The Calculus of M-Estimation in R with geex

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Abstract

M-estimation, or estimating equation, methods are widely applicable for point estimation and asymptotic inference. In this paper, we present an R package that can find roots and compute the empirical sandwich variance estimator for any set of user-specified, unbiased estimating equations. Examples from the M-estimation primer by Stefanski and Boos (2002) demonstrate use of the software. The package also includes a framework for finite sample, heteroscedastic, and autocorrelation variance corrections, and a website with an extensive collection of tutorials.

Keywords: empirical sandwich variance estimator, estimating equations, M-estimation, robust statistics, R.

1. Introduction

M-estimation methods are general class of statistical procedures for carrying out point estimation and asymptotic inference (Boos and Stefanski 2013). Also known as estimating equation or estimating function methods, M-estimation was originally developed in studying the large sample properties of robust statistics (Huber and Ronchetti 2009). The general result from M-estimation theory states that if an estimator can be expressed as the solution to an unbiased estimating equation, then under suitable regularity conditions the estimator is asymptotically Normal and its asymptotic variance can be consistently estimated using the empirical sandwich estimator. Many estimators can be expressed as solutions to unbiased estimating equations; thus M-estimation has extensive applicability. The primer by Stefanski and Boos (2002) demonstrates a variety of statistics which can be expressed as M-estimators, including the popular method of generalized estimating equations (GEE) for longitudinal data analysis (Liang and Zeger 1986).

Despite the broad applicability of M-estimation, existing statistical software packages implement M-estimators specific to particular forms of estimating equations such as GEE.
paper introduces the package geex (Saul 2020) for R (R Core Team 2019), which can obtain point and variance estimates from any set of unbiased estimating equations. The analyst translates the mathematical expression of an estimating function into an R function that takes unit-level data and returns a function in terms of parameters. The package geex then uses numerical routines to compute parameter estimates and the empirical sandwich variance estimator. 

This paper is outlined as follows. Section 2 reviews M-estimation theory and outlines how geex translates mathematical expressions of estimating functions into R syntax. Section 3 shows several examples with increasing complexity: three examples from Stefanski and Boos (2002) (hereafter SB), GEE, and a doubly robust causal estimator (Lunceford and Davidian 2004). All of the SB examples and several more are available at the package website (https://bsaul.github.io/geex/). Section 4 compares geex to existing R packages. Section 5 demonstrates the variance modification feature of geex with examples of finite sample corrections and autocorrelation consistent variance estimators for correlated data. Section 6 concludes with a brief discussion of the software’s didactic utility and pragmatic applications.

2. From M-estimation math to code

In the basic set-up, M-estimation applies to estimators of the \( p \times 1 \) parameter \( \theta = (\theta_1, \theta_2, \ldots, \theta_p)^\top \) which can be obtained as solutions to an equation of the form

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{m} \psi(O_i, \theta) = 0, \tag{1}
\]

where \( O_1, \ldots, O_m \) are \( m \) independent and identically distributed (iid) random variables, and the function \( \psi \) returns a vector of length \( p \) and does not depend on \( i \) or \( m \). See SB for the case where the \( O_i \) are independent but not necessarily identically distributed. The root of Equation 1 is referred to as an M-estimator and denoted by \( \hat{\theta} \). M-estimators can be solved for analytically in some cases or computed numerically in general. Under certain regularity conditions, the asymptotic properties of \( \hat{\theta} \) can be derived from Taylor series approximations, the law of large numbers, and the central limit theorem (Boos and Stefanski 2013, Section 7.2). In brief, let \( \theta_0 \) be the true parameter value defined by \( \int \psi(o, \theta_0) dF(o) = 0 \), where \( F \) is the distribution function of \( O \). Let \( \hat{\psi}(O, \theta) = \partial \psi(O, \theta)/\partial \theta^\top \), \( A(\theta_0) = E[-\dot{\psi}(O_1, \theta_0)] \), and \( B(\theta_0) = E[\psi(O_1, \theta_0)\psi(O_1, \theta_0)^\top] \). Then under suitable regularity assumptions, \( \hat{\theta} \) is consistent and asymptotically Normal, i.e.,

\[
\sqrt{m}(\hat{\theta} - \theta_0) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, V(\theta_0)) \text{ as } m \to \infty,
\]

where \( V(\theta_0) = A(\theta_0)^{-1}B(\theta_0)\{A(\theta_0)^{-1}\}^\top \). The sandwich form of \( V(\theta_0) \) suggests several possible large sample variance estimators. For some problems, the analytic form of \( V(\theta_0) \) can be derived and estimators of \( \theta_0 \) and other unknowns simply plugged into \( V(\theta_0) \). Alternatively, \( V(\theta_0) \) can be consistently estimated by the empirical sandwich variance estimator, where the expectations in \( A(\theta) \) and \( B(\theta) \) are replaced with their empirical counterparts. Let \( A_i = -\dot{\psi}(O_i, \theta)|_{\theta=\theta_0} \), \( A_m = m^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{m} A_i \), \( B_i = \psi(O_i, \hat{\theta})\psi(O_i, \hat{\theta})^\top \), and \( B_m = m^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{m} B_i \). The empirical sandwich estimator of the variance of \( \hat{\theta} \) is:

\[
\hat{\Sigma} = \hat{A}_m^{-1}\hat{B}_m\hat{A}_m^{-1\top}/m. \tag{2}
\]
The `geex` package provides an application programming interface (API) for carrying out M-estimation. The analyst provides a function, called `estFUN`, corresponding to $\psi(O_i, \theta)$ that maps data $O_i$ to a function of $\theta$. Numerical derivatives approximate $\dot{\psi}$ so that evaluating $\hat{\Sigma}$ is entirely a computational exercise. No analytic derivations are required from the analyst.

Consider estimating the population mean $\theta = \mathbb{E}[Y]$ using the sample mean $\hat{\theta} = \frac{1}{m-1} \sum_{i=1}^{m} Y_i$ of $m$ iid random variables $Y_1, \ldots, Y_m$. The estimator $\hat{\theta}$ can be expressed as the solution to the following estimating equation:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} (Y_i - \theta) = 0.$$ 

which is equivalent to solving Equation 1 where $O_i = Y_i$ and $\psi(O_i, \theta) = Y_i - \theta$. An `estFUN` is a translation of $\psi$ into an R function whose first argument is `data` and returns a function whose first argument is `theta`. An `estFUN` corresponding to the estimating equation for the sample mean of $Y$ is:

```
meanFUN <- function(data) {
  function(theta) {
    data$Y - theta
  }
}
```

The `geex` package exploits R as functional programming language: functions can return and modify other functions (Wickham 2014, Chapter 10). If an estimator fits into the above framework, then the user need only specify `estFUN`. No other programming is required to obtain point and variance estimates. The remaining sections provide examples of translating $\psi$ into an `estFUN`.

### 3. Calculus of M-estimation examples

The `geex` (Saul 2020) package is available from the Comprehensive R Archive Network (CRAN) at [https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=geex](https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=geex). The first three examples of M-estimation from SB are presented here for demonstration. For these examples, the data are $O_i = \{Y_{i1}, Y_{i2}\}$ where $Y_1 \sim N(5, 16)$ and $Y_2 \sim N(2, 1)$ for $m = 100$ and are included in the `geexex` dataset. Another example applies GEE, which is elaborated on in Section 5 to demonstrate finite sample corrections. Lastly, a doubly-robust causal estimator of a risk difference introduces how estimating functions from multiple models can be stacked using `geex`.

#### 3.1. Example 1: Sample moments

The first example estimates the population mean $(\theta_1)$ and variance $(\theta_2)$ of $Y_1$. Figure 1 shows the estimating equations and corresponding `estFUN` code. The solution to the estimating equations in Figure 1 are the sample mean $\hat{\theta}_1 = \frac{1}{m-1} \sum_{i=1}^{m} Y_{i1}$ and sample variance $\hat{\theta}_2 = \frac{1}{m-1} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (Y_{i1} - \hat{\theta}_1)^2$.

The primary `geex` function is `m_estimate`, which requires two inputs: `estFUN` (the $\psi$ function), `data` (the data frame containing $O_i$ for $i = 1, \ldots, m$). The package defaults to `rootSolve::multroot` (Soetaert and Herman 2009; Soetaert 2009) for estimating the roots.
of Equation 1, though the solver algorithm can be specified in the `root_control` argument. Starting values for `rootSolve::multiroot` are passed via the `root_control` argument; e.g.,

```r
R> library("geex")
R> results <- m_estimate(estFUN = SB1_estfun, data = geexex,
+ root_control = setup_root_control(start = c(1, 1)))
```

The `m_estimate` function returns an object of the S4 class `geex`, which contains an `estimates` slot and `vcov` slot for \( \hat{\theta} \) and \( \hat{\Sigma} \), respectively. These slots can be accessed by the functions `coef` (or `roots`) and `vcov`. The point estimates obtained for \( \theta_1 \) and \( \theta_2 \) are analogous to the base R functions `mean` and `var` (after multiplying by \( m - 1/m \) for the latter). SB gave a closed form for \( A(\theta_0) \) (an identity matrix) and \( B(\theta_0) \) (not shown here) and suggest plugging in sample moments to compute \( B(\hat{\theta}) \). The maximum absolute difference between either the point or variance estimates is 4e-11, thus demonstrating excellent agreement between the numerical results obtained from `geex` and the closed form solutions for this set of estimating equations and data.

### 3.2. Example 2: Ratio estimator

This example calculates a ratio estimator (Figure 2) and illustrates the delta method via M-estimation. The estimating equations target the means of \( Y_1 \) and \( Y_2 \), labelled \( \theta_1 \) and \( \theta_2 \), as well as the estimand \( \theta_3 = \theta_1/\theta_2 \). The solution to Equation 1 for this \( \psi \) function yields \( \hat{\theta}_3 = \hat{Y}_1/\hat{Y}_2 \), where \( \hat{Y}_j \) denotes the sample mean of \( Y_{j1}, \ldots, Y_{jm} \) for \( j = 1, 2 \).

SB gave closed form expressions for \( A(\theta_0) \) and \( B(\theta_0) \), into which we plug in appropriate estimates for the matrix components and compare to the results from `geex`. The point estimates again show excellent agreement (maximum absolute difference 4.4e-16), while the covariance estimates differ by the third decimal (maximum absolute difference 2e-12).
\[
\psi(Y_{1i}, \theta) = \begin{pmatrix}
Y_{1i} - \theta_1 \\
(Y_{1i} - \theta_1)^2 - \theta_2 \\
\sqrt{\theta_2} - \theta_3 \\
\log(\theta_2) - \theta_4
\end{pmatrix}
\]

SB3_estfun <- function(data) {
  Y1 <- data$Y1
  function(theta) {
    c(Y1 - theta[1],
      (Y1 - theta[1])^2 - theta[2],
      sqrt(theta[2]) - theta[3],
      log(theta[2]) - theta[4])
  }
}

Figure 3: Estimating equations and estFUN for Example 3.

3.3. Example 3: Delta method continued

This example extends Example 1 to again illustrate the delta method. The estimating equations target not only the mean \((\theta_1)\) and variance \((\theta_2)\) of \(Y_1\), but also the standard deviation \((\theta_3)\) and the log of the variance \((\theta_4)\) of \(Y_1\). SB again provided a closed form for \(A(\theta_0)\) and \(B(\theta_0)\), which we compare to the geex results. The maximum absolute difference between geex and the closed form estimates for both the parameters and the covariance is \(3.8e-11\).

3.4. Example 4: Generalized estimating equations

In their seminal paper, Liang and Zeger (1986) introduced generalized estimating equations (GEE) for the analysis of longitudinal or clustered data. Let \(m\) denote the number of independent clusters. For cluster \(i\), let \(n_i\) be the cluster size, \(Y_i\) be the \(n_i \times 1\) outcome vector, and \(X_i\) be the \(n_i \times p\) matrix of covariates. Let \(\mu(X_i; \theta) = E[Y_i|X_i; \theta]\) and assume \(\mu(X_i; \theta) = g^{-1}(X_i\theta)\), where \(g\) is some user-specified link function. The generalized estimating equations are:

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{m} \psi(O_i, \theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} D_i^T V_i^{-1} \{Y_i - \mu(X_i; \theta)\} = 0,
\]

where \(O_i = \{Y_i, X_i\}\) and \(D_i = \partial \mu(X_i; \theta)/\partial \theta\). The covariance matrix is modeled by \(V_i = \phi W_i^{0.5} R(\alpha) W_i^{0.5}\) where the matrix \(R(\alpha)\) is the “working” correlation matrix. The example below uses an exchangeable correlation structure with off-diagonal elements \(\alpha\). The matrix \(W_i\) is a diagonal matrix with elements containing \(\partial^2 \mu(X_i; \theta)/\partial \theta^2\). Equation 3 can be translated into an estFUN as:

R> gee_estfun <- function(data, formula, family) {
  + X <- model.matrix(object = formula, data = data)
  + Y <- model.response(model.frame(formula = formula, data = data))
  + n <- nrow(X)
  + function(theta, alpha, psi) {
  +    mu <- drop(family$linkinv(X %*% theta))
  +    Dt <- crossprod(X, diag(mu, nrow = n))
  +    W <- diag(family$variance(mu), nrow = n)
  +    R <- matrix(alpha, nrow = n, ncol = n)
  +    diag(R) <- 1
  +    V <- psi * (sqrt(W) %*% R %*% sqrt(W))
  +  }
}
This \texttt{estFUN} treats the correlation parameter $\alpha$ and scale parameter $\phi$ as fixed, though some estimation algorithms use an iterative procedure that alternates between estimating $\theta_0$ and these parameters. By customizing the root finding function, such an algorithm can be implemented using \texttt{geex} (see \texttt{vignette("v03_root_solvers")} for more information).

We use this example to compare covariance estimates obtained from the \texttt{gee} function (Carey 2019), and so do not estimate roots using \texttt{geex}. To compute only the sandwich variance estimator, set \texttt{compute_roots = FALSE} and pass estimates of $\theta$ via the \texttt{roots} argument.

For this example, estimated roots of Equation 3, i.e., $\hat{\theta}$, and estimates for $\alpha$ and $\phi$ are extracted from the object returned by \texttt{gee}. This example shows that an \texttt{estFUN} can accept additional arguments to be passed to either the outer (\texttt{data}) function or the inner (\texttt{theta}) function. Unlike previous examples, the independent units are clusters (types of wool), which is specified in \texttt{m_estimate} by the \texttt{units} argument. By default, $m$ equals the number of rows in the data frame.

\begin{verbatim}
R> g <- gee::gee(breaks ~ tension, id = wool, data = warpbreaks,
+     corstr = "exchangeable")
R> results <- m_estimate(estFUN = gee_estfun, data = warpbreaks,
+     units = "wool", roots = coef(g), compute_roots = FALSE,
+     outer_args = list(formula = breaks ~ tension, family = gaussian()),
+     inner_args = list(alpha = g$working.correlation[1, 2],
+     psi = g$scale))
\end{verbatim}

The maximum absolute difference between the estimated covariances computed by \texttt{gee} and \texttt{geex} is $2.7e-09$.

### 3.5. Example 5: Doubly robust causal effect estimator

Estimators of causal effects often have the form:

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{m} \psi(O_i, \theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left( \frac{\psi(O_i, \nu)}{\psi(O_i, \beta)} \right) = 0,
$$

where $\nu$ are parameters in nuisance model(s), such as a propensity score model, and $\beta$ are the target causal parameters. Even when $\nu$ represent parameters in common statistical models, deriving a closed form for a sandwich variance estimator for $\hat{\beta}$ based on Equation 4 may involve tedious and error-prone derivative and matrix calculations (e.g., see the appendices of Lunceford and Davidian 2004; Perez-Heydrich, Hudgens, Halloran, Clemens, Ali, and Emch 2014). In this example, we show how an analyst can avoid these calculations and compute the empirical sandwich variance estimator using \texttt{geex}.

Lunceford and Davidian (2004) review several estimators of causal effects from observational data. To demonstrate a more complicated estimator involving multiple nuisance models, we implement the doubly robust estimator:

$$
\hat{\Delta}_{DR} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{Z_i Y_i - (Z_i - \hat{e}_i) m_1(X_i, \hat{\alpha}_1)}{\hat{e}_i} - \frac{(1 - Z_i) Y_i - (Z_i - \hat{e}_i) m_0(X_i, \hat{\alpha}_0)}{1 - \hat{e}_i}.
$$

(5)
This estimator targets the average causal effect, $\Delta = \mathbb{E}[Y(1) - Y(0)]$, where $Y(z)$ is the potential outcome for an observational unit had it been exposed to the level $z$ of the binary exposure variable $Z$. The estimated propensity score, $\hat{e}_i$, is the estimated probability that unit $i$ received $z = 1$ and $m_z(X_i, \hat{\alpha}_z)$ is an outcome regression model with baseline covariates $X_i$ and estimated parameters $\hat{\alpha}_z$ for the subset of units with $Z = z$. This estimator has the property that if either the propensity score model or the outcome models are correctly specified, then the solution to Equation 5 will be a consistent and asymptotically Normal estimator of $\Delta$.

This estimator and its estimating equations can be translated into an `estFUN` as:

```r
R> dr_estFUN <- function(data, models) {
+  Z <- data$Z
+  Y <- data$Y
+  Xe <- grab_design_matrix(data = data,
+    rhs_formula = grab_fixed_formula(models$e))
+  Xm0 <- grab_design_matrix(data = data,
+    rhs_formula = grab_fixed_formula(models$m0))
+  Xm1 <- grab_design_matrix(data = data,
+    rhs_formula = grab_fixed_formula(models$m1))
+  e_pos <- 1:ncol(Xe)
+  m0_pos <- (max(e_pos) + 1):(max(e_pos) + ncol(Xm0))
+  m1_pos <- (max(m0_pos) + 1):(max(m0_pos) + ncol(Xm1))
+  e_scores <- grab_psiFUN(models$e, data)
+  m0_scores <- grab_psiFUN(models$m0, data)
+  m1_scores <- grab_psiFUN(models$m1, data)
+  function(theta) {
+    e <- plogis(Xe %*% theta[e_pos])
+    m0 <- Xm0 %*% theta[m0_pos]
+    m1 <- Xm1 %*% theta[m1_pos]
+    rd_hat <- (Z*Y - (Z - e) * m1) / e -
+      ((1 - Z) * Y - (Z - e) * m0) / (1 - e)
+    c(e_scores(theta[e_pos]),
+      m0_scores(theta[m0_pos]) * (Z == 0),
+      m1_scores(theta[m1_pos]) * (Z == 1),
+      rd_hat - theta[length(theta)])
+  }
+}
```

This `estFUN` presumes that the user will pass a list containing fitted model objects for the three nuisance models: the propensity score model and one regression model for each treatment group. The functions `grab_design_matrix` and `grab_fixed_formula` are `geex` utilities for extracting relevant pieces of a model object. The function `grab_psiFUN` converts a fitted model object to an estimating function; for example, for a `glm` object, `grab_psiFUN` uses the `data` to create a function of `theta` corresponding to the generalized linear model score function. The `m_estimate` function can be wrapped in another function, wherein nuisance models are fit and passed to `m_estimate`.
```R
estimate_dr <- function(data, propensity_formula, outcome_formula) {
  e_model <- glm(propensity_formula, data = data, family = binomial)
  m0_model <- glm(outcome_formula, subset = (Z == 0), data = data)
  m1_model <- glm(outcome_formula, subset = (Z == 1), data = data)
  models <- list(e = e_model, m0 = m0_model, m1 = m1_model)
  nparms <- sum(unlist(lapply(models, function(x) length(coef(x))))) + 1
  m_estimate(estFUN = dr_estFUN, data = data,
             root_control = setup_root_control(start = rep(0, nparms)),
             outer_args = list(models = models))
}

The following code provides a function to replicate the simulation settings of Lunceford and Davidian (2004).

```R
library("mvtnorm")
set.seed(123)
tau_0 <- c(-1, -1, 1, 1)
tau_1 <- tau_0 * -1
Sigma_X3 <- matrix(c(1, 0.5, -0.5, -0.5, 0.5, 1, -0.5, -0.5,
                     -0.5, -0.5, 1, 0.5, -0.5, -0.5, 0.5, 1), ncol = 4, byrow = TRUE)
gen_data <- function(n, beta, nu, xi) {
  X3 <- rbinom(n, 1, prob = 0.2)
  V3 <- rbinom(n, 1, prob = (0.75 * X3 + (0.25 * (1 - X3))))
  hold <- rmvnorm(n, mean = rep(0, 4), Sigma_X3)
  colnames(hold) <- c("X1", "V1", "X2", "V2")
  hold <- cbind(hold, X3, V3)
  hold <- apply(hold, 1, function(x) {
    x[1:4] <- x[1:4] + tau_1^(x[5]) * tau_0^(1 - x[5])
    x
  })
  hold <- t(hold)[, c("X1", "X2", "X3", "V1", "V2", "V3")]
  X <- cbind(Int = 1, hold)
  Z <- rbinom(n, 1, prob = plogis(X[, 1:4] %*% beta))
  X <- cbind(X[, 1:4], Z, X[, 5:7])
  data.frame(Y = X %*% c(nu, xi) + rnorm(n), X[, -1])
}
`
\begin{verbatim}
R> m1 <- predict(glm(Y ~ X1 + X2 + X3, data = dt, subset = Z == 1),
+ newdata = dt)
R> del_hat <- with(dt, mean((Z * Y - (Z - e) * m1) / e)) -
+ with(dt, mean(((1 - Z) * Y - (Z - e) * m0) / (1 - e)))
\end{verbatim}

This shows that `coef(geex_results)[13]` has a maximum absolute difference of $7.3e-10$ to `del_hat`.

### 4. Comparison to existing software

The above examples demonstrate the basic utility of the `geex` package and the power of R's functional programming capability. The `gmm` package (Chaussé 2010) computes generalized methods of moments and generalized empirical likelihoods, estimation strategies similar to M-estimation, using user-defined functions like `geex`. To our knowledge, `geex` is the first R package to create an extensible API for any estimator that is the solution to estimating equations in the form of Equation 1. Existing R packages such as `gee` (Carey 2019), `geepack` (Halekoh, Hojsgaard, and Yan 2006), and `geeM` (McDaniel, Henderson, and Rathouz 2013) solve for parameters in a GEE framework. Other packages such as `fastM` (Duembgen, Nordhausen, and Schuhmacher 2018) and `smoothmest` (Hennig 2012) implement M-estimators for specific use cases.

For computing a sandwich variance estimator, `geex` is similar to the popular `sandwich` package (Zeileis 2004, 2006), which computes the empirical sandwich variance estimator from modeling methods such as `lm`, `glm`, `gam`, `survreg`, and others. For comparison to the exposition herein, the infrastructure of `sandwich` is explained in Zeileis (2006). Advantages of `geex` compared to `sandwich` include: (i) for custom applications, a user only needs to specify a single `estFUN` function as opposed to both the `bread` and `estfun` functions; (ii) as demonstrated in the examples above, the syntax of an `estFUN` may closely resemble the mathematical expression of the corresponding estimating function; (iii) estimating functions from multiple models are easily stacked; and (iv) point estimates can be obtained. The precision and computational speed of point and variance estimation in `geex`, however, depends on numerical approximations rather than analytic expressions.

To compare `sandwich` and `geex`, consider estimating $\hat{\Sigma}$ for the $\theta$ parameters in the following simple linear model contained in the `geexex` data: $Y_i = \theta_1 + \theta_2 X_1 + \theta_3 X_2 + \epsilon$, where $\epsilon \sim N(0, 1)$. The estimating equation for $\theta$ in this model can be expressed in an `estFUN` as:

\begin{verbatim}
R> lm_estfun <- function(data) {
+   X <- cbind(1, data[["X1"]], data[["X2"]])
+   Y <- data["Y4"]
+   function(theta) {
+     crossprod(X, Y - X %*% theta)
+   }
+ }
\end{verbatim}

Then $\hat{\theta}$ and $\hat{\Sigma}$ can be computed in `geex`:

\begin{verbatim}
R> results <- m_estimate(estFUN = lm_estfun, data = geexex,
+                       root_control = setup_root_control(start = c(0, 0, 0)))
\end{verbatim}
or from the \texttt{lm} and \texttt{sandwich} functions:

```r
R> fm <- lm(Y4 ~ X1 + X2, data = geexex)
R> sand_vcov <- sandwich::sandwich(fm)
```

The results are virtually identical (maximum absolute difference $1.4\times10^{-12}$). The \texttt{lm}/\texttt{sandwich} option is faster computationally, but \texttt{geex} can be sped up by, for example, changing the options of the derivative function via \texttt{deriv\_control} or computing $\hat{\Sigma}$ using the parameter estimates from \texttt{lm}. While \texttt{geex} will never replace computationally optimized modeling functions such as \texttt{lm}, the important difference is that \texttt{geex} lays bare the estimating function used, which is both a powerful didactic tool as well as a programming advantage when developing custom estimating functions.

5. Variance corrections

The standard empirical sandwich variance estimator is known to perform poorly in certain situations. In small samples, $\hat{\Sigma}$ will tend to underestimate the variance of $\hat{\theta}$ (Fay and Graubard 2001). When observational units are not independent and/or do not share the same variance, consistent variance estimators can be obtained by modifying how $B(\theta_0)$ is estimated. The next two examples demonstrate using \texttt{geex} for finite sample and autocorrelation corrections, respectively.

5.1. Finite sample correction

Particularly in the context of GEE, many authors (e.g., see Paul and Zhang 2014; Li and Redden 2015) have proposed corrections that modify components of $\hat{\Sigma}$ and/or by assuming $\hat{\theta}$ follows a $t$ (or $F$), as opposed to Normal, distribution with some estimated degrees of freedom. Many of the proposed corrections somehow modify a combination of the $A_i$, $A_m$, $B_i$, or $B_m$ matrices.

Users may specify functions that utilize these matrices to form corrections within \texttt{geex}. A finite sample correction function requires at least the argument \texttt{components}, which is an \texttt{S4} object with slots for the $A (= \sum_i A_i)$ matrix, $A_{.i}$ (a list of all $m$ $A_i$ matrices), the $B (= \sum_i B_i)$ matrix, $B_{.i}$ (a list of all $m$ $B_i$ matrices), and $ee_{.i}$ (a list of the observed estimating function values for all $m$ units). Additional arguments may also be specified, as shown in the example. The \texttt{geex} package includes the bias correction and degrees of freedom corrections proposed by Fay and Graubard (2001) in the \texttt{fay\_bias\_correction} and \texttt{fay\_df\_correction} functions respectively. The following demonstrates the construction and use of the bias correction. Fay and Graubard (2001) proposed the modified variance estimator $\hat{\Sigma}^{bc}(b) = \bar{A}_{m}^{-1}B_{m}^{bc}(b)\{\bar{A}_{m}^{-1}\}^{\top}/m$, where:

$$B_{m}^{bc}(b) = \sum_{i=1}^{m}H_i(b)B_iH_i(b)^\top,$$

$$H_i(b) = \{1 - \min(b, \{A_i\bar{A}_{m}^{-1}\}_{jj})\}^{-1/2},$$

and $W_{jj}$ denotes the $jj$ element of a matrix $W$. When $\{A_i\bar{A}_{m}^{-1}\}_{jj}$ is close to 1, the adjustment to $\hat{\Sigma}^{bc}(b)$ may be extreme, and the constant $b$ is chosen by the analyst to limit over adjustments. The bias corrected estimator $\hat{\Sigma}^{bc}(b)$ can be implemented in \texttt{geex} by the following function:
R> bias_correction <- function(components, b) {
+ A <- grab_bread(components)
+ A_i <- grab_bread_list(components)
+ B_i <- grab_meat_list(components)
+ Ainv <- solve(A)
+ H_i <- lapply(A_i, function(m) {
+ diag((1 - pmin(b, diag(m %*% Ainv)))^(-0.5))
+ })
+ Bbc_i <- lapply(seq_along(B_i), function(i) {
+ H_i[[i]] %*% B_i[[i]] %*% H_i[[i]]
+ })
+ Bbc <- compute_sum_of_list(Bbc_i)
+ compute_sigma(A = A, B = Bbc)
+ }

The compute_sum_of_list sums over a list of matrices, while the compute_sigma(A, B) function simply computes $A^{-1}B(A^{-1})^\top$. To use this bias correction, the m_estimate function accepts a named list of corrections to perform. Each element of the list is a 'correct_control' S4 object that can be created with the helper function correction, which accepts the argument FUN (the correction function) plus any arguments passed to FUN besides components; e.g.,

R> results <- m_estimate(estFUN = gee_estfun, data = warpbreaks,
+ units = "wool", roots = coef(g), compute_roots = FALSE,
+ outer_args = list(formula = breaks ~ tension,
+ family = gaussian(link = "identity")),
+ inner_args = list(alpha = g$working.correlation[1, 2],
+ psi = g$scale),
+ corrections = list(  
+ bias_correction_.1 = correction(FUN = bias_correction, b = 0.1),
+ bias_correction_.3 = correction(FUN = bias_correction, b = 0.3))

In the geex output, the slot corrections contains a list of the results of computing each item in the corrections, which can be accessed with the get_corrections function. The corrections of Fay and Graubard (2001) are also implemented in the saws package (Fay and Graubard 2001). Comparing the geex results to the results of the saws::geeUOmega function, the maximum absolute difference for any of the corrected estimated covariance matrices is $3.8e-09$.

5.2. Newey-West autocorrelation correction

When error terms are dependent, as in time series data, $E[B]$ is challenging to estimate (Zeileis 2004). A solution is to estimate $B$ using the pairwise sum,

$$\hat{B}_{AC} = \sum_{i,j=1}^{m} w_{|i-j|} \psi(O_i; \hat{\theta}) \psi(O_j; \hat{\theta})^\top,$$

where $w_{|i-j|}$ is a vector of weights that often reflect decreasing autocorrelation as the distance between $i$ and $j$ increases. Many authors have proposed ways of computing weights (see for
example, White and Domowitz 1984; Newey and West 1987; Andrews 1991; Lumley and Heagerty 1999).

To illustrate autocorrelation correction using \texttt{geex}, we implement the Newey-West correction (without pre-whitening) and compare to the \texttt{NeweyWest} function in \texttt{sandwich} (Zeileis 2004). The example is taken from the \texttt{NeweyWest} documentation.

```r
R> x <- sin(1:100)
R> y <- 1 + x + rnorm(100)
R> dt <- data.frame(x = x, y = y)
R> fm <- lm(y ~ x)
R> lm_estfun <- function(data) {
+   X <- cbind(1, data["x"])
+   Y <- data["y"]
+   function(theta) {
+     crossprod(X, Y - X %*% theta)
+   }
+ }
+ } R> nwFUN <- function(i, j, lag) {
+   ifelse(abs(i - j) <= lag, 1 - abs(i - j) / (lag + 1), 0)
+ } R> nw_correction <- function(components, lag) {
+   A <- grab_bread(components)
+   ee <- grab_ee_list(components)
+   Bac <- compute_pairwise_sum_of_list(ee, .wFUN = nwFUN, lag = lag)
+   compute_sigma(A = A, B = Bac)
+ } R> results <- m_estimate(estFUN = lm_estfun, data = dt,
+   root_control = setup_root_control(start = c(0, 0)),
+   corrections = list(
+     NW_correction = correction(FUN = nw_correction, lag = 1)))
R> get_corrections(results)[[1]]

     [,1]       [,2]
[1,] 0.008390531 -0.003379649
[2,] -0.003379649  0.018784695

R> sandwich::NeweyWest(fm, lag = 1, prewhite = FALSE)

(Intercept) x
(Intercept) 0.008390531 -0.003379649
x -0.003379649  0.018784695

The function \texttt{lm_estfun} is essentially the same as the previous comparison to \texttt{sandwich} in Section 4. The function \texttt{nw_correction} performs the Newey-West adjustment using \texttt{nwFUN} which computes the Newey-West weights for lag $L$,

$$w_{i-j} = 1 - \frac{|i - j|}{L + 1}.$$
The function `grab_ee_list` returns the list of observed estimating functions, $\psi(O, \hat{\theta})$, from
the ‘sandwich_components’ object. The utility function `compute_pairwise_sum_of_list` computes $\hat{B}_{AC}$ using either (but not both) a fixed vector (argument `.w`) of weights or a function of $i$ and $j$ (argument `.wFUN`), which may include additional arguments such as `lag`, as in this case. For this example, `geex` and `sandwich` return nearly identical results.

6. Summary

This paper demonstrates how M-estimators and finite sample corrections can be transparently implemented in `geex` (Saul 2020). The package website (https://bsaul.github.io/geex/) showcases many examples of M-estimation including instrumental variables, sample quantiles, robust regression, generalized linear models, and more. A valuable feature of M-estimators is that estimating functions corresponding to parameters from multiple models may be combined, or “stacked,” in a single set of estimating functions. The `geex` (Saul 2020) package makes it easy to stack estimating functions for the target parameters with estimating functions from each of the component models, as shown in the package vignette `v06_causal_example`. Indeed, the software was motivated by causal inference problems (Saul, Hudgens, and Mallin 2019) where target causal parameters are functions of parameters in multiple models.

The theory of M-estimation is broadly applicable, yet existing R packages only implement particular classes of M-estimators. With its functional programming capabilities, R routines can be more general. The `geex` framework epitomizes the extensible nature of M-estimators and explicitly translates the estimating function $\psi$ into a corresponding `estFUN`. In this way, `geex` should be useful for practitioners developing M-estimators, as well as students learning estimating equation theory.

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