

Biostat 200

Lecture 8

Where are we

- Types of variables
- Descriptive statistics and graphs
- Probability
- Confidence intervals for means and proportions
- Hypothesis testing for means and medians and proportions (alone or grouped by a categorical variable)
- Today: Testing for categorical variables grouped by another categorical variable
- Lectures 9+10: Correlations and linear regression
- Lecture 11: Logistic regression

Assumptions of hypothesis tests

- For t-test and ANOVA, the underlying distribution of the random variable being measured (X) should be approximately normal
 - In reality the t-test is rather robust, so with large enough sample size and without very large outliers, it is ok to use the t-test
- For the ANOVA, the variance of the subgroups should be approximately equal
- For the Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test and the Kruskal-Wallis Test the underlying distributions must have the same basic shape

Categorical outcomes

- With the exception of the proportion test, all the previous tests were for comparing numerical outcomes and categorical predictors
 - E.g., CD4 count by alcohol consumption
- We often have dichotomous outcomes and predictors
 - E.g. Owning an iPhone 6 by sex

- We can make tables of the number of observations falling into each category
- These are called contingency tables
- E.g. Owning an iPhone by sex

```
tab iphone6_01 sex
```

iphone6_01	sex		Total
	Male	Female	
no	9	21	30
yes	8	17	25
Total	17	38	55

Contingency tables

- Often summaries of counts of disease versus no disease and exposed versus not exposed
- Frequently 2x2 but can generalize to $n \times k$
 - n rows, k columns
- Note that Stata sorts on the numeric value, so for 0-1 variables the disease state will be the 2nd row

		Exposure		Total
		+	-	
Disease	+	a	b	a+b
	-	c	d	c+d
Total		a+c	b+d	n=a+b+c+d

Contingency tables

- Contingency tables are usually summaries of data that originally looked like this.

Example of data set		
Obs.	Exposure (1=yes; 0=no)	Disease (1=yes; 0=no)
1	1	1
2	1	0
3	1	1
4	0	0
5	1	1
6	1	0
7	0	0
...	...	...
n	0	0

```
list iphone6_01 sex in 1/10
```

	iphon~01	sex
1.	yes	Female
2.	yes	Male
3.	no	Male
4.	no	Male
5.	yes	Male
6.	yes	Male
7.	no	Female
8.	yes	Female
9.	no	Male
10.	no	Female

```
list iphone6_01 sex in 1/10, nolabel
```

	iphon~01	sex
1.	1	2
2.	1	1
3.	0	1
4.	0	1
5.	1	1
6.	1	1
7.	0	2
8.	1	2
9.	0	1
10.	0	2

.

.

- Say we want to know whether the proportion with iPhones varies by gender.
- We could test the null hypothesis that the proportion of males owning iPhones equals that of females.
- $H_0: p_{\text{iPhone 6 males}} = p_{\text{iPhone 6 females}}$
- $H_A: p_{\text{iPhone 6 males}} \neq p_{\text{iPhone 6 females}}$
- This is the test of proportions from Lecture 6

The Proportion test

```
. prtest iphone6_01, by(sex)
```

Two-sample test of proportions

Male: Number of obs = 17
Female: Number of obs = 38

Variable	Mean	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]
Male	.4705882	.1210578			.2333193 .7078572
Female	.4473684	.0806601			.2892775 .6054593
diff	.0232198	.1454684			-.261893 .3083326
under Ho:	.1452891	0.16	0.873		

diff = prop(Male) - prop(Female) z = 0.1598

Ho: diff = 0

Ha: diff < 0

Pr(Z < z) = 0.5635

Ha: diff != 0

Pr(|Z| < |z|) = 0.8730

Ha: diff > 0

Pr(Z > z) = 0.4365

- There are other methods to do this (chi-square test)
- Why?
 - These methods are more general – can be used when you have more than 2 levels in either variable
- We will start with the 2x2 example however

- Overall, the probability of owning an iPhone 6 overall in this sample is $25/55=0.455$ This is the marginal probability of owning an iPhone 6
- There were 17 males and 38 females
- Under the null hypothesis, the expected proportion in each group is the overall proportion
- So the expected number of iPhone 6s:
Males $17 \times .455 = 7.7$
Females: $38 \times .455 = 17.3$

- We can also calculate the expected number without iPhone 6s under the null hypothesis of no difference
 - Males: $17 \times (1 - .455) = 9.3$
 - Females: $38 \times (1 - .455) = 20.7$
- We can make a table of the expected counts

EXPECTED COUNTS UNDER THE NULL HYPOTHESIS

Observed data

```
. tab iphone6_01 sex
```

iphone6_01	sex		Total
	Male	Female	
no	9	21	30
yes	8	17	25
Total	17	38	55

```
. . tab iphone6_01 sex, expected nof
```

iphone6_01	sex		Total
	Male	Female	
no	9.3	20.7	30.0
yes	7.7	17.3	25.0
Total	17.0	38.0	55.0

- Generically

Expected counts		Exposure		
		+	-	Total
Disease	+	$(a+b)(a+c)/n$	$(a+b)(b+d)/n$	a+b
	-	$(c+d)(a+c)/n$	$(c+d)(b+d)/n$	c+d
Total		a+c	b+d	n=a+b+c+d

- The Chi-square test compares the observed frequency (O) in each cell with the expected frequency (E) under the null hypothesis of no difference
- The differences $O-E$ are squared, divided by E , and added up over all the cells
- The sum of this is the test statistic and follows a chi-square distribution

Chi-square test of independence

- The chi-square test statistic (for the test of independence in contingency tables) for a 2x2 table (dichotomous outcome, dichotomous exposure)

$$X^2_1 = \sum_{i=1}^4 \left(\frac{(O_i - E_i)^2}{E_i} \right)$$

- i is the index for the cells in the table – there are 4 cells
- This test statistic is compared to the chi-square distribution with 1 degree of freedom

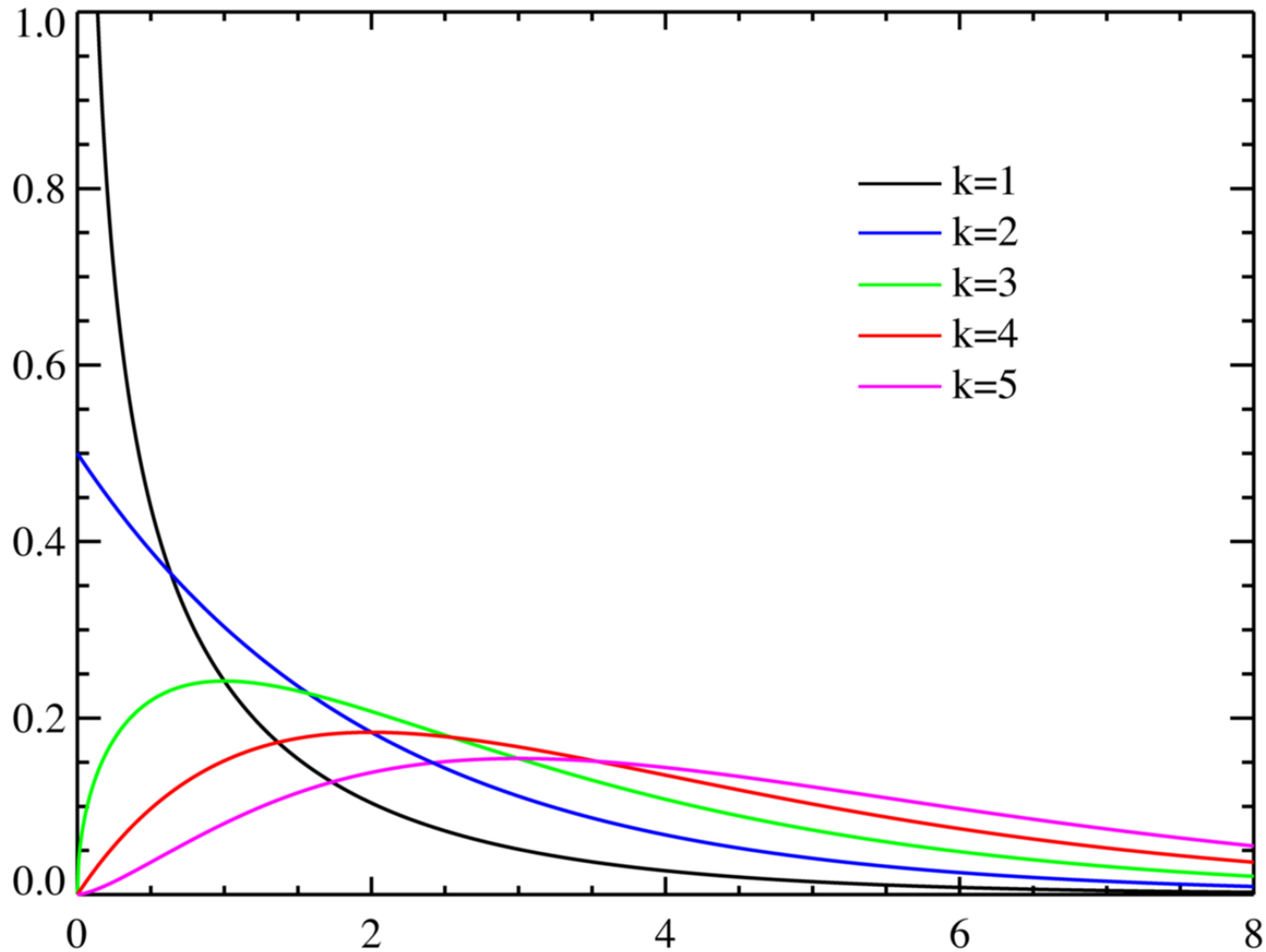
Chi-square test of independence

- The chi-square test statistic for the test of independence in an $n \times k$ contingency table is

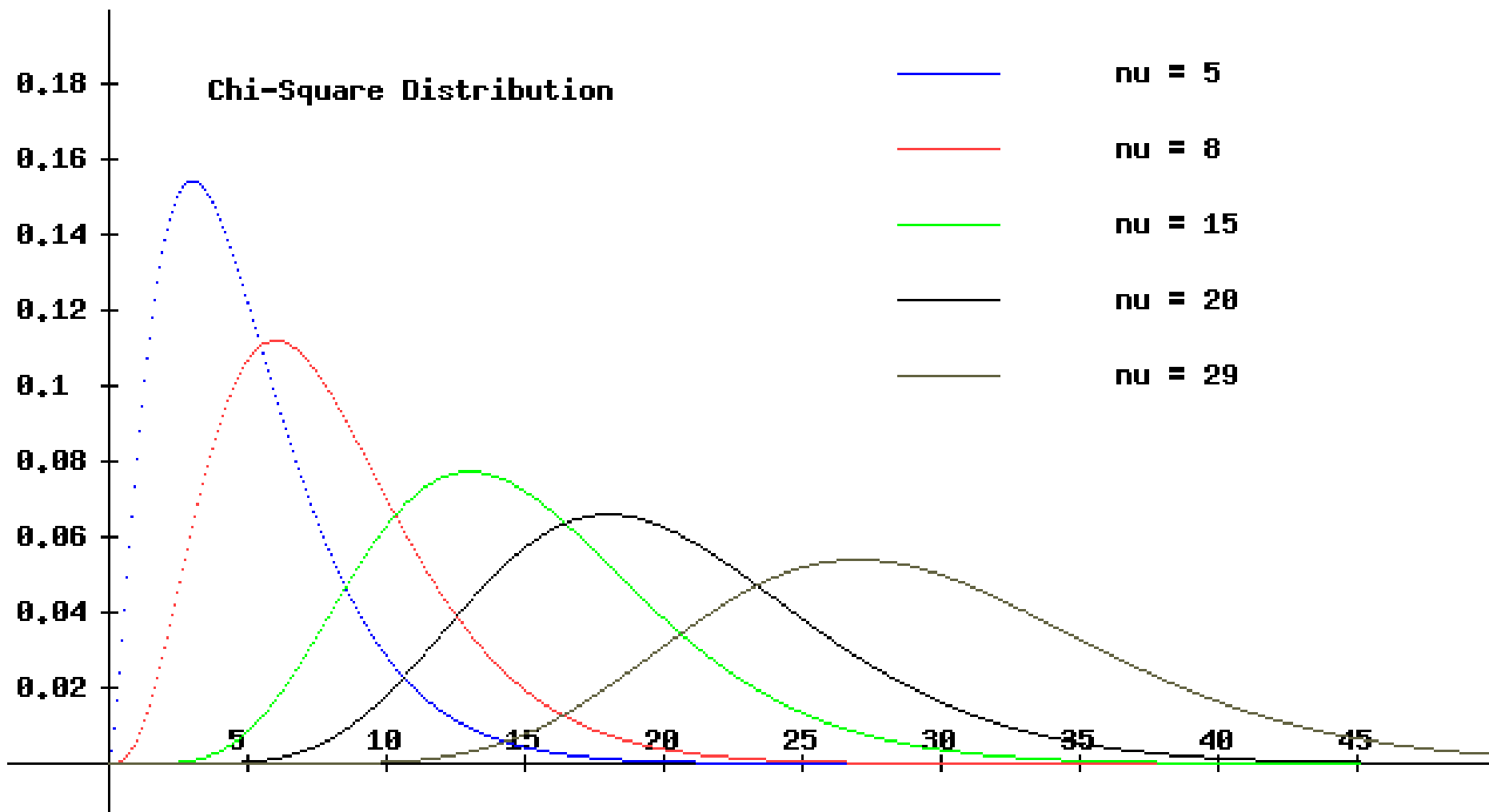
$$X^2_{(n-1)*(k-1)} = \sum_{i=1}^{nk} \left(\frac{(O_i - E_i)^2}{E_i} \right)$$

- This test statistic is compared to the chi-square distribution
- The degrees of freedom for this test are $(n-1)*(k-1)$, so for a 2×2 there is 1 degree of freedom
 - n =the number of rows; k =the number of columns in the $n \times k$ table
 - The chi-square distribution with 1 degree of freedom is actually the square of a standard normal distribution
- Expected cell sizes should all be >1 and fewer than 20% should be <5
- The Chi-square test is for two sided hypotheses

Chi-square distribution



Chi-square distribution



Mean = degrees of freedom

Variance = $2 \times \text{degrees of freedom}$



Chi-square test of independence

- For the example, the chi-square statistic for our 2x2 is

```
di ((9-9.3)^2)/9.3 + ((21-20.7)^2)/20.7 + ((8-7.7)^2)/7.7  
+ ((17-17.3)^2)/17.3  
. 03091587
```

There is 1 degree of freedom

- Probability of observing a chi-square value of 0.0309 with 1 degree of freedom

```
. di chi2tail(1,0.0309)  
. 86046367
```

Fail to reject the null hypothesis of independence

```
. . tab iphone6_01 sex, chi
```

iphone6_01	sex		Total
	Male	Female	
no	9	21	30
yes	8	17	25
Total	17	38	55

Pearson chi2(1) = 0.0255 Pr = 0.873

Test statistic (df)

p-value

If you want to see the row or column percentages, use row or col options

```
tab iphone6_01 sex, row col chi expected
```

```
+-----+
| Key    |
+-----+
| frequency
| expected frequency
| row percentage
| column percentage
+-----+
```

iphone6_01	sex		Total
	Male	Female	
no	9	21	30
	9.3	20.7	30.0
	30.00	70.00	100.00
	52.94	55.26	54.55
yes	8	17	25
	7.7	17.3	25.0
	32.00	68.00	100.00
	47.06	44.74	45.45
Total	17	38	55
	17.0	38.0	55.0
	30.91	69.09	100.00
	100.00	100.00	100.00

Pearson chi2(1) = 0.0255 Pr = 0.873

- Because we are using discrete cell counts to approximate a chi-squared distribution, for 2x2 tables some use the *Yates correction*

$$X_1^2 = \sum_{i=1}^4 \left(\frac{(|O_i - E_i| - 0.5)^2}{E_i} \right)$$

- Not computed in Stata

Lexicon

- When we talk about the chi-square test, we are saying it is a test of independence of two variables, usually exposure and disease.
- We also say we are testing the “association” between the two variables.
- If the test is statistically significant ($p < 0.05$ if $\alpha = 0.05$), we often say that the two variables are “not independent” or they are “associated”.



Test of independence

- For small cell sizes in 2x2 tables, use the Fisher exact test
- It is based on a discrete distribution called the hypergeometric distribution
- For 2x2 tables, you can choose a one-sided (results as or more extreme only in one direction) or a two-sided test

```
. tab iphone6_01 sex, chi exact
```

iphone6_01	sex		Total
	Male	Female	
no	9	21	30
yes	8	17	25
Total	17	38	55

```
Pearson chi2(1) = 0.0255 Pr = 0.873
Fisher's exact = 1.000
1-sided Fisher's exact = 0.551
```

Comparison to test of two proportions

```
. prtest iphone6_01, by(sex)
```

```
prtest iphone6_01, by(sex)
```

Two-sample test of proportions

Male: Number of obs = 17
Female: Number of obs = 38

Variable	Mean	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
Male	.4705882	.1210578			.2333193	.7078572
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diff	.0232198	.1454684			-.261893	.3083326
	under Ho:	.1452891	0.16	0.873		
diff = prop(Male) - prop(Female)						
Ho: diff = 0			z = 0.1598			
Ha: diff < 0		Ha: diff != 0		Ha: diff > 0		
Pr(Z < z) = 0.5635		Pr(Z < z) = 0.8730		Pr(Z > z) = 0.4365		

For 2x2 tables the chi-square statistic is equal to the z statistic squared

```
. di (0.1598)^2
.02553604
```

Chi-square test of independence

- The chi-square test can be used for more than 2 levels of exposure (with a dichotomous outcome)
 - The null hypothesis is $p_1 = p_2 = \dots = p_k$
 - The alternative hypothesis is that not all the proportions are the same
- Note that, like ANOVA, a statistically significant result does not tell you which level differed from the others
- Also when you have more than 2 groups, all tests are 2-sided
- The degrees of freedom for the test are $k-1$

Chi-square test of independence

```
. tab sex lastalc_3 if hiv==1, row col chi exact
```

```
+-----+
| Key    |
+-----+
| frequency
| row percentage
| column percentage
+-----+
```

Note that this is a 2x3 table,
so the chi-square test has
 $1 \times 2 = 2$ degrees of freedom

A1. Sex	RECODE of lastalc (E1. Last time took alcohol)			Total
	Never	>1 year a	Within th	
male	110	64	203	377
	29.18	16.98	53.85	100.00
	29.49	35.36	45.72	37.78
female	263	117	241	621
	42.35	18.84	38.81	100.00
	70.51	64.64	54.28	62.22
Total	373	181	444	998
	37.37	18.14	44.49	100.00
	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Pearson chi2(2) = 23.2657 Pr = 0.000

Fisher's exact = 0.000

- Another way to state the null hypothesis for the chi-square test:
 - Factor A is not associated with Factor B
- The alternative is
 - Factor A is associated with Factor B
- For more than 2 levels of the outcome variable this would make the most sense
- The degrees of freedom are $(r-1)*(c-1)$
(r=rows, c=columns)

- If you run a chi-square test and fail to reject the null, can you say Factor A is not associated with Factor B?



Paired dichotomous data

- Matched pairs
 - Matched case-control study
 - Before and after data
- You cannot just put each individual into an exposure and disease box, because then you would lose the benefits of pairing (and the observations would not be independent!)
- Instead you have a table that tabulates each of the 4 possible states for each pair

Paired dichotomous data

- For a 1:1 matched case/control study, in all pairs, one has the disease (case) and the other does not (control). The table then counts the number of pairs in which
 - 1. Both were exposed
 - 2. Neither were exposed
 - 3. The case was exposed, the control was not
 - 4. The case was not exposed, the control was exposed



Case-control study

HIV positives on ART in Uganda

- The study question was: Is alcohol consumption in the past 3 months associated with treatment failure?
 - The null hypothesis is that alcohol consumption is not associated with treatment failure
- Cases:
 - HIV viral load after 6 months of ART >400 copies
- Controls:
 - HIV viral load <400
- Matched on sex, duration on treatment, and treatment regimen class



```
. list matched_pair lastalc_case lastalc_control
```

	matched~r	lastal~e	lastal~l
1.	1	Yes	No
2.	2	Yes	Yes
3.	3	No	No
4.	4	Yes	No
5.	5	No	No
6.	6	No	Yes
7.	7	Yes	Yes
8.	8	Yes	No
9.	9	No	No
10.	10	No	No
11.	12	Yes	Yes
12.	13	No	Yes
13.	14	Yes	No
14.	15	Yes	No
15.	16	Yes	No
16.	17	No	No
17.	18	No	No
18.	19	No	No
19.	20	Yes	No
20.	21	No	No
21.	22	Yes	No
22.	23	No	No
23.	24	Yes	Yes
24.	25	No	No
25.	26	Yes	No
26.	27	No	Yes
27.	28	No	No

```
. tab lastalc_case lastalc_control
```

lastalc_ca	lastalc_control		Total
se	No	Yes	
No	11	3	14
Yes	9	4	13
Total	20	7	27

Data are in “treatment outcomes case control.dta”

- The test statistic is
$$X^2 = \frac{[|r - s| - 1]^2}{(r + s)}$$
- r and s are the number of discordant pairs
 - Concordant pairs provide no information
- Under the null hypothesis, r and s would be equal
- This statistic has an approximate chi-square distribution with 1 degree of freedom
- The test is called McNemar's test
 - The -1 is a continuity correction, not all versions of the test use this, some use .5

- $r=9, s=3$
- Test statistic = $(9-3-1)^2/12 = 2.083$

```
. di chi2tail(1,2.083)
```

```
.14894719
```
- Test statistic = $(6)^2/12 = 3$ (Not using the continuity correction)

```
di chi2tail(1,3)
```

```
.08326452
```



In Stata, use mcc for Matched Case Control

```
mcc case_exposed control_exposed  
. . mcc lastalc_case lastalc_control
```

Cases	Controls		Total
	Exposed	Unexposed	
Exposed	4	9	13
Unexposed	3	11	14
Total	7	20	27

McNemar's $\chi^2(1) = 3.00$ Prob > $\chi^2 = 0.0833$
Exact McNemar significance probability = 0.1460

Proportion with factor

Cases	.4814815		
Controls	.2592593	[95% Conf. Interval]	

difference	.2222222	-.0518969	.4963413
ratio	1.857143	.9114712	3.78397
rel. diff.	.3	.0159742	.5840258
odds ratio	3	.7486845	17.228 (exact)

Use mcci if you only have the table, not the raw data

```
mcci #both_exposed #case_exposed_only #control_exposed_only #neither_exposed
. mcci 4 9 3 11
```

Cases	Controls		Total
	Exposed	Unexposed	
Exposed	4	9	13
Unexposed	3	11	14
Total	7	20	27

McNemar's $\chi^2(1) = 3.00$ Prob > $\chi^2 = 0.0833$
 Exact McNemar significance probability = 0.1460

Proportion with factor

Cases	.4814815			
Controls	.2592593	[95% Conf. Interval]		
difference	.2222222	-.0518969	.4963413	
ratio	1.857143	.9114712	3.78397	
rel. diff.	.3	.0159742	.5840258	
odds ratio	3	.7486845	17.228	(exact)

- Note that the McNemar test is only for MATCHED data
- It is quite possible to collect unmatched case control data. Then you analyze using the chi-square methods presented earlier.

Paired dichotomous data

- For before and after data, the pairs are the individual participant, and the four outcomes might be:
 1. “Yes” before + “Yes” after (no change)
 2. “No” before + “No” after (no change)
 3. “Yes” before + “No” after
 4. “No” before + “Yes” after
- E.g. Positive biomarker test at baseline and 3 months follow up

Self-reported alcohol consumption in Uganda

McNemar's test for paired data

- Null hypothesis: No change in the proportion PEth+ (≥ 50 ng/ml) from baseline to 3 months in persons entering HIV care in Uganda

```
. tab peth0_50 peth3_50
```

peth0_50	peth3_50		Total
	0	1	
0	78	7	85
1	23	69	92
Total	101	76	177

using BREATH wide data.dta



Matched case-control study command

```
mcc peth0_50 peth3_50
```

Cases	Controls		Total
	Exposed	Unexposed	
Exposed	69	23	92
Unexposed	7	78	85
Total	76	101	177

McNemar's $\chi^2(1) = 8.53$ Prob > $\chi^2 = 0.0035$
Exact McNemar significance probability = 0.0052

Proportion with factor

Cases	.519774			
Controls	.4293785	[95% Conf. Interval]		
	-----	-----		
difference	.0903955	.0255752	.1552158	
ratio	1.210526	1.064678	1.376355	
rel. diff.	.1584158	.0609088	.2559229	
odds ratio	3.285714	1.36498	9.066655	(exact)

Statistical hypothesis tests

Data and comparison type	Alternative hypotheses	Parametric test Stata command	Non-parametric test Stata command
Numerical; One mean	$H_a: \mu \neq \mu_a$ (two-sided) $H_a: \mu > \mu_a$ or $\mu < \mu_a$ (one-sided)	Z or t-test • <code>ttest var1=hypoth val.*</code>	
Numerical; Two means, <u>paired data</u>	$H_a: \mu_1 \neq \mu_2$ (two-sided) $H_a: \mu_1 > \mu_2$ or $\mu < \mu_a$ (one-sided)	Paired t-test • <code>ttest var1=var2*</code>	Sign test • <code>signtest var1=var2</code> • Wilcoxon Signed-Rank <code>signrank var1=var2</code>
Numerical; Two means, independent data	$H_a: \mu_1 \neq \mu_2$ (two-sided) $H_a: \mu_1 > \mu_2$ or $\mu < \mu_a$ (one-sided)	T-test (equal or unequal variance) • <code>ttest var1, by(byvar) unequal</code>	Wilcoxon rank-sum test • <code>ranksum var1, by(byvar)</code>
Numerical, Two or more means, independent data	$H_a: \mu_1 \neq \mu_2$ or $\mu_1 \neq \mu_3$ or $\mu_2 \neq \mu_3$ etc.	ANOVA • <code>oneway var1 byvar</code>	Kruskal Wallis test • <code>kwallis var1, by(byvar)</code>
Dichotomous; One proportion	$H_a: p \neq p_a$ (two-sided) $H_a: p > p_a$ or $p < p_a$ (one-sided)	Proportion test • <code>prtest var1=hypoth value*</code> • <code>bitest var1=hypoth value</code>	
Dichotomous; two proportions	$H_a: p_1 \neq p_2$ (two-sided) $H_a: p_1 > p_2$ (one-sided)	Proportion test (z-test) • <code>prtest var1, by(byvar)</code>	Chi-square test • <code>tab var1 var2, chi exact</code> McNemar's for paired data: • <code>mcc var1 var2</code>
Categorical by categorical (nxk)	H_a : The rows not independent of the columns		Chi-square test • <code>tab var1 var2, chi exact</code>

Comparison of disease frequencies across groups

- The chi-square test and McNemar's test are tests of independence
- They do not give us an estimate of how much the two groups differ, i.e. how much the disease outcome varies by the exposure variable
- We use odds ratios (OR) and relative risks (RR) as measures of ratios of disease outcome (given exposure or lack of exposure)
- The odds ratio and the relative risk are just two examples of “measures of association”

Comparison of disease frequencies – relative risk

	Exposure		
Disease	+	-	Total
+	a	b	a+b
-	c	d	c+d
Total	a+c	b+d	n=a+b+c+d

- Risk ratio (or relative risk or relative rate)
- $$= P(\text{disease} \mid \text{exposed}) / P(\text{disease} \mid \text{unexposed})$$
- $$= R_e / R_u = a/(a+c) / b/(b+d)$$

Comparison of disease frequencies – relative risk

	Exposure		
Disease	+	-	Total
+	a	b	a+b
-	c	d	c+d
Total	a+c	b+d	n=a+b+c+d

- Note that you cannot calculate this entity when you have chosen your sample based on disease status
- I.e. Case-control study – you have fixed the probability of disease a priori (i.e. usually 50%)! Relative risk is a NO GO!
 - You can calculate it but it won't have any meaning...

Odds

- If an event occurs with probability p , the odds of the event are $p/(1-p)$ to 1
- If an event has probability .5, the odds are 1:1
- Conversely, if the odds of an event are $a:b$, the probability of a occurring is $a/(a+b)$
 - The odds of horse A winning over horse B winning are 2:1 $\rightarrow$ the probability of horse A winning is .667.

Odds ratio

	Exposure		
Disease	+	-	Total
+	a	b	a+b
-	c	d	c+d
Total	a+c	b+d	n=a+b+c+d

- Odds of disease among the exposed persons
= $P(\text{disease} \mid \text{exposed}) / (1 - P(\text{disease} \mid \text{exposed}))$
= $[a / (a + c)] / [c / (a + c)] = a/c$
- Odds of disease among the unexposed persons
= $P(\text{disease} \mid \text{unexposed}) / (1 - P(\text{disease} \mid \text{unexposed}))$
= $[b / (b + d)] / [d / (b + d)] = b/d$
- Odds ratio = $a/c / b/d = ad/bc$

Odds ratio note

- Note that the odds ratio is also equal to
$$\frac{[P(\text{exposed} \mid \text{disease}) / (1 - P(\text{exposed} \mid \text{disease}))]}{[P(\text{exposed} \mid \text{no disease}) / (1 - P(\text{exposed} \mid \text{no disease}))]}$$
- This is needed for case-control studies in which the proportion with disease is fixed (so you can't calculate the odds of disease)

Interpretation of ORs and RRs

- If the OR or RR equal 1, then there is no effect of exposure on disease.
- If the OR or RR >1 then disease is increased in the presence of exposure. (Risk factor)
- If the OR or RR <1 then disease is decreased in the presence of exposure. (Protective factor)

Comparison of measures of association

- When a disease is rare, i.e. the risk is $<10\%$, the odds ratio approximates the risk ratio
- The odds ratio overestimates the risk ratio
- Why use it? – statistical properties, usefulness in case-control studies

The association of owning an iPhone with gender

```
tab iphone6_01 sex
```

iphone6_01	sex		Total
	Male	Female	
no	9	21	30
yes	8	17	25
Total	17	38	55

What is the (estimated) odds ratio (where sex=female is the exposure)?

```
. di (9*17)/(21*8)
```

```
.91071429
```

95% Confidence interval for an odds ratio

- Remember the 95% confidence interval for a mean μ

Lower Confidence Limit:

$$\bar{X} - 1.96\sigma / \sqrt{n}$$

Upper Confidence Limit:

$$\bar{X} + 1.96\sigma / \sqrt{n}$$

- The odds ratio is not normally distributed (it ranges from 0 to infinity)
 - But the natural log (ln) of the odds ratio is approximately normal
 - The estimate of the standard error of the estimated ln OR is

$$SE(\ln(OR)) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{a} + \frac{1}{b} + \frac{1}{c} + \frac{1}{d}}$$

95% Confidence interval for an odds ratio

- We calculate the 95% confidence interval for the log odds

$$\left(\ln OR - 1.96 \sqrt{\frac{1}{a} + \frac{1}{b} + \frac{1}{c} + \frac{1}{d}}, \ln OR + 1.96 \sqrt{\frac{1}{a} + \frac{1}{b} + \frac{1}{c} + \frac{1}{d}} \right)$$

- Then exponentiate back to obtain the 95% confidence interval for the OR

$$\left(e^{\left(\ln OR - 1.96 \sqrt{\frac{1}{a} + \frac{1}{b} + \frac{1}{c} + \frac{1}{d}} \right)}, e^{\left(\ln OR + 1.96 \sqrt{\frac{1}{a} + \frac{1}{b} + \frac{1}{c} + \frac{1}{d}} \right)} \right)$$

Calculating an odds ratio and 95% confidence interval in Stata using tabodds command

Tabodds outcomevar exposurevar , or

. tabodds iphone6_01 sex, or

sex	Odds Ratio	chi2	P>chi2	[95% Conf. Interval]	
-----+					
Male	1.000000	.	.	.	.
Female	0.910714	0.03	0.8742	0.286076	2.899230

Test of homogeneity (equal odds):		chi2(1)	=	0.03	
		Pr>chi2	=	0.8742	
Score test for trend of odds:		chi2(1)	=	0.03	
		Pr>chi2	=	0.8742	

Calculating an odds ratio and 95% confidence interval in Stata using cc command

```
. gen sex_01=sex-1
```

```
. cc iphone6_01 sex_01
```

	Exposed	Unexposed	Total	Proportion Exposed
Cases	17	8	25	0.6800
Controls	21	9	30	0.7000
Total	38	17	55	0.6909
	Point estimate		[95% Conf. Interval]	
Odds ratio	.9107143		.2491868	3.37443 (exact)
Prev. frac. ex.	.0892857		-2.37443	.7508132 (exact)
Prev. frac. pop	.0625			
	chi2(1) =		0.03	Pr>chi2 = 0.8730

Exact confidence intervals use the hypergeometric distribution



Chi-square test when the exposure has several levels (outcome dichotomous)

- E.g. Is low CD4 count (<250) at HIV testing associated with alcohol consumption category?

```
tab cd4_low lastalc_3, col chi
```

cd4_low	RECODE of lastalc (E1. Last time took alcohol)			Total
	Never	>1 year a	Within th	
0	203 54.42	89 49.44	246 55.78	538 54.12
1	170 45.58	91 50.56	195 44.22	456 45.88
Total	373 100.00	180 100.00	441 100.00	994 100.00

Pearson chi2(2) = 2.0894 Pr = 0.352



Odds ratio when the exposure has several levels

- One level is the “unexposed” or reference level

This is as if you partitioned your data off and did a chi-square test comparing cd4<250 in the past drinker versus lifetime abstainer categories

```
. tabodds cd4_low lastalc_3, or
```

lastalc_3	Odds Ratio	chi2	P>chi2	[95% Conf. Interval]	
Never	1.000000	.	.	.	.
>1 year~o	1.220952	1.21	0.2722	0.854441	1.744676
Within ~r	0.946557	0.15	0.6979	0.717263	1.249151
Test of homogeneity (equal odds):					
		chi2(2)	=	2.09	
		Pr>chi2	=	0.3522	
Score test for trend of odds:					
		chi2(1)	=	0.19	
		Pr>chi2	=	0.6623	



Stata lets you choose the reference level

```
. tabodds cd4_low lastalc_3, or base(2)
```

lastalc_3	Odds Ratio	chi2	P>chi2	[95% Conf. Interval]	
Never	0.819033	1.21	0.2722	0.573172	1.170355
>1 year~o	1.000000	.	.	.	.
Within ~r	0.775261	2.06	0.1509	0.547265	1.098244
Test of homogeneity (equal odds):					
		chi2(2)	=	2.09	
		Pr>chi2	=	0.3522	
Score test for trend of odds:					
		chi2(1)	=	0.19	
		Pr>chi2	=	0.6623	

Odds ratio for matched pairs

- The odds ratio is r/s
- The standard error of $\ln(OR)$ is

$$SE(\ln[OR]) = \sqrt{\frac{r+s}{rs}}$$

- So the 95% confidence interval for the estimated OR is

$$\left(e^{\left(\ln OR - 1.96 \sqrt{\frac{r+s}{rs}} \right)}, e^{\left(\ln OR + 1.96 \sqrt{\frac{r+s}{rs}} \right)} \right)$$

- For alcohol vs. case/control status:
- $OR = 9/3 = 3$
- $SE(\ln OR) = \sqrt{(9+3)/27} = .667$
- 95% CI: $\exp(\ln(3) - 1.96 * .667)$,
 $\exp(\ln(3) + 1.96 * .667)$
(0.81 – 11.1)

Data are in: treatment outcomes case control.dta



In Stata

```
mcc case_exposed control_exposed  
. . mcc lastalc_case lastalc_control
```

Cases	Controls		Total
	Exposed	Unexposed	
Exposed	4	9	13
Unexposed	3	11	14
Total	7	20	27

```
McNemar's chi2(1) =      3.00    Prob > chi2 = 0.0833  
Exact McNemar significance probability      = 0.1460
```

Proportion with factor

Cases	.4814815			
Controls	.2592593	[95% Conf. Interval]		
	-----	-----	-----	
difference	.2222222	-.0518969	.4963413	
ratio	1.857143	.9114712	3.78397	
rel. diff.	.3	.0159742	.5840258	
odds ratio	3	.7486845	17.228	(exact)

For next time

- Read Pagano and Gauvreau
 - Pagano and Gauvreau Chapter 15 (review)
 - Pagano and Gauvreau Chapters 17 and 18