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Combination of trials

		centre 1			centre 2		
		S	F		S	F	
trt		30	70	30% S	210	90	70%
plac		120	180	40% S	80	20	80%
		150	250		290	110	




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- **centre 1**
 - ◆ looks like **placebo** better?
 - ◆ ($\chi^2 = 3.2$, n.s.)
 - **centre 2**
 - ◆ looks like **placebo** better?
 - ◆ ($\chi^2 = 3.76$, n.s.)
- 
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		centre 1 & 2		
		S	F	
trt		240	160	60% S
plac		200	200	50% S
		440	360	


It looks like the **treatment** is better; ($\chi^2 = 8.08$, highly significant)



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- **i.e. Simpson's Paradox**
 - ◆ Difference in overall S rates in two centres
 - 30–40% in centre 1
 - 70–80% in centre 2
 - ◆ **i.e. centre differences**
 - ◆ **i.e. 'hidden factor':** – 'centre'
- 
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- Really need a more complex model with Centre as a factor
 - ◆ e.g. loglinear model or
 - ◆ logistic regression
 - Treatment x Centre interaction
- 
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- Always need to check (at least informally) that centres / tables are comparable before combining them.
- i.e. 'response rates' comparable

- Is there a way of combining the tables which avoids this problem when response rates are different?
 - Yes – **Mantel-Haenszel Test**
 - takes information from each table separately
- First, M-H Test for a single table:-

Mantel-Haenszel Test

	Successes	Failures	
Treatments	Y_1	$n_1 - Y_1$	n_1
Placebo	Y_2	$n_2 - Y_2$	n_2
	t	$n - t$	n

- Can show that
 - $E(Y_1) = n_1 t / n$
 - $V(Y_1) = n_1 n_2 t (n - t) / n^2 (n - 1)$
- So

$$T_{MH} = [Y_1 - E(Y_1)]^2 / V(Y_1) \sim \chi^2_1 \text{ under } H_0$$
 - If $T_{MH} > \chi^2_{1; 1 - \alpha}$ then $p < \alpha$ and there is a significant treatment difference.

Example

	S	F	total
Trt	30	70	100
plac	120	180	300
total	150	250	400

- $E[Y_1] = 100 \times 150 / 400 = 37.5$
- $V(Y_1) = 100 \times 300 \times 150 \times 250 / 400^2 \times 399 = 17.6$
- $T_{MH} = [Y_1 - E(Y_1)]^2 / V(Y_1) = (37.5 - 30)^2 / 17.6$
- $= 3.19$ (almost same as before)

- Asymptotically equivalent to usual χ^2 test
- Mantel-Haenszel** or **Randomization** test
- Can use $Y_1, Y_2, n - Y_1$ or $n - Y_2$.
- Combining several tables simple.
 - We use $W = \sum Y_{1j}$ then
 - $E(W) = \sum E(Y_{1j})$
 - $V(W) = \sum V(Y_{1j})$
 - $[W - E(W)]^2 / V(W) \sim \chi^2_1$ under H_0 again



■ **Example**

	S	F	total
Trt	210	90	300
Plac	80	20	100
Total	290	110	400

- ◆ $E[Y_1]=290 \times 300/400=217.5$
- ◆ $V(Y_1)=300 \times 100 \times 110 \times 290/400^2 \times 399=14.99$
- ◆ $T_{MH} = [Y_1 - E(Y_1)]^2/V(Y_1)=(210-217.5)^2/14.99 = 3.75$ (almost same as before)



■ **Combined:-**

- ◆ $Y_{11}+Y_{12}=30+210=240$
- ◆ $E[Y_{11}+Y_{12}] = 37.5+217.5 = 255.0$
- ◆ $V(Y_{11}+Y_{12}) = 17.6+14.99 = 32.59$
- ◆ $T_{MH} = [Y_1 - E(Y_1)]^2/V(Y_1)$
 $= (240 - 255.0)^2/32.59$
 $= 6.9 > \chi_{1,0.95}^2 = 3.84$
 - (**different** from before)

◆ & conclude good evidence that **placebo** is better



■ **Summary and Conclusions**

- ◆ Simpson's Paradox
 - if response rates and sample sizes are very different
- ◆ Resolve Simpson's paradox by more sophisticated modelling with 'trial effect'
- ◆ Mantel-Haenszel test
 - easier to combine results from different trials
- ◆ M-H does not overcome Simpson's Paradox
 - but it *avoids* it



■ **Data of form $y_i=0$ or 1 for Success/Failure**

- **Observational Studies**
 - Prospective – Relative Risks
 - Retrospective studies – Odds Ratios
- **Methods**
 - ◆ McNemars' s Test
 - Matched Pairs
 - ◆ Logistic Modelling
 - to incorporate covariates



■ **Observational Studies**

- ◆ Epidemiological studies where characteristic is observed and relationship with other factors is inferred as distinct from a controlled study where cases and controls are determined by experimenter (e.g. by randomization)
 - e.g. heart disease and smoking
- ◆ Prospective and retrospective




■ **Prospective Studies**

- ◆ Subjects followed forward through time
- ◆ e.g. known to have been exposed
 - e.g. smoker
- ◆ outcome is observed
 - risk of outcome calculated for exposed group
 - compared with risk of outcome for control group known not to be exposed



	Outcome		Total	Risk
	Positive	Negative		
Exposed	a	b	a+b	$a/(a+b)$
Non-exposed	c	d	c+d	$c/(c+d)$

Relative Risk =RR= $[a/(a+b)]/[c/(c+d)]=a(c+d)/c(a+b)$


$$S.E.\{\log_e(RR)\}=\sqrt{\frac{1}{a}-\frac{1}{a+b}+\frac{1}{c}-\frac{1}{c+d}}$$


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	Apgar < 7		Total	Risk
	Yes	No		
Symmetric	2	14	16	12.5%
Asymmetric	33	58	91	36.2%


RR=0.345, $\log_e(RR)= -1.065\pm 0.676$
so a 95%CI for the RR is (0.11, 1.05)

This includes 1.0, so evidence of effect of asymmetric growth pattern on Apgar score is not significant at 5% level



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- Retrospective studies
 - Condition of interest
 - Cases identified & followed back through time to see if they were exposed to risk factor
 - Odds of being exposed calculated for cases
 - Controls not exhibiting condition of interest found
 - matched closely in other respects to cases
 - Compared with odds of exposure for controls
 - not sensible to calculate 'risk' of being a case for exposed group since can just get more or fewer controls



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	Case	Control
Exposed	a	b
Non-exposed	c	d
odds	a/c	b/d


Odds ratio = $[a/c]/[b/d] = ad/bc$

$$S.E.\{\log_e(OR)\}=\sqrt{\frac{1}{a}+\frac{1}{b}+\frac{1}{c}+\frac{1}{d}}$$


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	Enamel Erosion		Total
	Yes	No	
swimming			
≥ 6 hours	32	118	150
< 6 hours	17	127	144
odds	1.88	0.93	

OR= 2.03 , s.e.($\log_e(OR)$)=0.323 so 95% CI for the Odds Ratio is (1.07, 3.84) and so good evidence that the odds of enamel erosion are increased for those swimming more than six hours per week



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- Matched pairs
 - χ^2 test \rightarrow 2 sample t test
 - McNemar's Test \rightarrow paired t test
- Rheumatoid arthritis study, two treatments A & B.
- Response caused? 1=yes, 0=no



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		response		
		yes	no	
treatment	A	11	37	48
	B	20	28	48

- χ^2 test?????
- INVALID
- ◆ only 48 subjects in the table not 96
 - All subjects received both treatments

- Instead consider like/unlike responses

		B		
		yes	no	
A	yes	8	3	11
	no	12	25	37
		20	28	48

- Subjects who respond in a like way to the treatments give no information on **differences** between treatments.
 - ◆ 8 responded to both treatments
 - ◆ 25 responded to neither treatment
 - ◆ These give no evidence of differences

- ◆ 3 responded to A but not to B
- ◆ 12 responded to B but not to A

		B		
		yes	no	
A	yes	8	3	11
	no	12	25	37
		20	28	48

- Suggests more respond to B than to A
 - ◆ i.e. may be evidence of difference between the treatments
- McNemar's Test:
 - ◆ If no difference then number responding to A but not B ~ Binomial(M, 0.5) where M = number responding differently
 - Observed 3 out of 15



- McNemar's Test
 - ◆ Can calculate (e.g. Neave 1.3)
 - P[3 or fewer|B(15,0.5)]=0.035
 - ◆ i.e. H_0 :no difference between treatments is rejected with $p<0.05$ (actually $p=0.035$)

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- McNemar's Test
 - ◆ For large samples then use
 - $$\frac{(n_{10} - n_{01})^2}{n_{10} + n_{01}} \sim \chi^2_1$$
 - (Normal approx to binomial) $^2 \sim \chi^2_1$

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- **Logistic Modelling**
 - ◆ Data are $y_i = 1$ or 0 (S or F)
 - ◆ Can't express y_i as a linear model
 - ◆ Idea is to model **probability of success** as a function of explanatory variables
 - ◆ However, must have probabilities in range 0 to 1

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- Use a logistic function:
 - ◆ e.g. patients on treatment or placebo
 - Code as $x_i = 1$ or 0
 - ◆ Measure Success or Failure
 - Code as $y_i = 1$ or 0
 - ◆ Model:
 - $$P[Y_i = 1] = \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i}} = 1 - P[Y_i = 0]$$

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- Can estimate β_0 and β_1 from data:
- **R**
 - function `glm()` with `family=binomial, weights=freqs`
 - followed by `anova()`
- **SPSS:**
 - Analyze>Regression>Binary Logistic Regression
- **Minitab:**
 - Stat>Regression>Binary Logistic Regression
- **SPLUS:**
 - Statistics>Regression>Logistic

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- Interpretation
 - ◆ on placebo $P[Y_i = 1] = \frac{e^{\beta_0}}{1 + e^{\beta_0}}$
 - ◆ on treatment $P[Y_i = 1] = \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1}}$
 - β_1 is 'effect' of treatment

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- More specifically:


$$\ln \left\{ \frac{P[Y_i = 1]}{P[Y_i = 0]} \right\} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i$$
 - $x_i = 0$ for placebo, 1 for treatment
 - i.e. **logodds of success = linear fⁿ. of covariate**



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$$\ln \left\{ \frac{P[Y_i = 1]}{P[Y_i = 0]} \right\} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i$$

- If $\beta_1 > 0$ then $P[Y_i=1|x_i=1] > P[Y_i=1|x_i=0]$
 - i.e. if $\beta_1 > 0$ then treatment improves chance of success
 - i.e. if $\beta_1 < 0$ then treatment lessens chance of success




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- Can extend to include lots of covariates
 - $\beta_j > 0 \Rightarrow P(\text{success}) \nearrow$ as $x_j \nearrow$
& $P(\text{success}) \searrow$ as $x_j \searrow$
 - $\beta_j < 0 \Rightarrow P(\text{success}) \searrow$ as $x_j \nearrow$
& $P(\text{success}) \nearrow$ as $x_j \searrow$.



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- Can test whether covariates affect probability of success:
- Package calculations provide standard errors of estimates




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- Partial ztest:

$$H_0: \beta_j = 0$$
 - test compares


$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_j}{\sqrt{\text{var}(\hat{\beta}_j)}}$$
 with $N(0,1)$ points



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- Example: $Y_i=1$ if heart disease:

factor	Numerical variable x_j	logistic coef β_j	z-value
1:treatment	0=placebo, 1=treatment	-0.32	-2.9
2:age	ln(age)	3.0	6.3
3:smoking	0=non-smok, 1=smoker	0.83	6.8
4:father's hist	0=alive, 1=dead	0.64	3.6
5:systolic BP	Systolic BP in mm Hg	0.011	3.7
6:cholesterol	Cholesterol in mg/dl	0.0095	5.6
constant term β_0		-19.60	



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- $\Phi^{-1}(.005)=z_{.005} = -2.58$ $z_{.025} = -1.96$
 - (1% level)
 - (5% level)
- ♦ Treatment: significant, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_1 < 0$;
- Probability of IHD is lower on treatment than on placebo

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- Prognostic factors:
 - ♦ all five significant ($p < 0.01$);
 - ♦ all have positive m.l.e.'s,
 - ♦ \therefore probability of IHD increases with
 - age
 - smoking
 - 'poorer heredity'
 - high blood pressure
 - high cholesterol.

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- **Relative Risks**

$$\frac{P[Y = 1 | x_1 = 1]}{P[Y = 0 | x_1 = 1]} \bigg/ \frac{P[Y = 1 | x_1 = 0]}{P[Y = 0 | x_1 = 0]}$$

is relative risk of 'success' on treatment

$$= \exp\{\beta_1\}$$

- strictly this is an **odds ratio** but conventionally is interpreted as an **approximate relative risk**

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- ♦ estimated relative risk is $e^{-0.32} = 0.73 < 1$
- ♦ i.e. odds of getting IHD are 27% lower on treatment
 - (after allowing for the other prognostic factors)
- ♦ Can calculate approx confidence intervals for β_1 as estimate $\pm 2 \times$ s.e.

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- ♦ $-0.32 \pm 2 \times 0.11 = (0.10, 0.54)$
- ♦ $\exp\{\beta_1\}$ has 95% C. I. ($e^{-0.54}, e^{-0.1}$) = (0.58, 0.90)
- 95% confidence limits for the reduction due to treatment in odds of getting IHD are 10% and 42%.

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- **Example**

	treatment	
	BP	CP
response	77	90
no response	61	45

- ♦ $Y_{11} = 77$, $E(Y_{11}) = 138 \times 167 / 273 = 84.42$
 $\text{var}(Y_{11}) = 138 \times 133 \times 167 \times 106 / (273^2 \times 272) = 16.268$
- So $T_{MH} = 3.38 < 3.84 = \chi^2_{1;0.95}$ and $p = 0.066$

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Implementation in R

- Same example:
 - frequencies indicated by *Weights*

```

> bpcp
  frequency response treatment
1         77         1         1
2         61         0         1
3         90         1         0
4         45         0         0
> attach(bpcp)
> bpcp.glm<-glm(response~treatment,
  family=binomial, weights=frequency)
    
```

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Implementation in R

```

> bpcp.glm<-glm(response~treatment,
  family=binomial, weights=frequency)
bpcp.glm

Call: glm(formula = response ~ treatment, family = binomial, weights = frequency)

Coefficients:
(Intercept)  treatment
 0.6931      -0.4602

Degrees of Freedom: 3 Total (i.e. Null); 2 Residual
Null Deviance: 364.7
Residual Deviance: 361.3 AIC: 365.3
    
```

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Implementation in R

```

> bpcp.glm<-glm(response~treatment,
  family=binomial, weights=frequency)

> summary(bpcp.glm)
Coefficients:
              Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept) -4.994e-16  1.000e-01 -4.99e-15  1.00000
treatment    4.055e-01  1.429e-01   2.838   0.00454
**
---
    
```

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Implementation in R

```

> anova(bpcp.glm)
Analysis of Deviance Table
Model: binomial, link: logit
Response: response

Terms added sequentially (first to last)

              Df Deviance Resid. Df Resid. Dev
NULL                3      364.71
treatment  1      3.40      2      361.31
    
```

approximately equal to the χ^2 value

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- Example of combining trials in R
 - Data from § 8.2 on Simpson's Paradox

centre 1			centre 2			
	S	F		S	F	
trt	30	70	30%S	210	90	70%
plac	120	180	40%S	80	20	80%
	150	250		290	110	

```

> frequency<-c(30,120,70,180,210,80,90,20)
> response<-c(rep(c(1,1,0,0),2))
> treatment<-c(rep(c(1,0),4))
> centre<-c(rep(0,4),rep(1,4))
> simpson<-cbind(frequency,response,treatment,centre)
> simpson
    
```

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- Example of combining trials in R
 - Data from § 8.2 on Simpson's Paradox

centre 1			centre 2			
	S	F		S	F	
trt	30	70	30%S	210	90	70%
plac	120	180	40%S	80	20	80%
	150	250		290	110	

```

> simpson
  frequency response treatment centre
[1,]      30         1         1         0
[2,]     120         1         0         0
[3,]      70         0         1         0
[4,]     180         0         0         0
[5,]     210         1         1         1
[6,]      80         1         0         1
[7,]      90         0         1         1
[8,]      20         0         0         1
    
```

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Example of combining trials in R
`> simpson.glm<-glm(response~treatment+centre,
+ family=binomial, weights=frequency)
> summary(simpson.glm)`

Coefficients:


	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z)
(Intercept)	-0.3958	0.1117	-3.543	0.000396 ***
treatment	-0.4849	0.1853	-2.616	0.008891 **
centre	1.7391	0.1859	9.357	< 2e-16 ***

coefficient < 0 so treatment reduces chance of success
 p-value small so significant evidence of effect


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Summary and Conclusions

- ◆ **Observational Studies**
 - Prospective and retrospective studies
- ◆ **Prospective:**–
 - Calculate risk of outcome
 - Look at **relative risks**
- ◆ **Retrospective:**–
 - Calculate odds of exposure
 - Look at **odds ratios**


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Summary and Conclusions


- ◆ **McNemar's test**
 - Matched pairs binary responses: uses only **unlike pairs**
- ◆ **Logistic Regression**
 - models logodds as a linear in the covariates
 - positive coefficients indicate factor increases the risk of 'success'


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Logistic models allow estimation of relative risks (including C.I.s)

Logistic models can be implemented in most standard statistical packages

- SPSS
- SPLUS / R
- Minitab


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