

# Analytic methods to estimate effects in target populations

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Karolinska Institutet

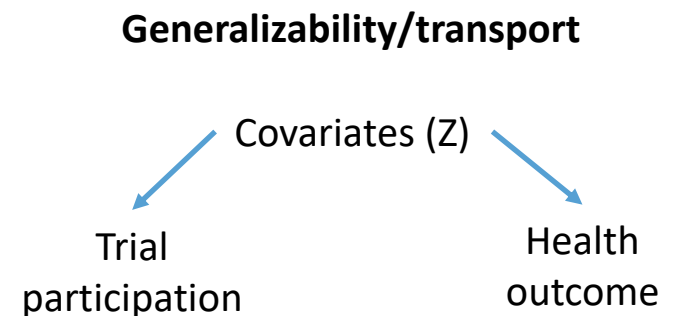
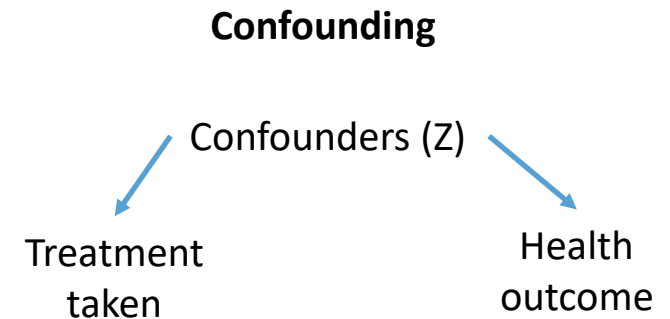
Tuesday, November 8, 2022



# Estimating effects in target populations

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- Confounding and generalizability/transport problems often share a common causal structure
- There are multiple ways to estimate effects in target populations from a study sample just as there are multiple ways to reduce confounding bias
  - And you face analogous assumptions
- Broadly speaking, you can model treatment (confounding) or trial participation (transport) or you can model the health outcome



# Available methods

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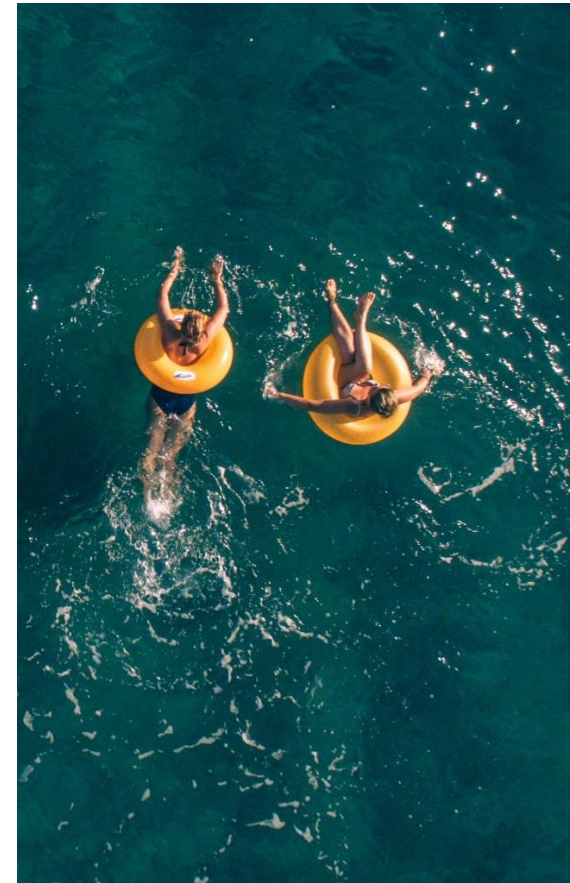
- Doing nothing
- Restriction
- Matching
- Weight-based standardization
- Outcome modeling
- Doubly-robust approaches



# Doing nothing

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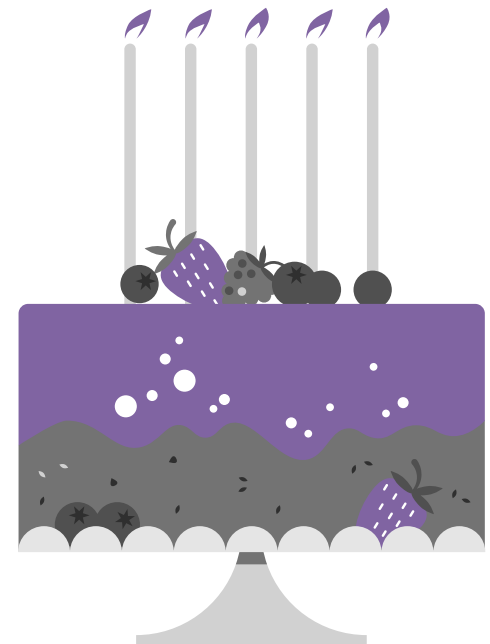
- Easiest solution
- Involves strong assumptions about effect measure modifiers
  - Which cannot hold on both the RD and RR scale for risk factors
- Not ideal



# Restriction

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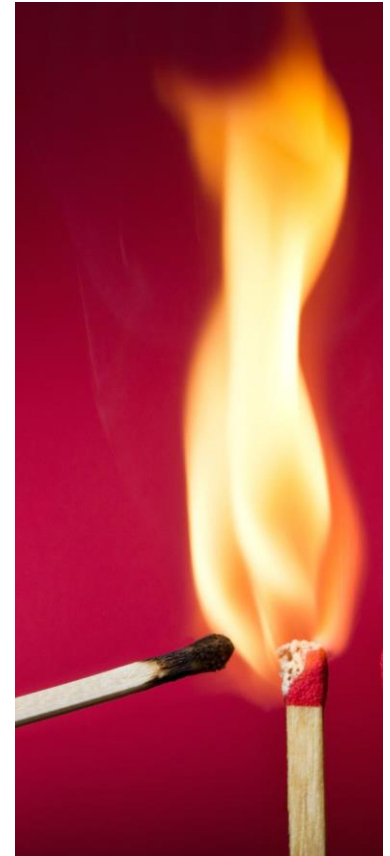
- We can also **restrict** the trial or target population
- Includes:
  - Limiting trial analyses to key subgroups (e.g. >65)
  - Limiting the target population or indicated population based on trial exclusion criteria
- A good first step; still makes assumptions



# Matching

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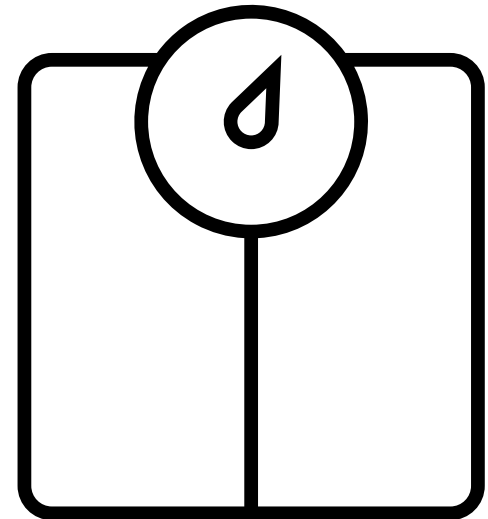
- Individually match trial participants to people from the target population
- Has the same advantages + disadvantages of exact matching for confounding
  - Difficult to do with many covariates
  - Must make decisions about replacement (especially since trials are usually smaller)



# Weighting

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- Creates a “pseudopopulation” with similar covariate distribution to the target from the trial participants
- Uses “probabilities of sampling” that are very similar to the propensity score
- Still makes assumptions
- More discussion soon!



# Outcome modeling

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- Estimate an outcome model in the trial based on covariates
- Apply the model to the target
- Obtain effect estimate of interest
- Most precise option, but the outcome may be harder to model than sampling
- Bonus: will adjust for covariate imbalances in the trial





# Doubly robust approaches

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- Leverage both a “sampling” and “outcome” model
- If either model is correct, the estimate is unbiased
- Often integrates machine learning
- Most useful with large numbers of covariates/complex models



# The goal of inverse odds weights

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- Use the **trial** population to create a new target population with the same distribution of covariates as the **target**
- Use the **outcome** data from this weighted **trial** population in analyses
- Perform the analysis you want to do in the weighted trial (Cox regression, intent-to-treat, etc.)



# Inverse odds weights-estimating probabilities

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- Combine study and target population individual-level data, with a new variable representing the population of origin
- Use some method to estimate each participant's probability of membership in the **study sample** based on covariates  $Z$ 
  - Logistic regression
  - Machine learning (e.g. pseudo-HDPS)
- For each  $i$  this probability can be represented as:
  - $Pr(sample_i = 1 | Z_i)$



# Inverse odds weights-creating weights

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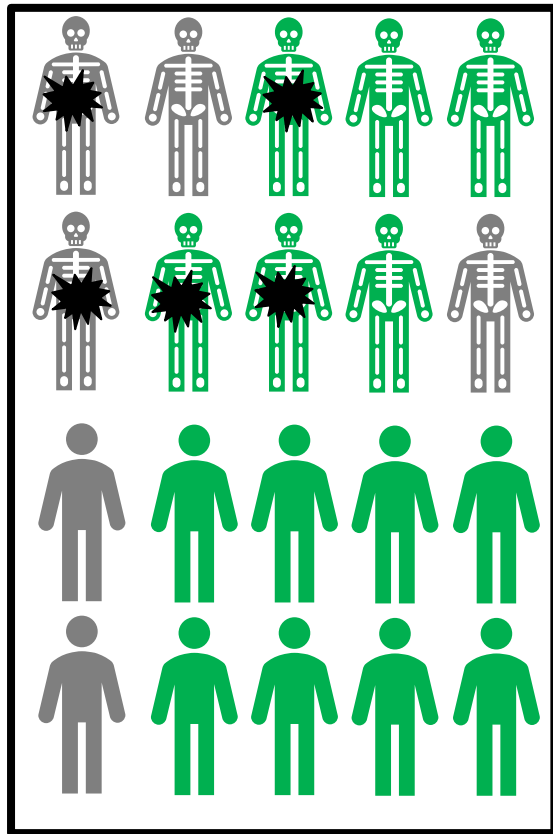
- These predicted probabilities can be transformed into **odds** and used to re-weight the study population individuals **only**
- The weights are the inverse odds:
  - $W_i = 1/Odds_i = \frac{Pr(sample_i=0|Z_i)}{Pr(sample_i=1|Z_i)}$
- Additional options include:
  - Stabilizing the weights
  - Estimating weights for each treatment arm
  - Resampling techniques based on the weights



# A simple demonstration

## 1. Combine the study and target population

Combined population



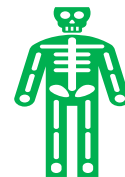
## 2. Estimate the probability of study membership based on EMM

$$P(\text{Study} \mid \text{Gray}) = 4/6 = 0.67$$

$$P(\text{Study} \mid \text{Green}) = 6/14 = 0.43$$

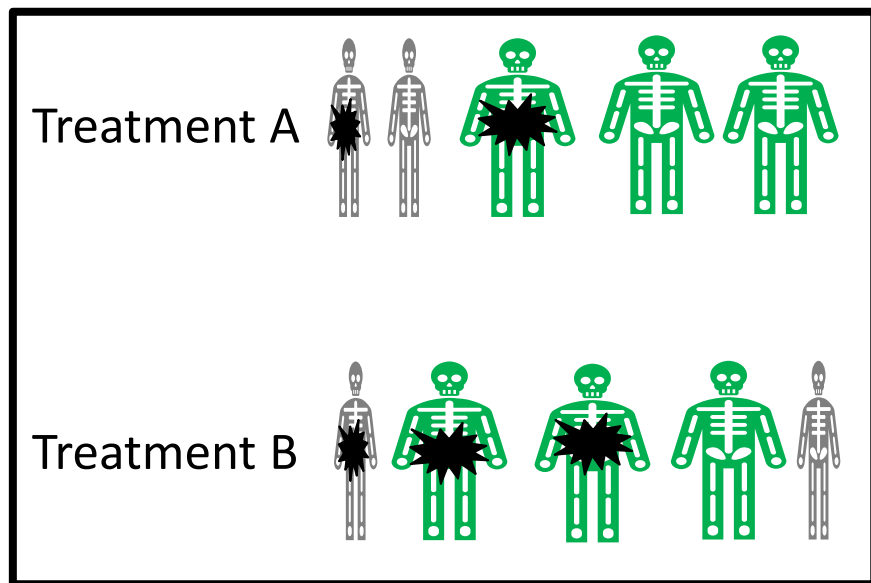
## 3. Assign each study participant a weight of: $W_i = 1/\text{Odds}_i = \frac{\Pr(\text{sample}_i=0|\text{EMM}_i)}{\Pr(\text{sample}_i=1|\text{EMM}_i)}$

$$W_{\text{gray}} = 1/(4:2) = 0.5$$



# Analyzing the weighted study population

## Weighted study population



Original trial:

Risk in treatment A =  $2/5 = 40\%$

Risk in treatment B =  $3/5 = 60\%$

Risk difference A vs B =  $-20\%$

Risk ratio A vs B =  $0.67$

With weights:

Risk in treatment A =  $(0.5 + 1.33)/5 = 37\%$

Risk in treatment B =  $(0.5 + 2*1.33)/5 = 63\%$

Risk difference A vs B =  $-26\%$

Risk ratio A vs B =  $0.59$



# Jenny's motivating example, MOSAIC

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## MOSAIC trial population

- Included patients after first colorectal cancer + surgery
- Randomized 2,246 patients to FOLFOX4 vs 5FU/LV
- Enrolled worldwide from 1998-2001

## US Oncology real-world target

- Included patients in US Oncology's IKnowMed EHR
- Patients with colon cancer
- Treated from 2008-2019 and eligible for the trial
- Assessed multiple targets:
  - All US Oncology patients
  - Stage III patients
  - Stage III patients w/ FOLFOX



# Rewighted MOSAIC results

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<b>Trial / Target Population</b>	<b>Hazard ratio (95% CI)</b>
<b>MOSAIC – Crude, overall</b>	<b>0.85 (0.71, 1.01)</b>
<i>All US Oncology patients</i>	1.05 (0.83, 1.33)
<b>MOSAIC – Crude, stage III</b>	<b>0.80 (0.65, 0.97)</b>
<i>Stage III US Oncology patients</i>	0.97 (0.74, 1.24)
<i>Stage III US Oncology FOLFOX patients</i>	0.93 (0.71, 1.22)



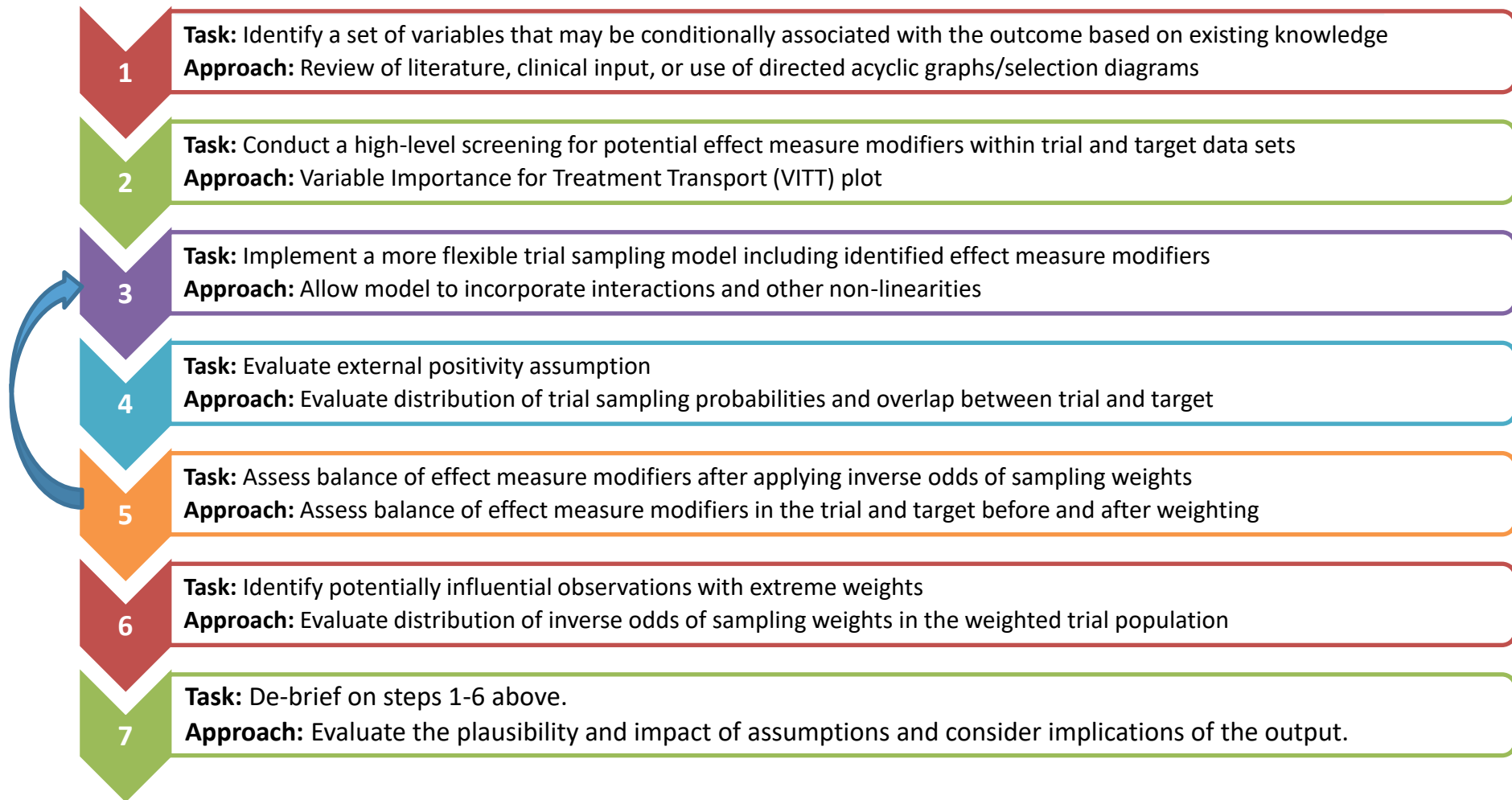


## But...

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- This leaves a lot of questions open
- What variables were associated with the outcome?
- How different were the populations?
- How well were they balanced after weighting?





**Questions?**

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