Inverse probability of censoring weighting (IPCW) for linear regression

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1 Principle

Inverse probability of censoring weighting (IPCW) is a method able to handle informative drop-out. Intuitively, in presence of informative drop-out a complete case analysis is a biased approach as individuals with complete data are not representative of the population. However with an appropriate re-weighting of the individuals with complete data, we can "re-balance" our sample and make it representative of the population. To do so, we divide the population into sub-populations and attribute weights to individuals who did not drop-out inversely proportional to the frequency of the drop-out in the sub-population. Thanks to the weights, individuals who did not drop-out "represent" the individuals who dropped-out. Thus, overall, the weighted sample is representative of the population.

2 Continuous outcome

2.1 Illustrative example

Consider a study were we follow depressed individual over time. They have a baseline measurement, then are given a treatment, and then have a follow-up measurement. We would like to assess the treatment effect in term of depression score ¹. The population of interest contain severely and moderately depressed individuals; the treatment may work differently in each sub-population. Unfortunately, some study participants dropped-out and it seems that they are more likely to drop-out when they are severaey depressed.

¹:To simplfy, there is no control group - we assume that without treatment the depression score would be constant.

We can simulate such a dataset using the following function:

```
simTrial <- function(n, rho, dmu, pC){</pre>
 require(mvtnorm)
 require(data.table)
  ## simulate data
 Sigma <- 10^2*matrix(c(1,rho,rho,1),2,2)</pre>
  ## gather into dataset
 M.Ym \leftarrow rmvnorm(n, mean = c(50, 50-dmu[1]), sigma = Sigma)
 M.Ys \leftarrow rmvnorm(n, mean = c(75, 75-dmu[2]), sigma = Sigma)
  dtL <- rbind(
    data.table(id = 1:n, mdd = "moderate", time = "T1", Y = M.Ym[,1]),
    data.table(id = 1:n, mdd = "moderate", time = "T2", Y = M.Ym[,2]),
    data.table(id = n+(1:n), mdd = "severe", time = "T1", Y = M.Ys[,1]),
    data.table(id = n+(1:n), mdd = "severe", time = "T2", Y = M.Ys[,2])
 dtL$probaDO <- 0
  dtL[time=="T2", probaD0 := ifelse(.SD$mdd=="moderate",pC[1],pC[2])]
 dtL[,dropout := rbinom(.N,prob=probaDO,size=1)]
 dtL[,Yobs:=Y]
 dtL[dropout==1,Yobs:=NA]
 dtL$probaDO <- NULL
 return(dtL)
}
set.seed(11)
dtL \leftarrow simTrial(n = 1000, rho = 0.8, dmu = c(25,50), pC = c(0.2,0.7))
print(dtL)
```

```
id
               mdd time
                              Y dropout
                                            Yobs
  1:
        1 moderate T1 44.83259
                                      0 44.83259
        2 moderate T1 30.34157
  2:
                                      0 30.34157
  3:
        3 moderate T1 56.36308
                                      0 56.36308
        4 moderate T1 64.63341
                                      0 64.63341
  4:
                                      0 45.10048
                    T1 45.10048
  5:
        5 moderate
 ---
                    T2 30.59793
3996: 1996
            severe
                                      1
                                              NA
3997: 1997
            severe T2 18.97725
                                      1
                                              NA
3998: 1998
                    T2 29.80266
            severe
                                      1
                                              NA
                    T2 30.26518
3999: 1999
                                      0 30.26518
            severe
4000: 2000
                    T2 39.15797
                                      0 39.15797
            severe
```

Here we have simulated a two sub-populations of 1000, with a correlation of 0.5 between baseline and follow-up . The treatment effect is twice bigger for the severely depressed population but individuals from this population are also much more likely to drop-out. Overall the expected treatment effect is:

```
(-25-50)/2
```

[1] -37.5

Without drop-out, we could use a simple linear model to carry-out the analysis:

```
Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) -37.35098 0.3141814 -118.8835 0
```

leading to an estimate quite close to the true value.

With drop-out, a complete case analysis would lead to a biased estimator. In this example, we can "see" that the estimated value is far away from the true one (even when accounting for the uncertainty):

```
dtW <- dcast(dtL, formula = id + mdd ~ time, value.var = "Yobs")
dtW$diff <- dtW$T2-dtW$T1
dtW.CC <- dtW[!is.na(diff)]
e.CC <- lm(diff~1, data = dtW.CC)
summary(e.CC)$coef</pre>
```

```
Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) -31.42356 0.3909029 -80.38713 0
```

An alternative approach would be to use a linear mixed model (i.e. full information):

```
Value Std.Error DF t-value p-value (Intercept) 62.59128 0.3239587 1999 193.20760 0 timeT2 -33.76472 0.3855964 1068 -87.56494 0
```

which is better than the complete case analysis still biased when the drop-out mechanism depends on variables other than the baseline value. A better approach is to use IPCW. First we model the probability of not dropping out at follow-up:

and then compute the weights for observations with full data:

```
dtW$weight.oracle <- 1/predict(e.glmW.oracle, newdata = dtW,type = "
    response")
dtW[observed == TRUE, sum(weight.oracle)]</pre>
```

[1] 2000

Note that the weights sum to the total sample size. We then perform the complete case analysis with these weights:

```
dtW.CC <- dtW[!is.na(diff)]
e.IPCWoracle <- lm(diff~1, data = dtW.CC, weights = dtW.CC$weight.oracle)
summary(e.IPCWoracle)$coef</pre>
```

```
Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|) (Intercept) -36.89889 0.4251421 -86.7919 0
```

which gives a result much closer to the true value. A more feasible IPCW would use the baseline score to define the weights:

[1] 2015.739

We then perform the complete case analysis with these new weights:

```
dtW.CC <- dtW[!is.na(diff)]
e.IPCW <- lm(diff~1, data = dtW.CC, weights = dtW.CC$weight)
summary(e.IPCW)$coef</pre>
```

```
Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) -35.47206 0.423423 -83.77453 0
```

2.2 Simulation study

The quality of the previous estimators is compared using a simulation study. The results are summarized by Figure 1.

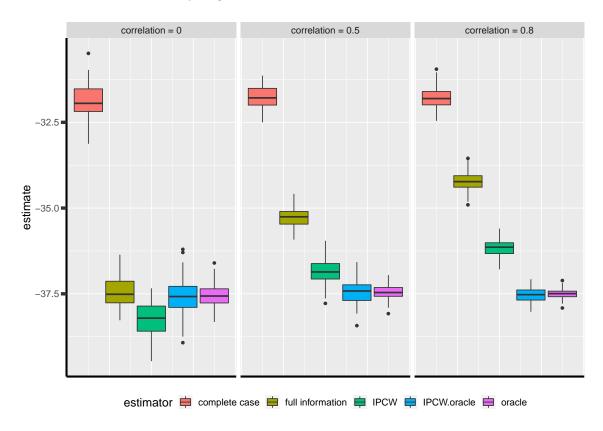


Figure 1: Comparison between the empirical distributions of the estimators (Gaussian case) for a sample size of 1000 using 100 datasets.

3 Binary outcome

3.1 Illustrative example

A somehow similar approach can be used for binary endpoints. Consider now a study comparing the survival probability at 1 year of patients treated with a new drug vs. standard care. The population is composed of two types of patients, say some with hypertension and some without. Survival as well as the treatment effect may differ depending of the hypertension status. Hypertension may also affect the drop-out probability.

We can simulate such a dataset using the following function:

```
simTrial <- function(n, dmu, dpC){</pre>
 require(BuyseTest)
 require(data.table)
 ## simulate data
 dt1 <- simBuyseTest(n.T = n, n.C = n,
         argsBin = NULL, argsCont = NULL,
         argsTTE = list(scale.T = 1+dmu[1],
          scale.C = 1,
          scale.Censoring.T = 1+dpC[1],
          scale.Censoring.C = 1),
         latent = TRUE)
 dt2 <- simBuyseTest(n.T = n, n.C = n,
         argsBin = NULL, argsCont = NULL,
         argsTTE = list(scale.T = 2+dmu[2],
          scale.C = 2,
          scale.Censoring.T = 2+dpC[2],
          scale.Censoring.C = 2),
         latent = TRUE)
 ## gather into dataset
 dt <- rbind(</pre>
   cbind(id = 1:NROW(dt1), group = "G1", dt1),
    cbind(id = NROW(dt1) + 1:NROW(dt2), group = "G2", dt2)
 return(dt)
}
set.seed(11)
tau <- 1
dt <- simTrial(n = 10000, dmu = c(0,1), dpC = c(0,1))
dt$responseUncensored <- dt$eventtimeUncensored<=tau</pre>
dt$response <- ifelse((dt$status==1)+(dt$eventtime>tau),dt$eventtime<=tau,
dt$observed <- ifelse((dt$status==1)+(dt$eventtime>tau),1,0)
print(dt)
```

```
id group treatment eventtimeUncensored eventtimeCensoring
   1:
         1
             G1
                       C
                                 1.63238841
                                                  1.74283865
   2:
         2
                       C
             G1
                                 0.08938341
                                                  1.10407172
                       C
   3:
         3
             G1
                                 1.54194414
                                                  1.11212966
   4:
         4
             G1
                       C
                                 1.04592013
                                                  1.00584279
                       C
                                 0.55276522
                                                  0.04955419
   5:
             G1
  ___
39996: 39996
             G2
                       T
                                4.08919433
                                                  1.23091105
```

39997:	39997	G2		T	3.	5973	86307	8.1	4939225
39998:	39998	G2		T	7.	2111	.0232	3.0	4114191
39999:	39999	G2		T	0.	0609	6057	0.4	2120185
40000:	40000	G2		T	6.	8961	.5584	2.2	2637070
	eventtim	ie st	tatus	respons	seUncenso	ored	response	observe	d
1:	1.6323884	1	1		FA	ALSE	FALSE		1
2:	0.0893834	1	1		Γ	TRUE	TRUE		1
3:	1.1121296	6	0		FA	ALSE	FALSE		1
4:	1.0058427	'9	0		FA	ALSE	FALSE		1
5:	0.0495541	.9	0		Т	TRUE	NA		0
39996:	1.2309110	5	0		FA	ALSE	FALSE		1
39997:	3.5973630	7	1		FA	ALSE	FALSE		1
39998:	3.0411419	1	0		FA	ALSE	FALSE		1
39999:	0.0609605	7	1		Т	TRUE	TRUE		1
40000:	2.2263707	0	0		FA	ALSE	FALSE		1

In absence of drop-out, we can compare the survival probabilities at 1 year using a logistic regression:

```
e.oracle <- glm(responseUncensored ~ treatment,
  data = dt, family = binomial(link="logit"))
summary(e.oracle)$coef</pre>
```

```
Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept) 0.07022885 0.01415085 4.96287 6.945906e-07
treatmentT -0.23721580 0.02004104 -11.83650 2.527721e-32
```

In presence of (differential) drop-out, a complete case analysis (i.e. restricting the analysis to the patients where the survival status at 1 year is known) would be biased:

```
dt.cc <- dt[dt$observed==1]
e.cc <- glm(response ~ treatment,
    data = dt.cc, family = binomial(link="logit"))
summary(e.cc)$coef</pre>
```

```
Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept) 0.4023018 0.01814959 22.16589 7.330653e-109
treatmentT -0.3656280 0.02510139 -14.56605 4.618541e-48
```

A first idea would be to re-use the IPCW approach, first fitting a logistic model for the probability of being observed at 1-year and then computing the weights:

```
e.IPCmodel <- glm(observed ~ group*treatment, data = dt, family = binomial
    (link="logit"))
dt$IPCweights <- 1/predict(e.IPCmodel, newdata = dt, type = "response")
sum(dt$IPCweights)</pre>
```

[1] 62570.28

The subsequent estimator will not be correct:

```
dt.cc <- dt[dt$observed==1]
e.IPCWcc <- glm(response ~ treatment, data = dt.cc,
  family = binomial(link="logit"), weights = dt.cc$IPCweights)
summary(e.IPCWcc)$coef</pre>
```

Advarselsbesked:

as we disregarded the duration of observation among the censored individuals. Intuitively, individuals censored early are more at risk of dying and therefore should "transfer" more weight than those censored late, e.g. just before 1 year, who don't really need to transfer weights. This can be perform using a survival model (here a Cox model) and using as weights the inverse of the probability of not being censored at the earliest between when the event occurred and 1 year:

[1] 40028.88

Note that now the sum of the weights is nearly equal to the full sample. We can then use the weights in a logistic model:

Advarselsbesked:

which is very close to the true value. Note that this estimator is implemented in the riskRegression package:

3.2 Simulation study

The quality of the previous estimators is compared using a simulation study. The results are summarized by Figure 2 and Figure 3

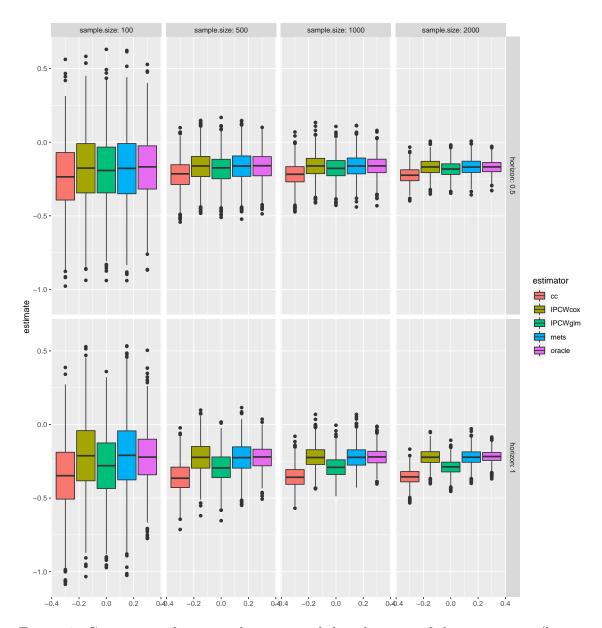


Figure 2: Comparison between the empirical distributions of the estimators (binary case) across sample size. Based on 1000 replicates.

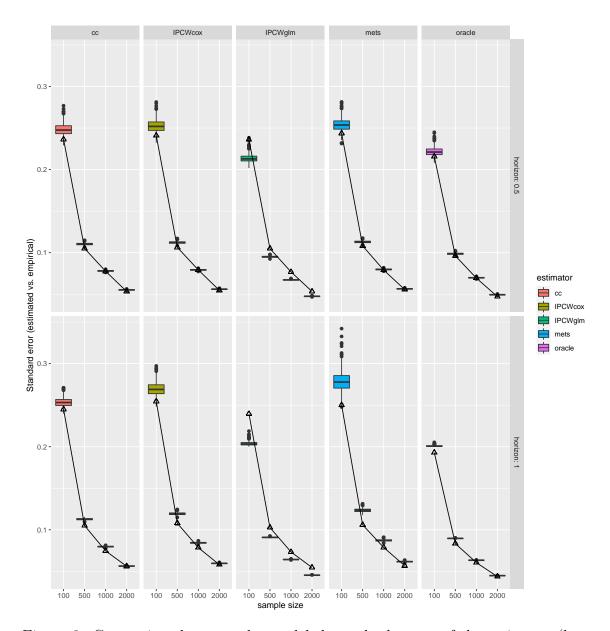


Figure 3: Comparison between the modeled standard errors of the estimates (boxplot) and the empirical ones (triangles linked by a line) across sample size. Based on 1000 replicates.