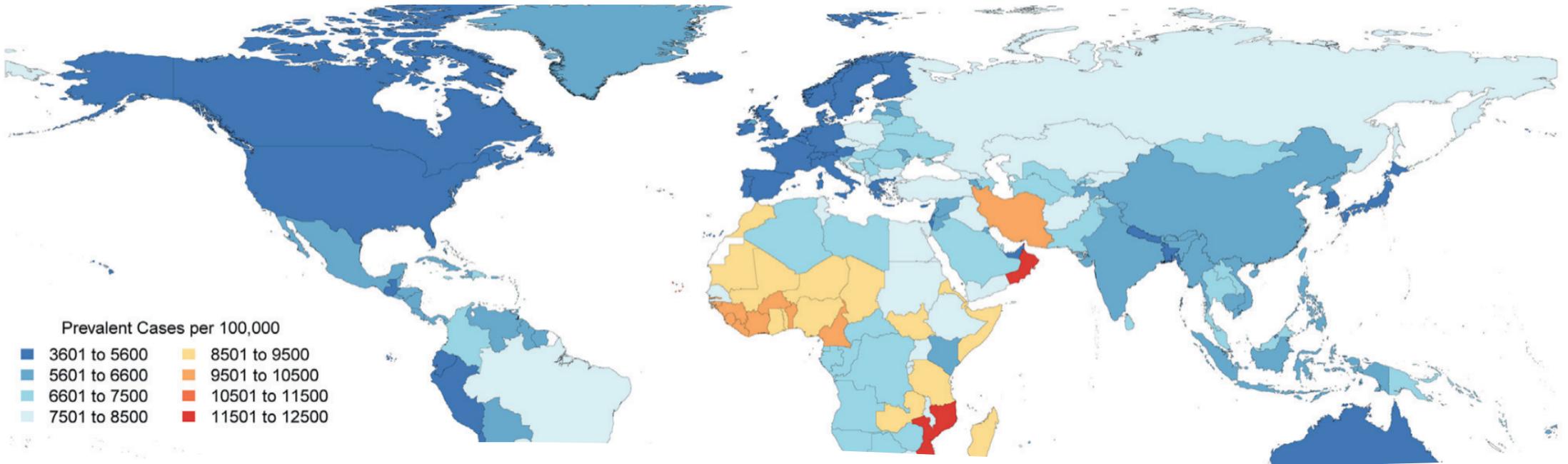


Identifying Risk Factors for Cardiovascular Disease

Xiaowu Dai and Saad Mouti

Joint work with Lisa R. Goldberg (Berkeley),
and collaborators at University of Cambridge and Swiss Re Institute

Risk Seminar
04/14/2020



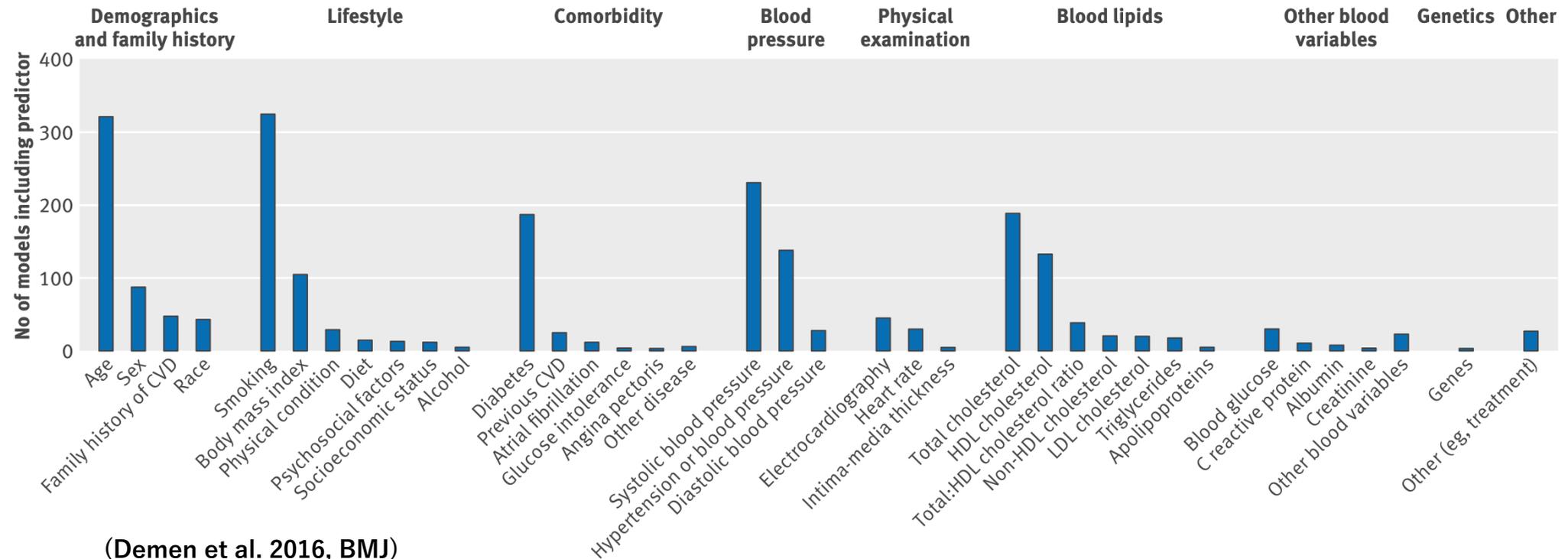
(Roth et al. 2017, JOURNAL OF THE AMERICAN COLLEGE OF CARDIOLOGY)

Cardiovascular Disease (CVD)

- A leading cause of death in the world
- United Nations recognized CVD as a major concern for global health
- Identification of CVD related risk factors is a health priority
- Individual level interventions (WHO 2017)

Goal: Statistical Methods for Identifying Risk Factors for CVD

- **Demographics** (age, gender, race, etc.)
- **Lifestyle** (smoking, bmi, diet, alcohol, etc.)
- **Comorbidity** (diabetes, other disease, etc.)
- **Blood pressure, blood lipids, genetics, stress, etc.**

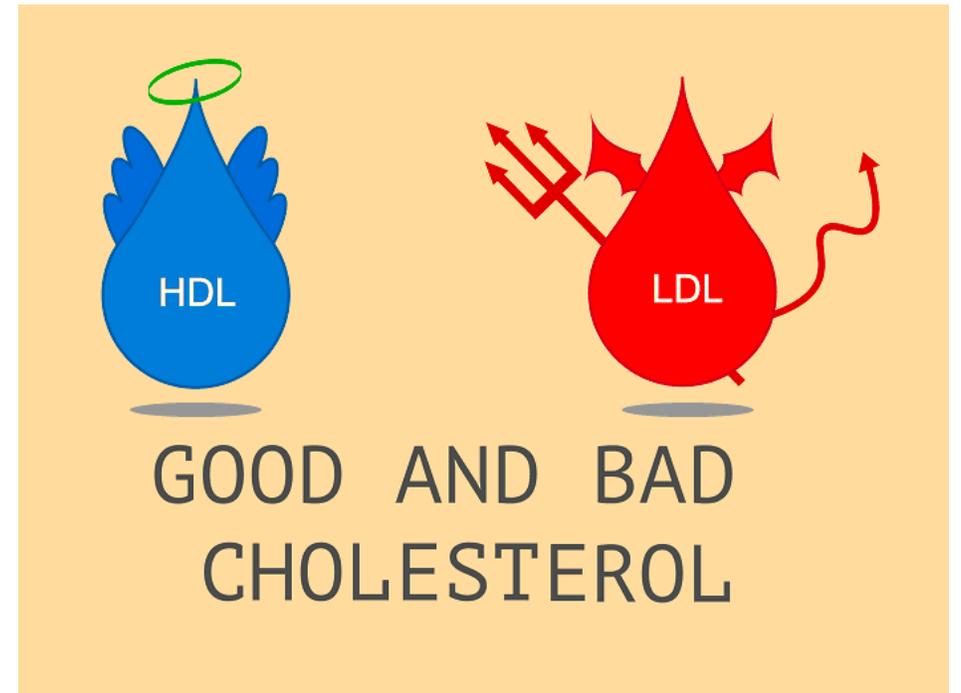


(Demen et al. 2016, BMJ)

Spurious Correlation

- High-density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol of higher levels is associated with low CVD risk
- But drugs that increase HDL (e.g., statins) do not significantly reduce CVD
- HDL is an indirect / surrogate marker, and HDL does not participate in causing or alleviating CVD (Voight et al. 2012, *The Lancet*)

Our Approach: Causal inference + Subsampling



Causal Inference for CVD

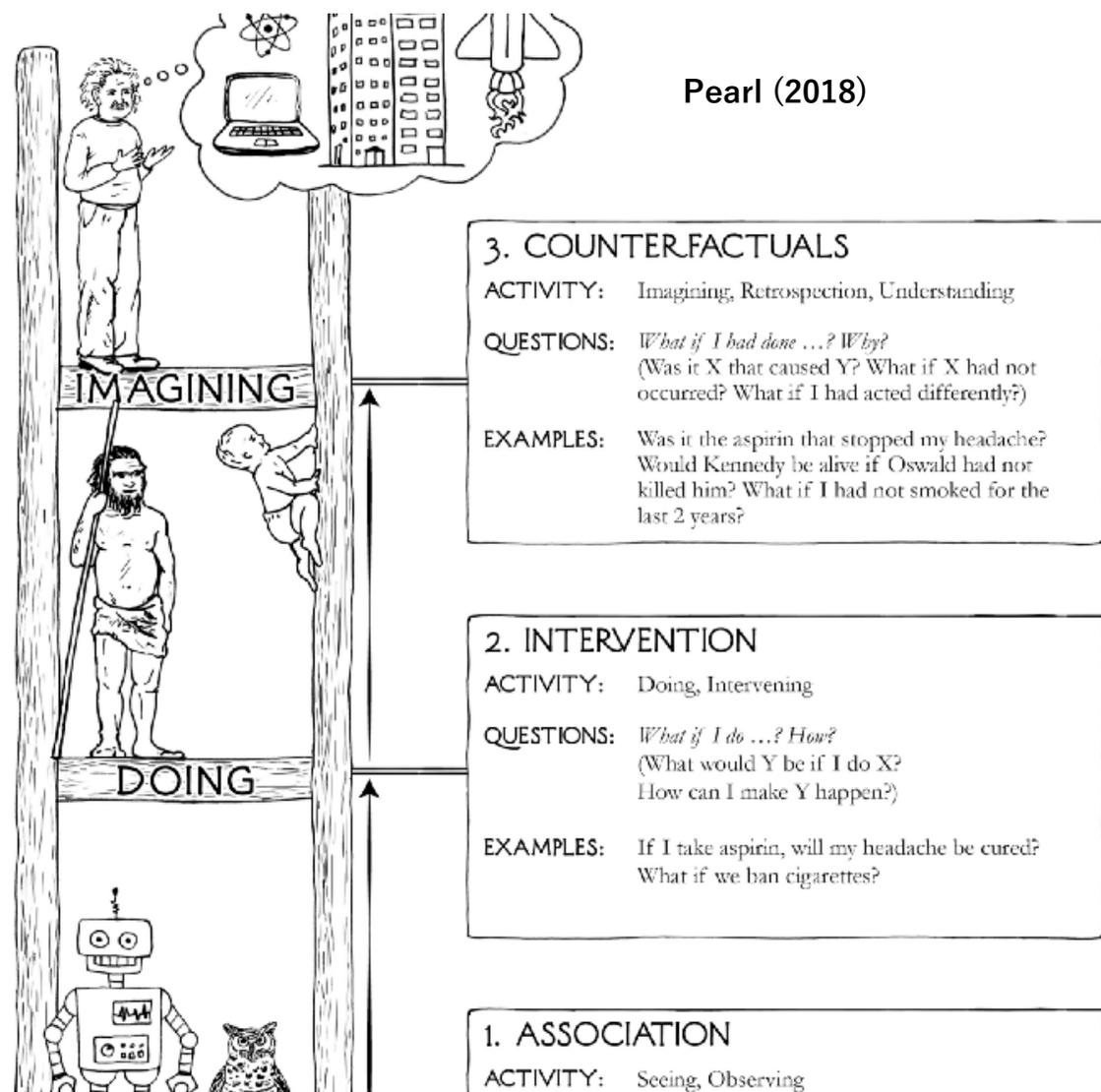
Causal inference → **Personalized** therapies in cardiology

Related Work: Mendelian Randomization

(van der Kann et al., 2016, J AM Coll Cardiol;
Shameer et al., 2018, Heart)

- **Genetic** material is randomly inherited
- Alcohol intake (**Holmes et al. 2014, BMJ**)
- LDL cholesterol (**Holmes et al. 2015, Eur Heart J**)

Our Focus: Demographics, Lifestyle, Comorbidity, Blood pressure, Blood lipids.



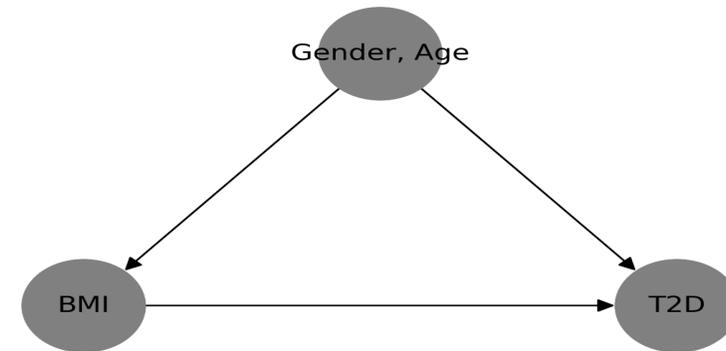


Q1: Does obesity
cause type 2
diabetes?

Matching Method

--A method for causal inference using observational data

- **Potential outcome:** $\mathbb{E}(Y(1)|X) - \mathbb{E}(Y(0)|X)$
 $Y(1)$: outcome if receiving the treatment
 $Y(0)$: outcome if receiving the control
- **Average treatment effect (ATE):** effect for all individuals including both treatment and control
- **Assumption 1: Stable unit treatment value assumption** (Rubin, 1980)
Outcomes of one individual are not affected by treatment assignment of any other individuals
- **Assumption 2: Strong ignorable treatment assignment condition** (Rosenbaum and Rubin, 1983)
 - (2.1) *Treatment assignment is independent of the potential outcomes given the covariates*
 - (2.2) *Non-vanishing probability of receiving each treatment for all values of covariates*



Goal of matching method: replicate a randomized experiment as closely as possible by obtaining treated and control groups with similar covariate distributions

Dr. David Unwin, MD

Dr. David Unwin, MD, is an award-winning general practitioner (or family doctor) known for pioneering the low-carb approach in his profession in the UK.

In 2016 he won the prestigious [NHS Innovator of the Year](#) award for his work with diabetes patients. On top of that, Dr. Unwin is the medical advisor at the popular [Low Carb Program](#) and is doing his best to [spread knowledge about low carb](#) among doctors, dietitians and nurses.

In 2017/18, his practice saved £57,000 on drugs for type 2 diabetes, hypertension and other conditions by offering patients a dietary alternative to medications.



Data Collection

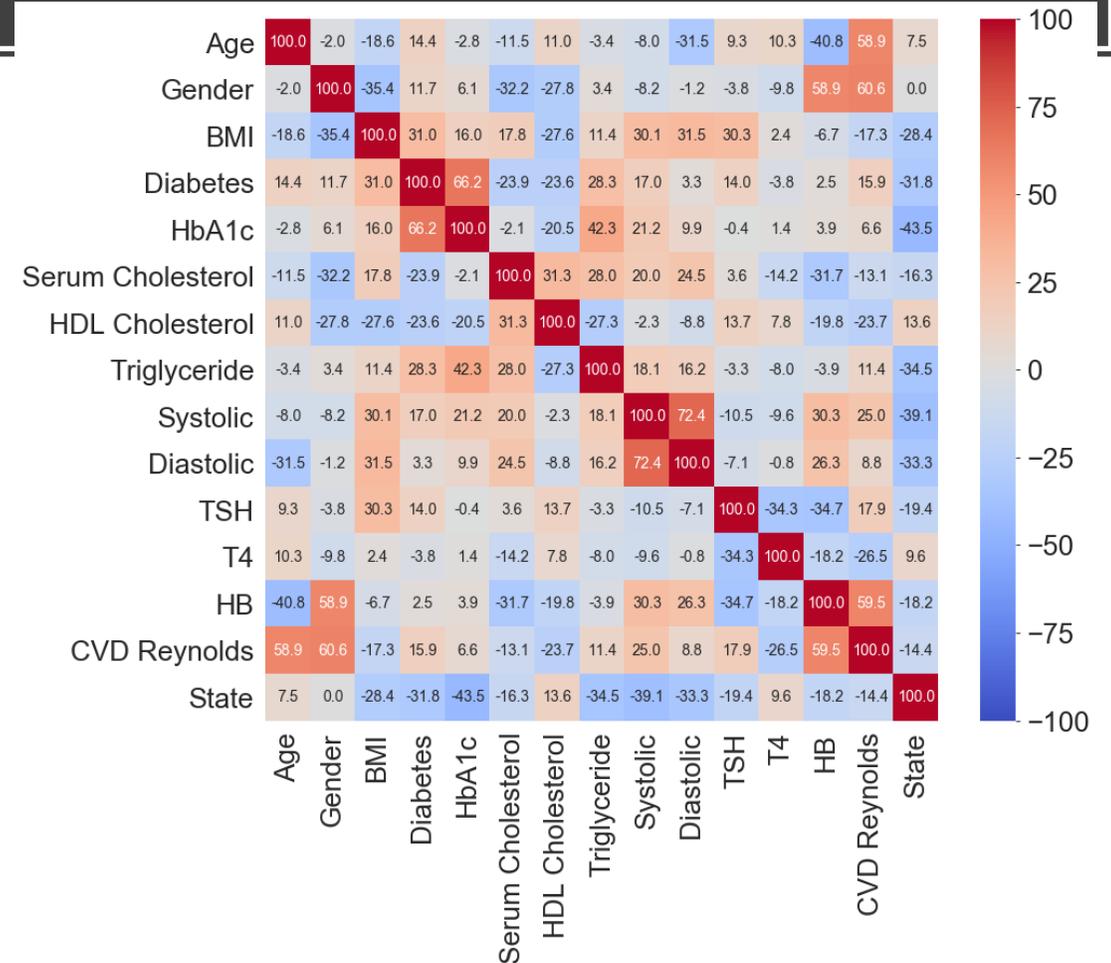
- 256 subjects in London, UK
- Dr. Unwin's office collect data for two time points
- Time 0: without low-carb diet
- Time 1: with low-card diet

Summary Statistics

| State | Variable | count | mean | std | min | 25% | 50% | 75% | max |
|--------|------------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| 0 | Gender | 256 | 0.590 | 0.493 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 |
| | Age | 256 | 61.574 | 12.111 | 23.000 | 53.000 | 60.000 | 71.000 | 91.000 |
| | Height | 75 | 1.706 | 0.092 | 1.473 | 1.625 | 1.720 | 1.770 | 1.900 |
| | Weight | 251 | 96.160 | 18.621 | 55.300 | 83.700 | 95.000 | 107.000 | 159.000 |
| | BMI | 66 | 33.887 | 6.071 | 21.660 | 29.890 | 33.495 | 36.980 | 57.100 |
| | Diabetes | 256 | 1.281 | 0.811 | 0.000 | 1.000 | 2.000 | 2.000 | 2.000 |
| | HbA1c/ mmol/mol | 202 | 61.376 | 20.652 | 37.000 | 45.000 | 54.500 | 71.000 | 135.000 |
| | Gamma-G.T Level/ U/L | 137 | 78.664 | 78.426 | 14.000 | 35.000 | 51.000 | 95.000 | 489.000 |
| | Serum Cholesterol | 176 | 5.314 | 1.302 | 2.500 | 4.385 | 5.200 | 6.225 | 9.300 |
| | HDL Cholesterol | 195 | 1.280 | 0.421 | 0.600 | 1.000 | 1.200 | 1.450 | 3.500 |
| | Cholesterol Ratio | 157 | 4.305 | 1.361 | 1.200 | 3.000 | 4.000 | 5.000 | 8.830 |
| | Triglyceride | 143 | 2.410 | 1.446 | 0.700 | 1.435 | 2.000 | 2.990 | 7.910 |
| | Triglyceride/HDL Ratio | 80 | 2.204 | 1.673 | 0.400 | 1.087 | 1.714 | 2.754 | 8.778 |
| | Systolic | 171 | 143.503 | 15.476 | 114.000 | 132.000 | 142.000 | 152.000 | 223.000 |
| | Diastolic | 171 | 84.164 | 10.321 | 65.000 | 78.000 | 80.000 | 90.000 | 122.000 |
| | TSH | 26 | 2.400 | 1.398 | 0.020 | 1.202 | 2.375 | 3.220 | 5.050 |
| | T4 | 25 | 15.004 | 2.794 | 9.700 | 13.400 | 14.500 | 16.000 | 22.900 |
| HB | 22 | 145.136 | 8.741 | 123.000 | 140.250 | 146.000 | 150.500 | 159.000 | |
| HMCT | 22 | 0.439 | 0.026 | 0.380 | 0.422 | 0.440 | 0.450 | 0.500 | |
| months | 256 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | |
| 1 | Gender | 256 | 0.590 | 0.493 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 |
| | Age | 256 | 63.424 | 12.387 | 23.167 | 54.750 | 62.750 | 73.500 | 91.500 |
| | Height | 75 | 1.706 | 0.092 | 1.473 | 1.625 | 1.720 | 1.770 | 1.900 |
| | Weight | 251 | 87.070 | 17.352 | 51.000 | 75.000 | 84.400 | 97.100 | 140.000 |
| | BMI | 65 | 30.356 | 5.923 | 19.240 | 27.040 | 29.270 | 32.470 | 53.620 |
| | Diabetes | 256 | 0.719 | 0.867 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 2.000 | 2.000 |
| | HbA1c/ mmol/mol | 201 | 45.925 | 9.319 | 32.000 | 40.000 | 43.000 | 50.000 | 84.000 |
| | Gamma-G.T Level/ U/L | 137 | 44.661 | 39.050 | 7.000 | 22.000 | 32.000 | 52.000 | 260.000 |
| | Serum Cholesterol | 174 | 4.892 | 1.247 | 2.400 | 4.025 | 4.700 | 5.700 | 8.800 |
| | HDL Cholesterol | 189 | 1.413 | 0.542 | 0.700 | 1.090 | 1.340 | 1.610 | 4.900 |
| | Cholesterol Ratio | 156 | 3.757 | 1.074 | 1.350 | 3.000 | 3.775 | 4.420 | 7.000 |
| | Triglyceride | 132 | 1.523 | 0.888 | 0.560 | 0.930 | 1.300 | 1.795 | 6.200 |
| | Triglyceride/HDL Ratio | 71 | 1.222 | 0.936 | 0.150 | 0.664 | 0.964 | 1.399 | 5.778 |
| | Systolic | 170 | 132.100 | 11.021 | 108.000 | 125.000 | 132.000 | 139.500 | 170.000 |
| | Diastolic | 170 | 77.794 | 7.570 | 54.000 | 71.250 | 78.000 | 82.000 | 110.000 |
| | TSH | 26 | 1.919 | 1.057 | 0.140 | 0.855 | 1.975 | 2.720 | 3.790 |
| | T4 | 25 | 15.480 | 2.239 | 11.400 | 13.900 | 15.200 | 16.200 | 20.800 |
| HB | 22 | 141.636 | 10.513 | 115.000 | 137.000 | 142.000 | 146.750 | 161.000 | |
| HMCT | 22 | 0.421 | 0.032 | 0.330 | 0.410 | 0.425 | 0.440 | 0.480 | |
| months | 256 | 22.199 | 17.456 | 1.000 | 8.000 | 19.000 | 32.000 | 84.000 | |

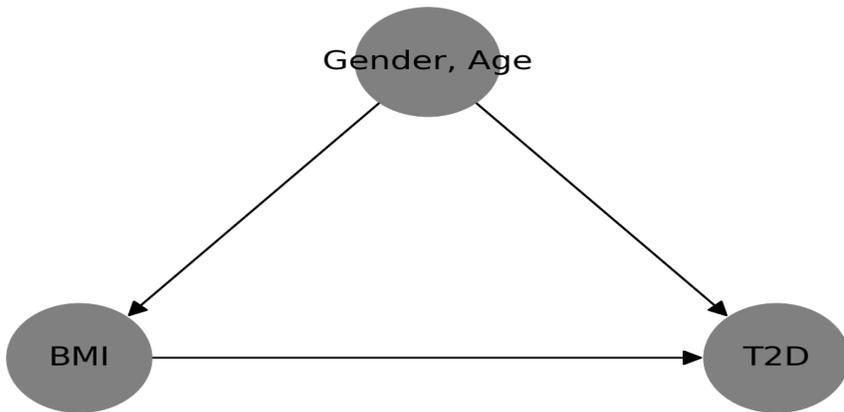
Data Summary

Correlation Heatmap



I-Randomization Algorithm

(i.e., self-randomization by combining *subsampling* and *permutation test*)



Motivation: Using **two observations** of each subject (i.e. 2×256 samples) would violate the *Stable Unit Treatment Value Assumption*.

Idea: *Stage 1*--Using ***subsampling*** to mimic a randomized experiment by randomly pick either one of the two observations for each subject (i.e., 2^{256} subsamples). Repeat the subsampling M times and take average of ATEs.

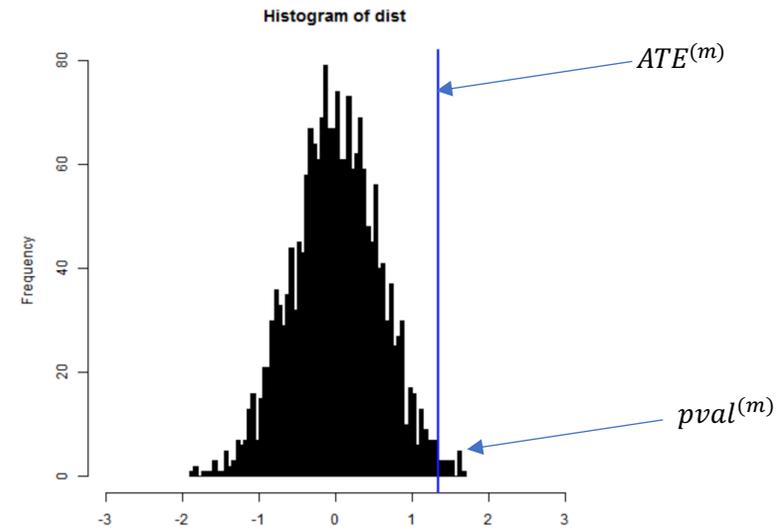
Stage 2--For each subsampling, using ***permutation test*** to evaluate the significance of ATE (e.g., obtaining p-values).

Stage 3--***Online FDR control*** for multiple testing (e.g., LORD algorithm by *Javanmard and Montanari, 2018*).

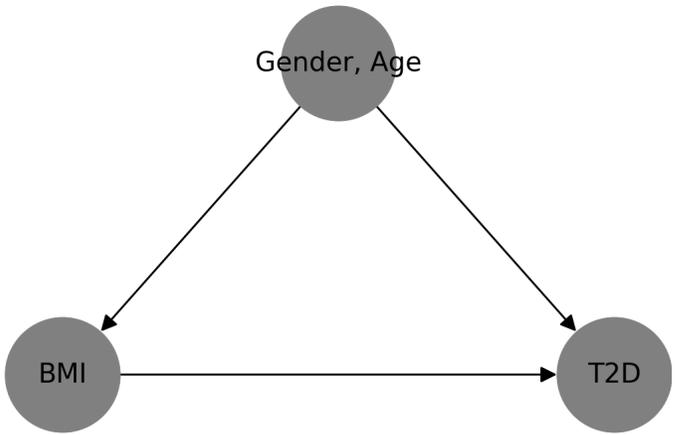
I-Randomization

Pseudo Code

1. Start from a matrix with $2N$ rows where each data point is identified by the patient ID and the state (0 for the initial date and 1 for final date).
2. For m in 1 to M :
 - (a) Sample a binary vector of length N ; the index is the patient's ID and the value is the state (sample without replacement).
 - (b) Select the corresponding subsample m .
 - (c) Calculate $ATE^{(m)}$.
 - (d) For s in 1 to S :
 - Shuffle the vector of treatment.
 - Calculate $ATE^{(m,s)}$ for the shuffle s of the treatment from subsample m .
 - (e) Calculate the p-value $pval^{(m)}$ for the one-tailed test for the null hypothesis of no treatment effect, estimated by $\frac{1}{S} \sum_{s=1}^S \mathbb{1}_{ATE^{(m,s)} > (\text{resp. } s <) ATE^{(m)}}$.
3. Calculate the averaged $ATE = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^M ATE^{(m)}$ and averaged p-value $= \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^M pval^{(m)}$.

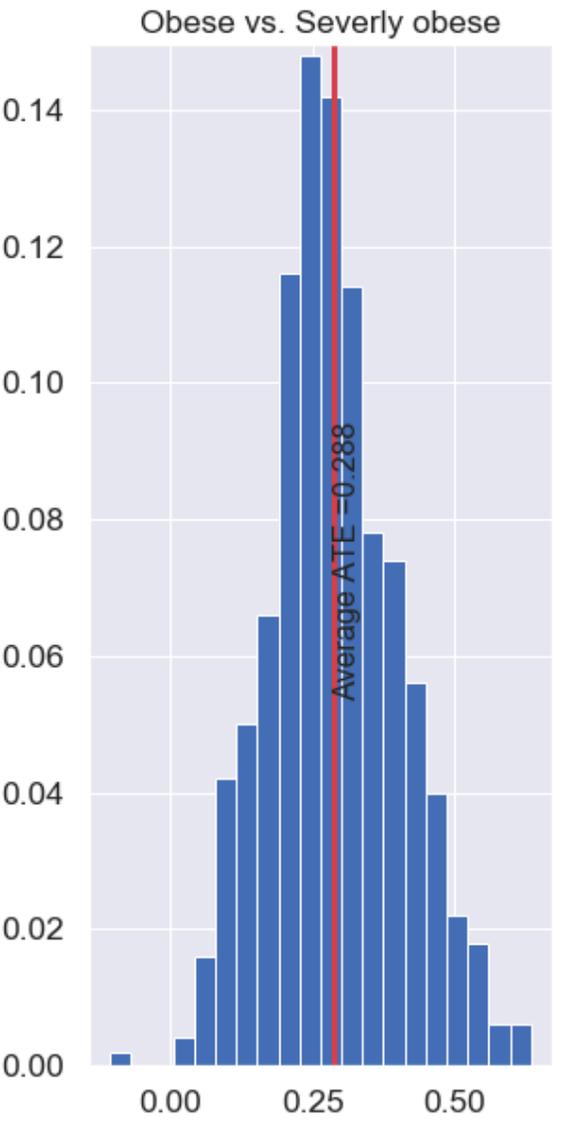
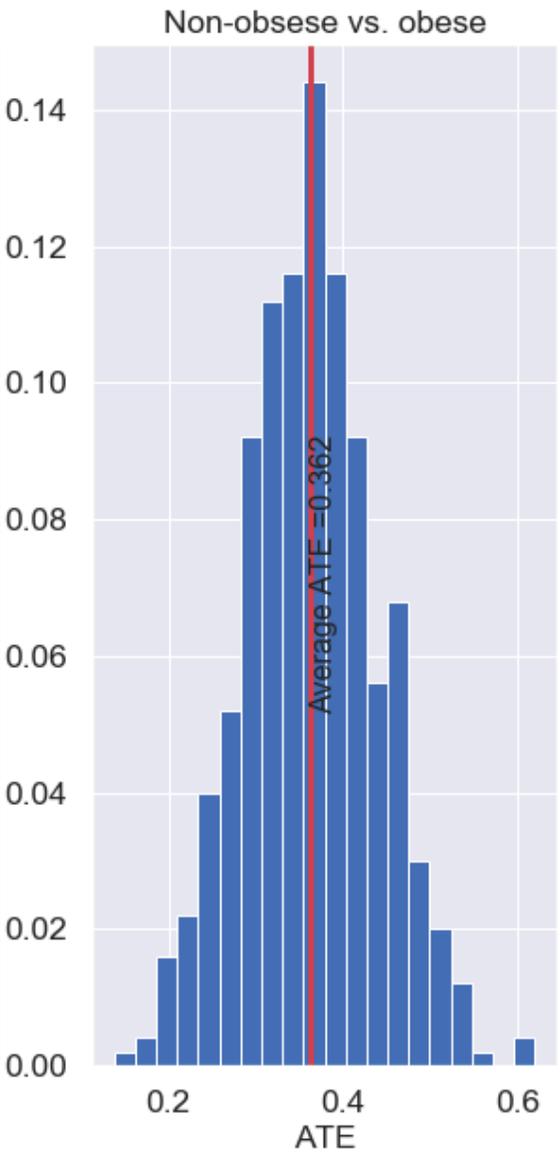
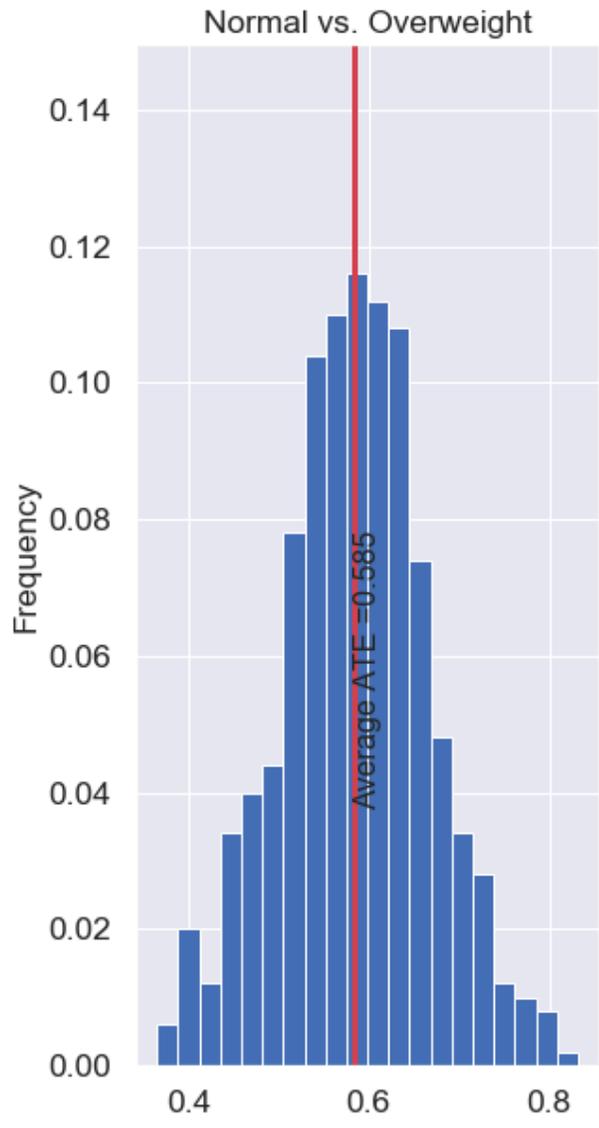


Experiment Result

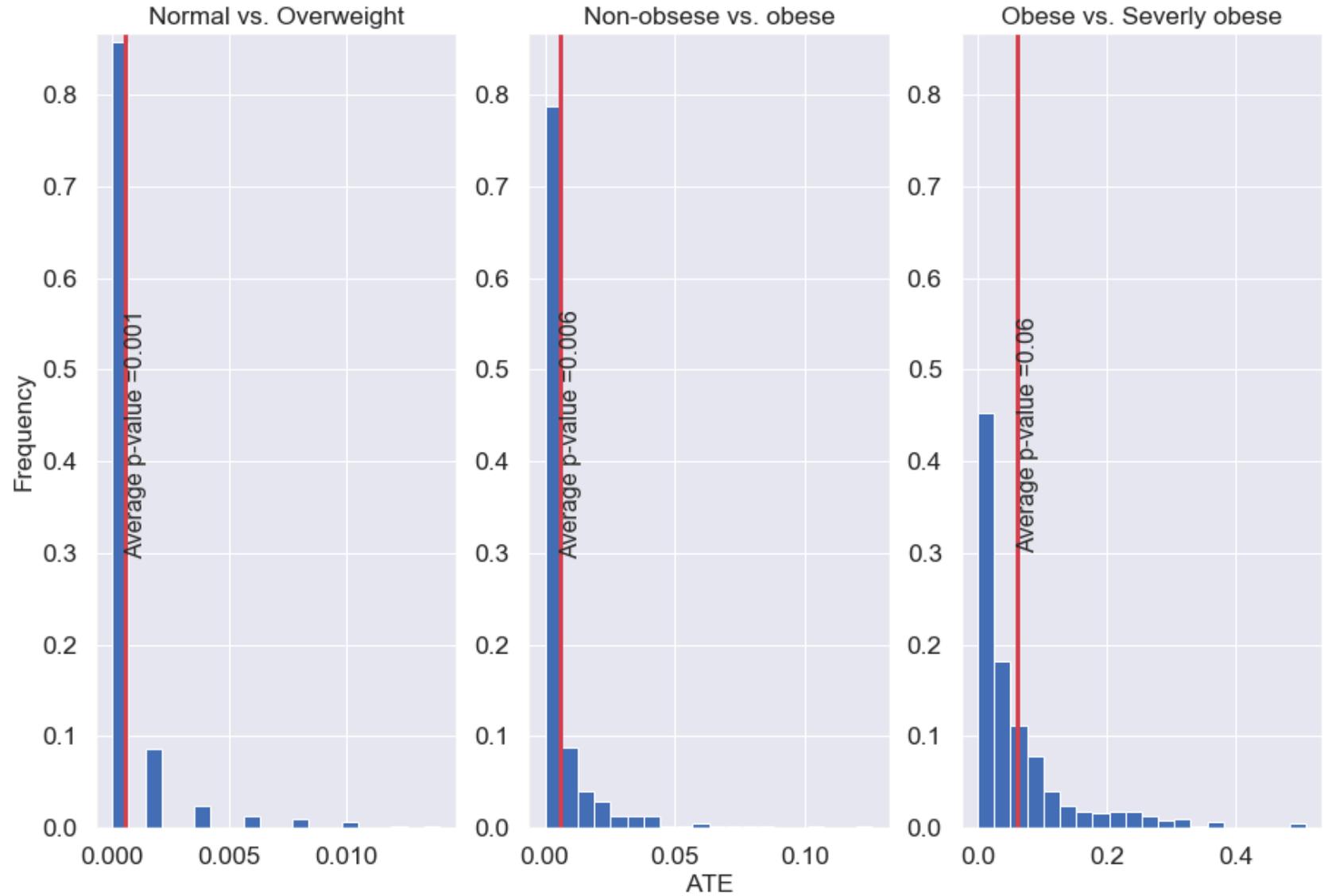
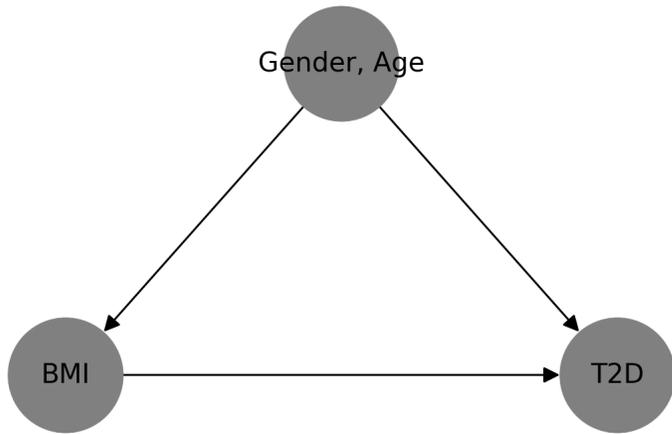


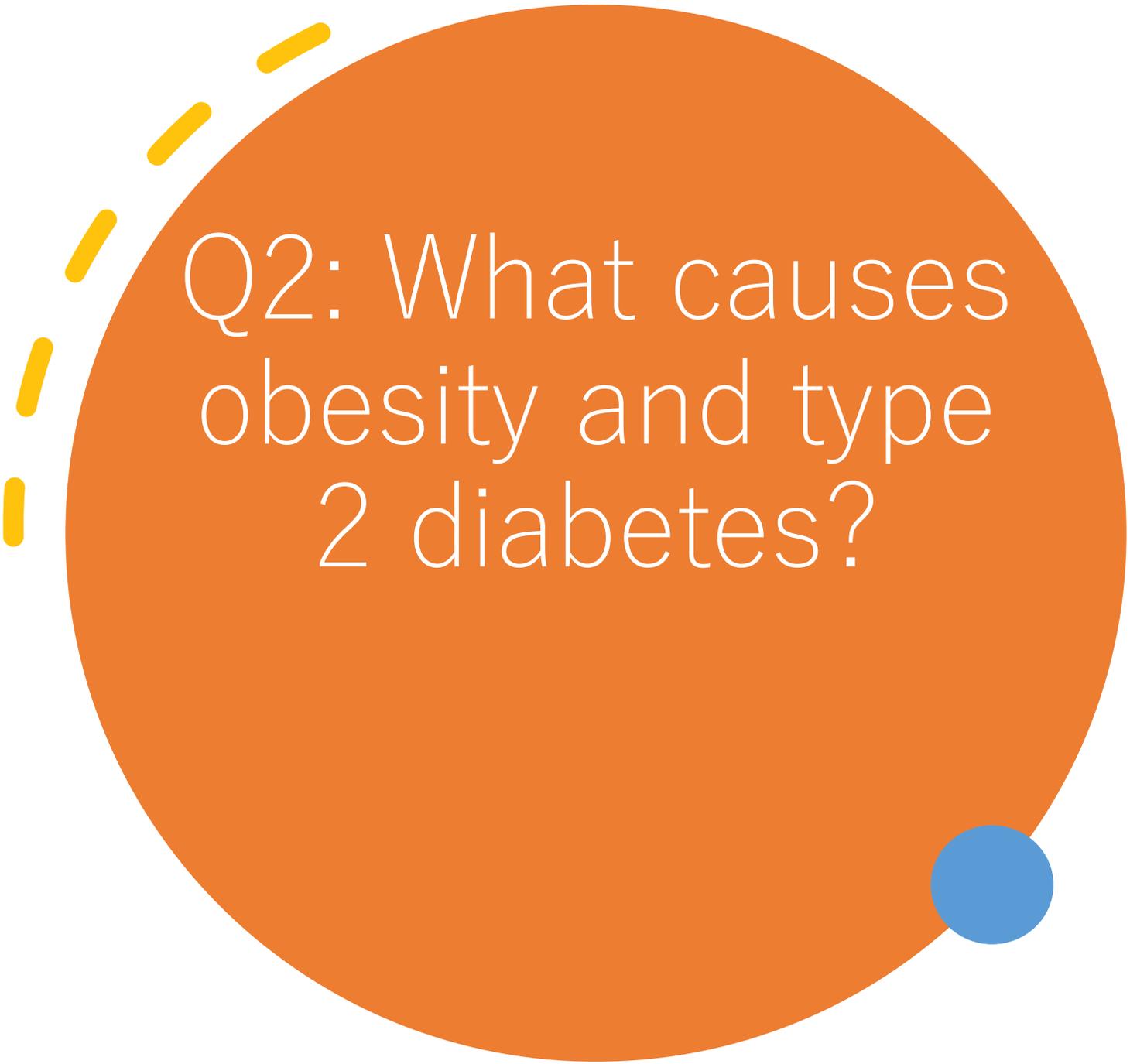
BMI = $\begin{cases} \text{Normal} (< 25) \\ \text{Overweight} [25, 30) \\ \text{Obese} [30, 35) \\ \text{Severe Obese} > 35 \end{cases}$

T2D = $\begin{cases} \text{Non-Diabetic} \\ \text{Pre-Diabetes} \\ \text{Diabetes} \end{cases}$



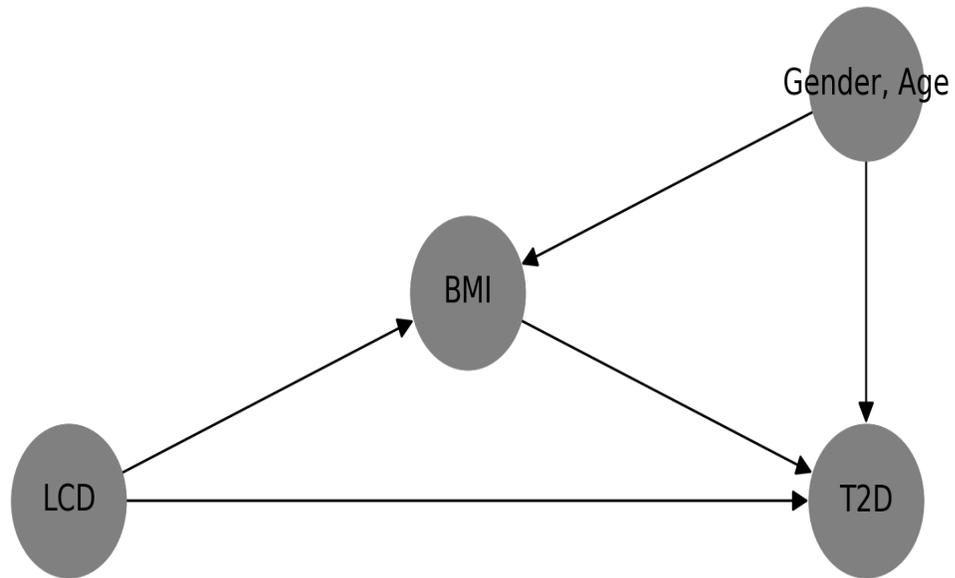
Significance Test





Q2: What causes obesity and type 2 diabetes?

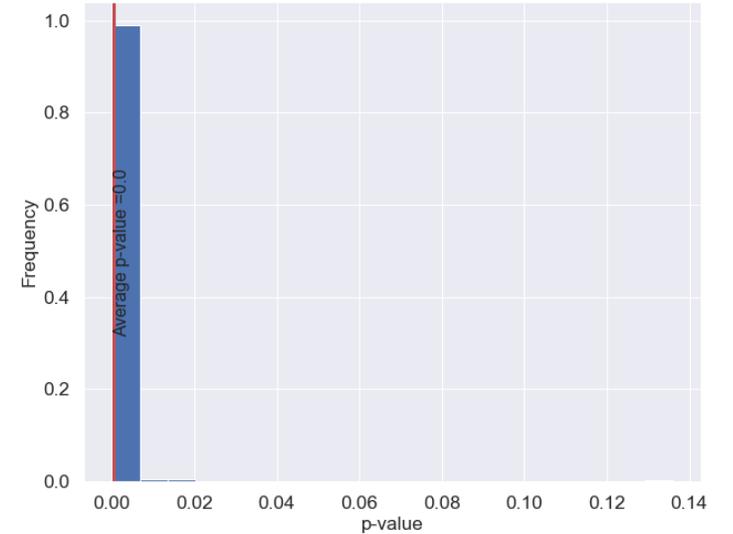
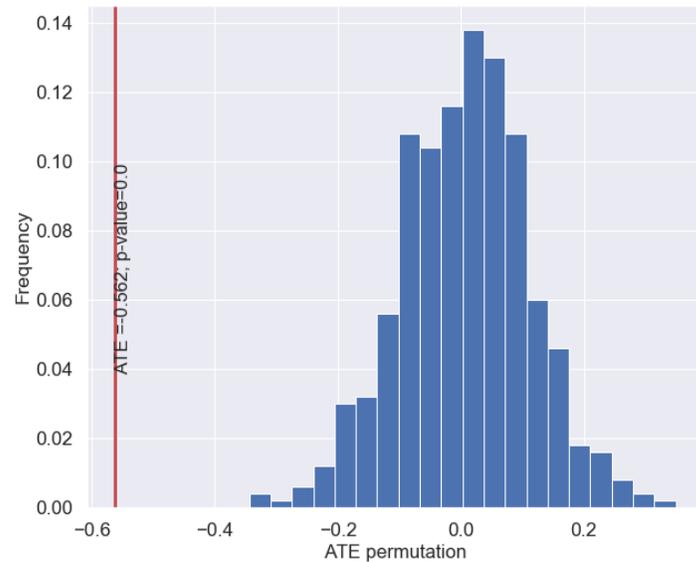
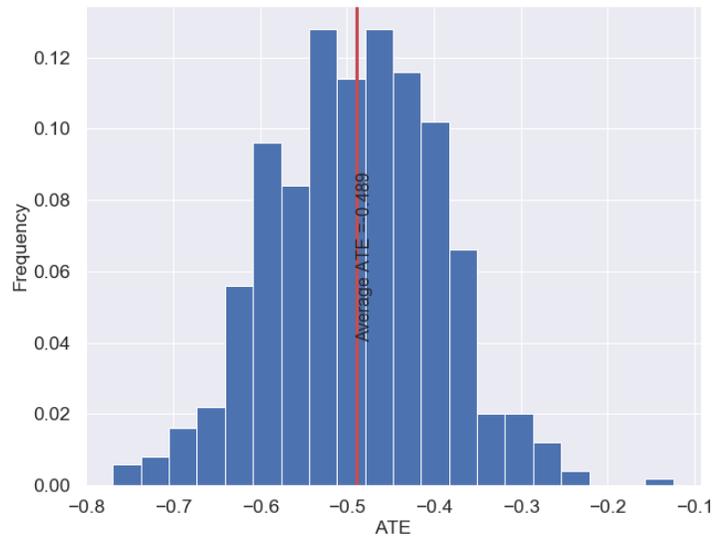
Is obesity bad for type 2 diabetes?

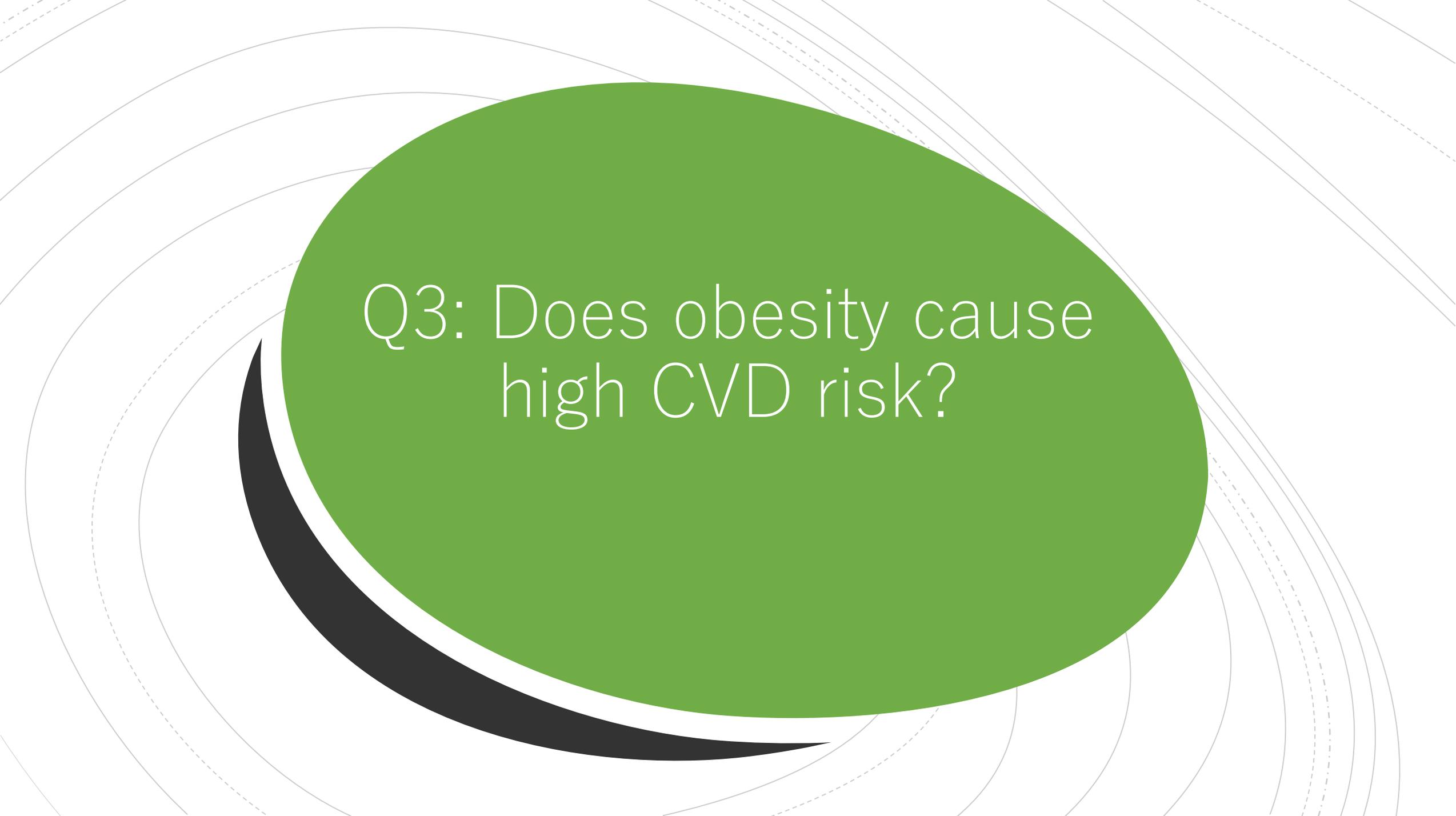


- BMI is a mediator between low-carbs diet and type-2 diabetes
- To estimate the effect of LCD on T2D we can:
 - Compute ATE without controlling for anything (BMI is a collider)
 - Control for all of BMI, Gender, and Age
That's what we want to do

Yes, obesity is bad for type 2 diabetes ... (counterfactual)

Distribution of the ATE from 500 subsamples (left), from one PT (middle),
and of the p-value from 500 PT (right)





Q3: Does obesity cause
high CVD risk?

Reynolds Risk Score for CVD

P.M. Ridker, et al., 2007, JAMA

Reynolds Risk Score
Calculating Heart and Stroke Risk for Women and Men

Home Calculator FAQ

If you are healthy and without diabetes, the Reynolds Risk Score is designed to predict your risk of having a future heart attack, stroke, or other major heart disease in the next 10 years.

In addition to your age, blood pressure, cholesterol levels and whether you currently smoke, the Reynolds Risk Score uses information from two other risk factors, a blood test called hsCRP (a measure of inflammation) and whether or not either of your parents had a heart attack before they reached age 60 (a measure of genetic risk). To calculate your risk, fill in the information below with your most recent values. [Click here](#) for help filling the information.

| | |
|---|---|
| Gender | <input type="radio"/> Male <input type="radio"/> Female |
| Age | <input type="text"/> Years (Maximum age must be 80) |
| Do you currently smoke? | <input type="radio"/> Yes <input type="radio"/> No |
| Systolic Blood Pressure (SBP) | <input type="text"/> mm/Hg |
| Total Cholesterol | <input type="text"/> mg/DL (or) <input type="text"/> mmol/L |
| HDL or "Good" Cholesterol | <input type="text"/> mg/DL (or) <input type="text"/> mmol/L |
| High Sensitivity C-Reactive Protein (hsCRP) | <input type="text"/> mg/L |
| Did your Mother or Father have a heart attack before age 60 ? | <input type="radio"/> Yes <input type="radio"/> No |
| <input type="button" value="Calculate 10 year risk"/> | |

Assumptions due to limited data

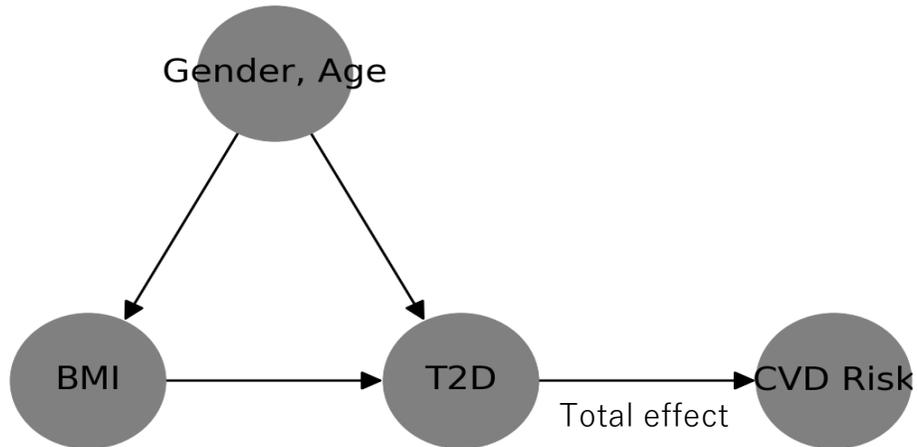
- Assume all patients are non-smokers
- Ignore hsCRP
- Ignore information about family history

Reynolds Risk Score (RRS) does not include diabetes information

We can also use Blood Pressure (BP) or Cholesterol (HDL and Total) as the outcome

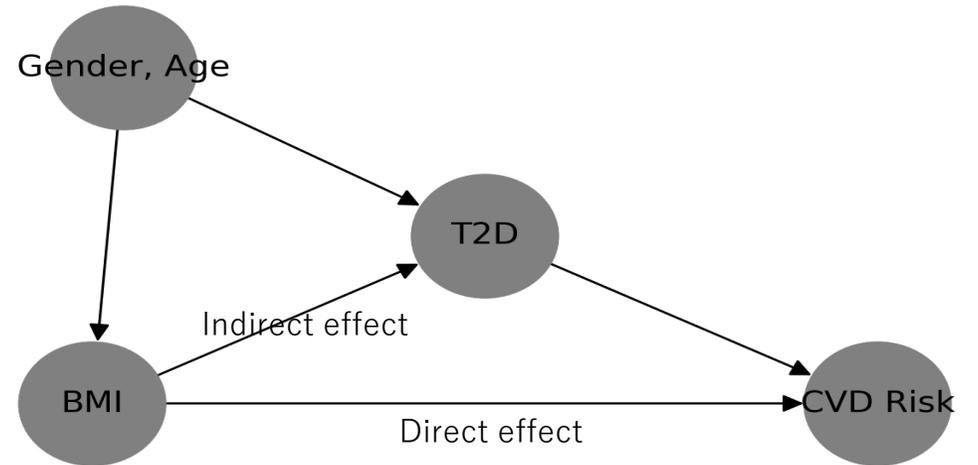
Impact of obesity on CVD Risk

Impact of Obesity (BMI) on CVD Risk



- BMI diet impacts CVD Risk through T2D
 - T2D is a mediator and no direct path from LCD to CVD Risk
 - We control for Gender, and Age

CVD Risk | BMI; Gender, Age



- BMI diet impacts CVD Risk through T2D
 - T2D is a mediator with a direct path from LCD to CVD Risk
 - We control for all of Gender, Age, and T2D

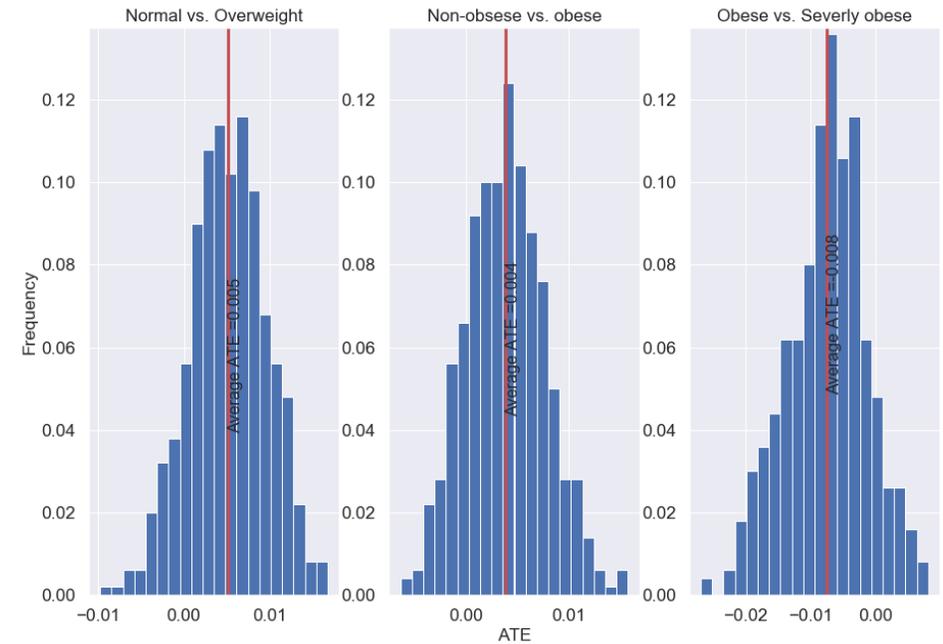
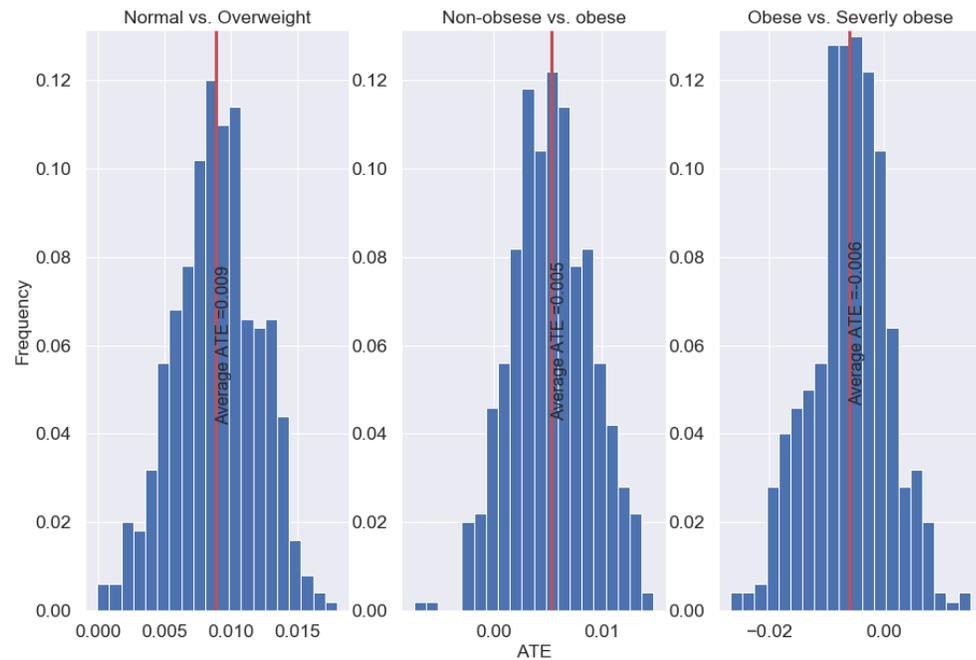
CVD Risk | BMI; Gender, Age, T2D

Impact of obesity on CVD Risk

Distribution of subsamples

RRS | BMI; Gender, Age

RRS | BMI; Gender, Age, T2D



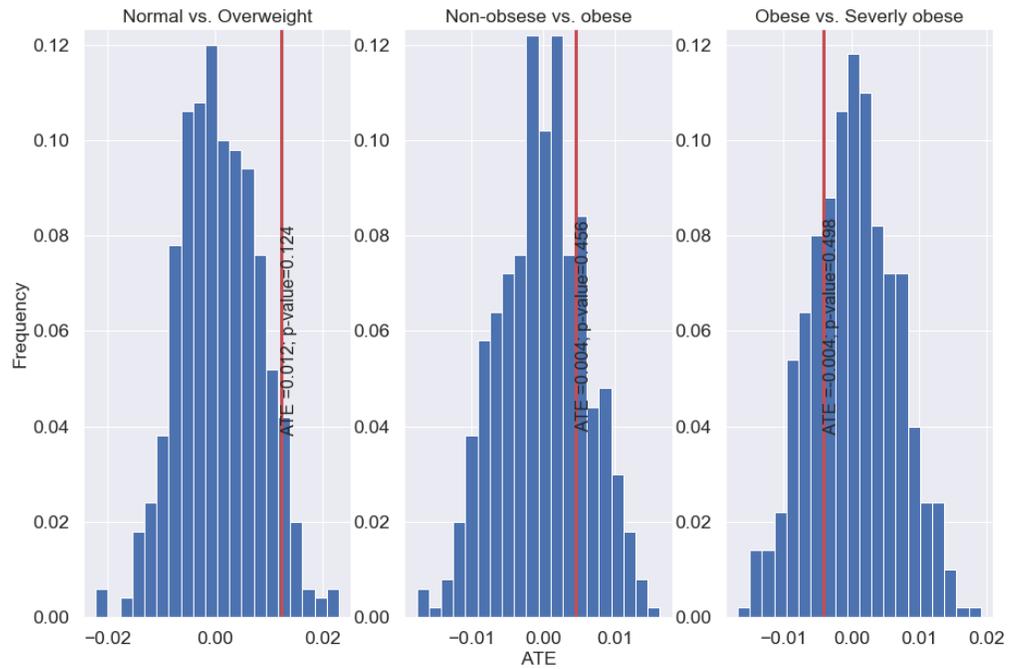
Indirect causal effect = Total effect – Direct effect

- $0.009 - 0.005 = 0.004$ (Normal vs. Overweight)
- $0.005 - 0.004 = 0.001$ (Non-obese vs. Obese)
- $0.006 - 0.008 = -0.002$ (Obese vs. Severely obese)

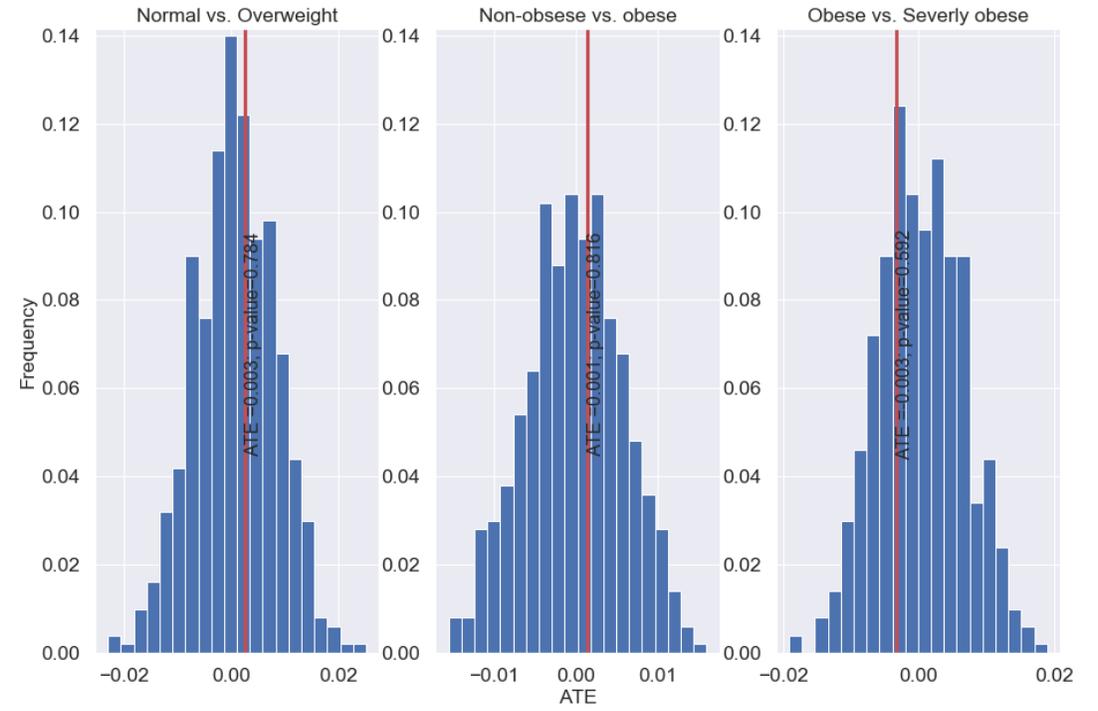
Impact of obesity on CVD Risk

Distribution of one permutation test

RRS | BMI; Gender, Age



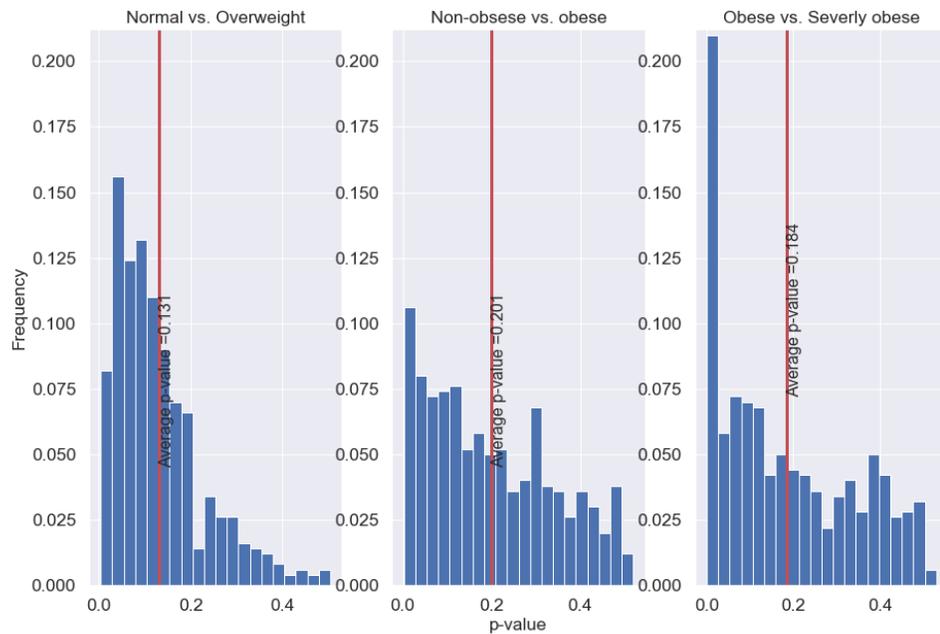
RRS | BMI; Gender, Age, T2D



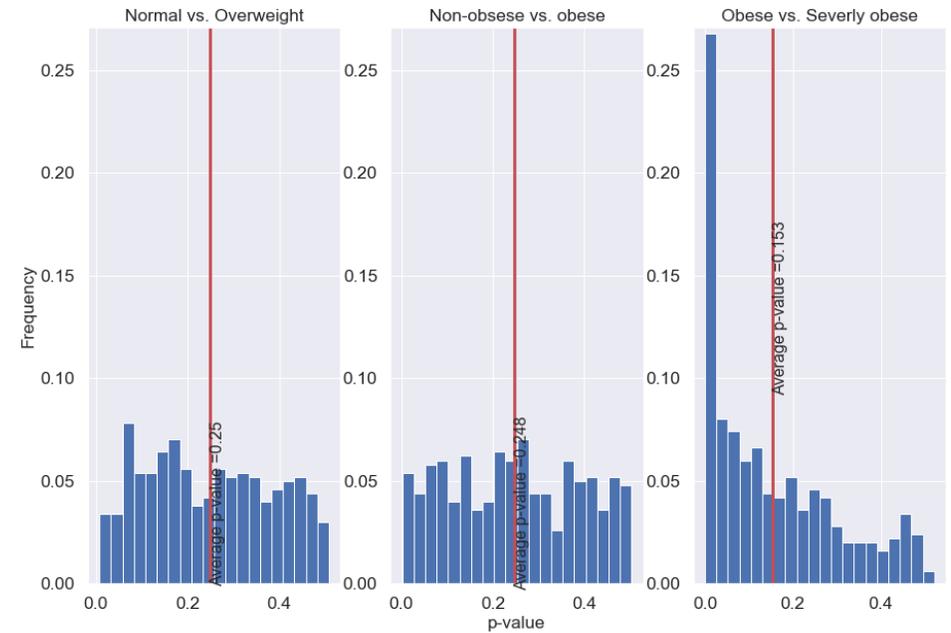
Impact of obesity on CVD Risk

Distribution of p-values

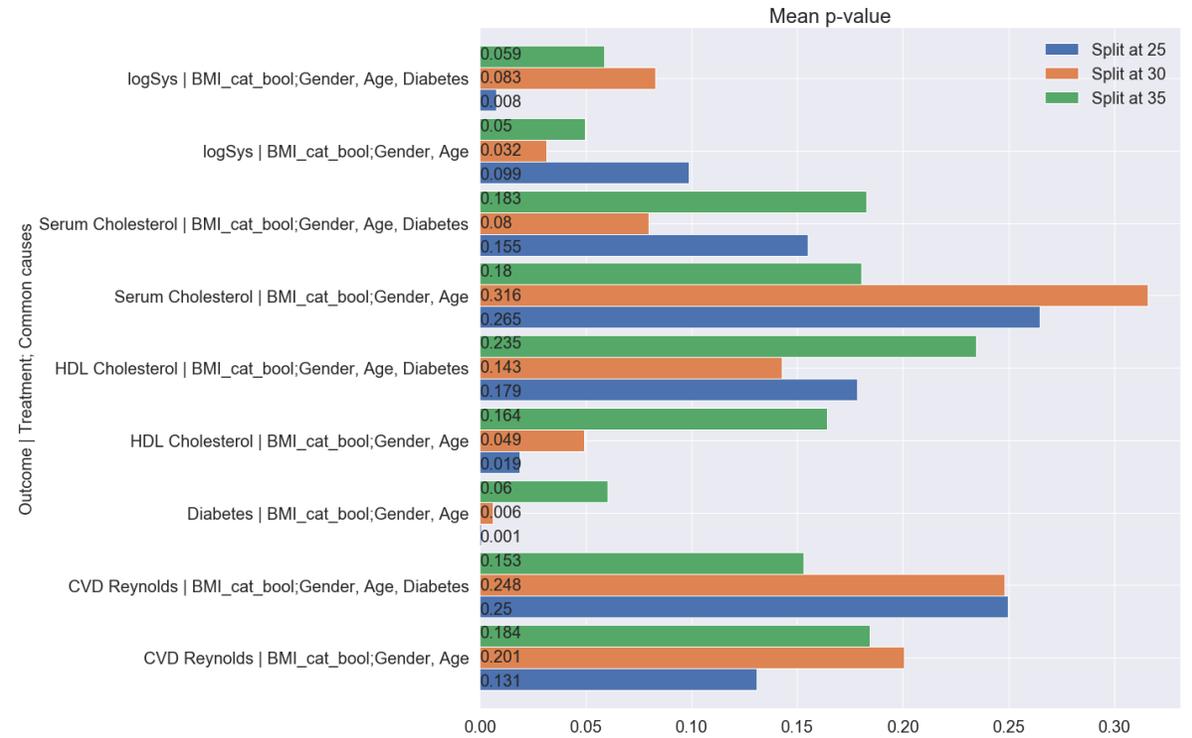
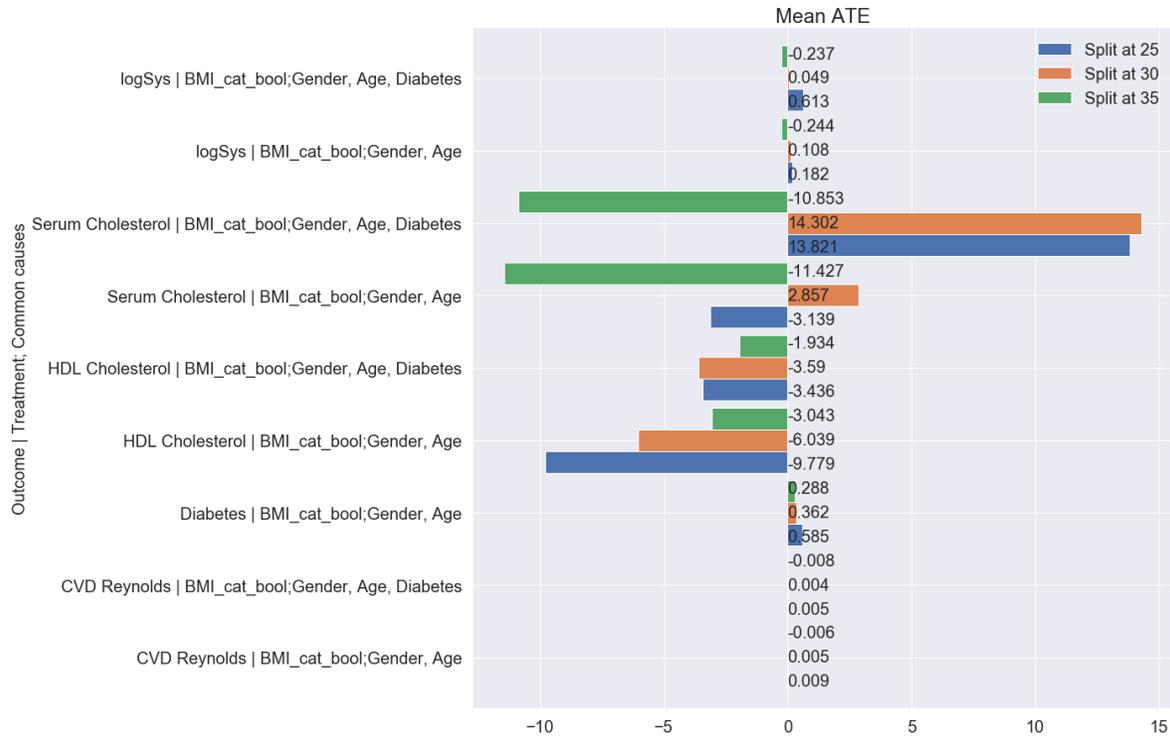
RRS | BMI; Gender, Age



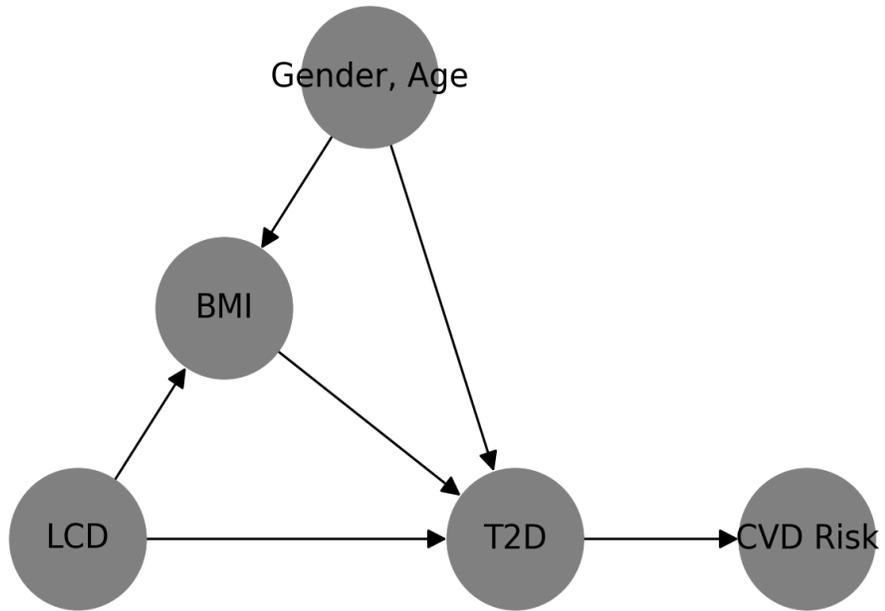
RRS | BMI; Gender, Age, T2D



Summary of the Effect of Obesity



Low-Carb is promising for lowering CVD risk !



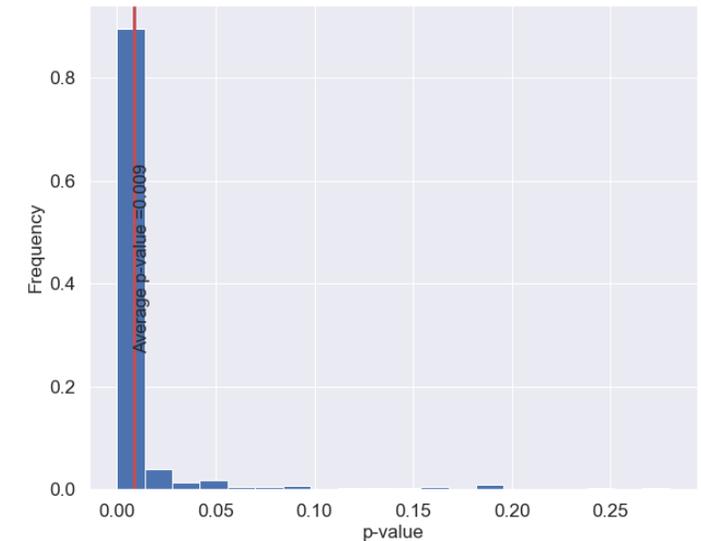
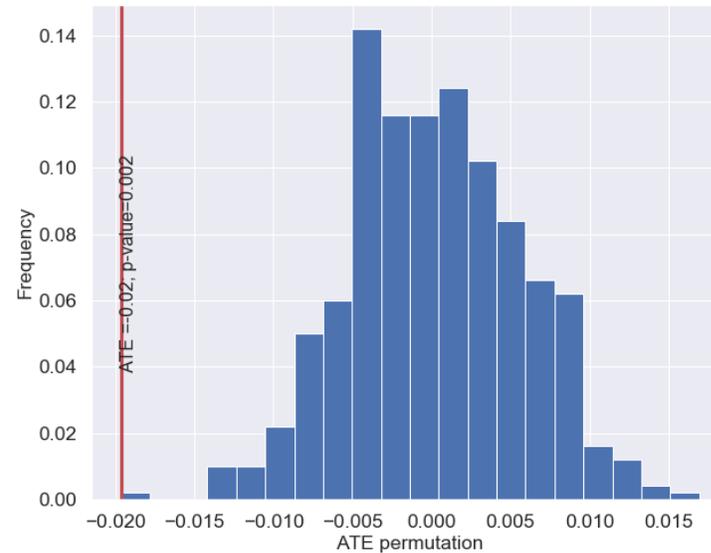
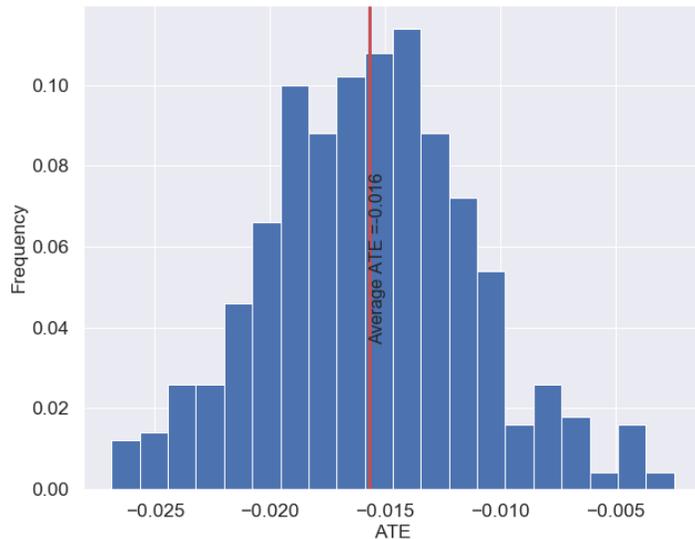
RRS | LCD; Gender, Age, BMI

Impact of low-carb diet on CVD Risk

- Low-carb diet impacts CVD Risk through T2D
 - T2D is a mediator
 - No direct path from LCD to CVD Risk
 - Control for BMI, Gender, and Age

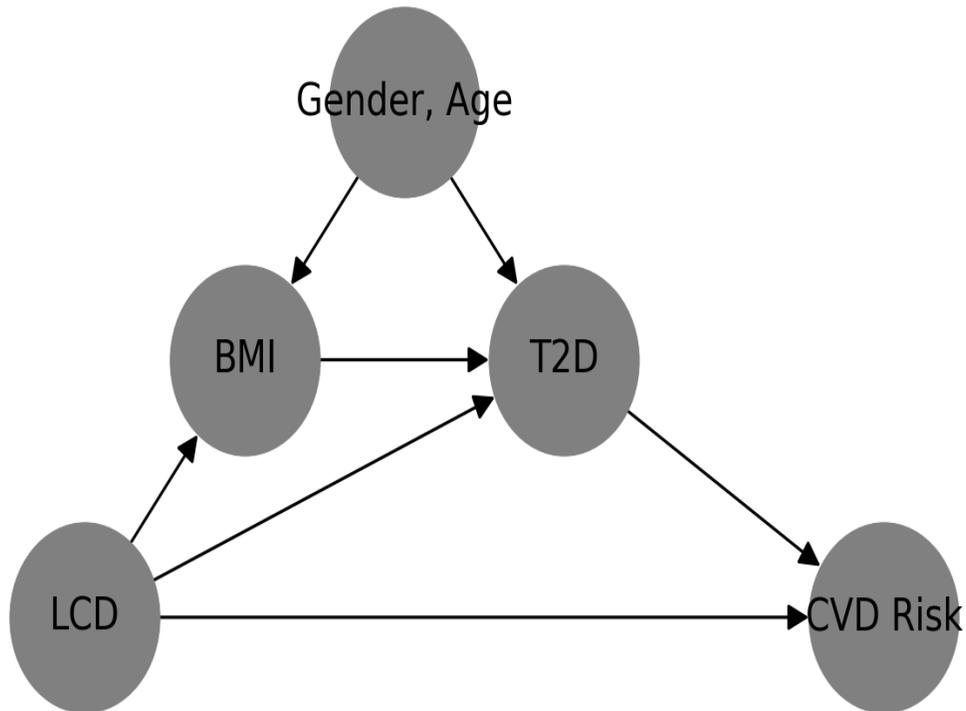
Impact of Low-Carb Diet on CVD risk

RRS | LCD; Gender, Age, BMI



Distribution of the ATE from 500 subsamples (left), from one PT (middle), and of the p-value from 500 PT (right)

Low-Carb is promising for lowering CVD risk !



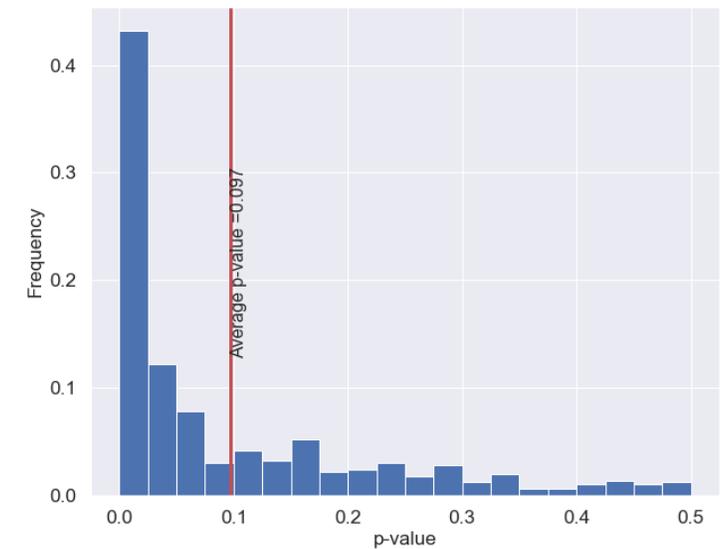
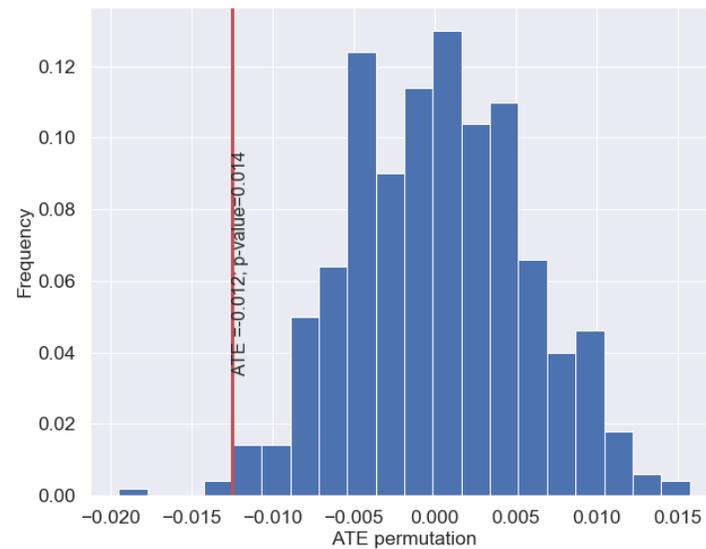
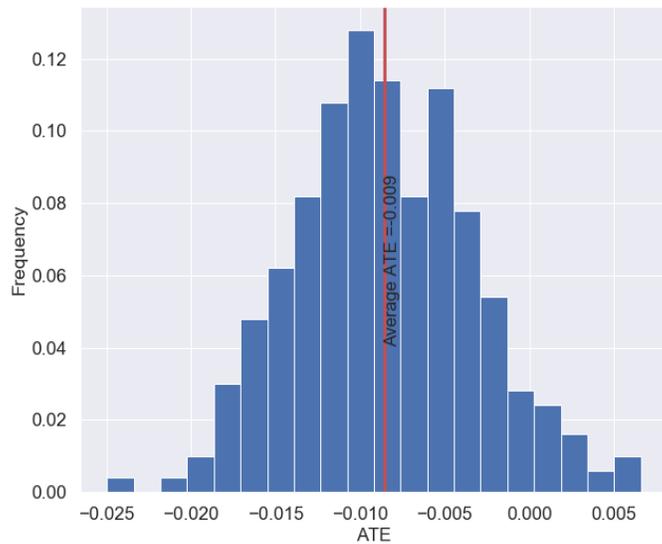
RRS | LCD; Gender, Age, BMI, T2D

Impact of low-carb diet on CVD Risk

- Low-carb diet impacts CVD Risk both directly and indirectly through
 - T2D is a mediator
 - There is also a direct path from LCD to CVD Risk
 - We control for Gender, Age, and T2D

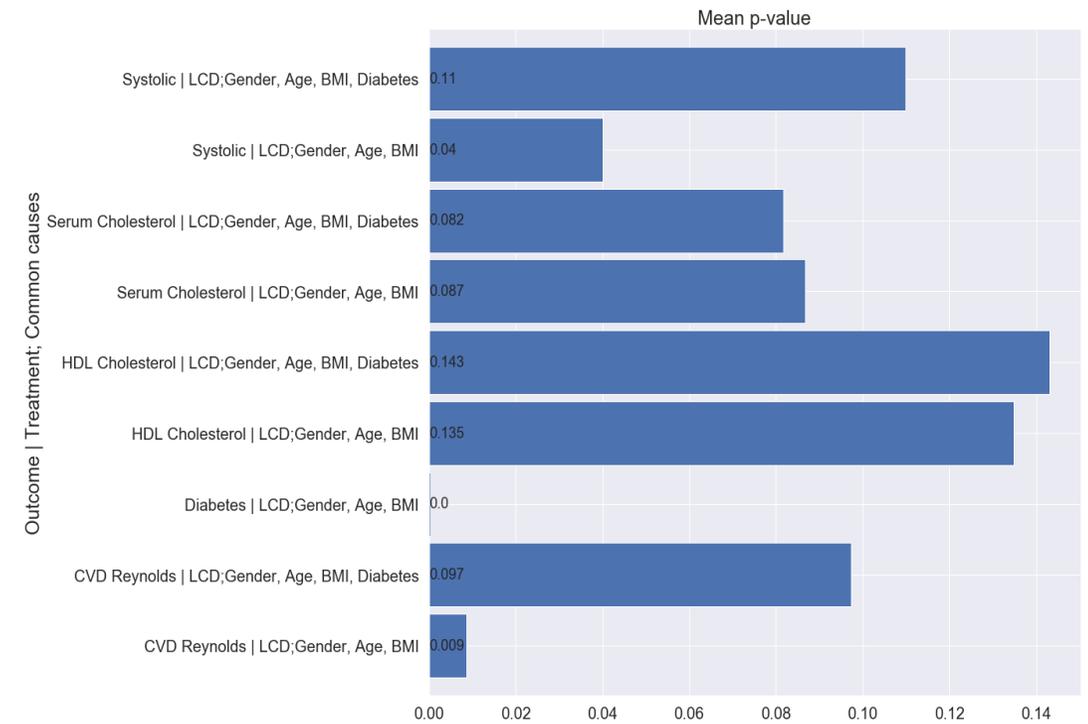
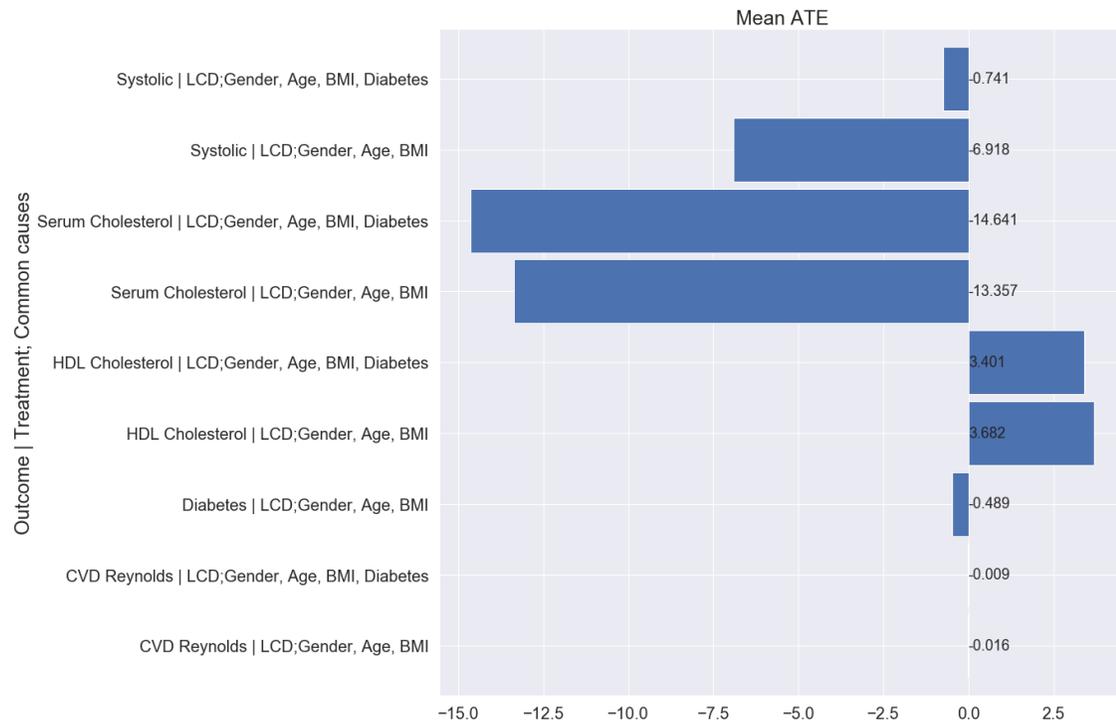
Low-Carb is promising for lowering CVD risk !

RRS | LCD; Gender, Age, BMI, T2D



Distribution of the ATE from 500 subsamples (left), from one PT (middle), and of the p-value from 500 PT (right)

Low-Carb is promising for lowering CVD risk and Diabetes



Conclusion

Develop randomization method for causal inference for CVD

BMI is a high-risk factor -- (exercise or diet is better than fish-oil pills)

Low-Carb diet can significantly lower CVD risk

Thanks for attention! Any Questions?