

# Estimands in clinical studies

# Acknowledgements

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- Stijn Vansteelandt (Ghent University)

# Outline

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1 Introduction

2 Estimands for time-to-event outcomes

# Causal estimands

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  - No!

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  - which are often necessary (in trials) for **regulatory approval**.
- Should we only focus on them?
  - No!
  - **Less relevant** for exploratory research,  
as well as individual decision-making.  
(see talk Nan; as well as assumption-lean by Stijn)

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- Models and algorithms are only tools to learn an estimand, but should never be the primary aim of a causal analysis.
- This may sound obvious, but it is not.
  - For a statistician / data scientist, the first step is often formulating a model / algorithm.

## A common first step

- ICH E9 (FDA and EMA, 1998) and EMA (2015) guidelines are written with the understanding that the **target treatment effect is a model parameter**; e.g.,

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

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- This model implies no interaction between  $Z$  and  $X$ :
  - A **statistical modelling assumption: also not implied by e.g. randomization.**
  - When the model is misspecified, the standard likelihood-based estimators of  $\beta_1$  **may not generally target a causal effect.**

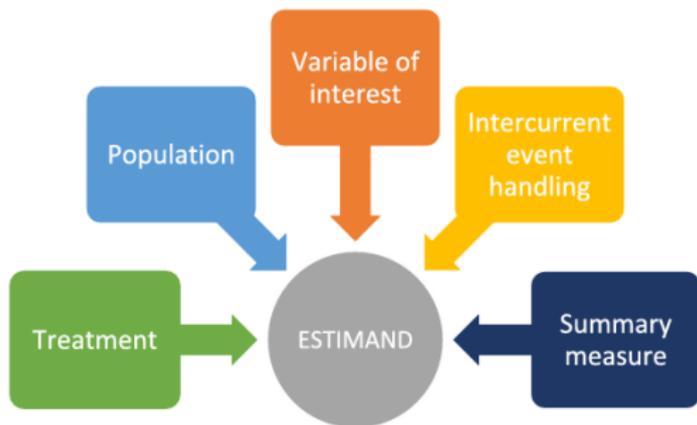
# Causal inference road map

- Road map for inferring causal effects
  - 1 Defining the **estimand**
  - 2 Stating the **identification assumptions**
  - 3 **Estimation** method(s) along with statistical assumptions
  - 4 Evaluate validity of assumptions via **sensitivity analyses**

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- Road map for inferring causal effects
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  - 3 **Estimation** method(s) along with statistical assumptions
  - 4 Evaluate validity of assumptions via **sensitivity analyses**
- Despite the various positive efforts made, statisticians often tend to go straight to Step 3.
- In my opinion, we should strive to fully follow this road map.
  - **Sensible estimand**: iterate steps 1-2 between statisticians and clinicians.

# Key steps to define estimand



**Fig. 1** The five attributes of an estimand according to the ICH E9 (R1) addendum

+ Formalize **potential/counterfactual outcomes**

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## Key steps to define estimand

- Relevant time-to-event  $\tilde{T}$  as outcome variable.
- A clear starting point (time zero);
- Population of interest:
  - Whole population (marginal estimand)
  - Subpopulation (conditional estimand)
  - Treated only (ATT)
- (Point) exposure/treatment of interest with interventions to compare:
  - Treating versus not treating
  - Hospitalization versus no hospitalization
- **Potential outcomes:**  $\tilde{T}^a$  is potential time-to-event under treatment setting  $A = a$ .

Concept of **emulating Target Trials** can be very helpful (Hernán, 2016).

## Estimands: what with censoring?

- Censoring makes the **event of interest** ‘invisible’.
- Interest in inference for an **uncensored population**.
- Estimand should **not depend on censoring aspects**.

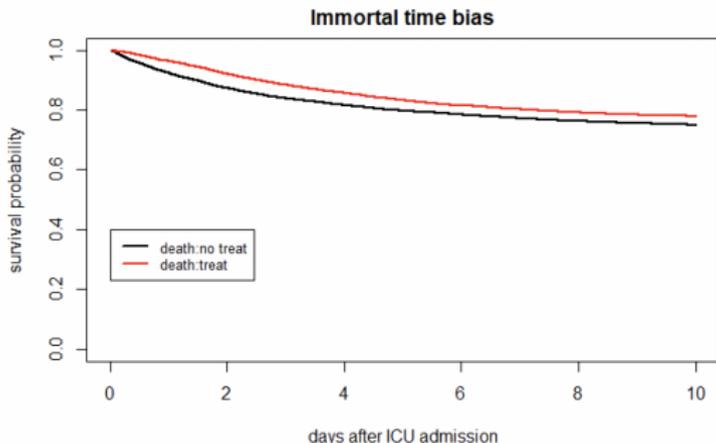
## Estimands: how to define time zero?

- In randomized studies: time zero is clear.
  - Start of randomization.
- In observational studies: often less so.
  - Different time scales:  
calendar time vs. start treatment vs. age.
  - Users defined later in follow up ⇒ **immortal time bias**.

## Immortal time bias: a common made mistake

- Population: patients admitted to ICU
- A treatment without an effect
- Treatment started between day 0 and 5

Ignoring delayed start of treatment yields:

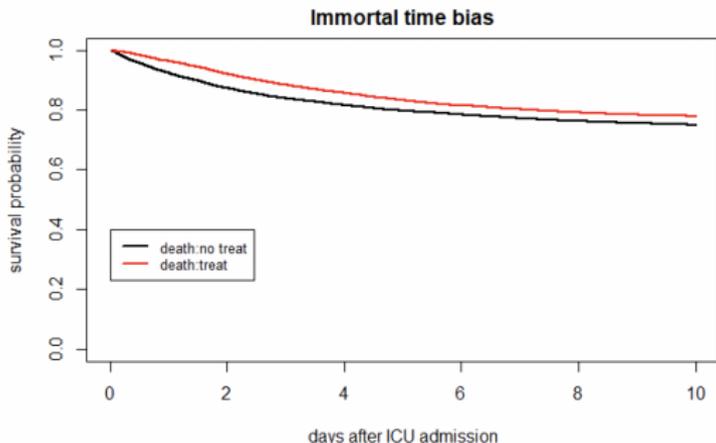


Observed effect (HR=0.88), while no effect was present.

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**Target trials prevent** you from making that mistake by mimicking your RCT.

## Estimands: scale of contrast

### **Hazard scale**

- Hazard ratio

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## Survival/risk scale

- Differences/ratios in survival probabilities at specific time(s):  
 $P(\tilde{T}^1 > t)$  versus  $P(\tilde{T}^0 > t)$ .
- Difference in survival curves.
- Difference in median survival time.
- Difference in (restricted) mean survival time:  
 $E(\min(\tilde{T}^1, t^*))$  versus  $E(\min(\tilde{T}^0, t^*))$ , with  $t^*$  a predefined time horizon.

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## “Speed” scale

- Estimands based on accelerated failure times

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- However, over recent years, researchers have **increasingly moved away from reporting hazard ratios**, often choosing restricted mean survival time (RMST) differences as an alternative.
  - Issues surrounding **selection bias** due to conditioning on post-baseline variables.(Hernán, 2010)
  - **Non-collapsibility**.
  - More **difficult to interpret**?

## Still a role for hazard ratio? (2)

- However, moving to RMST comes with an **information loss**:
  - Prentice and Aragaki (2022) showed that a single averaged hazard ratio is more sensitive to early treatment effect than, for example, the RMST difference.
    - Hazard ratios result in much more powerful tests.

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  - Prentice and Aragaki (2022) showed that a single averaged hazard ratio is more sensitive to early treatment effect than, for example, the RMST difference.
    - Hazard ratios result in much more powerful tests.
- Isn't that too much of a sacrifice?
  - It feels like a **large sacrifice for testing**.
  - Estimation?



Thank you for your attention!

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