# Epidemiologic Data Analysis using R Part 6: Analysis of case-control studies

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University of Tampere Faculty of Social Sciences Feb 26- Apr 9 2018

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Main R functions to be covered

• glm()

### Case-control design

- From given study population (base pop'n) are selected all or a random sample of
  - D cases, or individuals with the disease being diagnosed during certain period
  - C controls, or "healthy" individuals at risk.
- Exposure to risk factor *X* and other covariates assessed in cases and chosen controls.
- To increase efficiency and remove confounding, the sampling of controls is often *stratified* or individually *matched* for age, gender, place of residence, *etc*.

## Exposure odds ratio (EOR)

With binary risk factor X the results are summarized:

Exposure	Cases	Controls	Total
yes $(X = 1)$ no $(X = 0)$	$D_1 \ D_0$	$C_1$ $C_0$	$T_1$ $T_0$
Total	D	С	T

#### Common effect measure:

exposure odds ratio

$$EOR = \frac{D_1/D_0}{C_1/C_0} = \frac{D_1C_0}{D_0C_1}$$

### Precision in EOR

Standard error of log(EOR), 95% error factor (EF) & 95% confidence interval (CI) for the associated parameter:

SEL = 
$$\sqrt{\frac{1}{D_1} + \frac{1}{D_0} + \frac{1}{C_1} + \frac{1}{C_0}}$$
  
EF =  $\exp\{1.96 \times \text{SEL}\}$   
CI =  $[\text{EOR/EF, EOR} \times \text{EF}].$ 

NB. Random error depends inversely on numbers of cases and controls.

## What parameter is estimated by EOR?

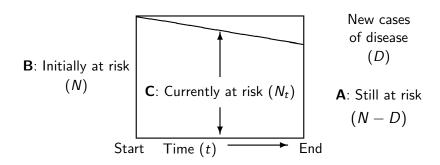
### The answer depends on

- type of base population, from which cases emerge
  - closed population or cohort, or
  - open or dynamic population,
- time dimensionality
  - longitudinal or cross-sectional
- sampling principle of controls:
  - (A) case-noncase sampling (epidemic ca-co study)
  - (B) case-cohort sampling
  - (C) density sampling (incl. nested case-control study)

## Sampling controls from a longitudinal base

Simplified ideal situation:

Complete follow-up of a cohort of initially healthy subjects with no losses during a fixed risk period.



Possible sampling frames: A, B and C

## Sampling schemes or designs for controls

### A: Case-noncase sampling

• Controls chosen from those N-D subjects still at risk (healthy) <u>at the end</u> of the follow-up.

### **B:** Case-cohort sampling:

 The control group or subcohort is a random sample of the whole cohort (N) <u>at the start</u> of the follow-up.

### B: Density sampling:

- Controls drawn <u>during the follow-up</u> from those currently at risk.
- Nested case-control design (NCC)
   A set of controls is sampled from the risk set at each time t of diagnosis of a new case,

## EOR in case-noncase sampling design

- In the traditional or epidemic case-control study the controls are selected from those still healthy at the end of the risk period, during which cases are collected.
- In this design EOR estimates the risk odds ratio

$$\psi = \frac{\text{odds of dis. in the exp'd}}{\text{odds of dis. in the unexp'd}} = \frac{\pi_1/(1-\pi_1)}{\pi_0/(1-\pi_0)},$$

where  $\pi_1$  and  $\pi_0$  are the risks of disease in the exposed and unexposed groups, estimable from a corresponding cohort study by incidence proportions  $R_1$  and  $R_0$ .

• **NB.**  $\psi \approx \pi_1/\pi_0 = \phi$ , *i.e.* close to **risk ratio**, when risks  $\pi_1$  and  $\pi_0$  are low = the "rare disease assumption".

### Density sampling

- New incident cases occurring during given study period are identified from the base population.
- controls are randomly chosen from the population at risk at various times in the period (sometimes only once).
- For chronic disease studies this design is the most popular,
- Logically the only possibility in open populations,

### **Nested case-control study**: *time-matched* selection:

• one or more (rarely over 5) controls chosen from the population at risk at each time  $t_d$  when a new case is diagnosed.

## EOR in density sampling

• In a full cohort study the true hazard ratio  $\rho=\lambda_1/\lambda_0$  is estimated by the incidence rate ratio

$$IR = \frac{I_1}{I_0} = \frac{D_1/D_0}{Y_1/Y_0}.$$

- In a case-control study with density sampling the **exposure odds** among controls  $C_1/C_0$  estimates the exposure odds  $Y_1/Y_0$ , i.e. the distribution of person-years in the base population.
- Thus, the exposure odds ratio EOR

$$\mathsf{EOR} = rac{D_1/D_0}{C_1/C_0} pprox rac{D_1/D_0}{Y_1/Y_0} = \mathsf{IR}$$

is a consistent estimator of the true hazard rate ratio  $\rho$  without any rare-disease assumption.

## Example. Alcohol use and oesophageal cancer

(Tuyns et al 1977, see **B&D** 1980).

- 205 new cases of cancer identified in a French province during two years, and 770 randomly sampled population controls ⇒ Density sampling
- NB. No stratification or matching for age in design
   ⇒ Too many young controls in relation to few cases
   ⇒ inefficient!
- Exposure of interest: Daily consumption of alcohol.
- In the following table the data are summarized by dichotomized exposure and stratified by age group.
- In R the data are found: data(esoph)

# Example: Results stratified by age

Age	Exposure $\geq$ 80 g/d	Cases	Ctrls	EOR
25-34	25-34 yes		9	$\infty$
	no	0	106	
35-44	yes	4	26	5.05
	no	5	164	
45-54	yes	25	29	5.67
	no	21	138	
55-64	yes	42	27	6.36
	no	34	139	
65-74	yes	19	18	2.58
	no	36	88	
75-84	yes	5	0	$\infty$
	no	8	31	
Total	yes	96	109	5.64
	no	104	666	(crude)

# Example: (cont'd)

#### Modification?

- Stratum-specific EOR<sub>k</sub>s somewhat variable.
- Random error in some of them apparently great (especially in the youngest and the oldest age groups).

### Confounding?

- Is exposure associated with age in the study population?
- Look at variation in the age-specific prevalences of exposure among controls.
- Adjustment for age is generally reasonable.

### Model for stratified data

### Random part:

Conditional on total number of subjects

$$T_{jk} = D_{jk} + C_{jk}$$

in each level j (j = 1, 2) of exposure variable X and level k (k = 1, ..., K) of covariate Z we assume

$$D_{jk} \sim \text{Binomial}(T_{jk}; p_{jk}),$$

where  $p_{jk}$  is the "probability of being a case" in a group of cases & controls defined by X and Z.

## Model for stratified data (cont'd)

Systematic part & logit link:

$$logit(p_{jk}) = log(\frac{p_{jk}}{1 - p_{jk}}) = \alpha + \beta X + \gamma_k,$$

X = exposure, 1: 'exposed'; 0: 'unexposed',

 $\alpha = \operatorname{logit}(p_{11}) = \operatorname{log}$  of "pseudo baseline odds",

 $\beta = \text{logarithm of exposure odds ratio,}$ 

=  $\log(\rho)$ , logarithm of true rate ratio  $\rho$  with density sampling,

 $\gamma_k = \text{logarithm of rate ratio btw levels } k \text{ and } 1 \text{ of } Z.$ 

Hence  $e^{\beta} = \rho$  is the common rate ratio for the exposure effect assumed constant over the levels of Z.

## Example. Estimation by glm()

### Input of data

```
D <- c(0,1, 5,4, 21,25, 34,42, 36,19, 8,5) # no. of cases C <- c(106,9, 164,26, 138,29, 139,27, 88,18, 31,0) # contro T <- D + C # cell totals
```

Generation and naming of the levels for factors describing age group and alcohol exposure

## Example. Estimation by glm()

```
> data.frame( agrn = as.numeric(agr), agr,
           alcn = as.numeric(alc), alc, D, C, T)
  agrn agr alcn alc D C T
    1 25-34 1 0-79g/d 0 106 106
2 1 25-34 2 80+g/d 1 9 10
3 2 35-44 1 0-79g/d 5 164 169
4 2 35-44 2 80+g/d 4 26 30
5 3 45-54 1 0-79g/d 21 138 159
6 3 45-54
             2 80+g/d 25 29 54
  4 55-64
             1 0-79g/d 34 139 173
8
  4 55-64
             2 80+g/d 42 27 69
9
   5 65-74
             1 0-79g/d 36 88 124
             2 80+g/d 19 18 37
10 5 65-74
11 6 75-84
             1 0-79g/d 8 31 39
12 6 75-84
             2 80+g/d 5 0 5
```

## Example. Estimation by glm() cont'd)

#### Crude estimation

```
> mod1 <- glm(D/T ~ alc, fam = binomial, w = T)
> round(ci.lin(mod1, Exp=T)[, -(3:4)], 4)
           Estimate StdErr exp(Est.) 2.5% 97.5%
(Intercept) -1.8569 0.1054 0.1562 0.1270 0.1920
alc80+g/d 1.7299 0.1752 5.6401 4.0006 7.9515
Estimation adjusted for age
> mod2 <- update(mod1, . ~ . + agr)
Goodness-of-fit evaluation
> c( mod2$deviance, mod2$df.res )
[1] 11.04118 5
```

# Example. Estimation by glm() (cont'd)

Estimation results after adjusting for age

```
> round(ci.lin(mod2, Exp=T)[ , -(3:4)], 4)
```

	Estimate	StdErr	<pre>exp(Est.)</pre>	2.5%	97.5%
(Intercept)	-5.0543	1.0094	0.0064	0.0009	0.0461
alc80+g/d	1.6699	0.1896	5.3116	3.6630	7.7022
agr35-44	1.5423	1.0659	4.6753	0.5788	37.7668
agr45-54	3.1988	1.0232	24.5022	3.2984	182.0171
agr55-64	3.7135	1.0185	40.9966	5.5688	301.8094
agr65-74	3.9669	1.0231	52.8196	7.1112	392.3239
agr75-84	3.9622	1.0650	52.5723	6.5193	423.9520

## Matched case-control study

### Matching

- For each case choose 1 or more (rarely over 4) controls with same age (eg. within 1 year, or in the same 5-year ageband), sex, place of living, etc.
- Implies stratification in design: each matched case-control set forms one stratum.
- Improves efficiency of the study & estimation of effect parameters, if matching factors are strong determinants of outcome.

## Matched case-control study (cont'd)

### Some principles

- Impractical to match on many other covariates than those mentioned,
- Matching on a correlate Z of risk factor X of interest, which is not causal determinant of outcome
   ⇒ overmatching, loss of efficiency.
- Counter-matching: Choose controls which are different from case w.r.t. Z, close correlate of X
   ⇒ increases efficiency.

## Matched case-control study (cont'd)

- Matched design ⇒ matched analysis!
- Ignoring matching in analysis my lead to biased results.
- Matching factors must always be accounted for in estimating the rate ratios of interest.
- With very close matching (based e.g. on sibship, neighbourhood) use conditional logistic regression modelling
  - function clogit() in package survival

### Concluding remarks

- Analysis using glm() on individual data records from an unmatched study proceeds similarly as for grouped data.
- Matched design → matched analysis by clogit().
- More complicated designs, like counter-matched and two-phase studies, require specialized methods and programming.
- Case-cohort design: Use function coxph() in package survival but adjust standard errors etc. appropriately.