Accommodating Missingness When Assessing Surrogacy Via Principal Stratification

Michael R. Elliott, Yun Li, Jeremy M.G. Taylor

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Abstract

When an outcome of interest in a clinical trial is late-occurring or difficult to obtain, surrogate markers are often of interest to reliably extract information about the effect of the treatment on the outcome of interest. Examples of this include progression-free survival at an early time point as a surrogate of overall survival at a later endpoint in cancer trials, CD4 counts as a surrogate for AIDS treatments, and early laboratory measurements for later laboratory measurements. Traditional regression approaches (Prentice 1989; Freedman et al. 1992) compare the unadjusted effects of treatment with the effects of treatment adjusting for the surrogate to determine the proportion of the treatment effect that is mediated through the surrogate marker; however, these approaches did not account for the fact that surrogate measures are obtained post-randomization, and thus the surrogate-outcome relationship may be subject to unmeasured confounding. Thus Frangakis and Rubin (2002) suggested assessing the causal effect of treatment within principal strata defined by the counterfactual joint distribution of the surrogate marker under the treatment arms. Li, Taylor, and Elliott (2010) elaborated this suggestion in the setting of dichotomous markers and outcomes, developing surrogacy measures that have causal interpretations and utilizing a Bayesian approach that accommodated non-identifiability in the model parameters. Here we extend the work of Li, Taylor, Elliott to accommodate missing data under ignorable and non-ignorable settings, focusing on latent ignorability assumptions (Frangakis and Rubin 1999; Peng, Little, and Raghunathan 2004, Chen, Geng, and Zhou 2009; Taylor and Zhou 2009). We also allow for the possibility that missingness has a counterfactual component, one that might differ between the treatment and control due to differential dropout, a feature that previous literature has not addressed. We consider the frequentist properties of our model and assess prior sensitivity and identification issues via a simulation study. We apply the proposed methods to a trial of glaucoma control via surgery versus medication.

KEY WORDS: Surrogate Marker, Bayesian Estimation, Identifyability, Non-response, Counterfactual

1 Introduction

Given the time required to obtain clinical endpoints of interest such as survival, there is interest in using surrogate endpoints such as disease-free survival at early and fixed follow-up periods (Chen et al. 1998) or surrogate biomarkers such as CD4 counts for AIDS (Lin, Fischl,
and Schoenfeld 1993) to assess the effectiveness of a treatment regime in clinical trial settings. The demand for “surrogate markers” in clinical research, especially in cancer trials, has lead to the development of a large number of statistical methods to evaluate the effectiveness of such measures (Burzykowski, Molenberghs, and Buyse 2005). Prentice’s (1989) foundational paper defined “perfect” surrogacy in the hazard regression setting as occurring when an outcome $T$ is independent of treatment $Z$ conditional on the surrogate measure $S$. As pointed out by Freedman, Graubard, and Schatzkin (1992), this is an extremely strict criterion that can rarely be met in practice, and suggested the proportionate reduction treatment effect on a binary outcome when the surrogate measure is included in a logistic regression model as a reasonable measure in the absence of a surrogate-treatment interaction. Wang and Taylor (2002) relaxed this assumption for binary treatment and surrogate measures by considering the ratio of the treatment effect on the surrogate to the treatment effect on the outcome, multiplied by the association between the surrogate and outcome among controls; thus for a given treatment effect on the outcome, larger marginal associations between the treatment and the surrogate or between the surrogate and outcome in the absence of treatment imply better surrogacy measures. A meta-analytic approach to assess surrogacy has been suggested by Buyse et al. (2000), who distinguish between trial-level and individual-level surrogacy, and use random effects models to assess the variance of a predicted association between treatment and outcome in a new trial at both the individual and trial level when only the effect of treatment on a surrogate has been measured. Small variances in these associations (i.e., large coefficients of determinations) at both the individual and trial level are indicative of a good surrogate measure.

An alternative approach to assessing surrogacy has uses causal inference, with the goal of obtaining a surrogate in the causal pathway between a treatment and an outcome, using the concepts of potential surrogate measures and outcomes under different treatment assignments. Traditional regression models that condition on surrogacy measures to assess the fraction of the treatment effect explained cannot be viewed as causal since the surrogate marker is observed post-randomization (Rosenbaum 1984). Thus Robins and Greenland (1992) define direct and indirect effects in mediation analysis in the potential outcomes framework. In this setting, we assume that we can in principle observe the values of the outcome under all possible treatment assignments for a given individual. The targets of inference become the differences in the values of the potential outcomes under different treatment assignments within the individual, averaged over the population. Assuming that surrogate marker can be manipulated independently from the outcome, Robins and Greenland (1992) define (natural) direct effects as the expected value of the difference in the potential outcomes under different treatment assignments when the value of the marker is held constant, and indirect effects as the expected difference in the potential outcomes under treatment when the marker is changed to the value it would have been under treatment and under control. Assumptions required to obtain estimates of direct and indirect effects such as randomization, monotonicity (the treatment is never harmful), and no treatment-mediator interactions can be relaxed in part by sensitivity analyses (Taylor, Wang, and Thibaut 2005; Imai 2010; Vanderweheele 2010). An alternative “principal stratification” approach to assess surrogacy was proposed by Frankgakis and Rubin (2002). Principal strata are defined by the joint potential outcomes of the surrogate marker, thus forming a “pre-randomization” variable that can be conditioned on while retaining causal interpretations of randomized treatment effects. The causal effects of interest become the differences in the potential outcomes under treatment and control within the strata in which the surrogate changes as a result of the
treatment assignment. This approach has been explored for binary outcomes in more detail by Gilbert and Hudgens (2008) and Li, Taylor, and Elliott (2010), with the former considering continuous surrogate markers and focusing on the setting where the marker under the control is fixed and known (allowing identification of model parameters), and the latter on the setting where the marker is also binary (generally allowing identification of parameter boundaries only).

We proceed with the principal stratification approach in this manuscript, extending the work of Li, Taylor, and Elliott (2010) to accommodate missing data in the outcome measure, a common occurrence since the value of the surrogate variable is typically to provide information in advance of the outcome measure of interest. We utilize the machinery of the missing data literature (Little and Rubin 2002), focusing on developing a nonignorable missing mechanism that is based on the assumption of latent ignorability (Frangakis and Rubin 1999; Peng, Little, and Raghunathan 2004, Chen, Geng, and Zhou 2009; Taylor and Zhou 2009). Latent ignorability assumes an ignorable missingness mechanism conditional on membership in a not fully-observable stratum – here the principal strata based on the joint values of the surrogate marker under the differing treatment assignments. In contrast to much of the previous work that assumed latent ignorability in the context of non-compliance in randomized clinical trials, we cannot make “exclusion restriction” assumptions to force identifiability, since such an assumption would “assume” the very quantity we are trying to estimate, the degree to which subjects who had no causal impact of treatment on the surrogate outcome have a causal impact on the true endpoint of interest. Instead, we have an extra complication in that the parameters of interest are not fully identifiable even in the absence of missing outcomes, since only the marker and the outcome under the actual treatment assignment are observed. We also allow for the possibility that missingness has a counterfactual component, one that might differ between the treatment and control due to differential dropout, a feature that previous literature has not addressed to our knowledge.

The manuscript proceeds as follows. Section 2 develops surrogacy assessment using principal stratification, including the definitions of surrogacy measures of interest. Section 3 extends the principal stratification model for surrogacy to account for missing data using both latent ignorable and fully ignorable models, and discusses the use of the decision information criterion (DIC) measure to choose between the models. Section 4 considers the reduction in bias and mean square error when missing data methods are employed via a simulation study. Section 5 applies the proposed methods to a study of intraocular pressure (IOP) in glaucoma patients, using early measures of IOP as a surrogate marker for later measures of IOP to assess the effect of surgical vs. drug treatment. We conclude with a summary discussion in Section 6.

2 Assessing Surrogacy Via Principal Stratification

2.1 Notation

We denote treatment assignment by $Z_l$, the potential outcome for the surrogate under each of the treatment assignments for the $l$th subject by $S_l(Z_l)$, and the potential outcome for the true endpoint under each of the treatment assignments by $T_l(Z_l)$. We assume that the surrogate is fully observed, but that the true endpoint is missing (for example, due to insufficient follow-up time or dropout), and denote $R_l(Z_l) = \{0, 1\}$ corresponding to missing and observed true endpoints under each of the treatment assignments respectively.
Assuming dichotomous treatment assignments, surrogate markers, and true endpoints, the support for the joint distribution of the potential outcomes of the true endpoints is given by \{((0,0), (0,1), (1,1), (1,0))\}, corresponding respectively to failure under both arms, failure under control and success under treatment, success under both arms, and success under control and failure under treatment. Potential surrogate markers and responses have similar support corresponding to success/failure or observed/missing associated with each treatment arm. We denote the probability of a subject belonging to a cell in the resulting 4 \times 4 contingency table by \(P((S(0), S(1)) = i, (T(0), T(1)) = j, (R(0), R(1)) = k) = \pi_{ijk}\), where \(i, j, k = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}\), corresponding to the 4 support points (see Table 1). We refer to the set of counterfactual data \{\{(S(0), S(1))_l, (T(0), T(1))_l, (R(0), R(1))_l\}; l = 1, \ldots, n\} as the “complete data”. The observed data for the \(l\)th subject is given by \((z_l, r_l, s_l, t_l)\), where \(r_l = R(Z_l = z_l), s_l = S(Z_l = z_l)\), and \(t_l = \begin{cases} T(Z_l = z_l) & \text{if } r_l = 1 \\ . & \text{if } r_l = 0 \end{cases}\), where ‘.’ indicates a missing value.

### 2.2 Surrogacy Measures of Interest

The principal strata correspond to the categories associated with the distribution of the potential surrogate markers, with (0,0) termed never responsive, (0,1) responsive, (1,1) always responsive, and (1,0) harmed where without loss of generality 0 corresponds to a “poor health” surrogate marker and 1 to a “good health” surrogate marker. Under the assumption of “monotonicity,” corresponding to no one harmed with respect to either the surrogate or outcome, the overall causal effect of treatment (CE) is given by \(E(T_l(1) - T_l(0)) = \pi_{+2} = \pi_{12} + \pi_{22} + \pi_{32}\). (Here and below, we denote \(\pi_{ij} \equiv \pi_{ij+} = \sum_k \pi_{ijk}\), the joint distribution of the potential surrogate market and potential outcome marginalized across the missingness patterns.) Frangakis and Rubin (2002) proposed associative and dissociative effects corresponding respectively to the fraction of patients on which the treatment changed both the surrogate marker and the final outcome \(AE = \pi_{22}\) and the fraction of patients on which the treatment changed the surrogate marker but not the final outcome \(DE = \pi_{12} + \pi_{32}\). Taylor, Wang, and Thiebaut (2005) extended these to define associative proportions \(AP = AE/CE\) and dissociative proportions \(DP = DE/CE\) as the fraction of the overall treatment effect partitioned between the associative and dissociative effects. Li, Taylor, and Elliott (2010) proposed another surrogacy measure, common associative proportion (CAP) = \(\pi_{22}/(\pi_{12} + \pi_{32} + \pi_{22})\), suggested by the concept of “perfect surrogacy” (Frangakis and Rubin 2002), which would occur when there is no causal effect on T unless there is also a causal effect on S (i.e., \(\pi_{12} = \pi_{32} = 0\)). Without the monotonicity assumption, CE = \(\pi_{+2} - \pi_{+4}\) (the net treatment effect corresponding to the fraction responsive to the treatment minus the fraction harmed), AE = \(\pi_{22} + \pi_{42} - (\pi_{24} + \pi_{44})\) (net treatment effect on patients whose surrogate was harmed), and DE = \(\pi_{12} + \pi_{32} - (\pi_{14} + \pi_{34})\) (net treatment effect on patients whose surrogate was not harmful).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: Joint distribution of potential surrogate marker, outcome, and missingness patterns.</th>
<th>(R(Z = 0), R(Z = 1))</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(S(Z = 0), S(Z = 1))</td>
<td>(T(Z = 0), T(Z = 1))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((0,0))</td>
<td>(0,1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((0,0))</td>
<td>(\pi_{111})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((0,1))</td>
<td>(\pi_{121})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((1,1))</td>
<td>(\pi_{311})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((1,0))</td>
<td>(\pi_{411})</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
and AP and DP are unchanged. The CAP does not have a clear analog when monotonicity is relaxed, although larger values of $\pi_{22}/\pi_{2+}$ compared with $\pi_{12}/\pi_{1+}$, $\pi_{32}/\pi_{3+}$, and $\pi_{42}/\pi_{4+}$ would generally be required for a good surrogate (Li et al. 2011).

3 Principal Stratification Model for Surrogacy Accounting for Nonresponse in the True Endpoint

3.1 Model assumptions

Factoring the joint distribution of the complete data (i.e., assuming we could observe treatment assignments, surrogate markers, true endpoints, and response behavior on both treatment arms), we obtain

$$p(T(Z), S(Z), R(Z) \mid Z) = p(T(Z) \mid S(Z), R(Z), Z)p(S(Z), R(Z), Z)p(R(Z) \mid Z)$$

for $T(Z) = (T_1(Z), ..., T_n(Z))$ where $T_l(Z)$ refers to the set of potential outcomes for the $l$th subject associated with all possible treatment assignments $Z$ in the sample, and similarly for $S(Z)$ and $R(Z)$.

We make the following three assumptions throughout the remainder of this manuscript:

1. Randomization: treatment assignment is made independently of the potential outcomes for the surrogate markers, so that

$$p(T(Z), S(Z), R(Z) \mid Z) = p(T(Z), S(Z), R(Z))$$

2. Stable Unit Treatment Assignment (Rubin 1990): treatment assignment for subject $i$ is independent of $(S_j(Z_j), T_j(Z_j), R_j(Z_j))$ for $j \neq i$, so that

$$p(T(Z), S(Z), R(Z)) = \prod_i p(T_l(Z_l), S_l(Z_l), R_l(Z_l));$$

also the observed surrogate marker is equal to the potential outcome under the observed treatment arm ($s_l = z_lS(z_l) + (1 - z_l)S(z_l)$), and similarly for $T_l$.

3. Latent ignorability of missing data (Frangakis and Rubin 1999; Peng, Little, and Raghunathan 2004; Chen, Geng, and Zhou 2009; Taylor and Zhou 2009): conditional on joint distribution of the surrogate markers under both treatment assignments $S_l(Z_l)$, the joint distribution of the true endpoint under both treatment assignments $T_l(Z_l)$ is independent of response. Thus we have

$$p(T_l(Z_l), S_l(Z_l), R_l(Z_l)) = p(T_l(Z_l) \mid S_l(Z_l), R_l(Z_l))p(S_l(Z_l), R_l(Z_l)) =$$

$$p(T_l(Z_l) \mid S_l(Z_l))p(S_l(Z_l), R_l(Z_l)).$$

Note that this can be viewed as either a selection model $p(T_l(Z_l) \mid S_l(Z_l))p(S_l(Z_l), R_l(Z_l)) = p(R_l(Z_l) \mid S_l(Z_l))p(T_l(Z_l), S_l(Z_l))$ or a pattern-mixture model $p(T_l(Z_l) \mid S_l(Z_l))p(S_l(Z_l), R_l(Z_l)) = p(T_l(Z_l) \mid S_l(Z_l))p(S_l(Z_l), R_l(Z_l))p(R_l(Z_l))$ where either the selection probabilities $p(R_l(Z_l) \mid S_l(Z_l))$ or the mixture distributions $p(S_l(Z_l) \mid R_l(Z_l))$ are identified under the complete data.
We also consider a fully ignorable model in which missingness is independent of both the surrogate and the true outcome:

\[ p(T_l(Z_l), S_l(Z_l), R_l(Z_l)) = p(T_l(Z_l), S_l(Z_l))p(R_l(Z_l)) \]

Note also that we do not make the compound exclusion restriction (CER). Under CER, \( S_l(0) = S_l(1) \) implies that \( R_l(0) = R_l(1) \) and \( T_l(0) = T_l(1) \) (Frangakis and Rubin 1999; Peng, Little, and Raghunathan 2004). In the context of the surrogacy analysis, this would imply that subjects who had no causal impact of treatment on the surrogate outcome would have no causal impact of treatment on either the true endpoint of interest or on their response behavior, thereby assuming away key issue that we would like the data to speak to in our analysis.

We also consider the models with and without the monotonicity assumption for surrogate marker and true endpoint. Under monotonicity, subjects will never have a negative causal effect of treatment, so that \( P(S_l(0) = 1, S_l(1) = 0) = P(T_l(0) = 1, T_l(1) = 0) = 0 \), where we assume without loss of generality that 0 is a “bad” outcome and 1 a “good” outcome for both the marker and the endpoint. This corresponds to eliminating the last row and column in each of the response patterns in Table 1 (i.e., \( \pi_{i4k} = \pi_{j4k} = 0 \) for all \( i, j, k \)). In our application, we also consider a more limited form of monotonicity, which we term “stochastic monotonicity,” that only assumes the treatment more likely to be helpful than harmful (\( \pi_{2++} > \pi_{4++} \)) for the surrogate measures, and that, within the unchanged and helpful principal strata, the treatment is more likely to be helpful than harmful (\( \pi_{j2+} > \pi_{j4+} \), \( j = 1, 2, 3 \)) for the final outcome (Elliott, Raghunathan, and Li 2010).

Finally, knowledge about the missingness mechanism might allow restriction of the counterfactual missingness patterns. For example, if dropout is entirely due to administrative censoring, it might be reasonable to assume that the missingness value observed on the assigned treatment arm might be equivalent to the missingness value on the unassigned arm, so \( R(Z) \in \{(0,0), (1,1)\} \) (i.e., \( \pi_{++2} = \pi_{++4} = 0 \)) and thus the missingness pattern is fully observed. A less restrictive assumption if dropout is present is that subjects who are administratively censored under the assigned treatment arm would also be missing under the unassigned arm, so that \( r_l = 0 \) implies \( R(Z_l) = (0,0) \), but that subjects observed under the assigned treatment arm could have dropped out had they been assigned to the other arm, so that \( r_l = 1, z_l = 0 \) implies \( R(Z_l) \in \{(1,0), (1,1)\} \) and \( r_l = 1, z_l = 1 \) implies \( R(Z_l) \in \{(0,1), (1,1)\} \). We do not pursue these restrictions further.

### 3.2 Model Estimation

#### 3.2.1 Latent Ignorability Model

Factoring \( P((S(0), S(1)) = i, (T(0), T(1)) = j, (R(0), R(1)) = k) = \pi_{ijk} \) as

\[
P((T(0), T(1)) = j \mid (S(0), S(1)) = i, (R(0), R(1)) = k)P((S(0), S(1)) = i, (R(0), R(1)) = k) = \pi_{ijk}\pi_{i+k}
\]

we have under the latent ignorability assumptions that \( \pi_{ijk} = \pi_{jik} \) for all \( k \), reducing the number of free parameters in the complete data from from 63 to 27: 12 free parameters for \( \pi_{jii} \), and 15 free parameters for \( \pi_{i+k} \). (Under monotonicity, \( \pi_{j=4|i} = 0 \) for all \( i \) and \( \pi_{4+k} = 0 \) for all \( k \), further reducing the number of free parameters in the complete data to 17.) However, there are only 10 sufficient statistics in the observed data: 6 for the observed \( S \times T \) tables stratified by \( Z \) when \( R = 1, 2 \) for the observed \( S \) stratified by \( Z \) when \( R = 0, \)
Under the full ignorability assumption, we reject draws that fail to meet the non-identifiability in the observed data likelihood (Gustafson 2010).

The complete data likelihood is given by

\[
\prod_i \prod_j \prod_k \pi_{ijk}^{n_{ijk}} = \prod_i \prod_j \pi_{ij|k}^{n_{ij|k}} \prod_i \prod_k \pi_{i+k}^{n_{i+k}}
\]

We assume a Dirichlet prior for the cell probabilities:

\[
p(\pi_{ji}) \sim \text{DIR}(a_{ji})
\]

\[
p(\pi_{i+k}) \sim \text{DIR}(b_{i+k})
\]

We utilize a Gibbs sampler/data augmentation algorithm where the complete data \(n_{ijk}\) corresponds to the cell counts where \(((S(0), S(1)) = i, (T(0), T(1)) = j, (R(0), R(1)) = k)\). We first obtain draws from cell count parameters consistent with the latent ignorable assumption as follows:

\[
\pi_{1|1}, \pi_{2|1}, \pi_{3|1}, \pi_{4|1} \mid n_{111}, \ldots, n_{444} \sim \text{DIR}(a_{11}, n_{21} + a_{21}, n_{31} + a_{31}, n_{41} + a_{41})
\]

\[
\pi_{1+1}, \ldots, \pi_{4+1} \mid n_{111}, \ldots, n_{444} \sim \text{DIR}(b_{1+1}, n_{2+} + b_{2+}, n_{3+} + b_{3+}, n_{4+} + b_{4+})
\]

We then obtain draws of the complete data conditional on the cell count parameters and the observed data \((s_t, t_t, r_t, z_t)\):

\[
P((R(0)_t, R(1)_t) = k \mid (S(0)_t, S(1)_t) = i, r_t, z_t, \pi_{i+1}, \ldots, \pi_{i+4}) \propto
\]

\[
((1 - r_t)\pi_{i+1}, (1 - |r_t - z_t|)\pi_{i+2}, r_t\pi_{i+3}, |r_t - z_t|\pi_{i+4})
\]

\[
P((S(0)_t, S(1)_t) = i \mid (T(0)_t, T(1)_t) = j, (R(0)_t, R(1)_t) = k, s_t, z_t, \pi_{j+1}, \ldots, \pi_{j+4}, \pi_{1+k}, \ldots, \pi_{4+k}) \propto
\]

\[
((1 - s_t)\pi_{j+1}, |s_t - z_t|\pi_{j+2}, s_t\pi_{j+3}, |s_t - z_t|\pi_{j+4})
\]

\[
P((T(0)_t, T(1)_t) = j \mid (S(0)_t, S(1)_t) = i, r_t = 1, t_t, z_t, \pi_{1|1}, \ldots, \pi_{4|1}) \propto
\]

\[
((1 - t_t)\pi_{1|1}, (1 - |t_t - z_t|)\pi_{2|1}, t_t\pi_{3|1}, |t_t - z_t|\pi_{4|1})
\]

\[
P((T(0)_t, T(1)_t) = j \mid (S(0)_t, S(1)_t) = i, r_t = 0, \pi_{1|1}, \ldots, \pi_{4|1}) \propto
\]

\[
(\pi_{1|1}, \pi_{2|1}, \pi_{2|1}, \pi_{4|1})
\]

Under the monotonicity assumption, we set \(\pi_{14k} = \pi_{4jk} = 0\) and update the complete data draws accordingly. Under stochastic monotonicity, we reject draws that fail to meet the stochastic monotonicity assumptions: \(\pi_{2++} > \pi_{4++}\), and \(\pi_{2+} > \pi_{4+}\) for \(j = 1, 2, 3\).

### 3.2.2 Full Ignorability Model

Under the full ignorability assumption, \(p((S(0), S(1)) = i, (R(0), R(1)) = k) = p((S(0), S(1)) = i) p((R(0), R(1)) = k)\) and thus \(\pi_{ijk} = \pi_{j+i} \pi_{++k} = \pi_{ij+} \pi_{++k}\). The distribution of \(R\) is thus independent of \(S\) and \(T\) and thus can be ignored in both the data augmentation step and the draw of the parameters conditional on the complete data for estimation of the surrogacy effects of interest (although required to obtain model fit estimates discussed in Section 3.3). We again assume a Dirichlet prior for the cell probabilities:

\[
p(\pi_{ij+}) \sim \text{DIR}(a_{ij+})
\]
\[ p(\pi_{++k}) \sim \text{DIR}(b_{++k}) \]

We now draw from the cell probabilities for joint distribution of the principal strata and potential outcome and from the the cell probabilities for missingness pattern independently:

\[ \pi_{11+}, \ldots, \pi_{44+} | n_{111}, \ldots, n_{444}, \sim \text{DIR}(n_{11+} + a_{11}, \ldots, n_{44+} + a_{44}) \]

\[ \pi_{++1}, \ldots, \pi_{++4} | n_{111}, \ldots, n_{444}, \sim \text{DIR}(n_{++1} + b_{++1}, \ldots, n_{++4} + b_{++4}) \]

The data augmentation step for \( R(Z_l) \) and \( S(Z_l) \) simplifies to

\[ P((R(0)_l, R(1)_l) = k | r_l, z_l, \pi_{++1}, \ldots, \pi_{++4}) \propto ((1 - r_l)\pi_{++1}, (1 - |r_l - z_l|)\pi_{++2}, r_l\pi_{++3}, |r_l - z_l|\pi_{++4}) \]

\[ P((S(0)_l, S(1)_l) = i | (T(0)_l, T(1)_l) = j, s_l, z_l, \pi_{1j+}, \ldots, \pi_{4j+}) \propto ((1 - s_l)\pi_{1j+}, (1 - |s_l - z_l|)\pi_{2j+}, s_l\pi_{3j+}, |s_l - z_l|\pi_{4j+}) \]

The data augmentation step for \( T(Z_l) \) remains as in the latent ignorable selection model.

### 3.3 Choosing between the Missingness Mechanisms

To choose between the latent ignorable and fully ignorable missingness mechanisms, we can compute the Deviance Information Criterion (DIC) of Spiegelhalter et al. (2002). The DIC measure accounts for the fact that, in a hierarchical framework, the number of effective parameters may be unclear: the random effects associated with each subject may “count” as approximately one parameter if the between-variance estimates are large (small degree of shrinkage), and as nearly zero parameters if the between-variance estimates are small (large degree of shrinkage). DIC estimates the number of effective parameters by

\[ p_D = \overline{D(\pi)} - D(\overline{\pi}) \]

where \( \overline{D(\pi)} = E_{\pi|y}D(\pi) \) and \( D(\overline{\pi}) = D(E(\pi | y)) \) for the observed likelihood deviance \( D(\pi) \) given in the Appendix. The DIC measure is then given by \( D(\pi) + 2p_D \). Although we do not entertain a Bayesian hierarchical model here, we have a similar issue in that the number of parameters is unclear given that not all are fully identified. We will assess the effectiveness of DIC in choosing between the latent ignorable and fully ignorable missingness mechanisms via simulation.

### 4 Simulation Study

#### 4.1 Study Design

To assess the effectiveness of our proposed methods, we conduct a simulation study. We consider a \( 2 \times 2 \times 2 \) design, where the surrogate is either poor or good as measured by the associative and common associative proportions, where the principal strata is either independent of or associated with missingness (corresponding to ignorable and non-ignorable missingness mechanisms), and where missingness is either independent of treatment or more likely if assigned to treatment. For each simulation, we fit both the latent ignorable model and the fully ignorable model as well as a model that uses the complete cases only, and compute the bias and root mean square error of the posterior mode, nominal 90% coverage, and mean 90% credible interval length, for the causal effect, associative proportion, and common associative proportion using 10,000 draws from an MCMC chain after 1,000 draws.
for burn-in. Each simulation contains 500 observations, and 200 simulations are run for each scenario in the design. The missingness mechanism is designed to provide approximately 50% missing for each scenario. For each scenario, we also compute the DIC under both the latent ignorable and fully ignorable model. We restrict our simulations to the monotonicity setting to minimize the complexity of the simulation design and focus on the properties of interest.

Table 2 provides details of the simulation design. Under the ignorable model, the principal strata are independent of missingness. Under the non-ignorable model, the odds of a subject belonging to an “always responsive” surrogate marker principal strata versus a “never responsive” surrogate marker principal strata are approximately 4 times greater when the outcome is observed under control than when it is missing under control. The marginal distribution of the missingness patterns is defined by $\pi_{++1} = \cdots = \pi_{++4} = .25$ when missingness is independent of treatment, and $\pi_{++1} = .15$, $\pi_{++2} = .15$, $\pi_{++3} = .15$, $\pi_{++4} = .55$, when missingness is more likely under treatment.

We assume two forms of the prior: a uniform Dirichlet prior, with $a_{11} = \cdots = a_{33} = 1$ and $b_{1+1} = \cdots = b_{4+4} = 1$ for the latent ignorable model and $a_{11+} = \cdots = a_{33+} = 1$ and $b_{++1} = \cdots = b_{++4} = 1$ for the fully ignorable model, and a “Jeffreys-type” prior with $a_{11} = \cdots = a_{33} = 1/2$ and $b_{1+1} = \cdots = b_{4+4} = 1/2$ for the latent ignorable model and $a_{11+} = \cdots = a_{33+} = 1/2$ and $b_{++1} = \cdots = b_{++4} = 1/2$ for the fully ignorable model.

4.2 Results

Table 3 shows the results for the non-ignorable simulation study. The total causal effect (CE) has reduced bias and improved coverage under either of the missing data models relative to the complete-case analysis, with this difference being stronger when the surrogate is poor from a causal perspective (small AP/CAP) than when it is strong. Although the CE is fully identified in the absence of missing data, the need to rely on incompletely identified parameters means that the 90% confidence interval under the missing data models is actually wider than in the case of the fully-observed data, with the coverage becoming highly conservative when the surrogate is poor. 1 The CE estimated under the latent ignorable model generally has improved root mean square error (RMSE) and improved coverage relative to the CE estimated under the fully ignorable model. The associative proportion (AP) and common associative proportion (CAP) suffer from some positive bias when the surrogate is poor, as their posterior distributions are relatively flat over a wide range and their modes correspondingly biased upward; coverage, however, remains conservative. When the surrogate is good, the AP and CAP bias is drastically reduced. Use of the latent ignorable model yields modest to substantial reductions in AP and CAP bias and RMSE over the fully ignorable model under the uniform prior; CAP bias and RMSE were actually somewhat lower under the fully ignorable model and the Jeffreys-type prior when the surrogate was good. The CE, AP and CAP estimated using the fully observed data have negative bias due to the fact that subjects

---

1As noted in Gustafson and Greenland (2009), Bayesian credible intervals have by definition correct coverage regardless of the sample size and model identification when the parameters are generated under the assumed prior. However, because non-identified models converge to regions of 0 and non-zero posterior probability rather than degenerate atoms (Gustafson 2010), if we take a frequentist perspective where the true values of the data are fixed, the resulting credible intervals will have frequentist coverage properties that will approach 1 if the data-generating model is correct unless the true value of the interval is on the boundary of the non-zero posterior probability region (Elliott, Raghunathan, and Li 2010; Li, Taylor, and Elliott 2010).
Table 2: Simulation design: marginal distribution of response pattern, conditional distribution of principal strata given response pattern, and conditional distribution of potential outcome given principal strata. All designs assume monotonicity for surrogate marker and final outcome. Under poor surrogate design, causal effect (CE) = .3400, associative proportion (AP) = .1765, common associative proportion (CAP) = .1035. Under good surrogate design, causal effect (CE) = .3380, associative proportion (AP) = .7101, common associative proportion (CAP) = .6030.
observed under treatment are less likely to belong to an always responsive principal stratum than subject observed under control. However, AP and CAP estimated using the fully observed data actually have reduced absolute bias and RMSE relative to the missing data models when the surrogate is poor, but are substantially biased with poor coverage when the surrogate is good. In general bias and RMSE were slightly higher for all three estimators assuming either latent ignorability or full ignorability when missingness was dependent on treatment, since true missingness patterns are only partly observed.

Table 4 shows the results for the ignorable simulation study. When the surrogate is poor the latent ignorable model still outperforms the fully ignorable model with respect to bias and MSE, with the fully observed data having performance intermediate between the two; coverage was at or above nominal levels with the exception of CE coverage for the fully observed data, where the impact of the prior due to the relatively small sample size was non-trivial. When the surrogate was strong the latent ignorable and the fully ignorable model had equivalent bias and RMSE for the AP and CAP parameters; for the CE measure, the latent ignorable model still outperformed the fully ignorable model, although the latter still outperformed the fully observed data.

The DIC measure easily captured the non-ignorability, preferring the latent ignorable model to the fully ignorable model when missingness was associated with the principal stratum. When missingness was truly ignorable, the fully ignorable model was favored the majority of the time, although stronger counterfactual relationships between the surrogate and outcome allowed the fully ignorable model to be selected with greater probability when it was the correct model.

In general using the less informative Jeffreys-type prior reduced some bias associated with the CE and improved coverage, especially for the complete case setting. However, RMSE was typically somewhat larger for the AP and CAP measures, with associated credible interval lengths expanded, particularly for the fully ignorable models when the surrogate effect was poor. DIC chose the correct model more often under the Jeffreys-type prior.

5 Application

We apply the missing data models to an analysis of the Collaborative Initial Glaucoma Treatment Study (CIGTS) (Musch et al. 1999). Glaucoma is an eye disease caused by increased intraocular pressure (IOP) that can result in reduced vision or blindness. The CIGTS was a clinical trial that compared the effects of eye surgery (treatment) against the standard practice of medication (control) to reduce or stop visual field loss. Because visual field loss is caused by increased IOP, one of the major secondary outcomes of interest is reduction in IOP. Here we consider one the important secondary outcomes of interest, reduction in IOP below 18mmHg after 96 months of follow-up, based on previous work that has shown IOP of less than 18mmHg at every time point during at least six years of follow-up was associated with a reduced likelihood of visual field loss (AGIS, 2000). Because of the extensive follow-up time, it is desired to determine if early reductions in IOP could serve as a marker for late reductions in IOP; hence the surrogate marker was reduction in IOP below 18mmHg after 12 months of follow-up. However, such an analysis suffers from a substantial amount of missing outcome data due to the long follow-up period. Because the cause of the missingness is due to dropout for unknown reasons, we do not restricting the missingness patterns in the analysis.
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<thead>
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Table 3: Simulation study results: non-ignorable missingness. RMSE=root mean square error. Top line gives result under uniform prior; lower line gives result under Jeffreys’ type prior.
### Table 4: Simulation study results: ignorable missingness. RMSE=root mean square error. Top line gives result under uniform prior; lower line gives result under Jeffreys’ type prior.

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Table 5: Collaborative Initial Glaucoma Treatment Study: Observed Data.
The observed data is given in Table 5. Of 573 subjects with intraocular pressure (IOP) measured at 12 months, only 228 had fully observed data (IOP also measured at 96 months). For fully-observed subjects on the control (drug only), 66.7% had reduced IOP to below 18 mmHg at 96 months; 80.2% of fully-observed subjects on the treatment arm had reduced IOP at 96 months, yielded an estimated causal effect of treatment (CET) of .135 (95% CI .013,.257). Reduced IOP at 12 months was observed for 58.4% of subjects who were fully observed on the control arm, versus 54.8% of subjects who did not have 96 month IOP measures. For subjects on the treatment arm, 80.4% of fully observed subjects had reduced IOP at 12 months, versus 81.2% of subjects without 96 month IOP measures.

We fit a fully ignorable model and a latent ignorable model, as well as a model for the fully-observed data, under the monotonicity and non-monotonicity assumption, as well as the “stochastic monotonicity” assumption that only assumes the treatment more likely to be helpful than harmful. Each model is fit using a single chain of 100,000 draws after a burn-in of 1,000. We consider uniform priors of the form \( a_{ij} | i = 1 \) for all \( i, j \) and \( b_{ij+k} = 1 \) for all \( i, k \) for the latent ignorable model and \( a_{ij} = 1 \) and for all \( i, j \) and \( b_{ij+k} = 1 \) for all \( k \) for the fully ignorable model, and assess sensitivity to the prior by also considering of Jeffreys-type prior of the form \( a_{ij} = \cdots = a_{ij4} = 1/2 \) and \( b_{ij} = \cdots = b_{ij4} = 1/2 \) for the latent ignorable model \( a_{i1} = \cdots = a_{i4} = 1/2 \) and \( b_{i+1} = \cdots = b_{i+4} = 1/2 \). Results are given in Table 6. Table 7 provides the DIC measures for the latent ignorable and fully ignorable models.

Based on DIC, the best fit is provided by the latent ignorable model under stochastic monotonicity; similar fit is provided by the fully ignorable model under monotonicity and the uniform Dirichlet prior. Particularly poor fit is evidenced by the fully ignorable model under non-monotonic assumptions, as evidenced by the discrepancy between the CE estimator from the model and the identifiable estimate (.135) obtained from the fully-observed data; use of the Jeffreys-type prior improved the fit to some degree. The best-fitting latent ignorable model under stochastic monotonicity and fully ignorable model under monotonicity had little sensitivity to the prior assumptions, and gave broadly similar results. In particular, early reduction of IOP appears to be at best a modestly useful surrogate marker from a causal perspective, with the majority of the 8-year causal effect (associative proportion) likely being through subjects whose 12-month IOP is unchanged by treatment. The point estimate of the associative proportion is somewhat greater under the stochastic monotonicity assumption than under the full monotonicity assumption, although the 90% credible interval can and does include 0, indicating some evidence of interactions in causal effect within the principal strata (Elliott, Raghunathan, and Li 2010).

The best model fit was obtained under the latent ignorable model with the stochastic monotonicity assumption and the Jeffreys-type prior; Figure 1 shows the associated posterior distributions of the CE, AE, and AP under this model. The overall degree of model fit is assessed via the posterior predictive distribution of functions \( T \) of the observed values of \( y_t \) given by

\[
p(T(y_{t}^{rep}) \mid y) = \int p(T(y_{t}^{rep}) \mid \pi, y)p(\pi \mid y)d\pi
\]

We obtain draws from (1) and compare the predictive distribution \( T(y^{rep}) \) with the observed values of \( T(y^{obs}) \) (Gelman, Meng, and Stern 1996). In particular, we consider the eight cell counts of surrogate marker and outcome by treatment assignment given by \( m_{ijz} = \sum_{l} I(s_{l} = i, t_{l} = j, z_{l} = z) \) for \( i, j, z \in \{0, 1\} \); histograms of \( m_{ijz}^{rep} \) compared against \( m_{ijz}^{obs} \) in Figure 2 show that the predictive distributions are centered near the observed values, showing that the model is reasonable given the data.
Table 6: Analysis of Collaborative Initial Glaucoma Treatment Study: posterior mean, posterior mode, and 90% credible intervals for casual treatment effect (CE), associative effect (AE), associative proportion (AP), and common associative proportion (CAP). First row for Dirichlet prior set uniformly to 1; second row for Dirichlet prior set uniformly to 1/2.

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In general the lack of large differences in the surrogate marker treatment effects between the outcome response categories suggests that failing to account for missingness in the outcome should have modest impact, and indeed this is the case where model fit is reasonable (under monotonicity, and in the non-monotonic models with the Jeffreys-type priors). Estimates for the CE, AE, and AP appear to be smaller in the fully observed data than in the models that incorporate missing outcome data, consistent with the mechanisms that lead to negative bias for these estimates in the simulation setting. Intervals for models that incorporate missing outcome data are somewhat wider than intervals that discard this data, consistent with the fact that accounting for missingness requires estimation of not fully-identified parameters.

6 Discussion

This manuscript considers a principal stratification approach to assess surrogacy for dichotomous markers and outcomes when missing data is present for the outcome, extending the work of Li, Taylor, and Elliott (2010) to accommodate missingness under latent ignorability assumptions. The principal strata are defined by the joint distribution of the surrogate marker under both treatment and control, with the quality of the surrogate being the causal effect of treatment that is associated with strata in which the surrogate marker is impacted by...
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Table 7: DIC measures for various models accounting for missing data. First row for Dirichlet prior set uniformly to 1; second row for Dirichlet prior set uniformly to 1/2.

Figure 1: Posterior distributions of causal effect, associative effect, and associative proportion for IOP analysis, under the latent ignorable model with the stochastic monotonicity assumption and Jeffreys-type prior.
Figure 2: Posterior predictive distributions of surrogate marker and outcome by treatment assignment given by \( m_{ijz} = \sum_l I(s_l = i, t_l = j \mid z_l = z) \) for \( i, j, z \in \{0, 1\} \); solid lines indicate observed values. (Latent ignorable model with the stochastic monotonicity assumption and Jeffreys-type prior.)
treatment. Latent ignorability assumes that the conditional distribution of the potential outcomes within the principal strata are independent of the outcome missingness but allows for the possibility that the marginal distribution of the surrogate marker or treatment outcome is associated with outcome missingness. This is a weaker assumption than full ignorability in which missingness is independent of both the surrogate and the true outcome, and is identifiable at the “complete data” (counterfactual) level, in contrast to a fully non-ignorable model which would require postulating non-identified parameters for the unobserved outcomes at this complete-data level. A unique aspect of our approach to our knowledge is that we allow for the possibility that missingness has a counterfactual component, one that might differ between the treatment and control due to differential dropout.

Alternatives to the latent ignorability missingness mechanisms can be considered as well. Chen, Geng, and Zhou 2009 propose a “complete-nonignorability” model which is identified under the complete data using the selection model decomposition, replacing $P(R_l(Z_l) \mid T_l(Z_l), S_l(Z_l))$ to yield $p(T_l(Z_l) \mid S_l(Z_l)) p(S_l(Z_l), R_l(Z_l)) = p(R_l(Z_l) \mid T_l(Z_l)) p(T_l(Z_l), S_l(Z_l))$.

There are two major limitations in this approach that result from lack of full identifiability. First and foremost, we suffer from sensitivity to prior assumptions even in large datasets, since the likelihoods do not converge to a single point mass. Second, posterior credible intervals are typically fairly wide and cannot shrink beyond asymptotic boundary conditions. Thus even mildly informative priors can introduce non-trivial bias in moderate sample size settings, while more “non-informative” priors can yield credible intervals of almost meaningless width. Hence this manuscript has focused on exploring the sensitivity and identifiability aspects of the these inherently non-identified models.

A variety of extensions to this work can be considered. Our focus is on assessing and ameliorating the effect of missingness on inference about binary surrogate measures and outcomes in a counterfactual setting, and in the process we have focused on a relatively simple Dirichlet prior formulation for the cell parameters. The work of Li, Taylor, and Elliott (2010) and Li et al. (2011) considered a log-linear parameterization that was capable of incorporating a priori assumptions about positive correlations between the surrogate marker and final outcome in a more refined fashion than the model considered here, particularly when the monotonicity assumption is relaxed. Extensions to continuous surrogate measures and outcomes are also possible and are the focus of current work.

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7 Appendix: Observed Likelihood Deviance

The observed likelihood deviance $D(\pi)$ (up to a constant) is given by $-2(\sum_i \sum_j \sum_k m_{ijk} \log \theta_{ijk} + \sum_i \sum_k m_{ik} \log \gamma_{ik} + \sum_m \sum_k m_{mk} \log \psi_{mk})$, where $m_{iz}$ correspond to the observed cell counts with $s$ and $t$ fully observed by treatment assignment, $s = i, t = j, z = k$, $m_{ik}$ to the observed cell counts with only $s$ observed by treatment assignment, $s = i, z = k$, and $m_{mk}$ to the missing data indicator for $t$ by treatment assignment, $r = m, z = k$. Under the latent
ignorable model (note $\pi_{ij} = \pi_{ji}\pi_{ij}$)

\[
\begin{align*}
\theta_{00} &= \left[ \sum_{k=3,4} (\pi_{1|1+k} + \pi_{2|1+k} + \pi_{2|2+k} + \pi_{2|2+k}) \right] / \psi_{10} \\
\theta_{10} &= \left[ \sum_{k=3,4} (\pi_{1|3+k} + \pi_{2|3+k} + \pi_{2|4+k} + \pi_{2|4+k}) \right] / \psi_{10} \\
\theta_{01} &= \left[ \sum_{k=3,4} (\pi_{3|1+k} + \pi_{3|2+k} + \pi_{4|1+k} + \pi_{4|2+k}) \right] / \psi_{10} \\
\theta_{11} &= \left[ \sum_{k=3,4} (\pi_{3|3+k} + \pi_{3|4+k} + \pi_{4|3+k} + \pi_{4|4+k}) \right] / \psi_{10} \\
\theta_{001} &= \left[ \sum_{k=2,3} (\pi_{1|1+k} + \pi_{4|1+k} + \pi_{4|4+k} + \pi_{4|4+k}) \right] / \psi_{11} \\
\theta_{101} &= \left[ \sum_{k=2,3} (\pi_{1|2+k} + \pi_{1|3+k} + \pi_{4|2+k} + \pi_{4|3+k}) \right] / \psi_{11} \\
\theta_{011} &= \left[ \sum_{k=2,3} (\pi_{2|1+k} + \pi_{3|1+k} + \pi_{4|2+k} + \pi_{4|3+k}) \right] / \psi_{11} \\
\theta_{111} &= \left[ \sum_{k=2,3} (\pi_{2|2+k} + \pi_{3|2+k} + \pi_{3|3+k} + \pi_{3|3+k}) \right] / \psi_{11} \\
\gamma_{0} &= \left[ \sum_{k=1,2} (\pi_{1+k} + \pi_{2+k}) \right] / \psi_{00} \\
\gamma_{10} &= \left[ \sum_{k=1,2} (\pi_{3+k} + \pi_{4+k}) \right] / \psi_{00} \\
\gamma_{01} &= \left[ \sum_{k=1,4} (\pi_{1+k} + \pi_{4+k}) \right] / \psi_{01} \\
\gamma_{11} &= \left[ \sum_{k=1,4} (\pi_{2+k} + \pi_{3+k}) \right] / \psi_{01} \\
\psi_{00} &= \pi_{++1} + \pi_{++2} \\
\psi_{10} &= \pi_{++3} + \pi_{++4} \\
\psi_{01} &= \pi_{++1} + \pi_{++4} \\
\psi_{11} &= \pi_{++2} + \pi_{++3}.
\end{align*}
\]
Under the fully ignorable model, the relationship between the missingness pattern and the surrogate marker is assumed away, and

\[ \begin{align*}
\theta_{000} &= \pi_{11+} + \pi_{12+} + \pi_{21+} + \pi_{22+} \\
\theta_{100} &= \pi_{31+} + \pi_{32+} + \pi_{41+} + \pi_{42+} \\
\theta_{010} &= \pi_{13+} + \pi_{23+} + \pi_{32+4} + \pi_{24+} \\
\theta_{110} &= \pi_{33+} + \pi_{34+} + \pi_{43+} + \pi_{44+} \\
\theta_{001} &= \pi_{11+} + \pi_{14+} + \pi_{41+} + \pi_{44+} \\
\theta_{101} &= \pi_{21+} + \pi_{31+} + \pi_{24+} + \pi_{34+} \\
\theta_{011} &= \pi_{12+} + \pi_{13+} + \pi_{42+} + \pi_{43+} \\
\theta_{111} &= \pi_{22+} + \pi_{23+} + \pi_{32+} + \pi_{33+} \\
\gamma_{00} &= \pi_{1++} + \pi_{2++} \\
\gamma_{10} &= \pi_{3++} + \pi_{4++} \\
\gamma_{01} &= \pi_{1++} + \pi_{4++} \\
\gamma_{11} &= \pi_{2++} + \pi_{3++} \\
\psi_{00} &= \pi_{++1} + \pi_{++2} \\
\psi_{10} &= \pi_{++3} + \pi_{++4} \\
\psi_{01} &= \pi_{++1} + \pi_{++4} \\
\psi_{11} &= \pi_{++2} + \pi_{++3}.
\end{align*} \]

8 References


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