Analytic Methods for Applied Epidemiology: Framework and Contingency Table Analysis

2014 Maternal and Child Health Epidemiology Training Pre-Training Webinar: Friday, May 16 2-4pm Eastern Kristin Rankin, PhD

The Epidemiologic Framework

Descriptive Epidemiology

• summarizes the distribution of risk markers, risk factors, and outcomes in a community without explicit causal or other hypotheses.

Analytic Epidemiology

 tests hypotheses about risk factors and their relationship to health outcomes. In addition, public health uses analytic epidemiology to test hypotheses about health services, health policies, and the social determinants of health, and conduct program evaluations

The Epidemiologic Framework

From Galea 2013:

"An Argument for a Consequentialist Epidemiology" (AJE)

"Epidemiology is the study of the causes and distributions of diseases in human populations so that we may identify ways to prevent and control disease"

"...In recent decades, our discipline's robust interest in identifying causes has come at the expense of a more rigorous engagement with the second part of our vision for ourselves—the intent for us to intervene—and this approach threatens to diminish our field's relevance."

The Epidemiologic Framework

All epidemiologic analysis should support the MCH planning cycle from Needs Assessment to Evaluation

Epidemiologic analysis starts with establishing the research question(s) that will best support the specific planning cycle activity at hand (e.g. problem analysis for prioritization or planning, evaluation of the causal effect of a program on intended outcomes

A conceptual framework should guide the specification of the research question(s) and the subsequent analysis process

Research Questions

"Well-crafted questions guide the systematic planning of research. Fomulating your questions precisely enables you to design a study with a good chance of answering them."

-Light, Singer, Willett, By Design (1990)

Developing a Research Question

- Identify a topic that is relevant to your agency and your population of interest
- Review the scientific literature to find out the state of the science on that topic and what gaps are in the literature about that topic
- Discover what is novel or will advance scientific knowledge or influence health programs or policy

http://phs.ucdavis.edu/downloads/ClinEpi_Romano.pdf

Developing a Research Question

Assess the feasibility of the research question

- Retrospective study: Adequacy of sample size available, availability and quality of existing data, feasibility with regard to data access/data linkages
- Prospective study: Ethics, sample availability, affordability/funding, manageable in scope

Developing a Research Question

A good research question should have the following elements, which should all be defined precisely:

- **P:** Population
- I: Intervention or Indicator ("Exposure")
- C: Comparison/Control ("Unexposed")
- **O:** Outcome (must be measureable)

Note: For some more exploratory research questions, the "I" and the "C" may be a combined set of factors for which you are examining relationships with the outcome, so may not be defined separately

Conceptual Models

Conceptual models provide a framework to your research question, based on theory and prior research

Conceptual models can be broad (theoretical) or very specific (directed acyclic graphs), but should always be considered before launching into a data analysis

The analysis plan should flow from your conceptual model about how all of the variables (exposure, outcome, covariates) are related to one another

Conceptual Models - Examples

Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen)



Conceptual Models - Examples

Behavioral Model of Healthcare Utilization (Anderson)



Conceptual Models - Examples



Paradies Y, and Stevens M J Epidemiol Community Health 2005;59:1012-1013

Defining Variables

Variable definition flows from the conceptual framework and research question

In this step, decisions are made about how to best operationalize concepts from the conceptual model to answer the research question

Types of variables:

- outcome/Dependent Variable
- Exposure(s)/Risk Factor(s)/Program(s)/Intervention(s):

- potentially modifiable

Govariates/Risk markers/Characteristics:

- potential effect modifiers or confounders of exposure-outcome relationship

For each, decide how you will code variables for analysis to best answer your research question(s), balancing the need for sufficient sample size in categories with an approach that minimizes misclassification and preserves conceptual meaning (iterative process)

Univariate Statistics

- Describe the distribution of sample characteristics
- Estimate the occurrence of the outcome and exposure(s) in the target population

Measures of Occurrence in Epi:

- **Means** summarize continuous variables and are assumed to follow a *normal distribution*.
- **Proportions** summarize discrete variables and are assumed to follow the *binomial distribution*.
 - Cumulative incidence rates
 - Prevalence rates
- **Incidence Density Rates** also summarize discrete variables, but have person-time denominators and are assumed to follow the *Poisson distribution*.

Bivariate Statistics (2 x 2 or k x k tables)

- Prevalence or risk of outcome by categories of the exposure variable(s) - p1, p2, p3, etc ("row percents")
- Crude measure(s) of effect (prevalence ratio, relative risk, odds ratio) for the relationship between the main exposure(s) and outcome and/or statistical tests comparing proportions, odds, means of the outcome for different exposure groups
- Above, repeated for relationship between covariates and outcome and covariates and exposure

Comparing Measures of Occurrence across Groups

Compare 2 or more proportions using chi-square tests

- Pearson's chi-square ("General association")
 - 2 x 2 table 1 degree of freedom (df)
 - r x c table (r-1) * (c-1) df (unordered vars)
- Mantel-Haenszel chi-square Test for Trend ("Nonzero correlation")
 - r x 2 − 1 df (ordered by dichotomous variable)

Comparing Measures of Occurrence across Groups

- Compare 2 means Independent sample t-test (Proc ttest)
- Compare 3 or more means Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)
 - Continuous or ordinal variables: Proc ANOVA
 - Ordinal Variables: Proc freq CMH statistics
 - ("Row Mean Scores Differ)

Review: Chi-Square and Other Tests for Proportions					
			Outo	come	
	Level of	Continuous	Ordinal	Categorical/	Dichotomous
	Measurement			Nominal	
	Continuous			(3+ categories)	
	Continuous				
Evnoquino	Ordinal		Trend – Chi-Square with 1 degree of freedom (Nonzero Correlation)	Pearson Chi- Square Test with (r-1) * (c-1) df (General Association)	Trend – Mantel- Haenszel Chi-Square with 1 degree of freedom (<i>Nonzero</i> <i>Correlation</i>)
Exposure	Categorical/ Nominal (3+categories)		ANOVA with r-1	Pearson Chi-	Pearson Chi- Square Test with (r-1) * (c-1) df (General Association)
	Dichotomous		degrees of freedom (<i>Row Mean</i> <i>Scores Differ</i>)	Square Test with (r-1)*(c-1) df (General Association)	Pearson Chi- Square with 1 df (<i>General</i> <i>Association</i>);

Measures of Association from 2x2 Tables



Difference Measures

• Between two or more proportions Risk Difference/Attributable Risk = $a/n_1 - c/n_2$

Ratio Measures

- Between two or more proportions Relative Risk (cohort) Relative Prevalence (cross-sectional)
- Between two odds Odds Ratio (case-control) = $\frac{a^*d}{b^*c}$

n1

Using SA	AS for Mea	asures of	Associa	ntion		
Cando Ac	accietion. 2		Table	of expos	sure by ou	tcome
Crude As	sociation: 2	<u>x2 Table</u>	exposure	outco	ome	
Crude RI	R = 1.67		Frequency Percent Row Pct Col Pct	 yes	lno	Total
Crude RI	$\mathbf{D}/\mathbf{AR} = 0.04$	4	yes	+ 500 3.33 11.11	4000 26.67 88.89	+ 4500 30.00
Exposure	Prevalence	=30%		41.67 +	28.99	 + - 10500
Disease P	revalence =	8%	no	700 4.67 6.67 58.33	9800 65.33 93.33 71.01	10500 70.00
			Total	+ 1200 8.00	13800 92.00	+ 15000 100.00
	Estimates c	of the Common Relative	e Risk (Row1/Row2)		
Type of Study	Method	Value	95% Confidence Limits			
Case-Control	Mantel-Haenszel	1.7500	1.5513		1.9741	
(Odds Ratio)	Logit	1.7500	1.5513		1.9741	
Cohort	Mantel-Haenszel	1.6667	1.4941		1.8592	

1.6667

0.9524

0.9524

1.4941

0.9415

0.9415

1.8592

0.9634

0.963

(Col1 Risk)

(Col2 Risk)

Cohort

Logit

Logit

Mantel-Haenszel

Using SAS Formatting to Control Output:

Suppose there is a variable called "marital" which contains information on marital status. The variable is coded "1" for individuals who are not married and "0" for those who are married.

```
proc format;
value marital
1 = 'not married'
0 = 'married';
value yn
1 = ' yes'
0 = 'no';
```

Sometimes proc format is used simply to attach descriptive labels to variable values. In addition, proc format can be used to <u>control the</u> <u>ordering of variable values in analysis (*yn format above*).</u>

Using SAS Formatting to Control Output:

The format must be associated with the variable, and this can be accomplished either in the data step or in a proc step. In the data step, the association is permanent; in a proc step it is only temporary.

The formatting can then be used to control the way that frequency tables are produced:

data one; set data.final; ...other SAS statements... format exposure outcome yn.; run;

proc freq order=formatted;

tables exposure * outcome; run;

proc freq order=formatted;

tables exposure * outcome;
format exposure outcome yn.;
run;

Using SAS for Measures of Association

Crude Association: >2 X 2 Table	Frequency Row Pct Col Pct
Race:	1
1 = Native American	2
2 = Asian / Pacific Islander	
3 = Black	3
4 = White	4
5 = Other	
6 = Multiple races	5
Choose common referent group	6
to be the "unexposed" group and estimate RRs from multiple 2x2 tables	Total Frequency

equency ∞ Pct			
l Pct	dead	alive	Total
1	15 11.11 0.51	120 88.89 0.63	135
2	28 7.09 0.96	367 92.91 1.92	395
З	527 16.84 18.00	2603 83.16 13.63	3130
4	2325 12.81 79.43	15827 87.19 82.86	18152
5	28 13.93 0.96	173 86.07 0.91	201
6	4 25.00 0.14	12 75.00 0.06	16
tal equency	2927 Missina =	19102 = 51	22029

Categorical Exposures

You may be able to visually inspect patterns of row percents and estimate RRs in your head for different levels of ordinal or nominal variables, compared to a common referent group

If not, you want to explicitly produce these relative risks from a series of 2x2 tables to better understand the exposure – disease relationship for exposure and/or outcome variables with >2 categories:

proc freq order=formatted;

tables race*outcome/ nopercent cmh relrisk; where race in (3,4); /*Switch 3 to 1,2,5,6 in subsequent proc freqs to get RRs for all race groups*/ run;/*race = 4 - White is ref category*/

Stratified Analysis

Single and multiple factor stratified analysis are used to:

- Examine outcome prevalence/risk in finer subgroups
- Assess for small numbers in cells upon stratification and distribution of sample across finer subgroups
- Assess effect modification and confounding of exposure(s)/outcome relationship by single covariates and sets of covariates

Effect Modification

Interaction/effect modification is "a situation in which two or more risk factors modify the effect of each other with regard to the occurrence or level of a given outcome"

- Risk factor has different effect on outcome across subgroups of the population (e.g. by race/ethnicity, gender, age, insurance status, poverty level, etc)
- Program has differential effects across different subgroups of the population
- Risk factors jointly cause an outcome in a synergistic way

Effect Modification

Effect Modification is assessed by comparing **stratum**-**specific** measures of association to each other

- Effect Modification on Multiplicative Scale / Multiplicative Interaction: Stratum-specific RRs/ORs are different
- Effect Modification on Additive Scale / Additive Interaction: Stratum-specific RDs/ARs are different

Effect Modification on Multiplicative Scale

Statistical test for homogeneity of the stratum-specific effect measures – multiplicative scale



Effect Modification

Regardless of the method, if the stratum-specific estimates differ, statistically or qualitatively, then effect modification may be present.

Effect modification can take any of the following forms:

- 1. Stratum-specific estimates on the same side of the null but with meaningfully different magnitudes;
- 2. One null stratum-specific estimate and another significantly or meaningfully different than the null; or
- 3. Stratum-specific estimates on opposite sides of the null

Stratified Results by Covariate "A"

Table 1 of exposure by outcome

Contro.	lling for (covariate A	=yes	Contro	olling fo	r covariat A	e=no
exposure	outcome	e		exposure	outco	me	
Frequency Percent Row Pct Col Pct	 yes 1 ++	no +	Total	Frequency Percent Row Pct Col Pct	 yes	no	Total
yes	250 5.00 16.67 41.67	1250 25.00 83.33 28.41	1500 30.00	yes	250 2.50 8.33 41.67	2750 27.50 91.67 29.26	3000 30.00
no	350 7.00 10.00 58.33	3150 63.00 90.00 71.59	3500 70.00	no	350 3.50 5.00 58.33	6650 66.50 95.00 70.74	7000 70.00
Total	600 12.00	4400 88.00	5000 100.00	Total	+ 600 6 00	++ 9400 94 00	10000

Table 2 of exposure by outcome

-What is the prevalence of the outcome for the exposed and unexposed in each stratum of Covariate A? -What are the stratum-specific RRs? -Do they differ from each other?

Stratified Analysis: Is Covariate "A" an Effect Modifier of the Exposure-Outcome Relationship?



% with OC among Exp = 16.7 % with OC among UnExp = 10.0

Prevalence Ratio_{covA=y}: 1.7

Table 2 of exposure by outcome Controlling for covariate=no А exposure outcome Frequency Percent Row Pct Col Pct | yes no Total ____+ 2750 I yes 250 I 3000 2.50 | 27.50 | 30.00 91.67 | 29.26 | 350 I 6650 I 7000 no 66.50 I 70.00 50 95.00 | 70.74 | ---+ Total 600 9400 10000 6.00 94.00 100.00

% with OC among Exp = 8.3 % with OC among UnExp = 5.0

Prevalence Ratio_{covA=n}: 1.7

Stratified Analysis: Is Covariate "A" an Effect Modifier of the Exposure-Outcome Relationship?

Summary Statistics for exposure by outcome Controlling for covariate A

Cochran-Mantel-Haenszel Statistics (Based on Table Scores)

Statistic	Alternative Hypothesis	DF	Value	Prob
1	Nonzero Correlation	1	85.4574	<.0001
2	Row Mean Scores Differ	1	85.4574	<.0001
3	General Association	1	85.4574	<.0001

Estimates of the Common Relative Risk (Row1/Row2)

Type of Study	y Method	Value	95% Confide	nce Limits
Case-Control	Mantel-Haenszel	1.7619	1.5607	1.9891
(Odds Ratio	c) Logit	1.7618	1.5606	1.9891
Cohort	Mantel-Haenszel	1.6667	1.4951	1.8579
(Coll Risk)	Logit	1.6667	1.4952	1.8578
Cohort	Mantel-Haenszel	0.9524	0.9415	0.9634
(Col2 Risk)	Logit	0.9575	0.9472	0.9680

Breslow-Day Test for Homogeneity of the Odds Ratios

Chi-Square	0.1108
DF	
Pr > ChiSq	0.7392

Stratified Results by Covariate "C"

Table Contro	l of exposure by lling for covari	outcome .ate=yes	Table Contr	2 of expo olling fo	sure by ou or covariat	utcome ce=no
	C				С	
exposure	outcome		exposure	outco	me	
Frequency Percent Row Pct	 		Frequency Percent Row Pct	 		
Col Pct	yes no	Total	Col Pct	yes	no	Total
yes	365 213 7.30 42.7 14.60 85.4 67.59 47.8	25 2500 20 50.00 20 37	yes	135 1.35 6.75 20.45	1865 18.65 93.25 19.97	+ 2000 20.00
no	175 232 3.50 46.5 7.00 93.0 32.41 52.1	25 2500 50 50.00 00 .3	no	525 5.25 6.56 79.55	7475 74.75 93.44 80.03	+ 8000 80.00
Total	+ 540 446 10.80 89.2	5000 0 100.00	Total	+ 660 6.60	9340 93.40	+ 10000 100.00

-What is the prevalence of the outcome for the exposed and unexposed in each stratum of Covariate C? -What are the stratum-specific RRs? -Do they differ from each other?

Stratified Analysis: Is Covariate C an Effect Modifier?

Table 1 of exposure by outcome Controlling for covariate=yes С exposure outcome Frequency Percent Row Pct Col Pct | yes lno Total +---+ 365 I 2135 | 2500 yes 30 42.70 50.00 85.40 I 47.87 I ----+ 175 I 2325 2500 no 46.50 50.00 93.00 | 7.00 32.41 52.13 540 4460 5000 Total 10.80 89.20 100.00

% with OC among Exp = 14.6 % with OC among UnExp = 7.0

Prevalence Ratio_{covC=y}: 2.1

Table 2 of exposure by outcome Controlling for covariate=no



% with OC among Exp = 6.8 % with OC among UnExp = 6.6 Prevalence Ratio_{covC=n}: 1.0

Stratified Analysis: Is Covariate C an Effect Modifier?

Summary Statistics for exposur by outcome Controlling for covariate C

Cochran-Mantel-Haenszel Statistics (Based on Table Scores)

Statistic	Alternative Hypothesis	DF	Value	Prob
1	Nonzero Correlation	1	43.8370	<.0001
2	Row Mean Scores Differ	1	43.8370	<.0001
3	General Association	1	43.8370	<.0001

Estimates of the Common Relative Risk (Row1/Row2)

Type of	Study	Method	Value 9	5% Confidence	Limits
Case-Con	trol	Mantel-Haenszel	1.5677	1.3756	1.7865
(Odds	Ratio)	Logit	1.5498	1.3525	1.7759
Cohort	Risk)	Mantel-Haenszel	1.5091	1.3342	1.7068
(Coll		Logit	1.4978	1.3218	1.6973
Cohort	Risk)	Mantel-Haenszel	0.9631	0.9524	0.9740
(Col2		Logit	0.9723	0.9618	0.9829

Breslow-Day Test for Homogeneity of the Odds Ratios

Chi-Square	32.6678
OF	
Pr > ChiSq	<.0001

Confounding

Confounding refers to "a situation in which a non-causal association between a given exposure and an outcome is observed as a result of the influence of a third variable (or group of variables)"

Three criteria for confounder:

- **1.** Causally associated with the outcome
- 2. Non-causally or causally associated with exposure
- 3. Not in causal pathway between exposure and outcome
One way to assess for confounding by a third factor is by comparing the **crude** measure of association for the relationship between the exposure and outcome to the relative risk or odds ratio after **adjusting** for the suspected confounder

- There is no statistical test for confounding
- By convention, if the adjusted measure is > 10% different than the crude, confounding is considered to be present

Confounding may be...

- **Positive** : Makes crude measure of association for E-D relationship stronger (*farther from the null*) than true relationship; in other words, after adjustment, the measure of association gets **closer to** the null
- **Negative**: Makes crude measure of association for E-D relationship weaker (*closer to the null*) than true relationship; in other words, after adjustment, the measure of association gets **farther from** the null

Confounding may be:

Full: Completely explains the association between exposure and outcome, so that after adjustment, measure of association is 1 (null value)

Partial: Incompletely explains the association between exposure and outcome, so that after adjustment, measure of association is closer to, but not at the null value

Residual confounding may result from misclassification or measurement error for measured confounders or from unmeasured confounders

Methods to Control Confounding

- Randomization
- Restriction
- Matching
- Direct and Indirect Standardization
- Stratified Analysis
- Regression Analysis

Randomization, restriction and matching occur in the study design phase, *prior* to analysis—the researcher assumes that confounding is present. The other methods are all used to assess confounding *after* data are collected, during analysis.

Assessing Confounding

- Standardization: Does the standardized measure differ from the unstandardized measure?
- **Stratified Analysis**: Does the adjusted measure of association differ from the crude measure of association?
- Regression Analysis: Does the beta coefficient for a variable in a model that includes a potential confounder differ from the beta coefficient for that same variable in a model that does not include the potential confounder?



Confounding – Stratified Analysis

Typical data layout for stratified analysis:

- A table for each level (strata) of the potential confounder
- Each table displays the exposure-disease relationship within each stratum

Summary (adjusted) relative risk and odds ratio, and the corresponding statistical test using stratified methods:



NOTE: This chi-square test estimates is for the relationship between the exposure and outcome, after adjustment for the confounder (*NOT a statistical test for confounding!*)

```
Using SAS for stratified analysis to Assess
Confounding
```

Crude and single factor stratified analysis

```
proc freq order=formatted;
tables exposure*outcome /*bivariate*/
covariate*exposure*outcome / /*strat*/
riskdiff relrisk cmh;
```

```
run;
```

The rightmost variable defines the columns; the second from the rightmost variable defines the rows; other variables define strata of covariates (potential effect modifiers or confounders)

Stratified Results by Covariate "A"

Contro	lling for	covariate A	e=yes
exposure	outco	ome	
Frequency Percent Row Pct Col Pct	 yes	no	Total
yes	250 5.00 16.67 41.67	1250 25.00 83.33 28.41	1500 30.00
no	350 7.00 10.00 58.33	3150 63.00 90.00 71.59	3500 70.00
Total	600 12.00	4400 88.00	5000 100.00

Table 1 of exposure by outcome

Table 2 of exposure by outcome Controlling for covariate=no А exposure outcome Frequency Percent Row Pct Col Pct | yes | no Total ----+ | 250 | 2750 | ves 3000 2.50 | 27.50 | 30.00 8.33 | 91.67 | 41.67 | 29.26 | _____+ 350 | 6650 | 7000 no 3.50 | 66.50 | 70.00 5.00 | 95.00 | 58.33 | 70.74 | ___+ Total 600 9400 10000 6.00 94.00 100.00

% with OC among Exp = 16.7 % with OC among Exp = 8.3 % with OC among UnExp = 10.0 % with OC among UnExp = 5.0 *Crude RR = 1.7 What is the adjusted RR?*

Stratified Analysis: Is Covariate "A" a Confounder?

Summary Statistics for exposure by outcome Controlling for covariate A

Cochran-Mantel-Haenszel Statistics (Based on Table Scores)

Statistic	Alternative Hypothesis	DF	Value	Prob
1	Nonzero Correlation	1	85.4574	<.0001
2	Row Mean Scores Differ	1	85.4574	<.0001
3	General Association	1	85.4574	<.0001

Estimates of the Common Relative Risk (Row1/Row2)

Type of	Study	Method	Value	95%	Confidence	Limits
Case-Cor (Odds	ntrol Ratio)	Mantel-Haenszel Logit	1.7619 1.7618	1 1	.5607 .5606	1.9891 1.9891
Cohort (Coll	Risk)	Mantel-Haenszel Logit	1.6667	1	.4951 .4952	1.8579 1.8578
Cohort (Col2	Risk)	Mantel-Haenszel Logit	0.9524 0.9575	0	.9415 .9472	0.9634 0.9680

Breslow-Day Test for Homogeneity of the Odds Ratios

Chi-Square	0.1108
DF	1
Pr > ChiSq	0.7392

Stratified Results by Covariate "B"

Table 1 of exposure by outcome Controlling for covariate=yes				Table 2 of exposure by outcom Controlling for covariate=no				
exposure outcome			B exposure outcome					
Frequency Percent Row Pct Col Pct	 yes	no	Total	Frequency Percent Row Pct Col Pct	yes	no	Total	
yes	350 7.00 14.00 58.33	2150 43.00 86.00 48.86	2500 50.00	yes	150 1.50 7.50 25.00	1850 18.50 92.50 19.68	2000 20.00	
no	250 5.00 10.00 41.67	2250 45.00 90.00 51.14	2500 50.00	no	450 4.50 5.63 75.00	7550 75.50 94.38 80.32	8000 80.00	
Total	600 12.00	4400 88.00	5000 100.00	Total	600 6.00	9400 94.00	10000	

Crude RR = 1.7 What is the adjusted RR?

Stratified Analysis: Is Covariate B a Confounder?

Summary Statistics for exposure by outcome Controlling for covariate B

Cochran-Mantel-Haenszel Statistics (Based on Table Scores)

Statistic	Alternative Hypothesis	DF	Value	Prob
1	Nonzero Correlation	1	28.7931	<.0001
2	Row Mean Scores Differ	1	28.7931	<.0001
3	General Association	1	28.7931	<.0001

Estimates of the Common Relative Risk (Row1/Row2)

Type of	Study	Method	Value	95%	Confidence	Limits
Case-Con	ntrol	Mantel-Haenszel	1.4194	1	.2487	1.6134
(Odds	Ratio)	Logit	1.4172	1	.2465	1.6112
Cohort	Risk)	Mantel-Haenszel	1.3721	1	.2219	1.5407
(Coll		Logit	1.3714	1	.2214	1.5399
Cohort	Risk)	Mantel-Haenszel	0.9696	0	.9584	0.9810
(Col2		Logit	0.9726	0	.9616	0.9837

Breslow-Day Test for Homogeneity of the Odds Ratios -----Chi-Square 0.3182

DF				1
Pr	>	ChiSq	0.572	5

Confounding vs Effect Modification (Multiplicative)

Confounding	Effect Modification
Compare crude v. adjusted OR/RR	Compare stratum-specific OR/RR
No statistical testing	Statistical testing

With **confounding**, the association between a risk factor and an outcome is the same (or close to the same) in each stratum, but different from the crude

With **effect modification**, the association between a risk factor and a health outcome is different across strata.

Effect modification is *always* assessed first; confounding is meaningless in the presence of meaningfully and statistically significant effect modification

Confounding vs Effect Modification (Multiplicative)







Confounding vs Effect Modification (Multiplicative) No confounding or Effect Modification **Parallel Lines** - crude ------cov yes 16.67 11.11 10.00 8.33 6.67 5.00 Unexposed Exposed **Confounding: Stratum-Specific Lines are Parallel Effect Modification** with Each Other, but Different than the Crude Line **Stratum-Specific Lines are Not Parallel** - crude - crude ---- cov yes ---- cov yes 14.60 14.00 11.11 11.11 10.00 7.00 7.50 6.67 6.67 6.75 5.63 6.56 Unexposed Exposed Unexposed Exposed 50

Multiplicative Interaction

For statistically testing *multiplicative* interaction, the null hypothesis can be stated in two equivalent ways:

- 1. Equality (homogeneity) of the stratum-specific measures of association
- 2. Equality of the joint effect and the *product* of the set of separate effects

Multiplicative Model of Interaction

- The joint effect is the effect of exposure to both of the factors of interest compared to non-exposure to both
- The separate effects are the effect of exposure to each factor in the absence of the other compared to non-exposure to both
- The group that is unexposed to either factor is the "common referent group"

$$OR_{stratum 1} = OR_{stratum 2}$$
$$OR_{joint} = OR_{x_1+,x_2-} \times OR_{x_1-,x_2+}$$

Multiplicative Model of Interaction

Rearranged Data Layout for Contingency Tables: Alternative Perspective on Effect Modification

- Each table displays the exposure disease relationship for either a joint or separate effect
- There is a table for each of the (# strata-1) joint effects, plus a table for each of the # strata separate effects
- The joint effects are combinations of covariates <u>and</u> the exposure variable; the separate effects are combinations of covariates in the absence of exposure plus exposure alone

Multiplicative Model of Interaction Rearranged Layout: Observed and Expected Joint Effects The Simple Case of 3 Dichotomous Variables Joint Effect of Effect of the Covariate **Exposure and Covariate** in the Absence of Exposure Disease Disease Y Ν Y Ν E=N and C=Y P_2 E=Y and C=Y \mathbf{P}_1 E=N and C=N P_4 E=N and C=N P_4

Compare to tables on slide 41

Effect of Exposure in the Absence of the Covariate



Multiplicative Model of Interaction

Rearranged Layout: Observed and Expected Joint Effects

Joint Effect of Exposure and Covariate



Case Control Data

Effect of the Covariate in the Absence of Exposure



Effect of Exposure in the Absence of the Covariate



(from before, slide 33)

Table 1 of exposure by outcome Table 2 of exposure by outcome Controlling for covariate=yes Controlling for covariate=no exposure outcome exposure outcome Frequency | Frequency | Percent Percent Row Pct Row Pct Col Pct | yes | no | Total Col Pct | yes | no Total ____+ ____+ yes | 365 | 2135 | 2500 yes | 135 | 1865 | 2000 7.30 | 42.70 | 50.00 | 1.35 | 18.65 | 20.00 | 14.60 | 85.40 | 6.75 | 93.25 | 67.59 | 47.87 | 20.45 | 19.97 | ____+ ----+ 175 | 2325 | 2500 525 | 7475 | 8000 no no 3.50 | 46.50 | 50.00 5.25 | 74.75 | 80.00 7.00 | 93.00 | 6.56 | 93.44 | 32.41 | 52.13 | 79.55 I 80.03 | _____+ ----+ 540 4460 5000 660 9340 Total Total 10000 6.60 93.40 100.00 10.80 89.20 100.00

RR=2.1

Breslow-Day p < 0.0001

RR=1.0

The FREQ Procedure

ExpCovC

Table of ExpCovC by outcome

outcome

Rearranged Layout: Joint and Separate Effects

Frequency	,	
Percent	,	
Row Pct	7	
Col Pct	, 0, 1	, Total
ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff	^ffffffffffffffffffff	^
exp y, cov y	, 2135 , 365	, 2500
	, 14.23 , 2.43	, 16.67
	, 85.40 , 14.60	7
	, 15.47 , 30.42	,
ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff	^	^
exp n, cov y	, 2325 , 175	, 2500
	, 15.50 , 1.17	, 16.67
	, 93.00 , 7.00	7
	, 16.85 , 14.58	,
ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff	^	^
exp y, cov m	, 1865 , 135	, 2000
	, 12.43 , 0.90	, 13.33
	, 93.25 , 6.75	7
	, 13.51 , 11.25	,
ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff	^ffffffffffffffffffff	^
Neither	, 7475 , 525	, 8000
	, 49.83 , 3.50	, 53.33
	, 93.44 , 6.56	,
	, 54.17 , 43.75	7
ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff	^ ^	^
Total	13800 1200	15000
	92.00 8.00	100.00

Summary Statistics for ExpCovC by outcome

Cochran-Mantel-Haenszel Statistics (Based on Table Scores)

Statistic	Alternative Hypothesis	DF	Value	Prob
ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff	*******************************	fffff	ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff	fffffff
1	Nonzero Correlation	1	117.0014	<.0001
2	Row Mean Scores Differ	3	178.0537	<.0001
3	General Association	3	178.0537	<.0001

Joint

Rearranged Layout: Joint Effect

001110	0.					
Frequency						
Dewsent	'					
Percent	'					
Row Pct	,					
Col Pct	,	yes	,n	0	,	Total
ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff	f^:	fffffff	f ^ f	fffffff	^	
exp y, cov y	,	365	,	2135	,	2500
	,	3.48	,	20.33	,	23.81
	,	14.60	,	85.40	,	
	,	41.01	,	22.22	,	
ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff	f^:	fffffff	f^	fffffff	^	
exp n, cov n	,	525	,	7475	,	8000
	,	5.00	,	71.19	,	76.19
	,	6.56	,	93.44	,	
	,	58.99	,	77.78	,	
ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff	f^;	fffffff	-^ f	fffffff	^	
Total		890		9610		10500
		8.48		91.52		100.00

outcome

Type of Study	Value	95% Confidenc	e Limits
ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff	ſſſſſſſſſſſſ	ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff	fffffff
Case-Control (Odds Ratio)	2.4341	2.1120	2.8055
Cohort (Coll Risk)	2.2248	1.9618	2.5230

Rearranged Layout: Separate Effects

sep_exp

outcome

-						
Frequency	'					
Percent	,					
Row Pct	,					
Col Pct	,	yes	, r	10 ,	Total	
ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff	^f	fffffff	î î	fffffff		
exp y, cov n	,	135	,	1865 ,	2000	
	,	1.35	,	18.65 ,	20.00	
	,	6.75	,	93.25 ,		
	,	20.45	,	19.97 ,		
ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff	^f	fffffff	î î j	fffffff		
exp n, cov n	,	525	,	7475 ,	8000	
	,	5.25	,	74.75 ,	80.00	
	,	6.56	,	93.44 ,		
	,	79.55	,	80.03 ,		
fffffffffffffffffffffffffff						
Total		660		9340	10000	
		6.60		93.40	100.00	

sep_cov	outcome			
Frequency	,			
Percent	,			
Row Pct	,			
Col Pct	, yes ,	no ,	Total	
ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff	ff^ffffffff	ffffffff		
exp n, cov	y, 175,	2325 ,	2500	
	, 1.67 ,	22.14 ,	23.81	
	, 7.00,	93.00 ,		
	, 25.00 ,	23.72 ,		
ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff				
exp n, cov n	, 525,	7475 ,	8000	
	, 5.00,	71.19 ,	76.19	
	, 6.56,	93.44 ,		
	, 75.00 ,	76.28 ,		
£££££££				
Total	700	9800	10500	
	6.67	93.33	100.00	

Type of Study	7		Value	95%	CI
ffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffff	ffffff	fffffff	ffffffffffff	ſſſſſ	ffffff
Case-Control	(Odds	Ratio)	1.0306	0.8473	1.2536
Cohort (Coll	Risk)		1.0286	0.8568	1.2347

Type of Study	Value	95% CI
££££££££££££££££££££££££££££££££££££££	****	ſſſſŢſŢſŢſŢſ
Case-Control (Odds Ratio)	1.0717 0.8	3976 1.2796
Cohort (Coll Risk)	1.0667 0.9	9043 1.2581

Multiplicative Model of Interaction

The null hypothesis of no multiplicative interaction



Examine potential joint confounding—whether crude and adjusted estimates differ and whether there is interaction across strata.

Several scenarios when controlling simultaneously for several factors:

1. No confounding or interaction: the crude and adjusted estimates of effect are the same, regardless of whether factors are adjusted for singly or jointly

2. Confounding present with one sufficient confounder: crude and adjusted estimates of effect differ, but the magnitude of confounding does not change—the multiple-factor adjusted estimate is the same as that obtained with control for one of the factors by itself—control of multiple factors simultaneously does not yield a "better" estimate than control of a single factor

Confounding present only when two or more 3. covariates are considered or magnitude of confounding is different when more than one confounder is considered: crude and adjusted estimates of effect differ, and the magnitude of confounding changes—the multiple-factor adjusted estimate is different from that obtained with control for one of the factors by itself—control of multiple factors simultaneously yields a "better" estimate than control by any single factor by itself

How do we know which combinations of variables to consider?

"A sufficient confounder group is a minimal set of one or more risk factors whose simultaneous control in the analysis will correct for **joint confounding** in the estimation of the effect of interest. Here, 'minimal' refers to the property that, for any such set of variables, no variable can be removed from the set without sacrificing validity."

Kleinbaum, DG, Kupper, LL., Morgenstern, H. *Epidemiologic Research: Principles and Quantitative Methods*, Nostrand Reinhold Company, New York, 1982, p 276.

What about interaction?

What if there was interaction between the exposure and one of the other factors alone, but not after looking at two factors jointly?

What if there was no interaction when looking at each factor alone, but there is after considering both factors jointly?

Epidemiologic analysis is an art as well as a science!

At each step of the stratification process, look at numbers and percents (measures of occurrence) in the cells. Depending on the study design, look at row and/or column totals and percents, or person time totals.

When you are at the **bivariate** stage, look at:

- Appropriate test statistic (chi-square test)
- Crude measures of association (relative risk, prevalence ratio, odds ratio, risk difference/attributable risk)
- 95% confidence interval for the measure of association

When you are doing **single or multiple factor stratified analysis**, also look at:

- Outcome risk/prevalence in each cell of the stratified tables
- Sample sizes in cells
- Stratum-specific measures of association and 95% CIs
- Adjusted measures of association and 95% CIs
- Test statistic and p-value for homogeneity of the measure of association across strata

In addition, if the exposure variable is ordinal rather than dichotomous—a k x 2 table, look at:

Test for trend at the bivariate, single, and multiple factor stratified levels

Some issues to think about when doing stratified analysis: Categories:

- Are my categories adequate—for the exposure, the outcome, and the covariates (stratification variables)?
- Are there too many or too few categories?
- Could there be misclassification and how might it be affecting my results?

Some issues to think about when doing stratified analysis: Sample size:

- Are there any sparse cells?
- How are the sample sizes in each stratum affecting results?
- Are some stratum-specific point estimates (OR/RR) equivalent, but only significant in some strata?
- Could categories be changed to improve stratum-specific sample size without imposing misclassification?
- What is the impact of missing values on sample size and representativeness of sample?

Some issues to think about when doing stratified analysis: Assessing Effect Modification:

- Do I agree with the Breslow-Day results?
- Are there patterns I think are important regardless of the statistical results?
- What might be reasons for seemingly different stratum-specific results? For example, why might an exposure be protective in some strata, but confer excess risk in other strata?

Overall:

 How will I use the stratified results as I move into regression modeling?

Analytic Framework - Summary

All of the following steps should be taken prior to any multivariable modeling:

- 1. Establish research question
- 2. Articulate a conceptual framework
- 3. Select and define variables of interest/available to address question
- 4. Define categories, sometimes more than once, for a given variable
- 5. Examine univariate distributions
- 6. Examine bivariate distributions
Analytic Framework - Summary

BEFORE any multivariable modeling (cont'd):

- 7. Perform single factor stratified analysis for the primary association(s) of interest, with each potential confounder / effect modifier
- 6. Rethink variables and categories
- 7. Perform multiple factor stratified analysis for the primary association of interest with different combinations of potential confounders / effect modifiers

Overview of Multivariable Models Webinar, Friday, May 16, 2014

Training Course in MCH Epidemiology

Deb Rosenberg, PhD Research Associate Professor Division of Epidemiology and Biostatistics University of IL School of Public Health





- Multivariable analysis implies acknowledging and accounting for the intricacies of the real world as reflected in the relationships among a set of variables
- The accuracy of statistics from multivariable analysis and therefore the accuracy of conclusions drawn and the appropriateness of any subsequent public health action taken is dependent on using appropriate methods.





Why Use Regression Modeling Approaches? Why not just do stratified analysis?

Unlike stratified analysis, regression approaches:

- 1. more efficiently handle many variables and the sparse data that stratification by many factors may imply
- 2. can accommodate both continuous and discrete variables, *both as outcomes and as independent variables*.





Unlike stratified analysis, regression approaches:

- 3. allow for examination of multiple factors (independent variables) *simultaneously* in relation to an outcome (dependent variable)
- 4. allow variables to take on different roles depending on the focus of analysis—a variables might be considered an "exposure" or it might be considered a "covariate" or both
- 5. provide more flexibility in assessing effect modification and controlling confounding.





Regression Modeling is Used for Multiple Purposes

Sometimes, regression modeling is carried out in order to assess **one association;** other variables are included to adjust for confounding or account for effect modification. In this scenario, the focus is on obtaining the 'best' estimate of the single association.

Sometimes, regression modeling is carried out in order to assess **multiple, competing exposures**, or to identify a **set of variables** that together predict the outcome.





Regression analysis is an alternative to and an extension of simpler methods used to estimate incidence and prevalence and to test hypotheses about associations:

- Regression analysis yields estimates of <u>means</u>, proportions, or rates,
- Regression analysis tests differences between <u>means</u>, and is an extension of t-tests and analysis of variance.
- Regression analysis tests differences between or ratios of proportions or rates, and is an extension of chi-square tests from contingency tables – crude & stratified analysis.





Confidence Intervals



 $CI = PredictedValue \pm CriticalValue \times s.e. of PredictedValue$

 $CI = Obs. Assoc) \pm (Critical Value \times s.e. of the Assoc.)$

 $CI = Beta Coef. \pm Critical Value \times s.e. of Beta Coef.$





Hypothesis Testing

Test Statistic = $\frac{\text{Observed Association} - \text{Expected Association}}{\text{Standard Error of the Association}}$

 $TestStatistic = \frac{Obs. Beta Coeff. - Exp.Beta Coef.}{Standard Error of the Beta Coef.}$





Assessing Effect Modification

- Stratified Analysis: Are the stratum-specific measures of association different (heterogeneous)?
- Regression Analysis: Is the beta coefficient resulting from the multiplication of two variables large?

Regardless of the method, if the stratum-specific estimates differ, then reporting a weighted average will mask the important stratum-specific differences.

Stratum-specific differences can be statistically tested.





Assessing Confounding

- Standardization: Does the standardized measure differ from the unstandardized measure?
- Stratified Analysis: Does the adjusted measure of association differ from the crude measure of association?
- Regression Analysis: Does the beta coefficient for a variable in a model that includes a potential confounder differ from the beta coefficient for that same variable in a model that does not include the potential confounder?





Multivariable modeling should be the culmination of an analytic strategy that includes articulating a conceptual framework and carrying out preliminary analysis.

BEFORE any multivariable modeling—

- Select variables of interest
- Define levels of measurement, sometimes more than once, for a given variable
- Examine univariate distributions
- Examine bivariate distributions





BEFORE any multivariable modeling—

- Perform single factor stratified analysis to assess confounding and effect modification
- Rethink variables and levels of measurement
- Perform multiple factor stratified analysis with different combinations of potential confounders / effect modifiers

These steps should never be skipped!





The most common regression models used to analyze health data express the hypothesized association between risk or other factors and an outcome as a linear (straight line) relationship:

Outcome $= \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \beta_2 X_{i2} + \dots + \beta_k X_{ik} + \varepsilon_i$ **Dependent Var. = -----Independent Variables-----**

This equation is relevant to any *linear* model; **what differentiates one modeling approach from another is**

- the structure of the outcome variable, and
- the corresponding structure of the errors.







The Traditional, 'Normal' Regression Model

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \beta_2 X_{i2} + \dots + \beta_k X_{ik} + \varepsilon_i$$

This model has the following properties:

- The outcome "Y" is continuous & normally distributed.
- The Y values are independent.
- The errors are independent, normally distributed; their sum equals 0, with constant variance across levels of X.
- The expected value (mean) of the Y's is linearly related to X (a straight line relationship exists).





When the outcome variable is <u>not</u> continuous and normally distributed, a linear model cannot be written in the same way, and the properties listed above no longer pertain.

For example, if the outcome variable is a proportion or rate:

- The errors are **not** normally distributed
- The variance across levels of X is not constant. (By definition, p(1-p) changes with p and r changes with r).
- The expected value (proportion or rate) is <u>not</u> linearly related to X (a straight line relationship does not exist).









General Linear Models

How can a linear modeling approach be applied to the many health outcomes that are proportions or rates?

The normal, binomial, Poisson, exponential, chi-square, and multinomial distributions are all in the **<u>exponential family</u>**.

Therefore, it is possible to define a "link function" that transforms an outcome variable from any of these distributions so that it is linearly related to a set of independent variables; the error terms can also be defined to correspond to the form of the outcome variable.



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Linear Models: General Considerations



General Linear Models

Some common link functions:

- identity (untransformed)
- natural log
- logit
- cumulative logit
- generalized logit

The interpretation of the parameter estimates—the beta coefficients—changes depending on whether and how the outcome variable has been transformed (which link function has been used).







The natural log link function: log-binomial or Poisson regression with count data





'Normal' Regression—Link=Identity, Dist=Normal

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \beta_2 X_{i2} + \dots + \beta_k X_{ik} + \varepsilon_i$$

Binomial Regression—Link=Identity, Dist=Binomial

$$(\pi \neq \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \beta_2 X_{i2} + \ldots + \beta_k X_{ik} + \varepsilon_i)$$



Logistic Regression—Link=Logit, Dist=Binomial

$$\ln\left(\frac{\pi}{1-\pi}\right) \neq \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \dots + \beta_k X_k + \varepsilon$$

Log-Binomial or Poisson Regression with Count Data— Link=Log, Dist=Binomial or Dist=Poisson

$$\ln(\pi) \operatorname{or} \ln(\lambda) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \dots + \beta_k X_k + \varepsilon$$





Ordinal and Nominal Model

For an ordinal outcome with k+1 categories

 $\ln \text{Odds}_{1} = \ln \frac{p_{1}}{1 - p_{1}}$ $\ln \text{Odds}_{1+2} = \ln \frac{p_{1+2}}{1 - p_{1+2}}$ $\ln \text{Odds}_{1+2+\ldots+k} = \ln \frac{p_{1+2+\ldots+k-1}}{1 - p_{1+2+\ldots+k-1}}$

Both the numerator and denominator change

For a **nominal** outcome with k+1 categories

$$\ln \text{Odds}_{1} = \ln \frac{p_{1}}{1 - p_{1+2+...+k-1}}$$
$$\ln \text{Odds}_{2} = \ln \frac{p_{2}}{1 - p_{1+2+...+k-1}}$$
$$\dots$$
$$\ln \text{Odds}_{k} = \ln \frac{p_{k}}{1 - p_{1+2+...+k-1}}$$

Fixed denominator (reference) category





Some Models with Correlated Errors

Mixed Models

$$\begin{split} \widehat{Y} = & \left(b_0 + b_1 X_1 + b_2 X_2 + \ldots + b_k X_k \right) + \left(c_0 + c_1 Z_1 + c_2 Z_2 + \ldots + c_k Z_k \right) \\ & \text{fixed effects} & \text{random effects} \end{split}$$

- Multilevel/clustered data
- Repeated measures/longitudinal data
- Matched data
- Time series analysis
- Spatial analysis





Regression Modeling Results

<u>Measures of Occurrence</u> Predicted Values: Crude, Adjusted, or Stratum-Specific

The predicted values are *points* on the regression line given particular values of the set of independent variables

- Normal' model yields means
- Binomial models yields proportions
- Logistic model yields ln(odds)
- Binomial / Poisson models yield ln(proportions / rates)





Measures of Association

Beta coefficients: Crude, Adjusted, or Stratum-Specific

The measures of association are *comparisons of points* on the regression line at differing values of the independent variables

- Normal' model yields differences between means
- Binomial model yields differences in proportions
- Logistic model yields differences in ln(odds)
- Log Binomial / Poisson models yield differences in In(proportions / rates)







Regression Modeling Approaches <u>Measures of Association</u>

<u>'Normal'' regression</u> Differences between means	<u>Binomial Regression</u> Differences between proportions : Risk Differences / Attributable Risks
<u>Logistic regression</u>	Log-Binomial or Poisson regression
(binary, cumulative, generalized)	Differences between log proportions :
Differences between log odds :	Relative Risk / Relative Prevalence
Odds Ratio(s) for—	<u>Poisson regression</u>
• a single binary outcome	(person-time data)
• a <i>set</i> of binary outcomes	Differences between log rates :
• an ordinal outcome	Rate Ratio





- Multivariable models may be quite complex, including both continuous and discrete measures, and measures at the individual level and/or at an aggregate level such as census tract, zip code, or county.
- Interpretation of the slopes or "beta coefficients" can be equally complex as these reflect the measures of occurrence (means, proportions, rates) or measures of association (odds ratios, relative risks, rate ratios, risk differences) when used singly or in combination.





The challenge for an MCH epidemiologist goes beyond carrying out complex multivariable analysis to include:

advocating for and facilitating the more *routine* incorporation of complex multivariable methods into the work of public health agencies, and

- guiding interpretation of findings
- working to design reporting templates
- working to build dissemination strategies
- working to link findings with action plans or policy recommendations





As we move into sophisticated statistical methods, it's important to keep our perspective:

"...technical expertise and methodology are not substitutes for conceptual coherence. Or, as one student remarked a few years ago, public health spends too much time on the "p" values of biostatistics and not enough time on "values."

Jonathan M. Mann in **Medicine and Public Health, Ethics and Human Rights** *The Hastings Center Report*, Vol. 27, No. 3 (May - Jun., 1997), pp. 6-13 Published by: <u>The Hastings Center</u>