

Estimation Of Parameters In The Presence Of Missing Data In Errors In Variables Linear Models: A New Estimator

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ABSTRACT

Estimation of parameters of the general linear model will pose problems in the presence of measurement errors with missing data. In some cases there will be gaps in the data or some observations may be completely missing. For example, in an agriculture experiment the observations from some plots may not be available. These situations necessitate the estimation of the missing observations. In these contexts some standard techniques for predicating the observations would be of much use. Considerable attention was paid by several researchers for this particular pattern of missing observations and a lot of literature appeared. In this paper an attempt has been made to provided an estimator of parameter vector in the presence of measurement errors and missing data. Extensive Monte Carlo study revealed that the new estimator is more efficient than OLE.

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Estimation of parameters of the general linear model will pose problems in the presence of measurement errors with missing data. There are several simple methods by which one can estimate missing values and then estimate the parameters. However, most of the work on missing observations assumes that all the data may be considered as a random sample from a known multivariate distribution, usually taken to be multi- normal. As most of the econometric analysis is based on the general liner modal with stochastic regressors when the variables are affected by observational errors with missing data, there is a need to have estimators, which are useful for practical applications.

There are variety of reasons why the data may be missing. In some cases the desired series may just be unobservable. In some others, like cross-section data, where data is collected by means of survey, there may be some respondents who may not answer some questions or not

respond at all. In such cases there will be gaps in the data or some observations may be completely missing. For example, in an agriculture experiment the observations from some plots may not be available. These situations necessitate the estimation of the missing observations. In these contexts some standard techniques for predicating the observations would be of much use.

Considerable attention was paid by several researchers for this particular pattern of missing observations and a lot of literature appeared. Hence, the researcher has provided an estimator of parameter vector in the presence of measurement errors and missing data in this thesis.

1.2 MISSING OF OBSERVATIONS

There are several simple methods by which one can estimate missing values and then estimate the parameters. However, most of the work on missing observations assumes that all the data may be considered as a random sample from a known multivariate distribution, usually taken to be multi- normal. Commencing with the work of Anderson (1957), a large literature has appeared. Hartley and Hocking (1971) and Rubin (1974) have outlined the pattern of missing values for which explicit algebraic formulae for maximum likelihood solutions are possible. Dumpster, Laird and Rubin (1977) have discussed numerical approaches for the other, less algebraically tractable situations. Gorier and Montfort(1981) have derived M.L. estimators for this same pattern without making any distributional assumptions about the explanatory variables present for all observations and compared with the maximum likelihood approach of Dagenasi (1973).

The problem of missing values in discriminate analysis is discussed by Chas and Dunn (1972, 1974), using the method proposed by Dear (1959). The missing data problem in factor analysis is considered by Woodbury and Saber (1960). Press and Scott (1975, 1976) and Swami and Mehta (1975) used the Bayesian Regression procedure to estimate the missing values and the parameters.

Beale and Little (1975) have applied maximum likelihood method to estimate missing value. They have used the missing information principle suggested by Orchard and Woodbury (1972) in their analysis. Hartley and Hocking (1971) and Rubin (1974) have outlined the

pattern of missing values for which explicit algebraic formulae for M.L. solutions. Orchard and Woodbury (1972) and Dumpster, Laird and Rubin (1977) have discussed numerical approaches for the other, less algebraically tractable situations.

Denis Connie (1983) proposed other estimators for this pattern of missing data and has shown that the estimators are unbiased in small sample and derived explicitly small sample variance formulae. A.C. Harvey and C.R. Mackenzie (1984) have examined a number of methods for carrying out the maximum likelihood estimation of a dynamic econometric model with missing observations.

Maher EI-Masri, Susan M Fox-Wasylyshyn (2005) have provided the novice with an introductory conceptual issue of missing data. Paul D Allison (2012) has presented an intuitive estimate for estimating linear regression coefficients when an unspecified number and pattern of the independent variables for some individuals are not observed. Mohd Mustafa Al and Bakri Abdullah (2014) have discussed three interpolation methods that are linear, quadratic and cubic. Blackwell and James (2017) have developed a unified approach to measurement errors and missing data.

In (1972), Orchard and Woodbury have presented a method of estimation of missing observations in a general linear model set up by providing a missing information principle. The equations presented by them can be iteratively used to estimate the parameters. The method is briefly outlined.

Consider the case of missing observations in a linear model,

$$Y = X\beta + \epsilon \quad (1.2.1)$$

Suppose there are “n” potential observations but “m” are missing. Also the observed values are unaltered while the missing values are replaced by their expected values.

Let X_m and X_0 are $n \times k$ matrices such that $X = X_m + X_0$ and Y_m Y_0 are $(n \times 1)$ vectors such that $Y = Y_m + Y_0$

Where “ m ” represents missing value and “ o ” observed value of the variables respectively. In such a situation the missing information principle is used which employs the following equations.

$$\hat{\beta} = (X^1 X)^{-1} X^1 \hat{Y} \quad (1.2.2)$$

$$\hat{Y} = Y_0 + X_m \hat{\beta} \quad (1.2.3)$$

And

$$\hat{Y}_m = \left[I - X_m (X^1 X)^{-1} X_m^1 \right]^{-1} X_m (X^1 X)^{-1} X_0^1 Y_0 \quad (1.2.4)$$

Equation (4) is used to obtain an initial set of estimates for the missing values, and then the iterative procedure is used until the parameter estimates are stabilized.

The covariance matrix for $\hat{\beta}$ may be written as

$$\text{Cov}(\hat{\beta}) = \left\{ (X^1 X)^{-1} + (X^1 X)^{-1} X_m^1 \left[I - X_m (X^1 X)^{-1} \right]^{-1} X_m (X^1 X)^{-1} \right\} \sigma^2 \quad (1.2.5)$$

The main reason for using the above procedure is that the design matrix X for the complete data, where we have a balance design, may be chosen such that $(X^1 X)$ is diagonal, and hence much easier to invert than the general matrix $(X_0^1 X_0)$ which would result from using the available data only.

1.3 NEW ESTIMATOR

Let the model with stochastic regressors

$$Y = X\beta + \epsilon$$

Corresponding to the true model, the observed model be

$$Y^* = X^* \beta^* + \epsilon^*$$

Where, $Y^* = Y + U$ and $X^* = X + Z$

The OLS of $\hat{\beta}^*$ is given by

$$\hat{\beta}^* = (X^{1*} X^*)^{-1} X^{1*} Y^*$$

But $\hat{\beta}^*$ is not a consistent of β

Therefore, the following estimator can be used, which is consistent and it is given by

$$\tilde{\beta}^* = [X^{*1}X^* - W]^{-1}X^{*1}Y^*$$

Where, $W = X^1Z + Z^1X + Z^1Z$

If W is known, then it can be estimated by Extended Ridge method proposed by K.N Lankipalli and et al (1985).

When there are observational errors and missing values, then the new estimator proposed to estimate the parameters of the model is

$$\tilde{\beta}^* = [X^{*1}X^* - W]^{-1}X^{*1}\hat{Y}^*$$

Where, $\hat{Y}^* = Y_0^* + X_m^*\tilde{\beta}^*$

It is shown that $\hat{\beta}^*$ is consistent and asymptotically unbiased for β . The asymptotic variance of $\tilde{\beta}$ is also derived.

1.4 MONTE CARLO STUDY

To study the efficiency of the new estimator where there are measurement errors with missing of observations in linear model the following three variable linear model is considered as

$$Y = \beta_1X_1 + \beta_2X_2 + \beta_3X_3 + \varepsilon \quad (1.4.1)$$

Where $Y^* = Y + U$

$$X_j^* = X_j + Z_j \quad j=1,2,3 \quad (1.4.2)$$

Where Y and X_j are the true values, Y^* and X_j^* are the measured values and U and Z_j are the errors. The efficiency of the new estimator is examined in the following five cases.

Case 1	$X_j \square N(0,1)$	
	$Z_j \square N(0, 0.1)$	j=1, 2, 3
	$U \square N(0, 0.1)$	
Case 2	$X_j \square N(0, 1)$	
	$Z_j \square L_n(0, 0.1)$	j=1, 2, 3

$$\begin{aligned}
 &U \sim L_n(0, 0.1) \\
 \text{Case 3} \quad &X_j \sim N(0, 10) \\
 &Z_j \sim E(0, 0.1) \quad j=1, 2, 3 \\
 &U \sim E(0, 0.1)
 \end{aligned}$$

Further in each of the above three cases, the following three different parameter structures are considered:

$$(i) \quad \beta_1 = 0.01 \quad \beta_2 = 0.2 \quad \beta_3 = 0.8 \quad (1.4.3)$$

$$(ii) \quad \beta_1 = 0.1 \quad \beta_2 = 2.0 \quad \beta_3 = 5.0 \quad (1.4.4)$$

$$(iii) \quad \beta_1 = -0.5 \quad \beta_2 = 5.0 \quad \beta_3 = 10.0 \quad (1.4.5)$$

With the parameter structure (1.4.3) to (1.4.5) and the observations generated on X_j ($j=1, 2, 3$), the observations on the dependent variable Y are obtained by using the relation (1.4.2). Errors Z_j and u are introduced in to the variables X_j and Y according to the relation (1.4.2)

The process of taking random samples on the variables X_j, Z_j ($j=1, 2, 3$), that are uniform in the interval (0,1) are generated. 50 sets of samples sizes 10, 20, 30, 50 and 100 are considered in computing the estimator in each of the three different cases for three structures.

The new estimator is

$$\tilde{\beta}^* = [X^{*1}X^* - W]^{-1}X^{*1}\hat{Y}^*$$

In practice, $\tilde{\beta}^*$ is computed by replacing W by $\hat{W}$, an estimator of W , obtained by Extended Ridge Method. Therefore an “Extended Ridge Method” is developed in the present study to estimate W . When W is estimated by “Extended Ridge Method”, and used to estimate the parameter vector β , it is also difficult to establish the properties of $\tilde{\beta}$. Therefore an extensive Monte Carlo Study is carried out. The experimental study reveals that the new estimator $\tilde{\beta}$ is ‘better’ than OLS when the

true variables and errors follow different distribution viz., Normal, Lognormal and Exponential.

We assume that $W = K_j I$ and K_j assumes positive or negative values according as

$$\left| X^1 X \right| < \left| X^{1*} X^* \right|$$

At each stage of iteration and the iterations are carried out until $\tilde{\beta}_j^*$ is stabilized. In all the three cases measure of efficiency of the new estimator to that of OLE viz.,

$$e = \left| \frac{MSE(\hat{\beta}^*)}{MSE(\tilde{\beta}^*)} \right| \text{ is provided.}$$

1.5 SUMMARY OF THE RESULTS

From the Monte Carlo study, the following observations are made:

1. The bias and mean square error of the new estimator are smaller than OLE for all the three cases.
2. As the sample size increases, the mean square error of the new estimator constantly decreasing at a faster rate implying that new estimator is more efficient than OLE.
3. For all structures with different combinations of errors the value of $e > 1$, implying that the new estimator is more efficient than OLE.

TABLE – 1: MEASURE OF EFFICIENCY

CASE	SAMPLE SIZE	STRUCTURE		
		I	II	III
	10	$10^6(0.139296)$	$10^7(0.673730)$	$10^7(0.915690)$
	20	$10^7(0.840103)$	$10^7(0.524964)$	$10^7(0.407189)$

I	30	$10^{12}(0.129307)$	$10^8(0.543324)$	$10^5(0.757546)$
	50	$10^3(0.603703)$	$10^6(0.828820)$	$10^5(0.277225)$
	100	$10^7(0.773183)$	$10^3(0.203448)$	$10^2(0.483982)$
II	10	$10^5(0.310905)$	$10^5(0.634685)$	$10^8(0.335418)$
	20	$10^6(0.552619)$	$10^3(0.144995)$	$10^2(0.079399)$
	30	$10^6(0.441227)$	$10^3(0.673392)$	$10^2(0.331830)$
	50	$10^5(0.288201)$	$10^4(0.166364)$	$10^2(0.672898)$
	100	$10^5(0.954594)$	$10^4(0.750505)$	$10^3(0.651000)$
III	10	$10^4(0.324293)$	$10^5(0.949970)$	$10^2(0.602756)$
	20	$10^4(0.894434)$	$10^2(0.611162)$	$10^{14}(0.729343)$
	30	$10^7(0.204872)$	$10^4(0.286816)$	$10^2(0.873830)$
	50	$10^4(0.337137)$	$10^2(0.375331)$	$10^2(0.565020)$
	100	$10^3(0.013010)$	$10^3(0.313686)$	$10^2(0.050000)$

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