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# How to approach statistical data analysis in ophthalmology - a bucket of top tips with examples

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**Workshop Series: Basic Statistics for Eye Researchers and Clinicians, No.13**



## Goal of this session

- To give an overview of
- ... of statistical data analysis methods ...
- ... that occur in ophthalmology...
- ... how the concepts connect with each other.
- ... This should help in choosing the right statistical method.

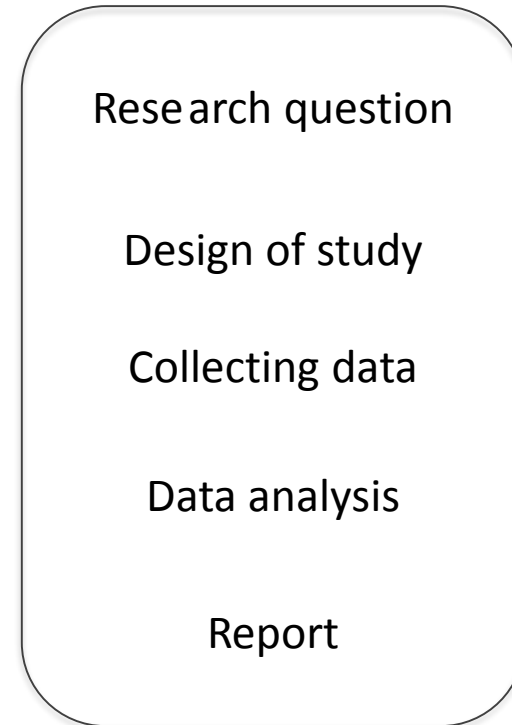
This presentation shows 10 tips that I consider the most important

# Why is statistics is needed?

- Statistics needed for **objective evaluation** of what is observed in clinical research
  - What the clinical data say
  - How certain we are of the message
  - How to assure data quality
  - Cost effectiveness of further studies
- Statistics as a **communication tool**
  - Present findings convincingly
  - Understand and evaluate the findings of others

What statistical design and data analysis method we need?

Answer: “This depend on many factors. The most important factor is Research question. Tell me what is your **research question?**”



General steps in a research project

# Top tip 1. Understand that what we measure on eye or patient is a *variable*

## *What is a variable?*

- It is something whose value can **vary** across subjects and within subjects e.g. when same subject measured repeatedly over time or on same visit
- E.g. BCVA is a variable
- Some variables can be named as **primary or secondary outcomes**

## *How is a variable measured?*

- E.g. How to measure visual acuity? Snellen Chart and Early Treatment Diabetic Retinopathy study Chart (ETDRS). No appropriate conversion exists.
- E.g. How to measure blood pressure? Can we measure it as dichotomised, e.g. as high and low?

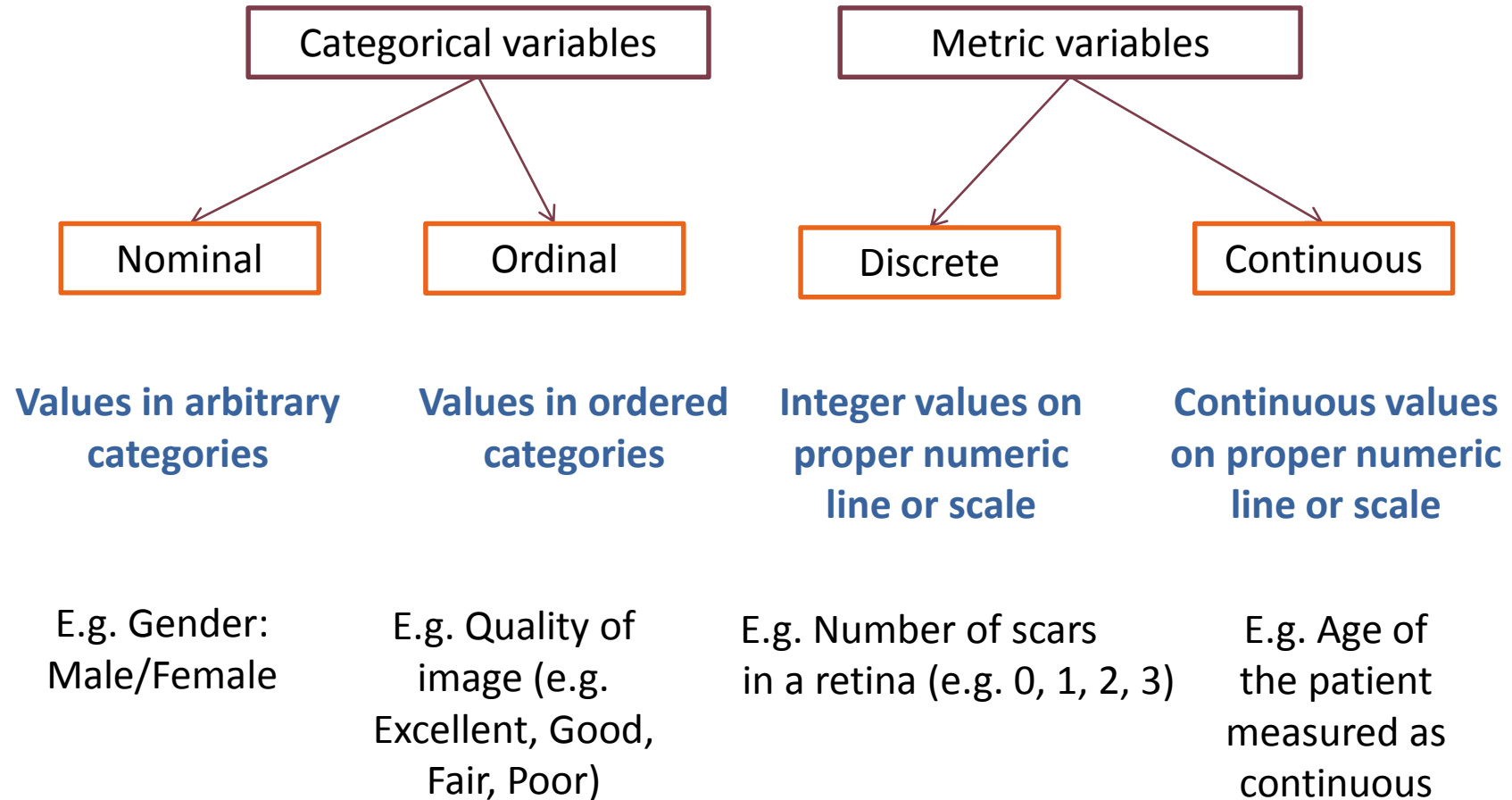
## **Data** are values you get when you measure a variable

- E.g. Age = 40.2, 40.5, 31.1, 51.2, 31.2 years
- Gender: Male and Female
- Quality of Fluorescein Angiography image: Excellent, Good, Fair, Poor

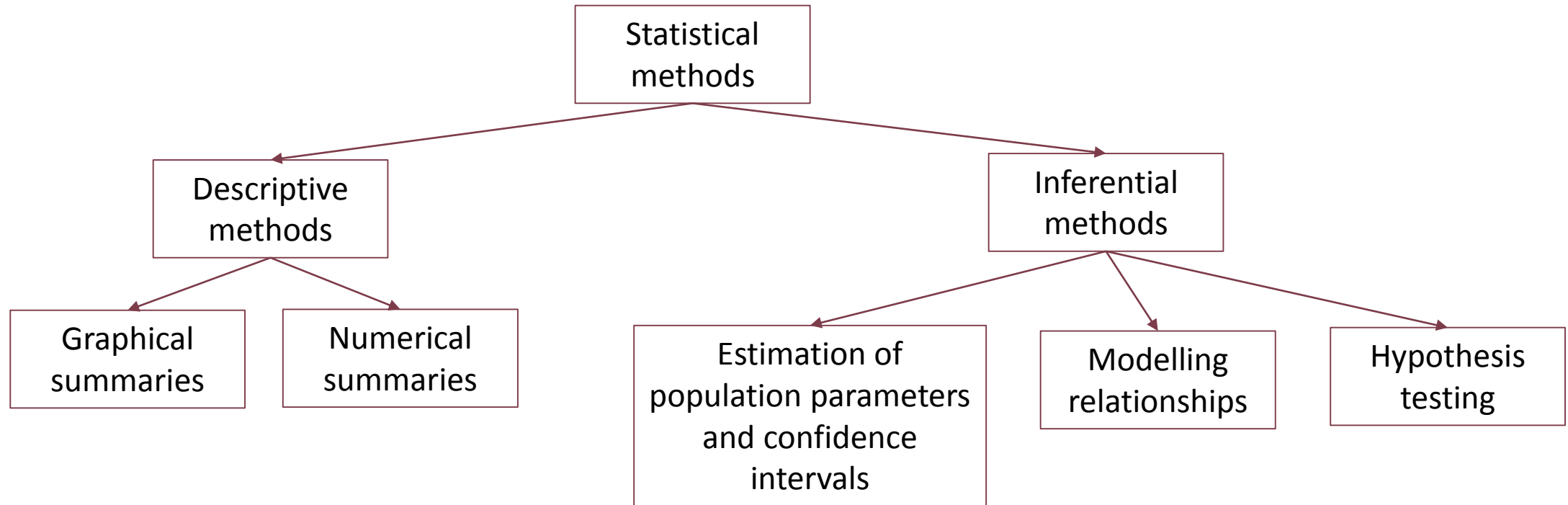
**Thing to know:** Often dichotomisation is not advised.

Cumberland PM, Czanner G, Bunce C, Dore C, Freemantle N, Garcia-Finana M. Ophthalmic statistics note: the perils of dichotomising continuous variables. *Br J Ophthalmol* 2014; 98:841-843.

# Types of variables



## Top tip 2. There are two broad categories of statistical methods



**Descriptive statistics** is the discipline of quantitatively describing the data.

**Inference** is the process of deducing properties of an underlying distribution by analysis of data.

**Thing to know:** If our study is to test a hypothesis, we still need to employ both descriptive and inferential statistical methods.

## Top tip 3. The descriptive statistical methods

### How to do a good *numerical* description of the data measured on continuous scale?

- If the distribution skewed - report median and quartiles
- If the distribution is symmetric - report mean and standard deviations

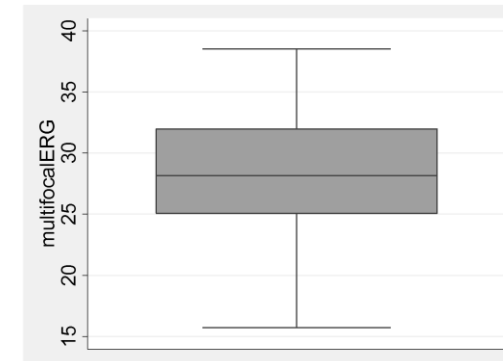
### How to do a useful *graphical* description of data?

- Histogram and boxplot for continuous variables
- Barcharts for nominal and ordinal variables
- Scatter plots to explore associations between continuous variables

### Why we need descriptive methods?

- Demographics tables for reports
- Quality assurance, e.g. outliers due typo errors
- May find new unexpected patterns or associations
- Explore the distribution of outcome variables, to support selection of inferential statistical methods (e.g. many methods require normal distribution)

Fig. Boxplot of mfERG central density in early DR (n=20)



**Thing to know:** Descriptive statistics show or summarize data in a meaningful way such that patterns might emerge from the data e.g. new unknown associations. Descriptive statistics do not, however, allow us to make conclusions beyond the data.



# Top tip 4. The inferential statistical methods

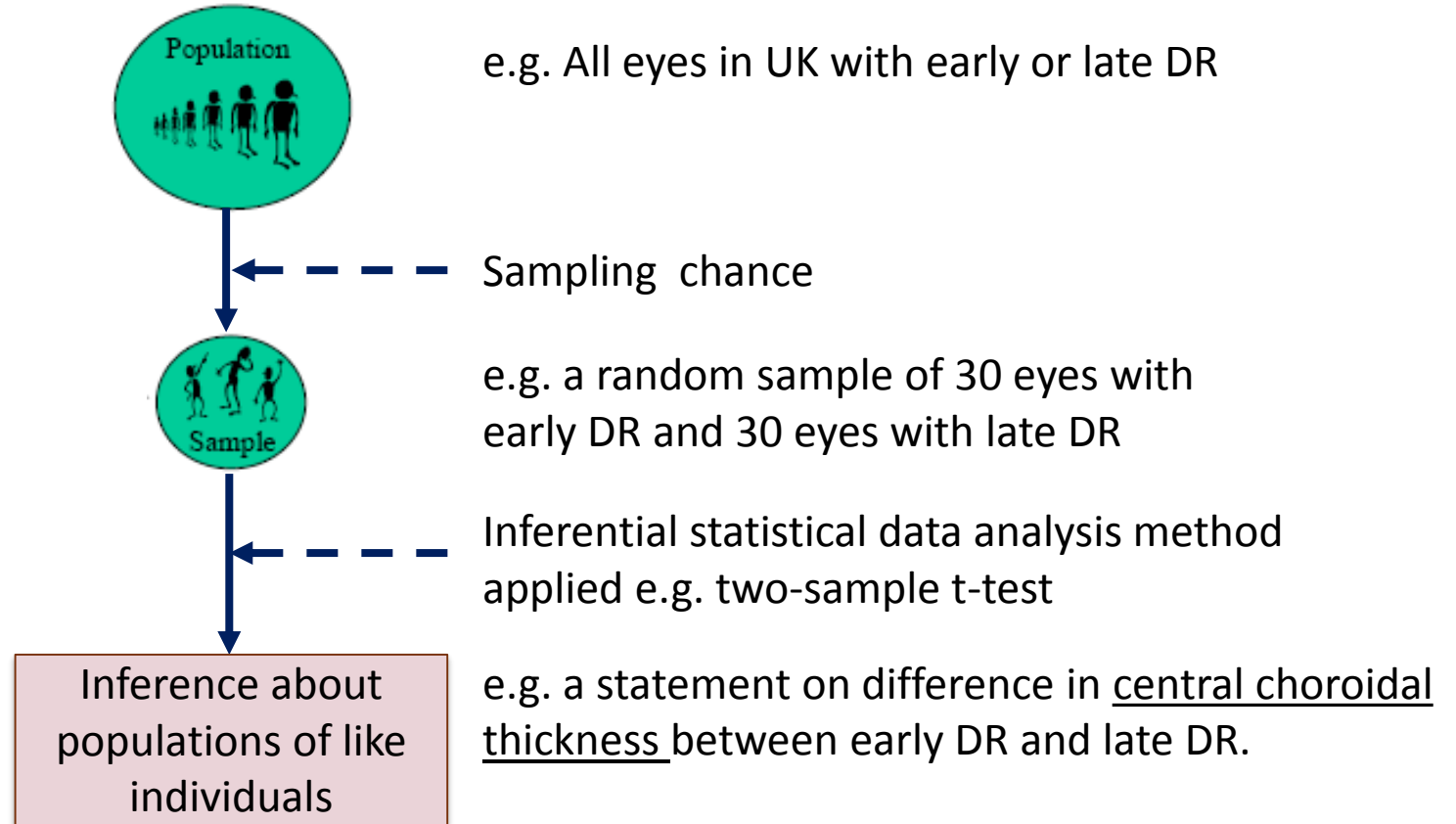
## The main principle

We use data collected on a sample to make **statistical inference** about the population of interest.

## The result of the inference is summarized in

- Confidence interval
- P-value

**EXAMPLE:** We are comparing mean central choroidal thickness between early and late DR. We recruited 20 early DR and 20 late DR eyes. In two-sample t-test the  $p$ -value=0.12. Does it mean that the thickness is same?



**Thing to know:** Absence of evidence is not evidence of absence.

## Example - Colour blindness

- We are interested in whether there is an association between colour blindness and gender.
- We asked 240 men and 260 women about color-blindness. The results of a survey are as follows:

	Normal colour vision	Colour blind	Total
Male	221	19	240
Female	254	6	260
Total	475	25	500

# Example - Colour blindness

In sample 8% males and 2% females are colour blind

Does this mean that women are at less risk of becoming colour blind than men?

We rewrite research question into null hypothesis

- $H_0$ : there is no association between colour blindness and gender

How to test the null hypothesis?

- We can use a method of comparison of proportions (or Chi-squared test of association or Fisher exact test – see slides with Top Tip 6)
- Results reported as Confidence Interval or P-value



## Confidence interval for the difference of two population proportions

When studying the difference between two population proportions, the difference between the two sample proportions,  $\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2$  can be used as an unbiased point estimator for the difference between the two population proportions,  $p_1 - p_2$ . This is used with the general formula:

estimator  $\pm$  (reliability coefficient)  $\times$  (standard error)

### Distribution

When the central limit theorem applies, the normal distribution is used to obtain confidence intervals. The standard error is estimated by the formula:

$$\sigma_{\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2} = \sqrt{\frac{\hat{p}_1(1 - \hat{p}_1)}{n_1} + \frac{\hat{p}_2(1 - \hat{p}_2)}{n_2}}$$

### Confidence interval

The  $100(1 - \alpha)$  percent confidence interval for  $p_1 - p_2$  is given by:

$$(\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2) \pm z_{(1-\alpha/2)} \sqrt{\frac{\hat{p}_1(1 - \hat{p}_1)}{n_1} + \frac{\hat{p}_2(1 - \hat{p}_2)}{n_2}}$$

- Interpretation of the interval**

The degree of confidence depends on the value of  $\alpha$ . When  $\alpha = .05$ , then we have a 95% confidence interval. We can then state the probabilistic and practical interpretations of the interval.

Probabilistic interpretation. We say that we are 95% confident that the difference between the two population proportions,  $p_1 - p_2$ , lies between the calculated limits since, in repeated sampling, about 95% of the intervals constructed this way would contain  $p_1 - p_2$ .

Practical interpretation. In a specific example, we would expect, with 95% confidence, to find the difference between the two population proportions between the two limits.

# Example - Colour blindness

- Confidence interval: range of plausible values for the “true” difference (usually use 95% certainty)
- Method of comparison of proportions
  - General formula (in large samples)

estimate  $\pm 1.96 \cdot$  standard error

95% CI for  $p_1 - p_2$  is (2%, 9%)

- Is there is significant difference in proportion of colour blindness between the 2 groups?

$\Rightarrow$  there is a significant difference in the proportion with colour blindness between the 2 groups at a 95% confidence level (*because value 0 is not in CI*)



# Top tip 5. Clinical and statistical significance are different concepts

## Statistical significance

- It rules out chance as an explanation for the observed difference of means
- Summarized by p-value

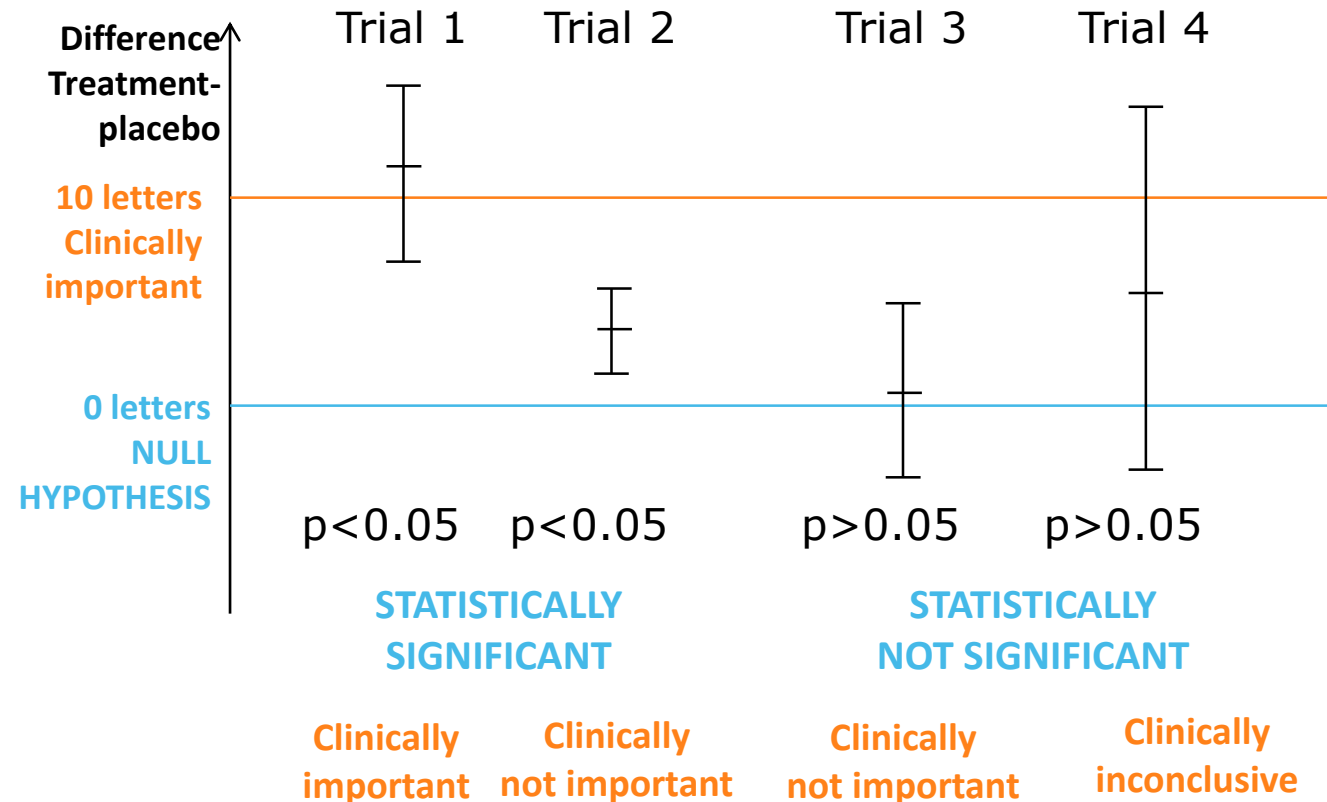
## Clinical relevance

- It tells if the observed difference is of clinical value
- Summarized by confidence interval

Kay R, 2014. *Statistical Thinking for Non-Statisticians in Drug Regulation*, Wiley Blackwell, 2nd edition.

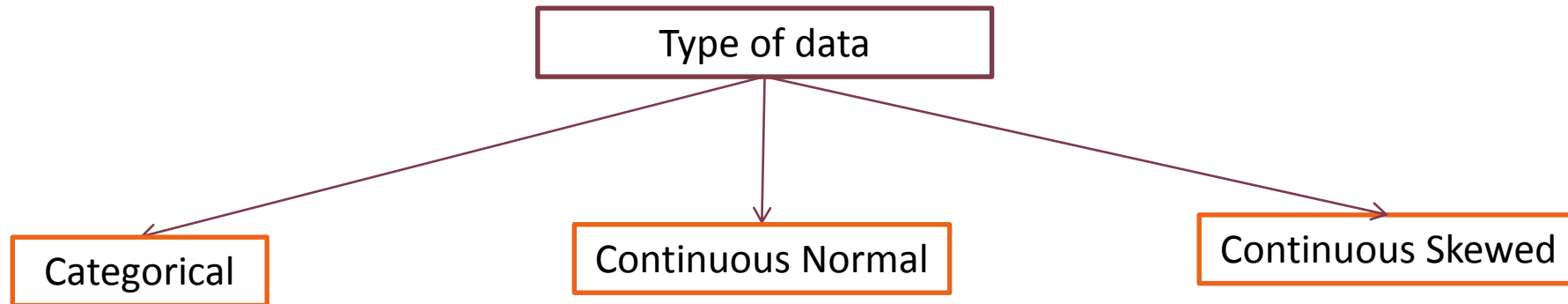
**Thing to know:** Presentation of p-values together with confidence intervals is good practice.

**Example:** In a collection of 4 placebo-controlled trials in BCVA a difference of 10 letters in terms of mean increase of visual acuity is to be considered of clinical importance; anything less is unimportant. The results are given in the figure below.



# Top tip 6. Statistical methods to compare groups with one variable

Comparing two groups (e.g. two treatments)



## Tests for differences, independent data:

Chi-square  $\chi^2$  test

Fisher's exact test

t-test

Mann-Whitney U test

## Tests for differences, non-independent (paired) data:

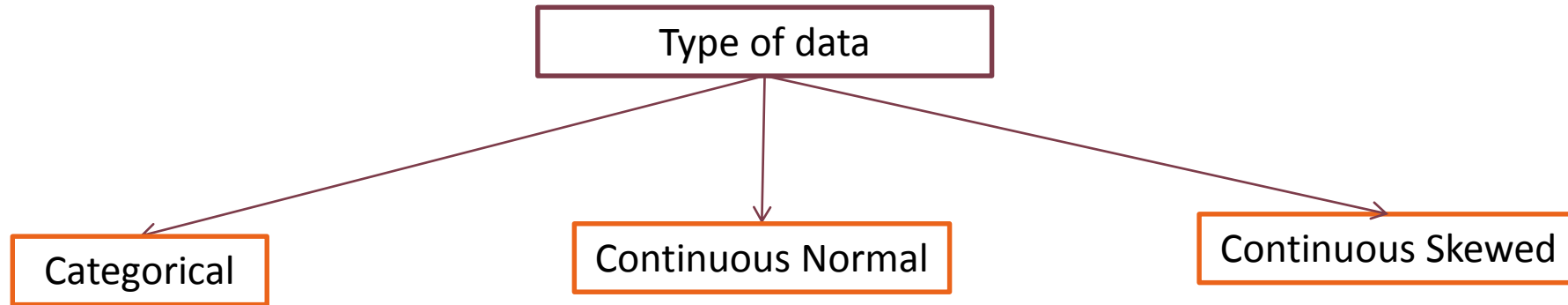
McNemar's test

Paired (single sample) t-test

Wilcoxon test

**Thing to know:** If continuous data are skewed then applying a transformation (*log* or *sqrt*) can make them Normal, in such case a t-test can be used which has stronger power (than a parametric test).

## Comparing three or more groups (e.g. multiple treatments)



### Tests for differences, independent data:

Compare two groups at a time. This leads to multiple comparisons.

#### One-way ANOVA

**Assumptions:** Normal distribution of data in each group; Independence of units of analysis; Equal variability in each group

#### Kruskal-Wallis test

**Thing to know:** Be aware of multiple comparison problem and seek proper adjustments.

Cipriani V, Quartilho A, Bunce C, Freemantle N, Dore C. Ophthalmic statistics note 7: multiple hypothesis testing-to adjust or not to adjust. Br J Ophthalmol 2015;99:1155-1157.



## Top tip 7. Choosing the right statistical inferential method

### Several factors to consider

- **Research question or objectives** of the analysis
  - e.g. Estimating prevalence, comparison of groups, instruments comparisons, estimate associations/risk factors, prediction of treatment failure?
- **Type of data**
  - E.g. how the data are measured (nominal, ordinal, scale, count)
- **Design paired or independent**
  - Data are **independent** if each patient was given only one treatment
  - Data are **paired** if each patient was given both treatments (cross-over design)
  - If BCVA of an eye measured at two time points
- **Distribution of the data**
  - i.e. is it **symmetric** or **skewed**? *Is it Normal?*



### Example:

We want to compare IOP for female and male. We collected IOP on one eye per patient, 20 eyes in each gender group. What statistical method to choose?

### Answer:

**Objective:** compare means in two groups

**Type of data:** continuous

**Design:** independent

**Distribution:** needs to be checked with measured IOP data in each group.

**What data analysis method to use?**

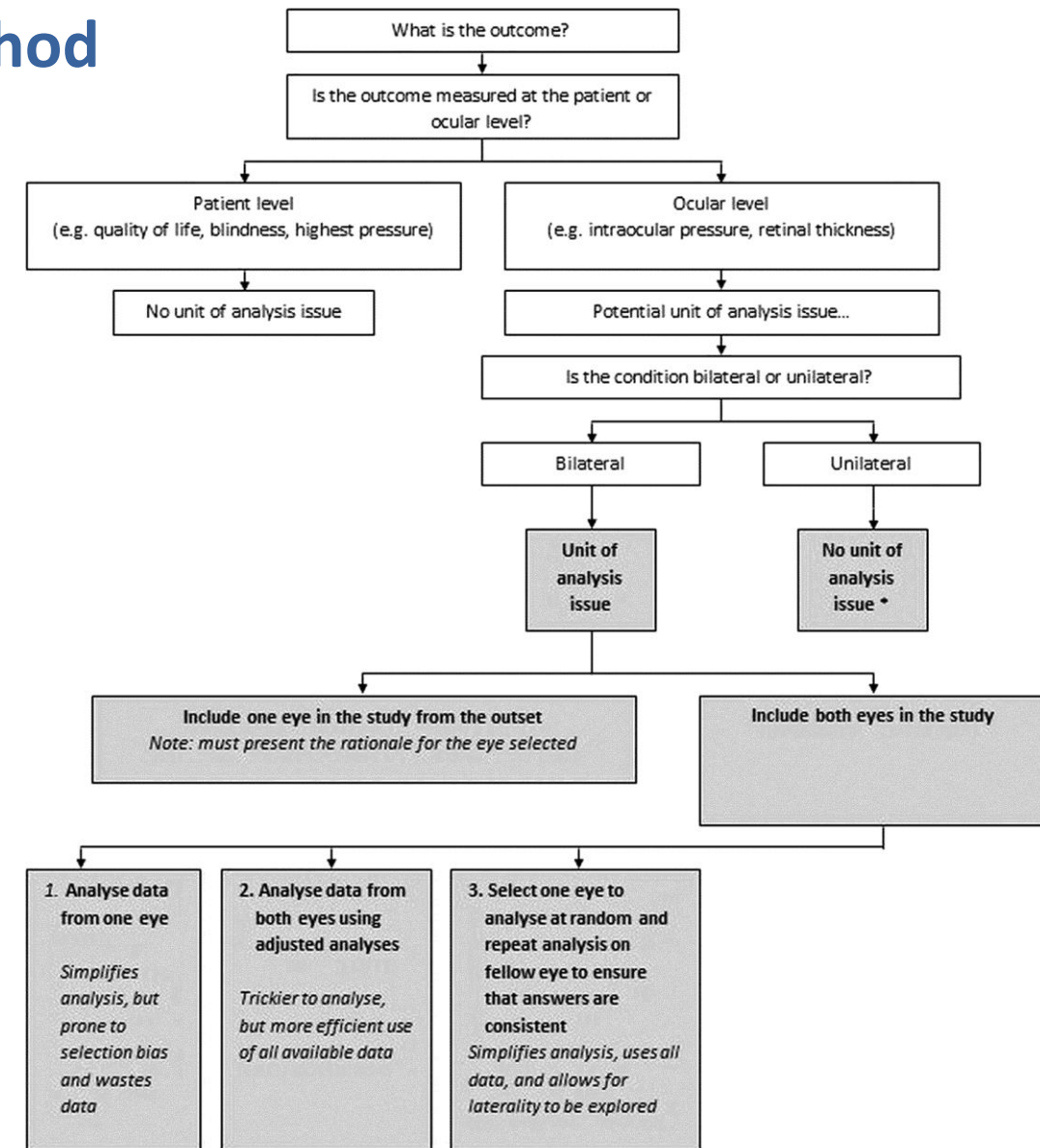
We may use two-sample t-test if the histograms of IOP confirm normality of data

**Thing to know:** Always check if the *assumptions* of the statistical method are *satisfied*. If the assumptions are violated, then the estimates, confidence intervals and p-values can not be trusted.

# Top tip 8. Choice of inferential statistical method depends on *unit of analysis*

- **Eyes** exist in **patients**,
  - and typically patients have **two** eyes.
- Challenge for the study design
  - Do we use one eye?
  - Or both?
- Challenge for analysis
  - Measurements from two eyes of same patient may be **correlated** and hence carry less information than two eyes from two different patients; and standard data analysis methods are not appropriate.
- If eye is the unit of analysis
  - Then correct statistical method to analyse your data depends on whether you did measurements from both eyes or just one eye.

**Thing to know:** Always report if the unit of your analysis is eye or patient.



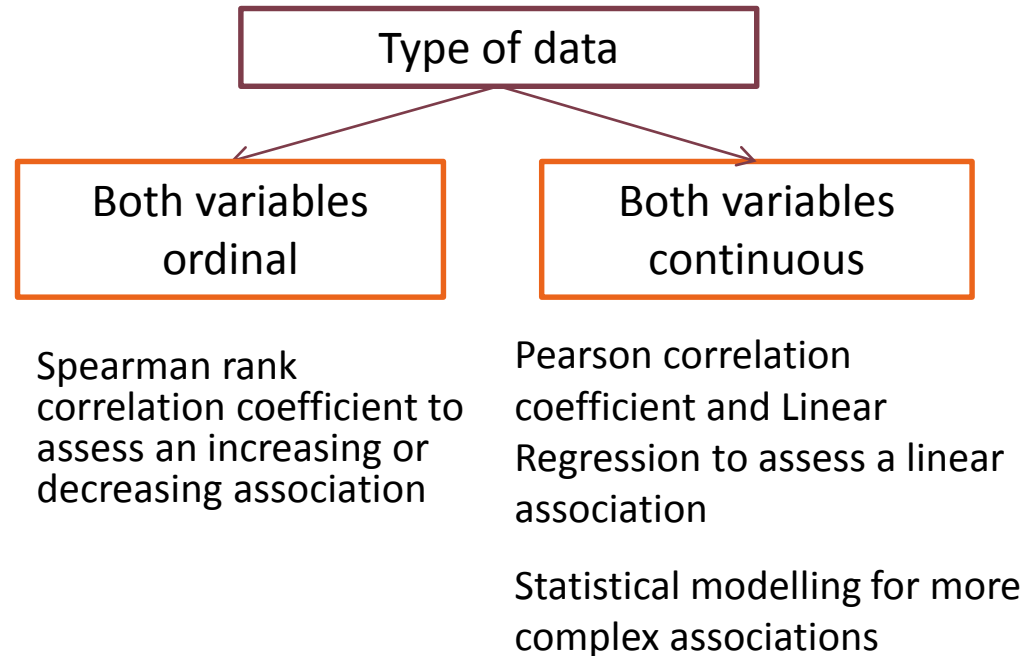
\*unless repeat measures on or within an eye

Bunce C, Patel KV, Xing W, Freemantle N, Dore CJ, Ophthalmic statistics note 1: unit of analysis, *Br J Ophthalmol* 2014;98: 408-412.

# Top tip 9. Statistical methods for association between two variables

## Association

- It is a synonym for **dependence** or **relation** (e.g. relation between age and choroidal thickness on OCT)
- It is a very general relationship: one variable **provides information** about another.
- One particular type of association is a linear association, also called **correlation**.



Associated



Not associated



Correlated



**Things to know:** **1.** High correlation or association does **not** mean causation. **2.** Be aware of **confounders** when assessing the correlation. If confounders not taken into account, then paradoxical correlations values may arise. **3.** When assessing agreement between two measurement methods, the correlation should **not** be used.

# Top tip 10. Statistical methods for *relation between several variables*

These are more advanced statistical methods used in ophthalmic clinical research:

- Called “**statistical modelling**”, or “**multivariate modelling**”
- **Most commonly used methods**
  - One –way, Two-way ANOVA
  - ANCOVA
  - Simple and Multiple linear regression
  - Logistic regression
  - Survival models
  - Linear and nonlinear mixed models, also called “hierarchical models”
- **Why to use them? Can allow to:**
  - adjust for confounders
  - more complex (than linear) relationships
  - non Normal outcome
  - better utilisation of missing data
  - imbalanced designs...

## Main principle

Characterise the relation between outcome and predictors via a model. The model is fitted to the data. E.g.

$$\text{BCVA} = 50 - 8 \text{ Diabetes} - 0.4 \text{ Age} + \text{Error}$$

Outcome

Predictors (or Covariates)

Assumptions of the model are checked

Use the model:

- To answer research questions  
E.g. Effect of diabetes on BCVA?
- To make predictions for individual patients (or eyes)  
E.g. BCVA at age 41 yrs in diabetes

**Thing to know:** More sophisticated methods can answer same research questions as simple methods (such as t-test), while adjusting for the effect of confounders.

# Summary

- The best practice is to do analysis in stages:
  - **Stage 1. Do descriptive summaries of data**
    - Numerical and graphical summaries
    - E.g. two histograms of BCVA: one for each Diabetes group
  - **Stage 2. Main data analyses**
    - **In association studies** we apply methods of statistical inference
      - Adjust for confounders e.g. linear regression of BCVA with Diabetes as main risk factor while adjusting for age
      - Some research communities require that you also report unadjusted inference e.g. BCVA vs diabetes without adjusting for age
    - **In prediction or discrimination studies** we apply relevant data methods
    - **In methods of measurement comparison** studies we use relevant methods.
      - E.g. Bland-Altman plot

# Discussion

- **Good design of the study is important**
  - Statistical data analysis (inference) methods however sophisticated can not “rescue” a poor study design
- **Choice of statistical inferential methods**
  - It is a complex task
  - Decision need to be done early at designing stage, and described in the statistical analysis plan
- **There are other statistical methods not mentioned here**
  - Bayesian statistical methods, Methods for genetics data
  - Multivariate statistical methods (Principal factor analysis, Cluster analysis, Factor analysis)
  - Statistical methods for imaging data ... and many more!

# Recommended reading

## Books

- *Practical statistics for medical research* by Douglas G. Altman [A general and intermediate level book.]
- *Medical statistics from scratch* by David Bowers [A perhaps more readable intermediate level book.]
- *Statistical Thinking for Non-Statisticians in Drug Regulation*, Kay R, 2014. Wiley Blackwell, 2nd edition. [Very thorough intermediate level book.]

## Journals' with series on how to do statistics in clinical research

- BJO has ***Ophthalmic Statistics Notes*** (<http://www.brcophthalmology.org/ophthalmic-statistics-group-osg>)
- American Journal of Ophthalmology has ***Series on Statistics***
- British Medical Journal has series ***Statistics Notes***

## Guide on how to do clinical research in ophthalmology

- *Clinical Research. A primer for Ophthalmologists*. International Council of Ophthalmology. February 2009, <http://www.icoph.org>

## Nature notes

- <http://www.nature.com/collections/qghhqm/>

## BMJ resources

<http://www.bmj.com/about-bmj/resources-readers/publications/statistics-square-one/13-study-design-and-choosing-statisti>

Thank you for listening







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