Covariate Adjustment in Randomized Controlled Trials



Kelly Van Lancker



Big thank you to

- Marlena S. Bannick (University of Washington)
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Outline

1 Hypothetical versus Real World

- 2 Estimation of conditional causal contrasts
- 3 Covariate Adjustment for Marginal Estimands
- 4 An alternative approach: super-covariates
- 5 Discussion: which variables to include?

Hypothetical World

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Hypothetical World



- Consider an eligible patient population.
- Imagine two parallel worlds: one where everyone is assigned Treatment 0 and one where everyone is assigned Treatment 1.

Hypothetical World



Consider an eligible patient population.

Imagine two parallel worlds: one where everyone is assigned Treatment 0 and one where everyone is assigned Treatment 1.

Denote Y⁰ and Y¹ the potential/hypothetical outcomes in the two parallel worlds.

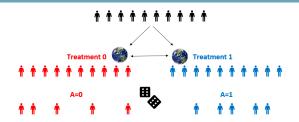
Marginal Causal Contrasts

- Causal contrasts of interest often reflect a contrast between the means of the distributions of Y⁰ and Y¹: E (Y⁰) and E (Y¹)
 - **D** Mean difference $E(Y^1) E(Y^0)$
 - $\square \text{ Mean ratio } E\left(Y^{1}\right)/E\left(Y^{0}\right)$
 - **Odds** ratio $\frac{E(Y^1)/\{1-E(Y^1)\}}{E(Y^0)/\{1-E(Y^0)\}}$
 - ...

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 - **Odds ratio** $\frac{E(Y^1)/\{1-E(Y^1)\}}{E(Y^0)/\{1-E(Y^0)\}}$
 - Ο...
- These are marginal/unconditional causal contrasts.
- The (marginal) causal contrast can also be a contrast of other summaries of the distributions of Y⁰ and Y¹; e.g., for time-to-event outcomes.

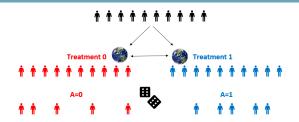
Real world: Randomization



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■ The randomized group is denoted *A* and the factual/observed outcome *Y*.

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- The randomized group is denoted *A* and the factual/observed outcome *Y*.
- Randomization ensures that causal contrasts correspond to statistical contrasts:

$$\Box E(Y^{1}) - E(Y^{0}) = E(Y|A=1) - E(Y|A=0).$$

Causal contrasts of interest can also reflect a contrast between the means of the distributions of Y⁰ and Y¹ in a subset of patients (e.g., females):

D e.g., mean difference $E(Y^1 | sex = f) - E(Y^0 | sex = f)$

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Randomization ensures that

 $E\left(Y^{1}|sex = f\right) - E\left(Y^{0}|sex = f\right) = E\left(Y|A = 1, sex = f\right) - E\left(Y|A = 0, sex = f\right).$

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However, estimation typically requires model assumptions (such as logistic regression model) and the estimate is often uninterpretable under model misspecification.

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- Perfectly possible to obtain an adjusted estimator of a marginal estimand.
 - Adjusted estimators of marginal estimands are almost always more precise than unadjusted estimators.

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Perfectly possible to obtain an adjusted estimator of a marginal estimand.

Adjusted estimators of marginal estimands are almost always more precise than unadjusted estimators.

- Recent FDA guidelines make a distinction between conditioning and adjusting (FDA, 2023).
 - Recommendations for covariate adjustment.
 - Advice on both conditional, and marginal estimands.

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- Until now, our estimand definitions have been completely model-free.
- In practice, treatment effects are usually encoded as parameters in a generalised linear model; e.g.

 $g\{E(Y|A,X)\} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 A + \beta_2 X$

where $g(\cdot)$ is a pre-specified link function.

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If assumption holds:

- β₁ carries an interpretation as *both* an **age-specific** (i.e., conditional) causal effect and a **marginal** causal effect.
- This is not necessarily true if one includes interactions! (Ye et al., 2022)

For a binary outcome Y, it is more common to choose the logistic regression model

$$logit{E(Y|A, X)} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 A + \beta_2 X.$$

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- If the model reflects the truth, then the effect of treatment (β₁) does not differ for different values of X.
- Unlike in the linear case, $exp(\beta_1)$ would *only* retain an interpretation as a **conditional effect**,

$$\frac{E(Y^{1}|X = x)/\{1 - E(Y^{1}|X = x)\}}{E(Y^{0}|X = x)/\{1 - E(Y^{0}|X = x)\}},$$

which may differ from the marginal causal odds ratio

$$\frac{E(\boldsymbol{Y}^1)/\{1-E(\boldsymbol{Y}^1)\}}{E(\boldsymbol{Y}^0)/\{1-E(\boldsymbol{Y}^0)\}}.$$

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- This phenomenon occurs due to the non-collapsibility of the logistic link function; see Daniel et al. (2021).
 - Not unique to logistic regression; e.g., Cox proportional hazards models.
- When the model is misspecified, the standard likelihood-based estimators of β_1 may not generally target either $\frac{E(Y^1|X=x)/\{1-E(Y^1|X=x)\}}{E(Y^0|X=x)/\{1-E(Y^0|X=x)\}} \text{ or } \frac{E(Y^1)/\{1-E(Y^1)\}}{E(Y^0)/\{1-E(Y^0)\}}.$

The concern for model misspecification for non-linear models is for example highlighted in the (EMA, 2015) guideline.

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FDA guidance on covariate adjustment

"after suitably addressing the treatment effect definition, **covariate adjustment** using linear or nonlinear models can be used **to increase precision**." Adjusting for Covariates in Randomized Clinical Trials for Drugs and Biological Products Guidance for Industry

> U.S. Department of Health and Human Services Food and Drug Administration Center for Drug Evaluation and Research (CDER) Center for Biologics Evaluation and Research (CBER) Oncology Center of Excellence (OCE)

> > May 2023 Biostatistics

Covariate Adjustment for Marginal Estimands

• **Covariate adjustment** is a statistical analysis method with high potential to **improve precision** for many trials.

- Pre-planned adjustment for baseline variables when estimating average treatment effect.
- Estimand is same as when using unadjusted estimator (e.g., difference in means).
- Goal: avoid making any model assumptions beyond what's assumed for unadjusted estimator (robustness to model misspecification).

(e.g., Koch et al., 1998; Yang and Tsiatis, 2001; Rubin and van der Laan, 2008; Tsiatis et al., 2008; Moore and van der Laan, 2009b,a; Zhang, 2015; Jiang et al., 2018; Benkeser et al., 2020)

In what follows, we focus on binary and continuous endpoints.

Example

Suppose we aim to learn the treatment effect on a binary outcome Y (e.g., 'disease').

Age	Α	Y	Y^1	Y^0
40	1	1	1	?
50	1	0	0	?
60	1	1	1	?
50	0	0	?	0
30	0	1	?	1
40	0	0	?	0

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40	0	0	?	0

- By randomization: fine to compare outcomes of treated with outcomes of untreated.
- Based on baseline covariates (e.g., age): guesses about what outcome would be for all participants if they were (un)treated.
 - By using the models that were used to obtain conditional estimates.

Covariate adjusted estimator: Model fitting

Step 1: Model fitting

Fit a logistic regression model for outcome Y given treatment allocation A and Age.

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Two logistic regression models, one per arm.

Covariate adjusted estimator: Predicting

Step 2: Predicting Use

$$P(Y = 1|A, Age) = logit^{-1}(\beta_0 + \beta_1A + \beta_2Age)$$

to impute outcome under treatment (A = 1) and control (A = 0) for all patients:

Age	Α	Y	Y^1	\hat{P}^1	Y^0	\hat{P}^0
40	1	1	1	0.8	?	0.7
50	1	0	0	0.6	?	0.55
60	1	1	1	0.7	?	0.6
50	0	0	?	0.7	0	0.6
30	0	1	?	0.6	1	0.5
40	0	0	?	0.5	0	0.45

 $\widehat{P}^{1} \text{ for patient } i: \ logit^{-1}(\widehat{\beta}_{0} + \widehat{\beta}_{1} + \widehat{\beta}_{2}Age_{i})$ $\widehat{P}^{0} \text{ for patient } i: \ logit^{-1}(\widehat{\beta}_{0} + \widehat{\beta}_{2}Age_{i})$

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$$\widehat{E} \left(Y^1 \right) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \widehat{P}_i^1$$
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■ Calculate treatment effect of interest:
 ■ Mean difference Ê (Y¹) - Ê (Y⁰)
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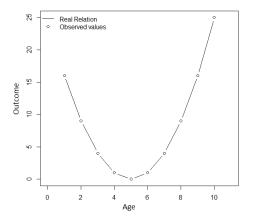
Mean of predictions based on glm's

Results for binary outcome and risk difference under correctly specified models

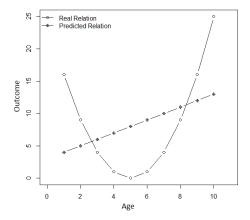
n	Effect	Estimator type	Bias	Power	MSE	RE
100	-0.201	Unadj.	0.025	0.463	0.829	1.000
		Adj.	0.023	0.607	0.755	0.911
200	-0.201	Unadj.	0.010	0.821	0.864	1.000
		Adj.	-0.001	0.895	0.749	0.867
500	-0.126	Unadj.	-0.013	0.798	0.979	1.000
		Adj.	-0.007	0.862	0.850	0.868
1000	-0.091	Unadj.	0.012	0.837	0.898	1.000
		Adj.	0.020	0.892	0.817	0.910

Results from Benkeser et al. (2020) "Improving precision and power in randomized trials for COVID-19 treatments using covariate adjustment, for binary, ordinal, and time-to-event outcomes." Biometrics.

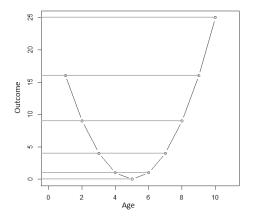
What if relationship between age and outcome in treated patients is not linear



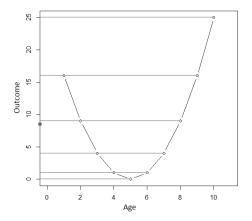
..., but we fit a misspecified model *outcome* \sim *age*?



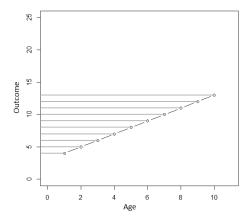
Projections of the observed outcomes on the y-axis,



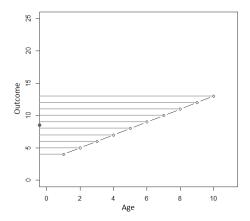
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Projections of the predictions on the y-axis,



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 \Rightarrow **Consistent estimator**, even when model is wrong.

- Model misspecification may reduce efficiency.
 - Despite the precision loss, (almost) never outperformed by the standard analyses.

Standard errors easy to calculate

- **Robust standard errors** (Tsiatis et al., 2008; Rosenblum and Van Der Laan, 2009; Ye et al., 2023):
 - Similar to variance of sample mean

sample variance of $2A(Y - \hat{P^1}) + \hat{P^1} - (2(1 - A)(Y - \hat{P^0}) + \hat{P^0}) - (\hat{E}(Y^1) - \hat{E}(Y^0))$ for a mean difference

Takes into account uncertainty in imputations

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- and are valid even when the model is misspecified
- or when variable selection is used (Avagyan and Vansteelandt, 2021).

Recommendations

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- Otherwise we need slightly different approach (AIPW, TMLE).
- Use of baseline covariates raises concerns due to missing data
 - **Easily addressed:** mean/mode imputation.
 - Without inflating risk of bias.
- I haven't covered all available methods
 - There are no other methods that have more power and have the same robustness.

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 - **Fitting** a prognostic model to predict outcomes under the control condition in a **historical dataset**.
 - 2 Use this to make a **prediction** for all patients in current trial under control (i.e., super-covariate).
 - **3** Estimating the treatment effect in the current study using a **linear model** while adjusting for the super-covariate only.

 $E(Y|A, X_{SC}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 A + \beta_2 X_{SC}.$

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- Historical trial population will generally differ from that in the considered trial: loss of power.
 - Association between outcome and covariates may differ between the historical and trial population.

Possibly safer option

- Also include (a few) other baseline covariates in addition to the super-covariate.
 - For example, including the **baseline measurement of the primary outcome** is usually recommended.

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Increasing the efficiency of randomized trial estimates via linear adjustment for a prognostic score

Alejandro Schuler 💿 🖂, David Walsh, Diana Hall, Jon Walsh, Charles Fisher, for the Critical Path for Alzheimer's Disease, the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative and the Alzheimer's Disease Cooperative Study

From the journal The International Journal of Biostatistics https://doi.org/10.1515/ijb-2021-0072

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 - E.g., including a super-covariate as one of the potential variables to select from can lead to finite sample gains.

Important: Pre-specify variable / model selection algorithm as well as a list of candidate covariates!

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- There is regularization bias because machine learning has been optimized for prediction, not for the evaluation of treatment effects.
- Obtaining correct standard errors is challenging, because the uncertainty in machine learning predictions is unknown.
- With flexible machine learning, there may be overfitting bias due to training the prediction model and evaluating the treatment effect on the same data.

To eliminate bias from the estimated mean outcomes, we must:

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Step 1: Model fitting/Training

Train a prediction model for outcome Y given treatment allocation A and baseline covariates X.

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Use this model to predict outcome **under treatment and control** for **all** patients.

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Shift predictions by a constant so that the average prediction in the treated equals the average outcome in the treated (similar for control).

Step 4: Averaging

Take the average of threse predictions, and calculate treatment effect of interest.

Overfitting bias can be eliminated by training the model on one subsample and evaluating the treatment effect on another subsample.

(this can be done without precision loss)

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A by-product of targeting is that standard errors are simple to calculate

because they are made immune to the uncertainty in the machine learning predictions.

This strategy is called targeted learning or Targeted Maximum Likelihood Estimation (TMLE; Van Der Laan and Rubin (2006)).

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- This strategy is called targeted learning or Targeted Maximum Likelihood Estimation (TMLE; Van Der Laan and Rubin (2006)).
- It updates initial predictions and targets them towards the estimand of interest.
- It brings data analysis back to its essence: translating a scientific question into an estimands, doing sanity checks, ... with automated model building strategies in background.
- It has the potential to deliver an additional power increase over standardization,
- but arguably the main benefit is that it enables pre-specification of the analysis.

Thank you for your attention!

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The opinions in this presentation are of the authors and do not necessarily represent those of anyone else.

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