

This work is licensed under a [Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike License](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-sa/4.0/). Your use of this material constitutes acceptance of that license and the conditions of use of materials on this site.



Copyright 2008, The Johns Hopkins University and Brian Caffo. All rights reserved. Use of these materials permitted only in accordance with license rights granted. Materials provided "AS IS"; no representations or warranties provided. User assumes all responsibility for use, and all liability related thereto, and must independently review all materials for accuracy and efficacy. May contain materials owned by others. User is responsible for obtaining permissions for use from third parties as needed.

Lecture 23

Brian Caffo

Department of Biostatistics
Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health
Johns Hopkins University

November 15, 2007

Table of contents

- 1 Table of contents
- 2 Outline
- 3 Simpson's paradox
- 4 Berkeley data
- 5 Confounding
- 6 Weighting
- 7 Mantel/Haenszel estimator

- 1 Simpson's paradox
- 2 Weighting
- 3 CMH estimate
- 4 CMH test

Simpson's (perceived) paradox

Table of contents

Outline

Simpson's paradox

Berkeley data

Confounding

Weighting

Mantel/Haenszel estimator

Victim	Defendant	Death penalty		% yes
		yes	no	
White	White	53	414	11.3
	Black	11	37	22.9
Black	White	0	16	0.0
	Black	4	139	2.8
		53	430	11.0
		15	176	7.9
White		64	451	12.4
Black		4	155	2.5

1

¹From Agresti, Categorical Data Analysis, second edition

Discussion

- Marginally, white defendants received the death penalty a greater percentage of time than black defendants
- Across white and black victims, black defendant's received the death penalty a greater percentage of time than white defendants
- Simpson's paradox refers to the fact that marginal and conditional associations can be opposing
- The death penalty was enacted more often for the murder of a white victim than a black victim. Whites tend to kill whites, hence the larger marginal association.

Example

- Wikipedia's entry on Simpson's paradox gives an example comparing two player's batting averages

	First Half	Second Half	Whole Season
Player 1	4/10 (.40)	25/100 (.25)	29/110 (.26)
Plater 2	35/100 (.35)	2/10 (.20)	37/110 (.34)

- Player 1 has a better batting average than Player 2 in both the first and second half of the season, yet has a worse batting average overall
- Consider the number of at-bats

Berkeley admissions data

- The Berkeley admissions data is a well known data set regarding Simpsons paradox

```
?UCBAdmissions
```

```
data(UCBAdmissions)
```

```
      apply(UCBAdmissions, c(1, 2), sum)
```

```
      Gender
```

```
Admit      Male Female
```

```
Admitted 1198    557
```

```
Rejected 1493   1278
```

```
      .445    .304 <- Acceptance rate
```


Acceptance rate by department

```
> apply(UCBAdmissions, 3,  
        function(x) c(x[1] / sum(x[1 : 2]),  
                      x[3] / sum(x[3 : 4])  
                      )  
        )
```

Dept	M	F
A	0.62	0.82
B	0.63	0.68
C	0.37	0.34
D	0.33	0.35
E	0.28	0.24
F	0.06	0.07

Why? The application rates by department

```
> apply(UCBAdmissions, c(2, 3), sum)
```

	Dept					
Gender	A	B	C	D	E	F
Male	825	560	325	417	191	373
Female	108	25	593	375	393	341

Discussion

- Mathematically, Simpson's paradox is not paradoxical

$$a/b < c/d$$

$$e/f < g/h$$

$$(a + e)/(b + f) > (c + g)/(d + h)$$

- More statistically, it says that the apparent relationship between two variables can change in the light or absence of a third

Confounding

- Variables that are correlated with both the explanatory and response variables can distort the estimated effect
 - Victim's race was correlated with defendant's race and death penalty
- One strategy to adjust for confounding variables is to **stratify** by the confounder and then combine the strata-specific estimates
 - Requires appropriately weighting the strata-specific estimates
- Unnecessary stratification reduces precision

Aside: weighting

- Suppose that you have two unbiased scales, one with variance 1 lb and and one with variance 9 lbs
- Confronted with weights from both scales, would you give both measurements equal credence?
- Suppose that $X_1 \sim N(\mu, \sigma_1^2)$ and $X_2 \sim N(\mu, \sigma_2^2)$ where σ_1 and σ_2 are both known
- log-likelihood for μ

$$-(x_1 - \mu)^2/2\sigma_1^2 - (x_2 - \mu)^2/2\sigma_2^2$$

Continued

- Derivative wrt μ set equal to 0

$$(x_1 - \mu)/\sigma_1^2 + (x_2 - \mu)/\sigma_2^2 = 0$$

- Answer

$$\frac{x_1 r_1 + x_2 r_2}{r_1 + r_2} = x_1 p + x_2 (1 - p)$$

where $r_i = 1/\sigma_i^2$ and $p = r_1/(r_1 + r_2)$

- Note, if X_1 has very low variance, its term dominates the estimate of μ
- General principle: instead of averaging over several unbiased estimates, take an average weighted according to inverse variances
- For our example $\sigma_1^2 = 1$, $\sigma_2^2 = 9$ so $p = .9$

Mantel/Haenszel estimator

- Let n_{ijk} be entry i, j of table k
- The k^{th} sample odds ratio is $\hat{\theta}_k = \frac{n_{11k}n_{22k}}{n_{12k}n_{21k}}$
- The Mantel Haenszel estimator is of the form $\hat{\theta} = \frac{\sum_k r_k \hat{\theta}_k}{\sum_k r_k}$
- The weights are $r_k = \frac{n_{12k}n_{21k}}{n_{++k}}$
- The estimator simplifies to $\hat{\theta}_{MH} = \frac{\sum_k n_{11k}n_{22k}/n_{++k}}{\sum_k n_{12k}n_{21k}/n_{++k}}$
- SE of the log is given in Agresti (page 235) or Rosner (page 656)

	Center															
	1		2		3		4		5		6		7		8	
	S	F	S	F	S	F	S	F	S	F	S	F	S	F	S	F
T	11	25	16	4	14	5	2	14	6	11	1	10	1	4	4	2
C	10	27	22	10	7	12	1	16	0	12	0	10	1	8	6	1
n	73		52		38		33		29		21		14		13	

S - Success, F - failure

T - Active Drug, C - placebo²

$$\hat{\theta}_{MH} = \frac{(11 \times 27)/73 + (16 \times 10)/25 + \dots + (4 \times 1)/13}{(10 \times 25)/73 + (4 \times 22)/25 + \dots + (6 \times 2)/13} = 2.13$$

Also $\log \hat{\theta}_{MH} = .758$ and $\hat{SE}_{\log \hat{\theta}_{MH}} = .303$

CMH test

- $H_0 : \theta_1 = \dots = \theta_k = 1$ versus $H_a : \theta_1 = \dots = \theta_k \neq 1$
- The CHM test applies to other alternatives, but is most powerful for the H_a given above
- Same as testing conditional independence of the response and exposure given the stratifying variable
- CMH conditioned on the rows and columns for each of the k contingency tables resulting in k hypergeometric distributions and leaving only the n_{11k} cells free

CMH test cont'd

- Under the conditioning and under the null hypothesis
 - $E(n_{11k}) = n_{1+k}n_{+1k}/n_{++k}$
 - $\text{Var}(n_{11k}) = n_{1+k}n_{2+k}n_{+1k}n_{+2k}/n_{++k}^2(n_{++k} - 1)$
- The CMH test statistic is

$$\frac{[\sum_k \{n_{11k} - E(n_{11k})\}]^2}{\sum_k \text{Var}(n_{11k})}$$

- For large sample sizes and under H_0 , this test statistic is $\chi^2(1)$ (regardless of how many tables you are summing up)

```
dat <- array(c(11, 10, 25, 27, 16, 22, 4, 10,
              14, 7, 5, 12, 2, 1, 14, 16,
              6, 0, 11, 12, 1, 0, 10, 10,
              1, 1, 4, 8, 4, 6, 2, 1),
            c(2, 2, 8))
mantelhaen.test(dat, correct = FALSE)
```

Results: $CMH_{TS} = 6.38$

P-value: .012

Test presents evidence to suggest that the treatment and response are not conditionally independent given center

Some final notes on CMH

- It's possible to perform an analogous test in a random effects logit model that benefits from a complete model specification
- It's also possible to test heterogeneity of the strata-specific odds ratios
- Exact tests (guarantee the type I error rate) are also possible `exact = TRUE` in R