

Choosing a Proper Statistical Method – Part II

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STUDY DESIGNS

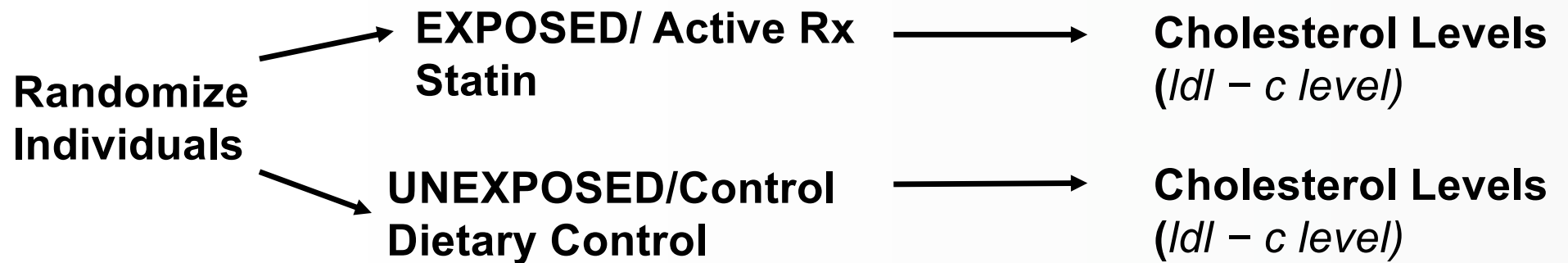
Study Designs

- From Exercise I, what would be the design of this study?
 - *“to compare cardiorespiratory and cerebrovascular functions between Karen women wearing brass neck coils and those without neck coils.”*
- Can it be experimental?

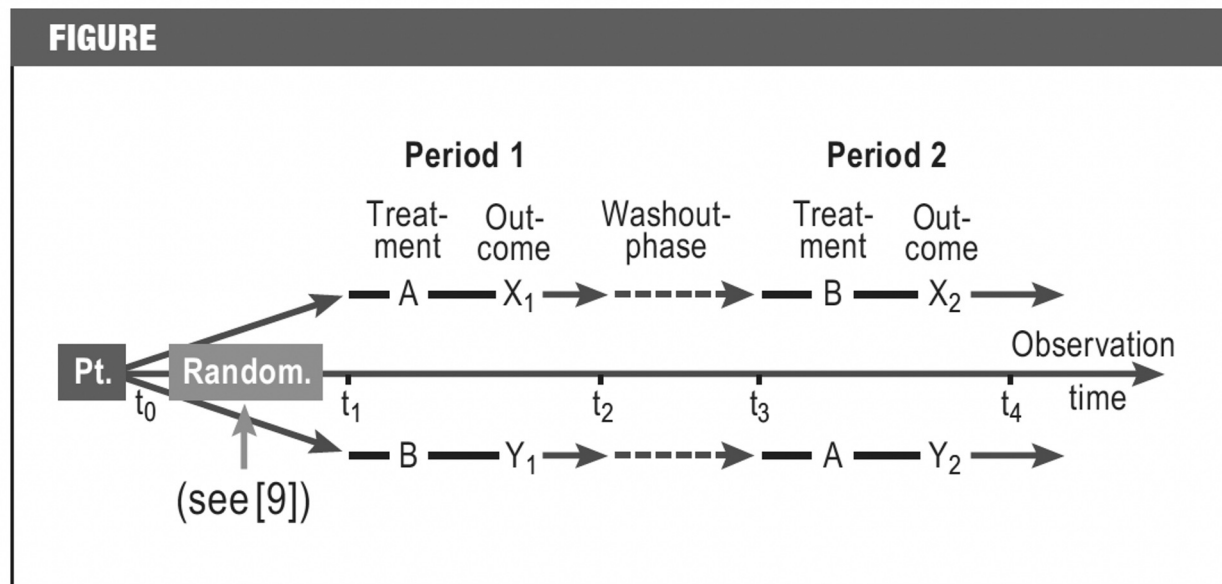
Study Designs

- Experimental design: randomized controlled trial (RCT), cross-over RCT
- Non-experimental design: cohort, case-control, cross-sectional studies

Randomized Controlled Trial (RCT)



Cross-Over RCT



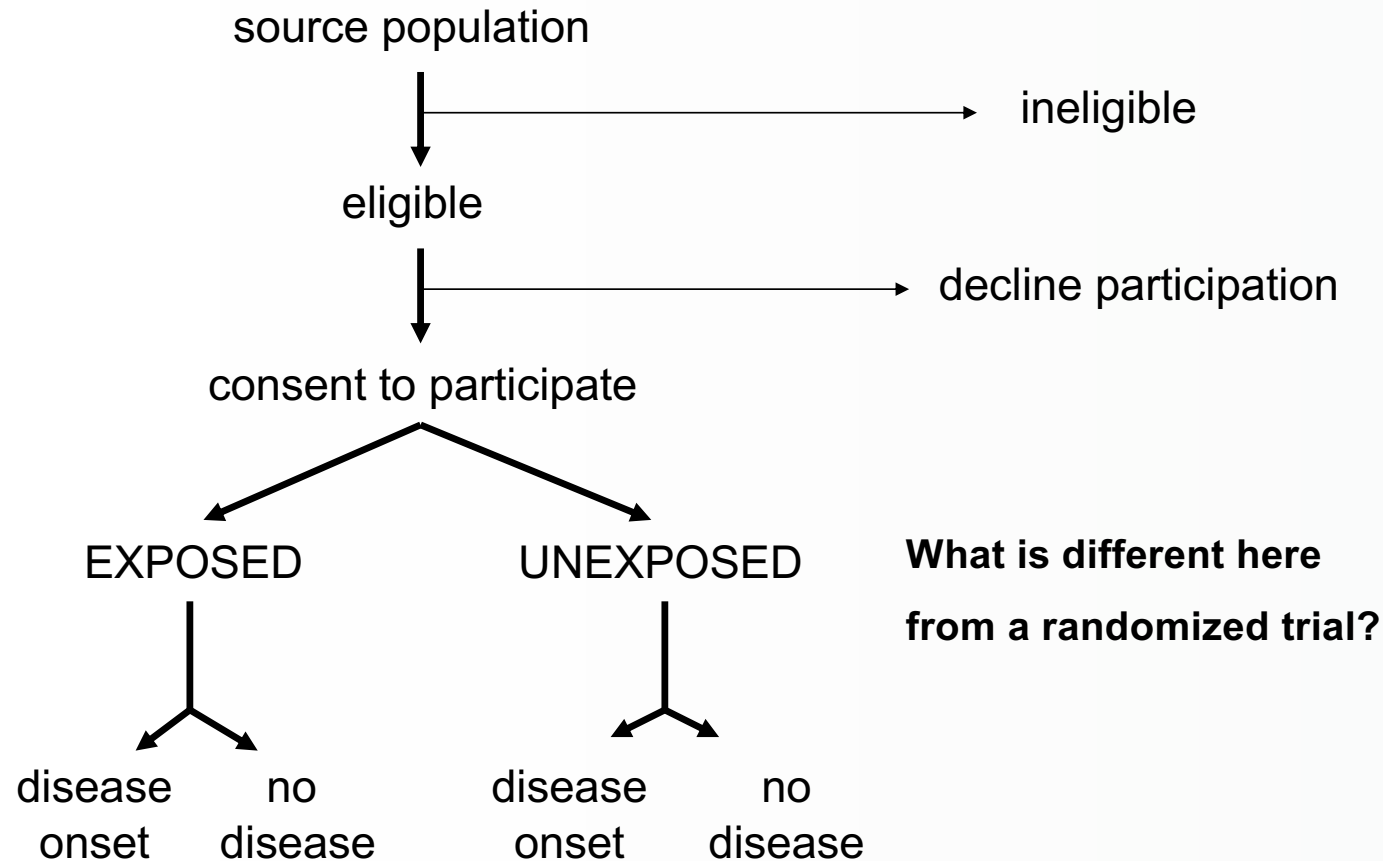
Design of a crossover trial: Pt., patient; Random., randomization

- Carry-over effect
- Treatment effect

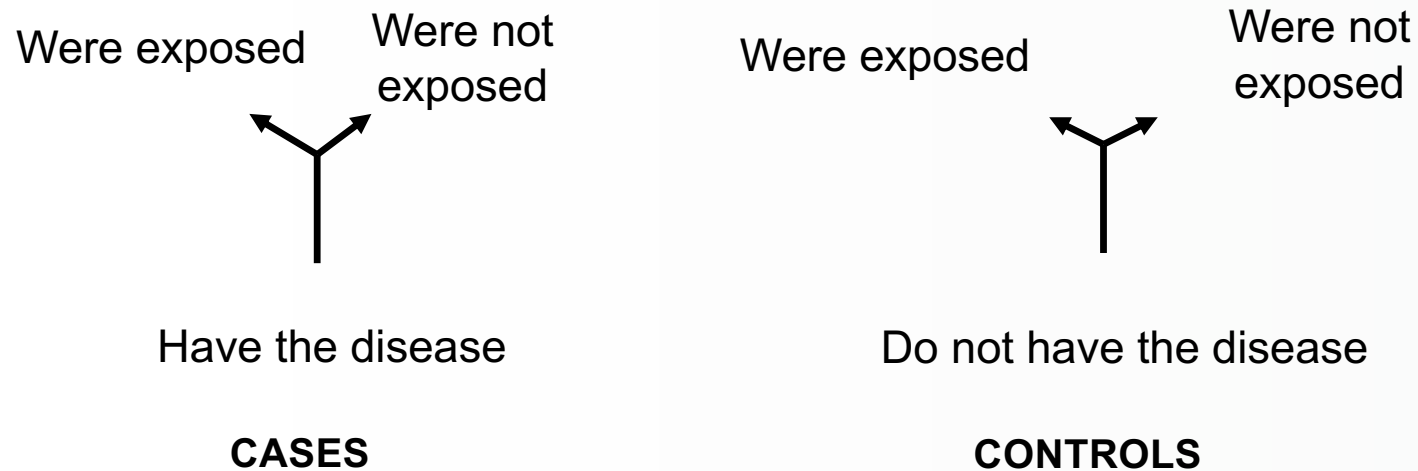
Non-Randomized Studies

- Cohort study
- Case-control study
- Cross-sectional study

Schematic of a Cohort Study

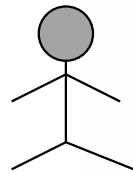


Case-Control Study Design



Basic Design: Select cases and controls without knowledge of their exposure status,
Measure exposure status in cases and controls

Cross-Sectional Design



**Disease
Status ?**

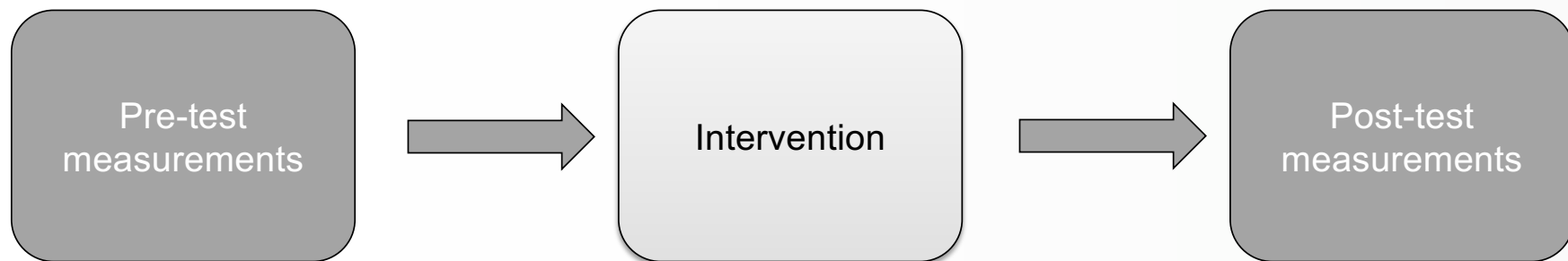
**Exposure
Status ?**

Investigators ascertain present (i.e., prevalent) DISEASE status and present (or past) EXPOSURE status simultaneously

SINGLE VS REPEATED

Single or repeated measure(s)

- Single measure: independent (not depend on other)
- Repeated measures: depend on previous measures
 - Quasi-experimental design: pre-test and post-test design



Paired and unpaired data

Paired data:

- Left vs right eye (in same patient)
- BP before vs after drug (in the same patient)
- Married couples (husband vs wife)

Unpaired data:

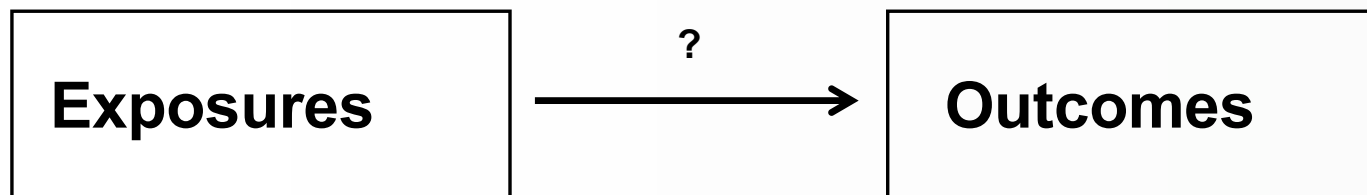
- Two randomized groups
- Male vs Female

Why “pairedness” is important

- Paired data are not independent
 - Skin prick tests on your left and right arm could well be similar
 - Attitudes of a husband and wife about health may be similar
- The subject acts as their own baseline. Variation between patients is taken out of the ‘mix’ and only variation due to drug remains
- Considering the pair: increase the power of a test (ability to detect a true difference)

Dependent Variable(s)

- In other words: outcome or response variables
- Number of outcomes
- Whether the outcomes are related or would be considered as a set

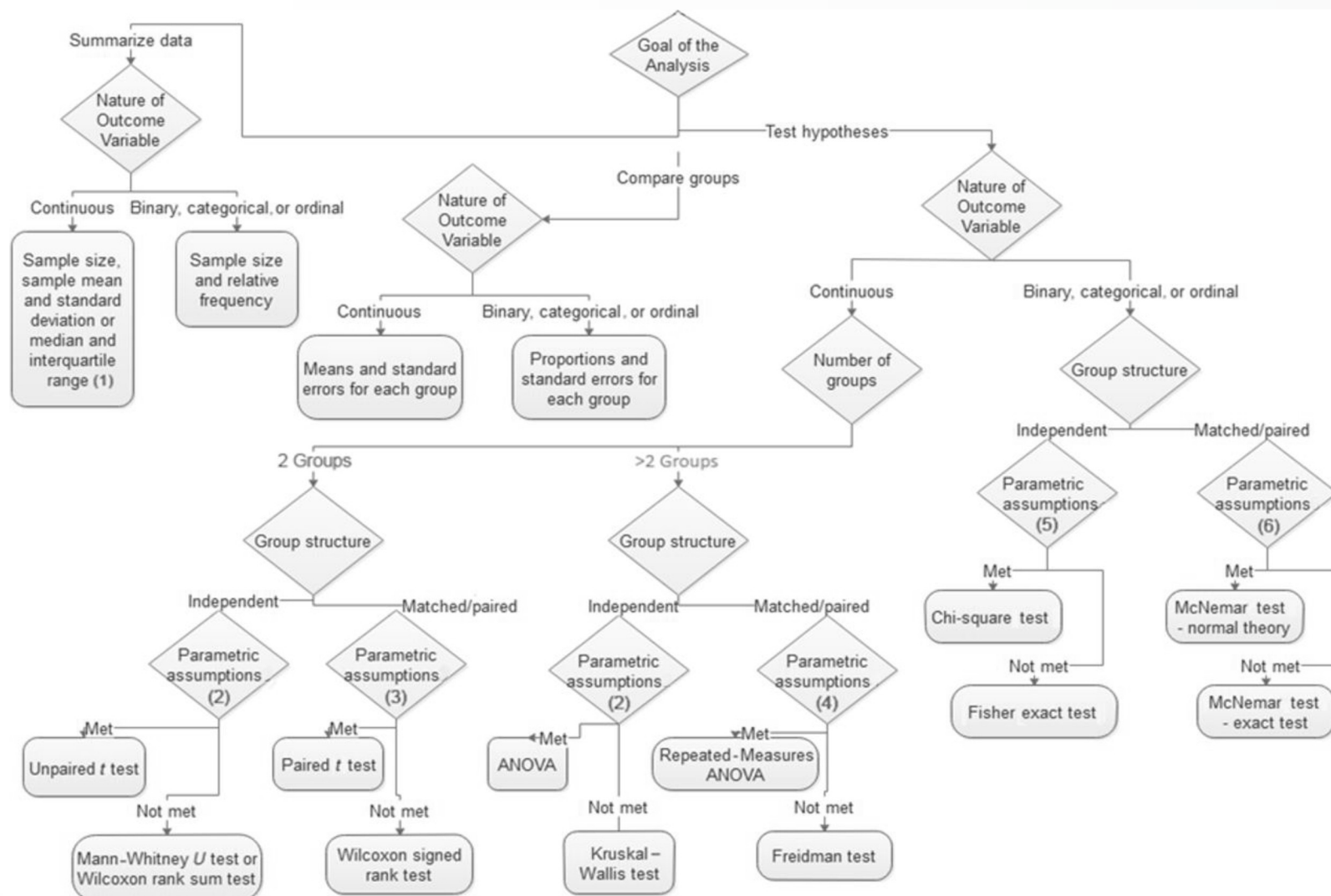


For one dependent variable

CHOOSING A STATISTICAL METHOD

Choosing a Statistical Test

- Purpose or question of the study
- Study design: independent vs dependent samples, longitudinal design, or pre- and post- design.
- A type of outcome measurement: continuous, categorical (binary, ordinal, or nominal), counts
- Number of explanatory variables



Determining what statistical technique or test to do when:

- (1) mean and standard deviation if no extreme or outlying values are present;
- (2) independence of observations, normality or large samples, and homogeneity of variances;
- (3) independence of pairs, normality or large samples, and homogeneity of variances;
- (4) repeated measures in independent observations, normality or large samples, and homogeneity of variances;
- (5) independence of observations and expected count >5 in each cell;
- (6) repeated measures in independent observations.

REVIEW RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Comparing means (two samples)

- We compare means when:
 - Dependent variable is continuous
 - Independent variable is categorical (ordinal or nominal)
- Examples:
 - Is systolic blood pressure (mmHg) dependent on treatment (placebo vs new drug)?
 -equivalently is SBP same for placebo and drug groups?
 - Is mental health score (range 0 to 100) dependent on being physically active (yes/no)?

Comparing means (two + samples)

- ANOVA: To test for differences in a continuous variable between classes of categorical variables (factors) and their interactions
- Example: evaluate differences in systolic blood pressure between different racial groups

$$H_0: \mu_{African} = \mu_{Asian} = \mu_{Caucasian}$$

ANOVA Hypotheses

- Null hypothesis
 - $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \dots = \mu_k$
 - All group means are the same
- Alternative hypothesis
 - $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2 \neq \mu_3 = \dots = \mu_k$
 - At least one group mean is different

Steps in conducting ANOVA

- Descriptive
- Overall F-test, if significant, report post-hoc results
- Post-hoc analysis

Post Hoc Tests

- Bonferroni: most conservative
- Scheffe's test: likely to lead to Type II errors – except in situation that complex comparisons are being made
- Tukey's HSD test: for equal sample sizes per group (can be adapted for unequal sample sized)
- When all pairs of means are being compared, Tukey's is the procedure of choice

Non-parametric Equivalents for T-Test & ANOVA

Parametric Tests	Non-parametric Tests
One sample t-test	Wilcoxon Single Sample T-test
Two independent samples t-test	Mann-Whitney U (Wilcoxon rank sum) Tests
Paired t-test	Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test
ANOVA	Kruskal-Wallis Test

Dependent variable = outcome variable/values you want to compare
group variable = binary or categorical variables

Increase risk of outcome

- Research question: which of these training modalities (high-intensity interval training or blood flow restriction) is more effective in reducing cardiovascular risk?
- What are the exposure and outcome variables?
- if the outcome variable is a binary such as having a condition and not having a condition, what would statistical test would you use?

χ^2 test of independence (two categorical variables)

- Perhaps the most widely used test for categorical variables
- This test used for *associations between two categorical variables*
- Fisher's exact test: used when assumption for χ^2 test is not met
- McNemar's Chi-squared test: for dependent data (2x2)

Incidence and Prevalence

MEASURE OF DISEASE FREQUENCY

Incidence

- An “event”: the occurrence of any discrete phenomenon
 - heart attack, cancer, start smoking, quit drinking, failure of a light bulb
- Incident event: new (“first-ever”) event
- Incidence: the collection of incident events

Measures: Incidence Proportion

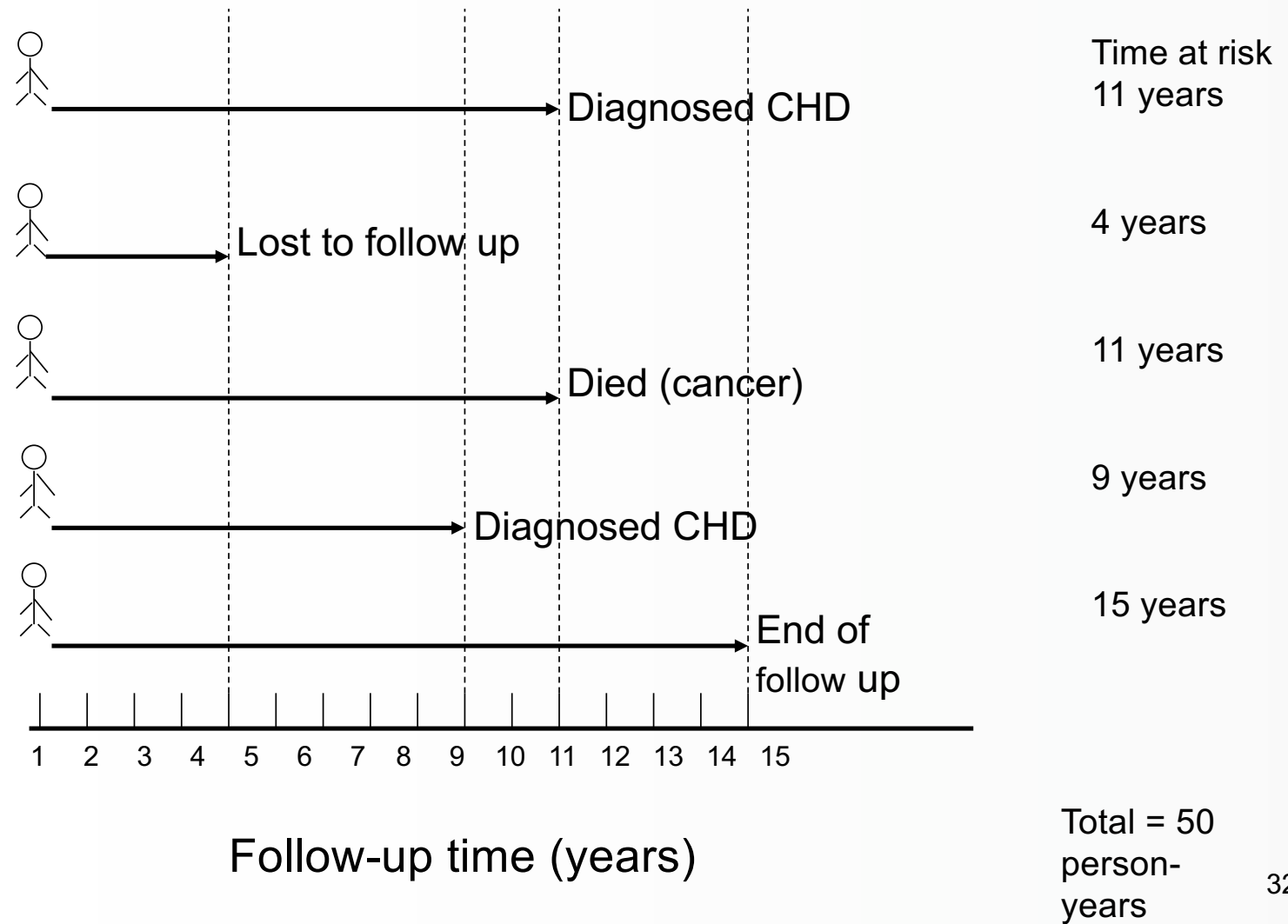
- Count of incident cases
- Incidence proportion/Cumulative incidence

Count of incident events during a specific time period

People at-risk of incident event during that period of time

- Example: cumulative incidence of new AIDS cases reported in Massachusetts in 2004 - 9.2 per 100,000 during 2004

If people at risk are observed for different periods of time



Measure: Incidence Rate

- Incidence rate/incidence density

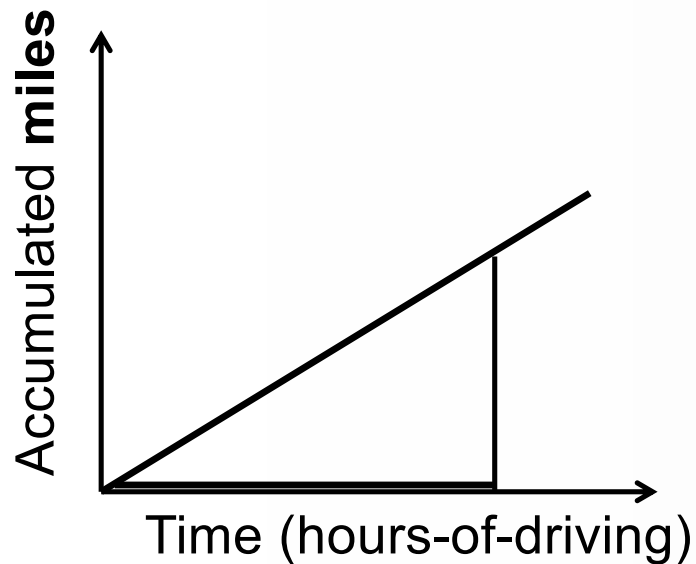
Count of incident events

Person-time at-risk of incident event

- Time at-risk varies from person to person
- Each person contributes time at-risk to the denominator
- Example: incidence rate of coronary artery disease among women using hormone replacement therapy was 55.2/100,000 person-years

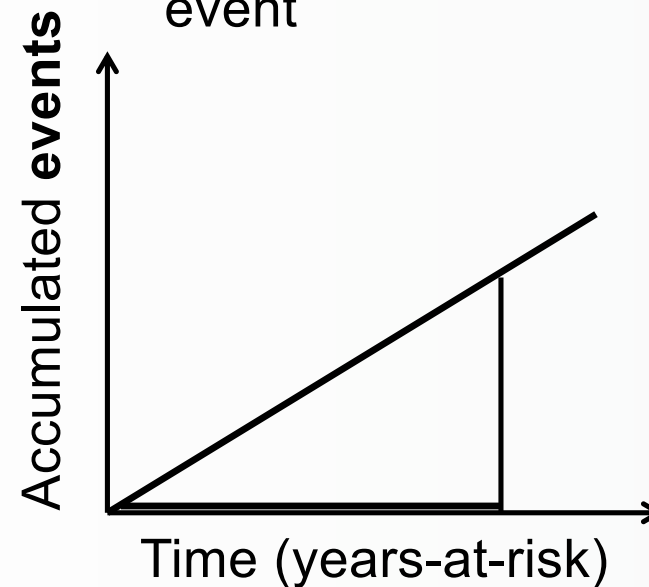
Rate

Velocity (speed)
of a car



$$\text{Speed} = \text{Miles} / \text{Time}$$

Velocity (speed)
of the occurrence of an
event



$$\text{Rate} = \text{Events} / \text{person-time at risk}$$

Prevalence

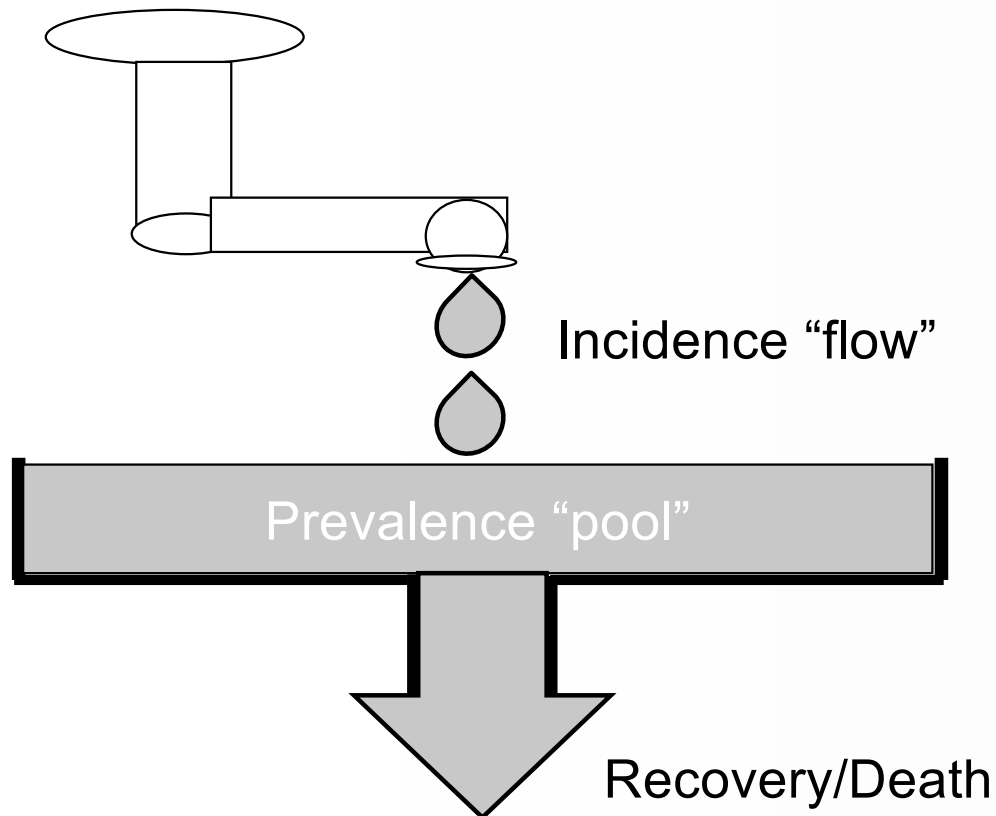
- Prevalence: frequency of an existing event
- Count of prevalence cases
- Point prevalence: prevalence of the disease at a certain point in time

Count of prevalence events at a point in time

Number of persons in the population at that time

- Period prevalence: number of people have had the disease at any point during a certain time period. Time period: a month, a single calendar year, or 5-year period

The prevalence “pool”



Prevalence =
 $f(\text{incidence rate, duration of disease})$

Relationship between incidence and prevalence

- If the prevalence of a disease is constant and incidence and rate of cure or death are about the same, then the relationship is

$$\frac{\textit{Prevalence}}{1 - \textit{Prevalence}} = \textit{Incidence Rate} \times \textit{Average Duration of Disease}$$

- P = proportion of the population with the disease
- 1- P = proportion of population without the disease

Odds, Probability, Risk

MEASURE OF ASSOCIATIONS: DIFFERENCE, RATIOS

Risk vs. Odds

Risk or Chance

Risk or Chance =

$$\frac{\text{occurrence of an event of interest}}{\text{all possible outcomes}}$$

Chance of winning a race
= $16/45 = 36\%$
= 36 per 100

Odds

Odds of an event =

$$\frac{\text{Probability of occurrence of an event (P)}}{\text{Probability of the event not occurring (1-P)}}$$

Odds = $16/29 = 0.55$
= 1: 1.18
= 5: 9

Win: 16
Lost: 29

Defining Odds

- The probability of having an attribute divided by the probability of not having that attribute
- The probability of winning (A)
 - $\Pr(A) = 16/45 = 0.36$
- The probability of not winning (not A)
 - $\Pr(\text{not } A) = 29/45 = 0.64$
- Odds of wining = $0.36/0.64 = 0.55$

Risk, Probability, Chance, Odds

Risk (Probability)	Odds
Range: 0 to 1	Range: 0 to +infinity
$\text{Pr}(\text{not } A) = 1 - \text{Pr}(A)$	$\text{Odds}(\text{not } A) = 1/\text{Odds}(A)$
$0.64 = 1 - 0.36$	$1.8/1 = 1/0.55$

Risk vs Odds (cont.)

Risk (Chance)	Odds
10% (1:10)	1:9
25% (1:4)	1:3
50% (1:2)	1:1
75% (3:4)	3:1

Relative Risk (RR)

- Ratio of the risks = $\frac{\text{Risk in exposed}}{\text{Risk in non-exposed}}$

	Interpreting relative risk (RR) of a disease	
RR = 1	Risk in exposed equal to risk in non-exposed	No association
RR > 1	Risk in exposed greater than risk in non-exposed	Positive association; possibly causal
RR < 1	Risk in exposed less than risk in non-exposed	Negative association; possibly protective

Odds Ratio (OR)

- Odds = $\frac{P}{1-P}$
- Ratio of the odds
- $OR = \frac{\text{Odds that an exposed person develops disease}}{\text{Odds that a non-exposed person develop disease}}$
- Interpretations for odds ratio
 - OR = 1
 - OR > 1
 - OR < 1

Hypothetical Cohort

- Evaluate whether smoking is associated with the development of coronary heart disease (CHD) over a 1-year period

	Developed CHD	CHD does not develop	Total	Incidence per 1,000 per year
Smoker	84	2916	3,000	28.0
Nonsmokers	87	4913	5,000	17.4

- Relative risk = $28.0/17.4 = 1.61$

Relationship between odds ratio and relative risk

	Disease developed	No Disease developed	Total
Exposed	a	b	a+b
Not Exposed	c	d	c+d
Total	a+c	b+d	a+b+c+d

$$RR = \frac{\frac{a}{a+b}}{\frac{c}{c+d}}$$

$$OR = \frac{\frac{a}{b}}{\frac{c}{d}}$$

Odds ratio: a good approximation of the relative risk when the disease is rare

Example - Rare Disease

	Disease developed	No Disease developed	Total
Exposed	200	9,800	10,000
Not Exposed	100	9,900	10,000

- *Relative Risk* = $\frac{200/10,000}{100/10,000} = 2$
- *Odds Ratio* = $\frac{200 \times 9,900}{100 \times 9,800} = 2.02$

What would be the incidence of this disease? 47

Example - Common Disease

	Disease developed	No Disease developed	Total
Exposed	50	50	100
Not Exposed	25	75	100

- $Relative\ Risk = \frac{50/100}{25/100} = 2$

- $Odds\ Ratio = \frac{50 \times 75}{25 \times 50} = 3$

Incidence of disease = ?

Statistical vs Clinical Significance

Statistical Significance

- Tells us whether the effect is real or the association we observe could have happened just by chance
- NLR as a predictor of in-hospital mortality ($p < 0.001$)

Clinical Significance

- Observed effect that has an important clinical implication
- NLR as a predictor of in-hospital mortality: OR = 1.2 (95%CI 1.09, 1.35)

NLR = Neutrophil count-to-differential lymphocyte count ratio

Q & A