility between the two generally implies that the imputation model is misspecified. This suggests that covariates should be imputed using imputation models that are compatible with the substantive model.

1.3 Substantive-model compatible FCS MI

Recently, Bartlett et al. (Forthcoming) have proposed substantive-model compatible FCS (SMC–FCS). This modifies the FCS or chained-equations MI approach by imputing each partially observed covariate using an imputation model that is compatible with the user-specified substantive model. In section 2, we describe the SMC–FCS method in more detail. In section 3, we describe the smcfcs command and its syntax. In section 4, we illustrate its use and compare its performance with standard FCS. In section 5, we describe the results of a small simulation study comparing smcfcs with a standard approach using mi impute chained. In section 6, we conclude.

2 SMC–FCS

2.1 Setup

We consider the setting in which interest lies in fitting a model to a fully observed outcome Y with p partially observed covariates, $X = (X_1, \ldots, X_p)$, and q fully observed covariates, $Z = (Z_1, \ldots, Z_q)$. Let X^{obs} and X^{mis} denote the observed and missing components of X for a given subject, and let R be the vector of observation indicators whose elements are zero or one depending on whether the corresponding element of X is missing (zero) or observed (one), respectively. We assume throughout that the data are MAR (Rubin 1976). Here MAR means that $P(R | Y, X, Z) = P(R | Y, X^{\text{obs}}, Z)$. We assume that (Y_i, X_i, Z_i, R_i) , $i = 1, \ldots, n$ are independent and identically distributed. We let $f(Y | X, Z, \psi)$ denote the substantive model, which is indexed by parameter ψ $(\psi \in \Psi)$. We assume that this substantive model is correctly specified; that is, there exists $\psi \in \Psi$ such that $f_0(Y|X,Z) = f(Y|X,Z,\psi)$, where $f_0(Y|X,Z)$ denotes the true conditional distribution of Y given X and Z.

2.2 Incompatibility and imputation model misspecification

Suppose that there exists only one partially observed covariate, denoted X . To impute X, we must specify an imputation model $f(X | Z, Y, \omega)$, indexed by parameter $\omega \in \Omega$. Following Liu et al. (2013), this imputation model is compatible with the substantive model $f(Y | X, Z, \psi)$, $\psi \in \Psi$, if there exists a joint model $g(Y, X | Z, \theta)$, $\theta \in \Theta$ and surjective maps $t_1: \Theta \to \Omega$, $t_2: \Theta \to \Psi$ such that

1. for $\omega \in \Omega$, and $\theta \in t_1^{-1}(\omega) = \{\theta : t_1(\theta) = \omega\},\$

$$
f(X \mid Z, Y, \omega) = g(X \mid Z, Y, \theta)
$$

2. for $\psi \in \Psi$ and $\theta \in t_2^{-1}(\psi)$,

$$
f(Y | X, Z, \psi) = g(Y | X, Z, \theta)
$$

Again following Liu et al. (2013), the two models are said to be semicompatible if they can be made compatible by setting certain parameters in either one or both models to zero. If the two are semicompatible and correctly specified, they are said to be valid semicompatible. The imputation model is then correctly specified if and only if it is valid semicompatible with the substantive model (Bartlett et al. Forthcoming).

Except when the imputation and substantive models can be made compatible by restricting the parameter space (Ω) of the imputation model, incompatibility between the two implies that the imputation model is misspecified, assuming that the substantive model is correctly specified. This is because incompatibility means that there is no joint model with the imputation and substantive models as its conditionals.

To illustrate this, we will suppose that the substantive model is $Y | X \sim N(\psi_0 +$ $\psi_1 X + \psi_2 X^2, \sigma_\psi^2$ and the imputation model is $X | Y \sim N(\omega_0 + \omega_1 Y, \sigma_\omega^2)$. These models are incompatible because there exists no joint model with conditionals corresponding to the substantive and imputation models. They are semicompatible by setting $\psi_2 = 0$, but unless $\psi_2 = 0$ in truth, the imputation model will not be valid semicompatible with the substantive model and will therefore necessarily be misspecified. Figure 1 shows a plot of (Y, X) pairs simulated under this substantive model with $X \sim N(1, 1)$ and $Y | X \sim N(X+3X^2, 1.5^2)$, in which the missing X value has been imputed assuming the aforementioned linear imputation model. By virtue of the imputation model (wrongly) assuming linearity between Y and X , we know that the estimates of the quadratic substantive model will be biased. This example was investigated in detail through simulation by von Hippel (2009) and Seaman, Bartlett, and White (2012).

Figure 1. Plot of simulated (Y, X) data, in which $X \sim N(1, 1)$ and $Y | X \sim N(X +$ $3X^2, 1.5^2$). Y is fully observed, whereas X is partially observed. Circles are used to represent 100 (Y, X) pairs in which X was observed. Crosses represent 100 (Y, X) pairs in which X was imputed assuming $X | Y \sim N(\omega_0 + \omega_1 Y, \sigma_\omega^2)$. Conditional expectations were estimated nonparametrically using the lowess command.

Let's assume that the substantive model is $Y | X \sim (\psi_0 + \psi_1 X, \sigma_{\psi}^2)$ and the imputation model is $X | Y \sim N(\omega_0 + \omega_1 Y + \omega_2 Y^2, \sigma_\omega^2)$, with each of the regression coefficients lying in $(-\infty, +\infty)$. These two models are again incompatible. However, they can be made compatible (and are, hence, semicompatible) by restricting the parameter space of the imputation model by setting $\omega_2 = 0$. Here incompatibility does not imply misspecification.

For a final example, suppose that the substantive model is $Y | X \sim (\psi_0 + \psi_1 X, \sigma_{\psi}^2)$ and the imputation model is $X | Y \sim N(\omega_0 + \omega_1 Y, \sigma_\omega^2)$. These models are compatible, with the joint model being the bivariate normal. We emphasize that compatibility does not guarantee that the imputation model is correctly specified.

Even when the substantive model contains only linear covariate effects without interactions, incompatibility may arise with default imputation models if the substantive model is nonlinear. For example, for an exponential-survival substantive model, Bartlett et al. (Forthcoming) describe how the recommended imputation model for continuous partially observed covariates is incompatible with the exponential model.

In conclusion, except in cases where the imputation and substantive models can be made compatible by restricting the parameter space (Ω) of the imputation model (that is, a simpler model nested within the imputation model is compatible with the substantive model), incompatibility between the two implies that the imputation model is misspecified (assuming correct specification of the substantive model). Consequently, when choosing the covariate imputation model, $f(X | Z, Y, \omega)$, we should (at least) ensure either that it is compatible with the substantive model or that a restriction of it is compatible with the substantive model.

2.3 SMC–FCS

We now return to the setting of a vector of multiple partially observed covariates, $X = (X_1, \ldots, X_n)$. To apply standard FCS MI (see van Buuren [2007] for further background on standard FCS MI) in the missing covariates setting, for each partially observed covariate X_j , $j = 1, \ldots, p$, we specify a model for $f(X_j | X_{-j}, Z, Y)$, where X_{-j} $(X_1, \ldots, X_{j-1}, X_{j+1}, \ldots, X_p)$. For previously mentioned reasons, common choices for this imputation model may be incompatible with the substantive model $f(Y | X, Z, \psi)$, implying misspecification.

To motivate the SMC–FCS algorithm, we can express the conditional distribution $f(X_i | X_{-i}, Z, Y)$ as

$$
f(X_j | X_{-j}, Z, Y) = \frac{f(Y, X_j | X_{-j}, Z)}{f(Y | X_{-j}, Z)} = \frac{f(Y | X_j, X_{-j}, Z) f(X_j | X_{-j}, Z)}{f(Y | X_{-j}, Z)} \times f(Y | X, Z) f(X_j | X_{-j}, Z)
$$

In SMC–FCS, we specify a model $f(X_j | X_{-j}, Z, \phi_j)$ for X_j , where ϕ_j is a vector of model parameters, and we impute X_i using the density proportional to

$$
f(Y \mid X, Z, \psi) f(X_j \mid X_{-j}, Z, \phi_j) \tag{1}
$$

For any given j, this imputation model will automatically be compatible with the substantive model $f(Y | X, Z, \psi)$. The model $f(X_j | X_{-j}, Z, \phi_j)$ can be chosen in the same way as models are selected for the standard FCS algorithm. For example, if X_j is binary, we would use a logistic regression model by default. For discrete X_j , which has a finite-sample space (for example, binary and categorical variables), samples can be drawn directly from the distribution proportional to (1). More generally, Bartlett et al. (Forthcoming) show that, provided one can easily draw samples from $f(X_j | X_{-j}, Z, \phi_j)$, the Monte Carlo method of rejection sampling can be used to draw samples from the imputation distribution when the substantive model is a normal linear regression, a regression model for a discrete outcome Y (thereby including logistic and Poisson regression), or a proportional hazards model for a possibly censored time-to-event outcome. Rejection sampling involves repeatedly drawing from a candidate distribution—here $f(X_i | X_{-i}, Z, \phi_i)$ —until a certain criterion is satisfied, which is therefore computationally intensive. To ensure reasonable run times, the smcfcs command uses Mata to perform rejection sampling.

The SMC–FCS algorithm initializes by imputing missing values in each variable using randomly observed values from the same variable. It then cycles through the imputation models for each partially observed variable, here the variables X_1, \ldots, X_p , imputing each missing value. Following a suitable number of iterations, the current imputations form the first imputed dataset. The process is then repeated to create as many imputed datasets as desired.

In SMC–FCS, the imputation model for X_i depends both on ϕ_i and on the substantivemodel parameter ψ . Bartlett et al. (Forthcoming) derive a Gibbs sampler for the joint model (assuming it exists) defined by the substantive model and the models $f(X_j | X_{-j}, Z, \phi_j), j = 1, \ldots, p$. At the tth iteration, the SMC–FCS algorithm imputes missing values in X_j by performing the following draws,

$$
\begin{array}{rcl}\psi^{(t,j)} & \sim & f(\psi)f(y \,|\, x^{\mathrm{mis}(t-1)}_j, x^{\mathrm{obs}}_j, x^*_{-j}, z, \psi) \\
\phi^{(t)}_j & \sim & f(\phi_j)f(x^{\mathrm{mis}(t-1)}_j, x^{\mathrm{obs}}_j \,|\, x^*_{-j}, z, \phi_j)\n\end{array}
$$

where $f(\psi)$ and $f(\phi_j)$ denote uninformative priors, y and z denote the (fully) observed values of Y and Z across the n subjects, x_{-j}^* denotes the observed and most recent imputed values of X_{-j} across all n subjects, x_j^{obs} denotes the observed values of X_j , and $x_j^{\text{mis}(t-1)}$ denotes the imputed values of X_j from the preceding iteration. The missing values in X_j are then imputed using rejection sampling from the density defined by (1) using $\psi^{(t,j)}$ and $\phi_j^{(t)}$.

Bartlett et al. (Forthcoming) have provided conditions—including that the models $f(X_i | X_{-i}, Z, \phi_i), j = 1, \ldots, p$ are mutually compatible—under which the SMC–FCS imputes from a well-defined Bayesian joint model. When this joint model is correctly specified, application of Rubin's rules will result in valid inferences. There are, however, common model specifications (for example, a combination of linear and logistic covariate models) for which SMC–FCS is not equivalent to MI from a Bayesian joint model. Bartlett et al. (Forthcoming) conjecture that when the models $f(X_i | X_{-i}, Z, \phi_i)$, $j = 1, \ldots, p$ are semicompatible valid (meaning that there exist restrictions of these models that make them mutually compatible, and these models are valid), application of Rubin's rules to imputations generated by SMC–FCS will give consistent point estimates. Simulations by Bartlett et al. (Forthcoming) support this and further suggest that confidence intervals based on Rubin's variance estimator may still perform well even when SMC–FCS is not equivalent to MI from a Bayesian joint model. Lastly, if the models $f(X_i | X_{-i}, Z, \phi_i), j = 1, \ldots, p$ are not compatible (and cannot be made so by restrictions of their parameter spaces), we cannot expect to obtain consistent point estimates.

Bartlett et al. (Forthcoming) reported simulation results for a linear regression substantive model with quadratic covariate effects, a linear regression model with an interaction effect, and a Cox proportional hazards substantive model. Overall, their results suggest that SMC–FCS is an attractive approach for imputing missing values of covariates for substantive models that include nonlinear covariate effects or interactions or are themselves nonlinear (for example, a Cox proportional hazards model).

3 The smcfcs command

3.1 Syntax

smcfcs smcmd smdepvar smindepvars $[$, regress(varlist) logit(varlist) poisson(varlist) nbreg(varlist) mlogit(varlist) ologit(varlist) $\texttt{iterations}(\#)$ m($\#$) rjlimit($\#$) passive(string) eq(string) rseed(string) chainonly savetrace(filename) noisily by(varlist) clear]

3.2 Options

- regress (*varlist*) specifies the names of the partially observed continuous variables (if any) to be imputed by normal linear regression.
- $logit(varlist)$ specifies the names of the partially observed binary variables (if any) to be imputed by logistic regression.
- $poisson(varlist)$ specifies the names of the partially observed Poisson variables (if any) to be imputed.
- nbreg(*varlist*) specifies the names of the partially observed negative binomial variables (if any) to be imputed.
- mlogit(varlist) specifies the names of the partially observed unordered categorical variables (if any) to be imputed.
- ologit(varlist) specifies the names of the partially observed ordered categorical variables (if any) to be imputed.
- iterations $(\#)$ specifies the number of iterations to perform for each imputation. The default is iterations(10).
- $m(\text{#})$ specifies the number of imputations to generate. The default is $m(5)$.
- $\text{rjlimit}(\#)$ specifies that smcfcs uses rejection sampling to impute missing covariate values for variables that do not have a finite-sample space. Rejection sampling repeatedly draws from a distribution until a valid imputation is found. This option specifies the maximum number of attempts that smcfcs will make to find a valid draw for imputed values. If valid values have not been found for one or more subjects by the limit, the command continues and uses the last proposed draw for such subjects. The default is rjlimit(1000).
- passive (string) specifies a string of equations to update derived covariates (if any). Each expression within the string must be separated by a |. Derived covariates may appear in the substantive model, in the covariate models, or in both.
- $eq(sstring)$ specifies a string of linear predictor sets for partially observed variables. Each expression within the string must be separated by a |. Each expression should be of the form varname: varlist, which specifies that the linear predictor of the

covariate model for varname be given by varlist. If an expression is not specified for a given partially observed variable, the default is to impute using a covariate model that includes any fully observed variables in the substantive model and all partially observed variables except the one being imputed.

rseed(*string*) sets the random-number seed to the given value.

- chainonly performs iterations of SMC–FCS (as specified by the iterations() option) without creating imputations. This can be used in conjunction with savetrace() to assess convergence.
- savetrace (*filename*) saves means and standard deviations of imputed values from each iteration in filename.dta. This can be used to check convergence of SMC–FCS.
- noisily runs SMC–FCS noisily. This is useful for diagnosing errors.
- by(varlist) imputes separately in groups defined by varlist.
- clear specifies that any previous imputations in the data be cleared. If imputations already exist, smcfcs will exit with an error unless the clear option is specified.

3.3 Description

smcfcs imputes missing values in covariates by using the SMC–FCS algorithm. The substantive model is specified immediately following smcfcs by *smcmd smdepvar smin*depvars, giving the substantive-model command, dependent variable, and independent variables, respectively. Currently, smcfcs supports regress, logistic, and stcox substantive models. The independent variables of the substantive model can be fully observed, directly imputed variables or passively imputed variables (that is, functions of imputed variables and possibly fully observed variables).

Partially observed variables can be imputed using linear, logistic, Poisson, negative binomial, multinomial logistic, or ordered logistic regression models by passing the variables to the regress(), logit(), poisson(), nbreg(), mlogit(), or ologit() options, respectively. By default, each partially observed variable is imputed from a model conditioning on all the other partially observed variables and any fully observed independent variables in the substantive model. When they serve as predictors, partially observed variables are included by default as linear terms, except for partially observed categorical variables, which are included as factor variables. The eq() option can be used to customize the models $f(X_j | X_{-j}, Z, \phi_j)$. Fully observed variables can be included as factor variables by using factor-variable notation (see [U] 11.4.3 Factor variables).

If any of the covariates given as smindepvars are derived functions of the partially observed variables, the equations defining the covariates must be specified using the passive() option. For example, if the substantive model includes xsq as a covariate, which is equal to the square of a partially observed variable x, we would pass $xsq=x^2$ to the passive() option. For more examples, see the smcfcs help file, and also see the illustrative example in section 4.

For continuous and binary outcomes, smcfcs will additionally impute any missing values in the outcome, using the specified substantive model as the imputation model.

Once the desired number of imputations has been generated, smcfcs imports the imputations to mi format (flong) and then fits the substantive model to the imputations by using the mi estimate command. mi estimate can then be used to fit alternative models for the outcome, although one should ensure that these are nested within the substantive model specified to generate the imputations.

The command will give a warning if valid draws are not obtained for one or more observations within the limit specified by the rjlimit() option. If you receive this warning, it is advisable to increase the limit until the warning no longer appears.

As with standard FCS MI, one should assess whether a sufficient number of iterations has been used for the algorithm to converge. Convergence can be assessed by using the chainonly and savetrace() options, as per the mi impute chained command, and by plotting the means and standard deviations of imputed values by iteration. Because, unlike standard FCS, SMC–FCS conditions on the last imputations of X_i when fitting the models $f(X_i | X_{-i}, Z, \phi_i)$ and $f(Y | X, Z, \psi)$, SMC–FCS may require more iterations for convergence. However, Bartlett et al. (Forthcoming) obtained good performance in simulations with 10 iterations, which is now the default used by smcfcs.

The by (*varlist*) option can be used to impute separately in groups defined by the supplied *varlist*. In this case, smcfcs fits the substantive model and covariate models and imputes entirely separately in each group. Following this, the imputations from each group are appended. In this case, smcfcs does not fit one substantive model across all the groups—the user must select and fit an appropriate model using mi estimate.

When using standard FCS imputation, one should include the outcome of the substantive model as a predictor in the imputation models for the substantive model covariates to ensure that the covariates are (hopefully correctly) associated with the outcome. To avoid doubt, when using smcfcs, one should include the outcome only as the *smde*pvar variable and should not include it elsewhere in the command call.

4 Illustrative example

We illustrate the use of smcfcs using a dataset of 686 patients in Germany with positivenode breast cancer, previously analyzed by Royston (2004). The original data can be loaded with webuse brcancer. Royston (2004) previously developed a substantive Cox proportional hazards model for time to cancer recurrence, including five covariates: age (age) with a fractional polynomial (FP) transformation with powers −2 and −0.5; tumor grade 2/3 (gradd1); number of positive lymph nodes (nodes) with the exponential transformation enodes = $\exp(-0.12 \times \text{nodes})$; progesterone receptors (pgr) with an FP transformation with power 0.5; and hormonal therapy with tamoxifen (tam). The Cox model thus contains the following nonlinear transformations of three covariates:

age_1 =
$$
(age/10)^{-2}
$$

age_2 = $(age/10)^{-0.5}$
enodes = $exp(-0.12 \times nodes)$
pgr_1 = ${(pgr + 1)/1000}^{0.5}$

In the original dataset, the covariates were fully observed in all 686 patients. However, Royston (2004) deleted 20% of values completely at random for each independent variable in the analysis model. Here, as a sterner test, we make 50% missing (completely at random) in each independent variable, leaving just 25 complete cases (provided as partialdata.dta). For comparison with estimates based on MI, we first present results based on the full data before data were made missing.

We first applied standard FCS MI to the partially observed dataset, using min impute chained to create 100 imputations. Imputing variables and ignoring nonlinearities and then passively imputing the nonlinear covariates of the substantive model may produce biased estimates (Seaman, Bartlett, and White 2012). Instead, we used the just-another-variable (JAV) approach for imputing nonlinear and interaction terms as proposed by von Hippel (2009). To do this, we directly imputed the nonlinear terms involved in the substantive model, here given by age_1 , age_2 , enodes, and pgr_1 using normal linear regressions. Note that this ignores the deterministic relationship between age 1 and age 2. We used logistic regression to impute the two binary variables, gradd1 and tam. Following White and Royston (2009), we included the event indicator and the marginal Nelson–Aalen cumulative-hazard estimate (generated using sts gen) as covariates in each imputation model.

```
. use partialdata, clear
. sts generate na = na
. mi set flong
. mi register imputed age_1 age_2 pgr_1 enodes gradd1 tam
(661 m=0 obs. now marked as incomplete)
. mi impute chained (reg) age_1 age_2 pgr_1 enodes (logit) gradd1 tam = na _d,
> add(100) rseed(6934)
Conditional models:
            age_1: regress age_1 age_2 enodes i.gradd1 i.tam pgr_1 na _d
            age_2: regress age_2 age_1 enodes i.gradd1 i.tam pgr_1 na _d
           enodes: regress enodes age_1 age_2 i.gradd1 i.tam pgr_1 na _d
           gradd1: logit gradd1 age_1 age_2 enodes i.tam pgr_1 na _d
              tam: logit tam age_1 age_2 enodes i.gradd1 pgr_1 na _d
            pgr_1: regress pgr_1 age_1 age_2 enodes i.gradd1 i.tam na _d
Performing chained iterations ...
Multivariate imputation \begin{array}{ccc} \text{Imputations} & = & 100 \\ \text{Chained equations} & = & 100 \end{array}
Imputed: m=1 through m=100 updated = 0
Initialization: monotone Therations = 1000
                                             burn-in = 10age_1: linear regression
            age_2: linear regression
            pgr_1: linear regression
           enodes: linear regression
           gradd1: logistic regression
              tam: logistic regression
```


(complete + incomplete = total; imputed is the minimum across m of the number of filled-in observations.)

Note that the standard errors are all larger than those based on the full data, as is to be expected with such large proportions of missingness. The coefficients of the two powers of age are in the same direction as the full-data estimates, but there is possible attenuation (that is, bias) with the estimates both being about 25% smaller in magnitude than the full-data estimates. The coefficient of gradd1 is also much smaller than the full-data estimate. The coefficients corresponding to the number of nodes and tam are both quite close to their full-data estimates, while the coefficient of pgr 1 is somewhat larger. Researchers may be uncomfortable using the JAV approach because the normal imputation models used are not well specified. For example, in these data, for those patients with a negative value imputed for the enodes variable, one cannot take logarithms to obtain an imputed value for the original nodes variable, and for some patients for whom the back-transformation can be performed, their nodes value is negative. Further, for each subject with age missing, there is no single imputation of this variable because the values imputed into age 1 and age 2 will not be consistent with a particular value of age.

One may argue that when interest lies in fitting a substantive model, we should be concerned with the validity of inferences for the parameters of this model only. Here some of the coefficients may be biased, although it is difficult to distinguish between random variation and systematic bias. More importantly, although JAV can be shown to be unbiased for linear regression models under missing completely at random (MCAR), JAV has been shown to be biased under MAR mechanisms and also biased for logistic regression substantive models, even under MCAR (Seaman, Bartlett, and White 2012). To our knowledge, there is no justification for JAV's (even approximate) validity for Cox proportional hazards models.

For these reasons, SMC–FCS is an appealing alternative approach here because we can impute each variable from an imputation model that is compatible with the assumed Cox proportional hazards model. Because the nodes and pgr variables are both integer valued and positively skewed, we impute them using negative binomial regression. Because all patients have at least one node, we subtracted one from nodes and assumed this followed a negative binomial regression. The distribution of age had little skew, so we chose a normal linear regression model. Because the nodes and pgr variables are so highly skewed, we deemed it implausible that they had linear effects in the covariate models $f(X_i | X_{-i}, Z, \phi_i)$. We therefore used the eq() option to specify that when included as covariates, nodes and pgr variables should be included as log(nodes) and log(pgr+1), respectively. To do this, we generated corresponding variables and added expressions to the passive() option (in addition to those required for the substantive model covariates) so that these were updated appropriately.

```
. use partialdata, clear
. generate nodesminusone = nodes-1
(328 missing values generated)
. generate logpgr = log(pgr+1)
(363 missing values generated)
. generate lognodes = log(node{\text{sminusone+1}})(328 missing values generated)
. smcfcs stcox age_1 age_2 gradd1 enodes pgr_1 tam, regress(age) logit(gradd1 tam)
> nbreg(nodesminusone pgr) passive( age_1 = (age/10)^-2 | age_2 = (age/10)^-.5
> | enodes = exp(-0.12*(nodesminusone+1)) | pgr_1 = ( (pgr+1)/1000)^{\circ}.5 | logpgr
> = log(pgr+1) | lognodes = log(nodesminusone+1)) eq(age: gradd1 tam logpgr
> lognodes | gradd1: age tam logpgr lognodes | tam: gradd1 age logpgr lognodes |
> nodesminusone: tam gradd1 age logpgr | pgr: lognodes tam gradd1 age)
> rseed(5913) m(100)
Covariate models:
reg age gradd1 tam logpgr lognodes
logistic gradd1 age tam logpgr lognodes, coef
logistic tam gradd1 age logpgr lognodes, coef
nbreg nodesminusone tam gradd1 age logpgr
nbreg pgr lognodes tam gradd1 age
Your passive statement(s) say:
age_1 = (age/10)^{-2}age_2 = (age/10)^{-1}.5
enodes = exp(-0.12*(nodesminusone+1))pgr_1 = ( (pgr+1)/1000)^{-1.5}logpgr = log(pgr+1)lognodes = log(nodesminusone+1)
...............................................................................
> .....................
100 imputations generated
Fitting substantive model to multiple imputations
```


The command first gives a summary of the covariate models it will use. This shows that log(nodes) and log(pgr+1) will be used as covariates, rather than their untransformed versions, in the covariate models $f(X_i | X_{-i}, Z, \phi_i)$. The command then summarizes the passive() expressions that will be used. Next, the SMC–FCS algorithm runs, creating the desired imputations, and the substantive model is fit to each imputation. The results are combined and displayed using mi estimate.

We see that all the estimated coefficients from SMC–FCS are closer to those from the full data as compared with those from using JAV, except those of pgr_1 (for which the SMC–FCS is quite a bit larger in magnitude) and tam (which is still fairly close to the full-data estimate). Unlike the imputations generated from JAV, the distributions of the variables after imputation are similar to their full-data distributions, and the values in the variables age 1 and age 2 are consistent with the imputed values of age.

5 Simulation study

Here we present results of a small simulation study comparing the performance of smcfcs with standard FCS imputation using mi impute chained for a Cox proportional-hazards substantive model. We include results on computational time to highlight that smcfcs is more computationally demanding. Datasets were simulated for n subjects with two covariates: X_1 drawn from a Bernoulli distribution with probability 0.5 and $X_2 \mid X_1 \sim N(X_1, 1)$. We simulated a survival time for each subject by using hazard function $h(t|X) = 0.002 \exp(\beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2)$ with $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = 1$. We generated censoring times from an exponential distribution with hazard 0.002. Values in X_1 and X_2 were made (independently) MCAR with probability π in each simulation. We investigated the impact of sample size by performing simulations (100 per scenario) for $n = 100$, 500, 1000, 2500, 5000, with $\pi = 0.25$ (such that approximately 50% of subjects had at least one covariate missing). Next, for $n = 1000$, we performed simulations (100 per scenario) with varying proportions of missingness from $\pi = 0.05$ to $\pi = 0.35$ in steps of 0.05.

For each simulated dataset, we imputed the missing values in X_1 and X_2 using mi impute chained. We imputed X_1 and X_2 using logistic and linear regression models, respectively, with the event indicator and Nelson–Aalen estimate of the (marginal) cumulative hazard as covariates. Next, we imputed using smcfcs, again using logistic and linear models but imputing compatibly with a Cox proportional hazards model for the survival time. Ten imputations were used for both methods. In smcfcs, the default setting for the rejection sampling limit of 1,000 was used. In this setting, smcfcs can directly sample from the imputation distribution for the binary covariate X_1 , but rejection sampling is used for the continuous covariate X_2 .

Figure 2 shows the distributions of the relative computation times taken by smcfcs compared with mi impute chained for the different sample sizes considered. This plot shows that for $n = 100$, smcfcs typically takes the same time to complete as mi impute chained. However, as the sample size increases, the relative computational cost of smcfcs increases, with an approximately sixfold increase in time taken for $n = 5000$. This additional computational cost is from smcfcs using rejection sampling to impute the continuous covariate X_2 . As the sample size increases, each dataset has a larger probability of having at least one record with a very low acceptance probability such that a large number of proposal draws are required before acceptance. Figure 3 shows the estimates of $\beta_2 = 1$ from the 2 imputation approaches, again for varying sample sizes. This plot shows that while smcfcs gives unbiased estimates, using the approximate approach proposed by White and Royston (2009), estimates are systematically biased toward the null, and the bias does not reduce with increasing sample size.

Figure 2. Plot showing ratio of time taken by smcfcs to mi impute chained for varying sample sizes, $\pi = 0.25$

Figure 3. Plot showing estimates of $\beta_2 = 1$ from smcfcs and mi impute chained for varying sample sizes, $\pi = 0.25$

Figure 4 shows that for a fixed sample size, increasing levels of missingness lead to a modest increase in computation times for smcfcs relative to mi impute chained. Figure 5 illustrates that the bias in estimates of $\beta_2 = 1$ from mi impute chained steadily increases with increasing levels of missingness, whereas smcfcs continues to be unbiased.

Figure 4. Plot showing ratio of time taken by smcfcs to mi impute chained for increasing probability of missingness, $n = 1000$

Figure 5. Plot showing estimates of $\beta_2 = 1$ from smcfcs and mi impute chained for increasing probability of missingness, $n = 1000$

The simulations demonstrate that smcfcs incurs an additional computational cost compared with using mi impute chained. Thus, when a substantive-model compatible imputation model can be specified directly using mi impute chained (for example, a linear regression outcome model with main effects only), the use of smcfcs is not recommended. Outside of these settings, however, the use of smcfcs is expected to give estimates with less bias by imputing compatibly with the assumed substantive model, and the increased computational cost would usually be deemed a small price to pay.

6 Final remarks

The smcfcs command allows one to impute covariates from imputation models that are compatible with a user-specified substantive model. When the substantive model contains nonlinear effects or interactions and the variables involved in these contain missing values, we believe smcfcs offers material advantages relative to what can be achieved using standard FCS or imputation by chained-equations MI. We believe a strength of the algorithm is that it forces the user to specify the substantive model at the imputation stage, making it possible to generate a set of MIs that gives reasonable results for certain analyses or substantive models (but may give biased estimates for others).

In practice, one will typically not know the final substantive model at the imputation stage. Various possible strategies can be used to determine this. If the complete cases represent a reasonably large proportion of the sample, the substantive model could be chosen (with standard model-selection strategies) using the complete cases. Alternatively, one could impute assuming a flexible substantive model, which could be followed by fitting simpler nested models for the outcome to the imputations. Conversely, one should not fit substantive models that are not nested within the substantive model used to generate the imputations. For example, one should not impute assuming a substantive model that assumes no interactions and then fit alternative substantive models that allow for interactions.

An example of the above advice is for FP models. In section 4, we used FP transformations that had previously been selected by Royston (2004). Had this not been the case, we would have had to select our best FP model. To ensure each imputation model is semicompatible with any FP model that might be selected, one could use the following method. For a partially observed X, the transformations X^p under consideration will typically include $p = -2, -1, -0.5, 0, 0.5, 1, 2,$ and 3, where X^0 is $\ln(X)$. All of these X^p should be included in the SMC–FCS specification of the substantive model. This ensures the imputation model for each partially observed variable (in particular, X) is semicompatible with any (to be subsequently selected) FP model. An FP model for the outcome can then be selected using the imputed data. Note that for degree-2 FP models, repeated powers for X are possible. If this is a concern, the variables $X^p \ln(X)$ should also be included in the substantive model at the imputation stage.

The following fragment of code demonstrates how this strategy can be implemented in practice. Note that fracgen involves scaling and centering of x_1-x_2 , so it is important to be aware of this in defining the passive() statement.

. smcfcs reg y x_1 x_2 x_3 x_4 x_5 x x_7 x_8, regress(x) > passive(x_1 = x^-2 | x_2 = x^-1 | x_3 = x^-0.5 | x_4 = ln(x) | x_5 = x^0.5 | $> x_6 = x^2 | x_7 = x^3$

We believe that imputing covariates from a model that is compatible with the substantive model is desirable because (assuming the latter is correctly specified) unless the imputation model (or a restriction of it) is compatible with the substantive model, the imputation model is misspecified. We emphasize that this compatibility does not ensure that the imputation model is correctly specified—if the covariate model $f(X_i | X_{-i}, Z, \phi_i)$ is misspecified for a given value of j, the imputation model is misspecified. Care should therefore be taken to ensure that the covariate models $f(X_i | X_{-i}, Z, \phi_i)$ are reasonable for the data at hand. Diagnostics that can be applied to MIs should be applied, such as examining the distributions of imputed variables and comparing them with the distribution of the observed values.

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