Nonparametric sensitivity analysis for the survivor average causal effect: Towards sharp bounds for vaccine efficacy

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Tuesday, 24 May 2022

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 American Causal Inference Conference



The fights against HIV-1 and COVID-19

- The HIV-1 epidemic:
 - 1.5 million new infections occurring annually worldwide;
 - new infections outpace patients starting antiretroviral therapy;
 - HIV Vaccine Trials Network's (HVTN) 505 trial evaluated an antibody boost vaccine (Hammer et al. 2013).
- The COVID-19 pandemic:
 - 270M 331M 523M total cases estimated globally;
 - new variants emerging, with vaccine uptake plateauing;
 - COVID-19 Vaccine Prevention Network's (CoVPN) COVE trial evaluated the Moderna mRNA vaccine (Baden et al. 2021).

- How would [HIV-1, COVID-19] infection risk have differed had immunogenic responses been modulated higher or lower? (See Hejazi et al. 2020, Gilbert et al. 2021a;b)
- How can changes in vaccine-induced immunogenic response inform future [HIV-1, COVID-19] vaccine development?
- What is the effect on [HIV-1, COVID-19] viral load *in the infected* of a vaccine administered in an RCT?

- Recruit participants, measuring baseline covariates (e.g., sex-at-birth, age), and randomize to vaccine vs. placebo.
- By trial's end, some participants infected with the disease in question, others not. Measure viral load in the infected.
- What is the vaccine's effect on infection? Randomization!
- What is the vaccine's effect on viral load? Randomization?

Formalizing the problem

- We recruit *n* units, O_1, \ldots, O_n , where O = (W, A, Y, V):
 - Baseline covariates (W), e.g., sex-at-birth, race/ethnicity.
 - Treatment (A ∈ {0,1}): placebo or vaccine (randomized).
 - Preliminary outcome $(Y \in \{0, 1\})$: infection by trial's end.
 - Outcome ($V \in \mathbb{R}$): viral load measured by quantitative assay.
- Structural causal model (with standard assumptions):

 $W = f_W(U_W); A = f_A(W, U_A);$ $Y = f_Y(W, A, U_Y); V = f_V(W, A, Y, U_V)$

- Randomization lets us learn 𝔼[𝒴(1) − 𝒴(0)], using 𝑐 for precision enhancement via covariate adjustment possibly.
- V is only meaningfully quantifiable in the infected, or effect on the infected is of interest (e.g., Gilbert et al. 2003).
- Y is a post-randomization event: learning E[V(1) − V(0)] could be impossible due to confounding by infection status.
- Can we exploit any shortcuts to quantifying this effect?

- Assume V = 0 when Y = 0: we can quantify E[V(1) − V(0)], but we still cannot rely on randomization.
- How? Use inverse weighting or doubly robust approaches.
- The catch: Analysis is under-powered by assumption. Setting V = 0 artificially biases ATE estimates towards the null.
- A small step forward, but we substantially risk missing effect of vaccination on viral load, even when large (rare infection).

Without randomization, what can we learn?

- Without assuming V = 0 when Y = 0, we only have V quantifiable in the group for whom Y = 1, the infected.
- Infection is a post-randomization event, so this group could be highly unbalanced on W — so we can't learn E[V(1) − V(0)].
- Perhaps the infected are meaningfully different from those that remain uninfected (e.g., at higher baseline risk)?
- How do we balance on a post-randomization event?

Principal stratification

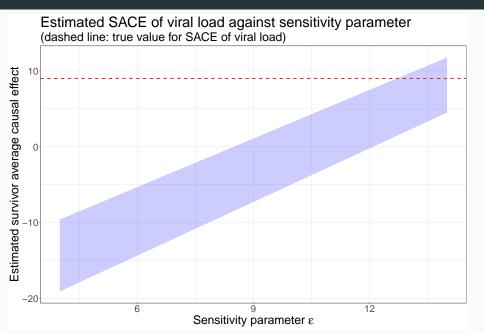
- The potential outcomes of *Y* define useful subgroups:
 - { *Y*(1) = 1, *Y*(0) = 1}, the "always infected"
 - {Y(1) = 0, Y(0) = 0}, the "never infected"
 - $\{Y(1) = 0, Y(0) = 1\}$, the vaccine-protected
 - $\{Y(1) = 1, Y(0) = 0\}$, the vaccine-harmed
- Formalized as *principal strata* (Robins 1995, Balke and Pearl 1997, Rubin 1998, Frangakis and Rubin 2002).
- For convenience, let $\theta(y_1, y_0) \coloneqq \mathbb{P}(Y(1) = y_1, Y(0) = y_0)$.

- Harmless treatment: θ(1,0) = P({Y(1) = 1, Y(0) = 0}) = 0, common in principal stratification (e.g., Angrist et al. 1996).
- λ_{SACE} := E[V(1) − V(0) | Y(1) = Y(0) = 1] which quantifies the vaccine's effect on viral load in the always-infected.
- $\psi = \sum_{y_1, y_0} \mathbb{E}[V(1) V(0) \mid Y(1) = y_1, Y(0) = y_0]\theta(y_1, y_0),$ where this is simply the total effect $\psi = \mathbb{E}[V(1) - V(0)].$
- Re-expressed in terms of the SACE, this total effect takes the form $\psi = \lambda_{SACE}\theta(1,1) \mathbb{E}[V(0) \mid Y(1) = 0, Y(0) = 1]\theta(0,1).$

Nonparametric partial identification of the SACE

- Now we can write, $\lambda_{SACE} = [\psi + \epsilon_0 \theta(0, 1)]/\theta(1, 1)$ in terms of ψ and where $\epsilon_0 := \mathbb{E}[V(0) | Y(1) = 0, Y(0) = 1].$
- $\{\theta(0,1), \theta(1,1), \epsilon_0\}$ cannot be point-identified what now?
- But {θ(0,1), θ(1,1)} can be set-identified, with sharp bounds via Huang et al. (2017; 2019) or Gabriel et al. (2020; 2022).
- ϵ_0 can be used as a sensitivity parameter.
 - ϵ_0 : Viral load of the vaccine-protected under placebo.
 - ■ E[V(0) | Y(1) = Y(0) = 1] − E[V(0) | Y(0) = 1, Y(1) = 0] is
 the average benefit, comparing viral load in infected placebo
 recipients causally unprotected vs. protected by vaccination.

Illustrating the approach



The big picture and future work

- 1. Quantifying effects on viral load is critical to understanding better the efficacy profiles of novel vaccines.
- 2. The SACE aligns well with scientific aims of vaccine trials; we provide a nonparametric sensitivity-based characterization.
- 3. Understanding effects on viral load *thru immunogenic markers* is key: decompose the SACE into direct and indirect effects.
- 4. Remaining questions and ongoing work:
 - Compare existing (sharp) bounds, contributed independently by Huang et al. (2017; 2019) and Gabriel et al. (2020; 2022).
 - Incorporate prior nonparametric sensitivity analysis efforts (e.g., Díaz and van der Laan 2013, Ding and VanderWeele 2016).

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◇ Work in progress — stay tuned!