

Introduction Meta-analysis

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Introduction to Meta-Analysis Part I: Forest Plot & Effect Measures

What is Meta-analysis?

- *“Meta-analysis – the statistical combination of results from two or more separate studies – is the most commonly used statistical technique. Cochrane review writing software (RevMan) can perform a variety of meta-analyses, but it must be stressed that meta-analysis is not appropriate in all Cochrane reviews”* extracted from Section 9.1.2 Cochrane Handbook of Systematic Reviews of Interventions.

What is Meta-analysis?

- Study A

➤ SBP ↓ 10 mm Hg



- Study B

➤ SBP ↓ 5 mm Hg

- Study A & B

➤ SBP ↓ 7.5 mm Hg ???

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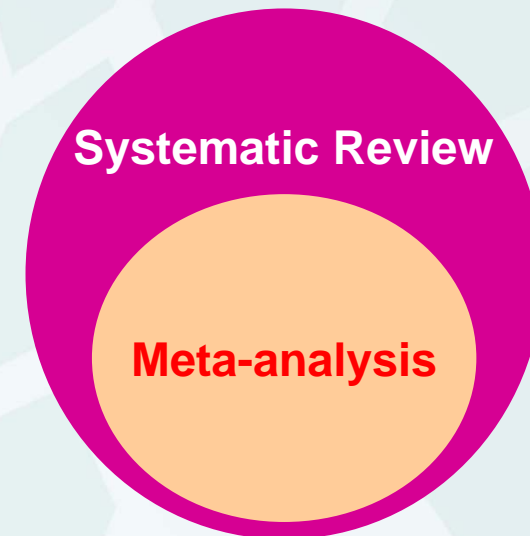


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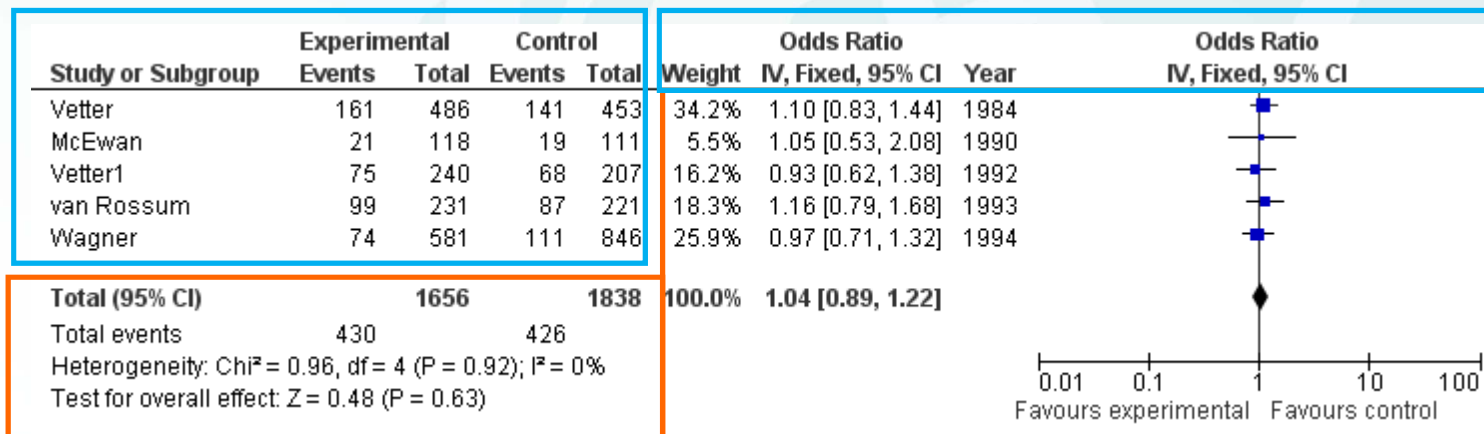
What is Meta-analysis?

- Meta-analysis = Systematic review?
- A systematic review may or may not include meta-analysis to combine the study results



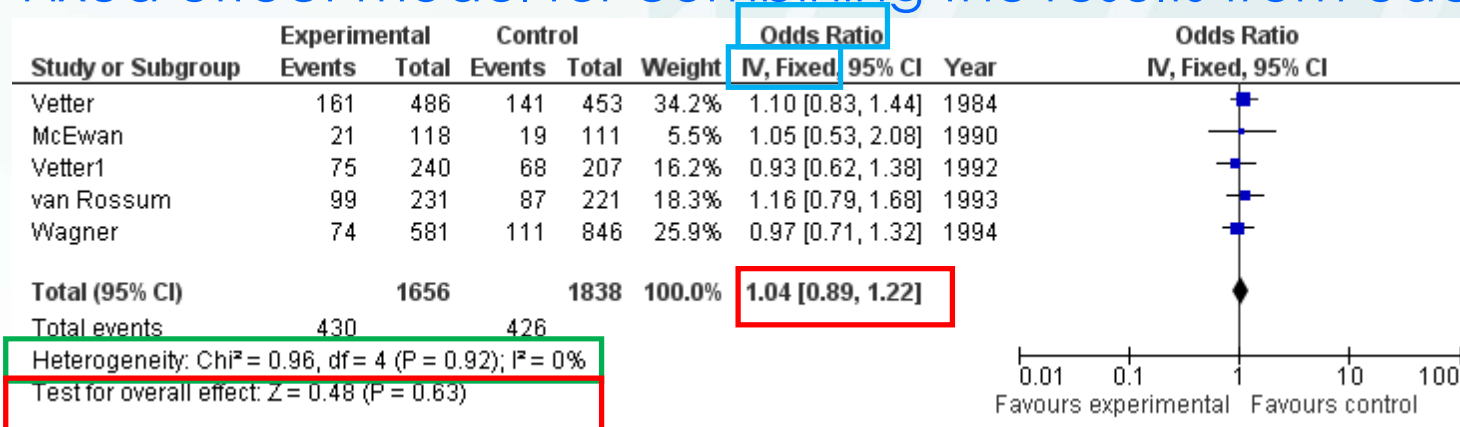
What is Meta-analysis?

- Results of meta-analysis is usually summarized in a forest plot
- Compare the effectiveness of *including a visual screening as part of multiphasic screening package* versus *standard care* on detecting *eye problems of elderly* (BMJ 1998; 316: 660-3)



What is Meta-analysis?

- Odds ratio – the effect measure selected by the reviewer
- IV – Inversed Variance method as the weighting scheme
- Fixed – Fixed effect model for combining the results from each study



- The combined odds ratio, its 95% confidence interval, and test for significant
- Heterogeneity among the studies

What is Meta-analysis?

- Extract appropriate data from individual study, from the table, text or even by contacting the authors

$581 * 0.128 = 74$

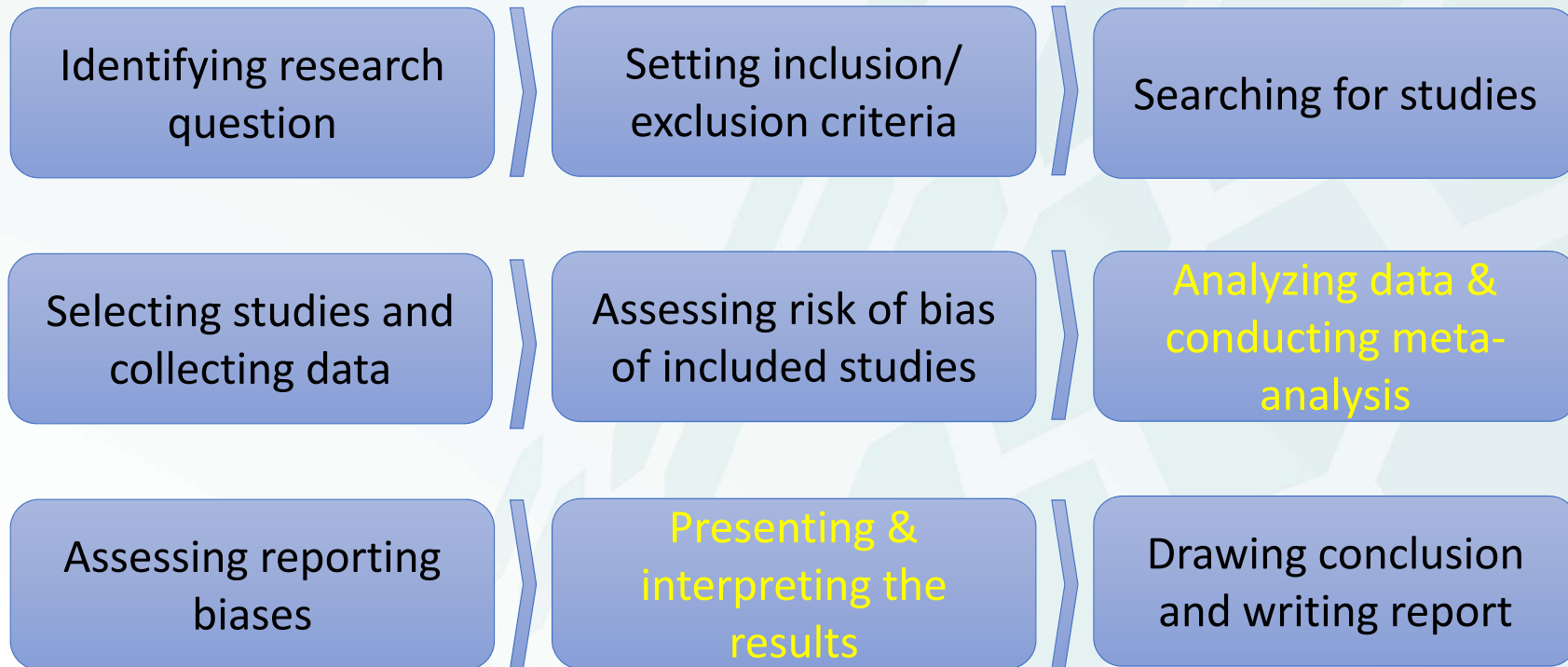
TABLE 5—Prevalence of Health Behaviors, by Treatment Group at 1 and 2 Years of Follow-Up

| Health Behavior | Treatment Group | | |
|--|-----------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| | Intervention | Visit Only | Usual Care |
| Exercise | | | |
| Exercise > 15 minutes 3 times/week, % | | | |
| Year 1 | 37.1 | 33.1 | 34.1 |
| Year 2 | 34.9 | 30.4 | 30.5 |
| Number of blocks walked per week, mean | | | |
| Year 1 | 53.3 | 47.3 | 46.4 |
| Year 2 | 52.2 | 47.7 | 45.8 |
| Alcohol use: high-risk drinking, % | | | |
| Year 1 | 25.9 | 23.8 | 24.1 |
| Year 2 | 22.6 | 23.1 | 21.4 |
| Home safety: home inspection, % | | | |
| Year 1 | 37.0 | 26.3 ^a | 24.2 ^a |
| Year 2 | 31.3 | 25.5 | 24.1 ^a |
| Prescription drug use: taking high-risk drug, % | | | |
| Year 1 | 59.2 | 53.6 | 54.7 |
| Year 2 | 59.7 | 58.4 | 58.8 |
| Hearing: hearing impairment, % | | | |
| Year 1 | 7.8 | 7.0 | 7.2 |
| Year 2 | 6.6 | 5.9 | 7.2 |
| Vision: uncorrected vision problem, % | | | |
| Year 1 | 12.4 | 13.0 | 9.8 |
| Year 2 | 12.8 | 13.6 | 12.9 |

^aChi square test (1 df) comparing usual care or visit groups with intervention group; significant difference at $P \leq .01$.

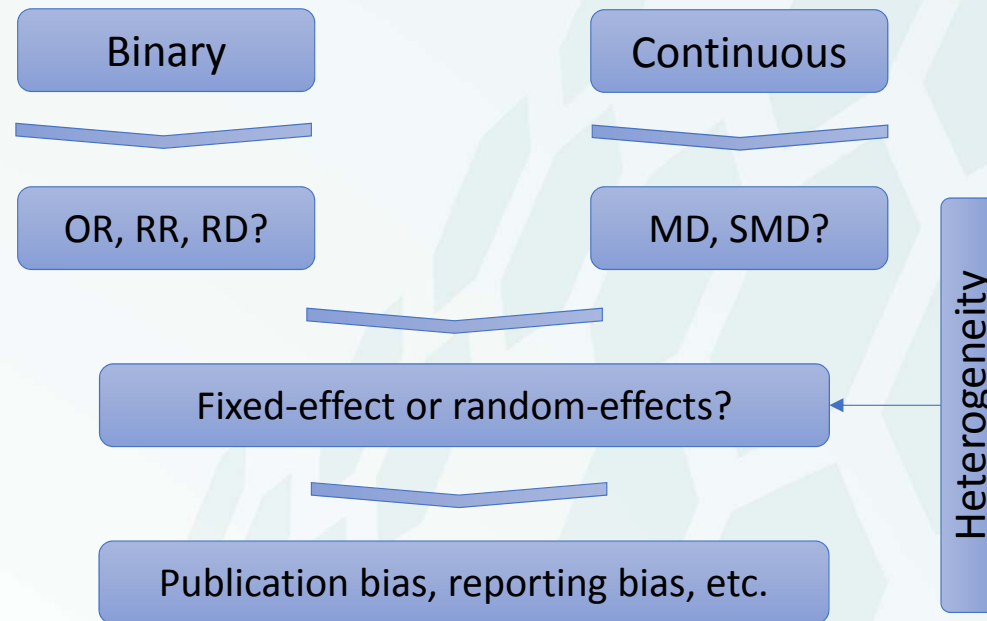
Reference: Wagner E H, LaCroix A Z, Grothaus L, Leveille S G, Hecht J A, Artz K, et al. Preventing disability and falls in older adults: a randomised controlled trial. Am J Public Health 1994;84: 1800-6.

Procedure of Conducting a Systematic Review





Steps in conducting a meta-analysis



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Binary and Continuous Variables

- Binary variables – Observations that occur in one of two possible states, often labelled zero and one.
- E.g., “death/ alive” , “improved/not improved”

- Continuous variables – A variable that is not restricted to particular values (other than limited by the accuracy of the measuring instrument).
- E.g., Blood pressure, reaction time, IQ. Equal size intervals on different parts of the scale are assumed.

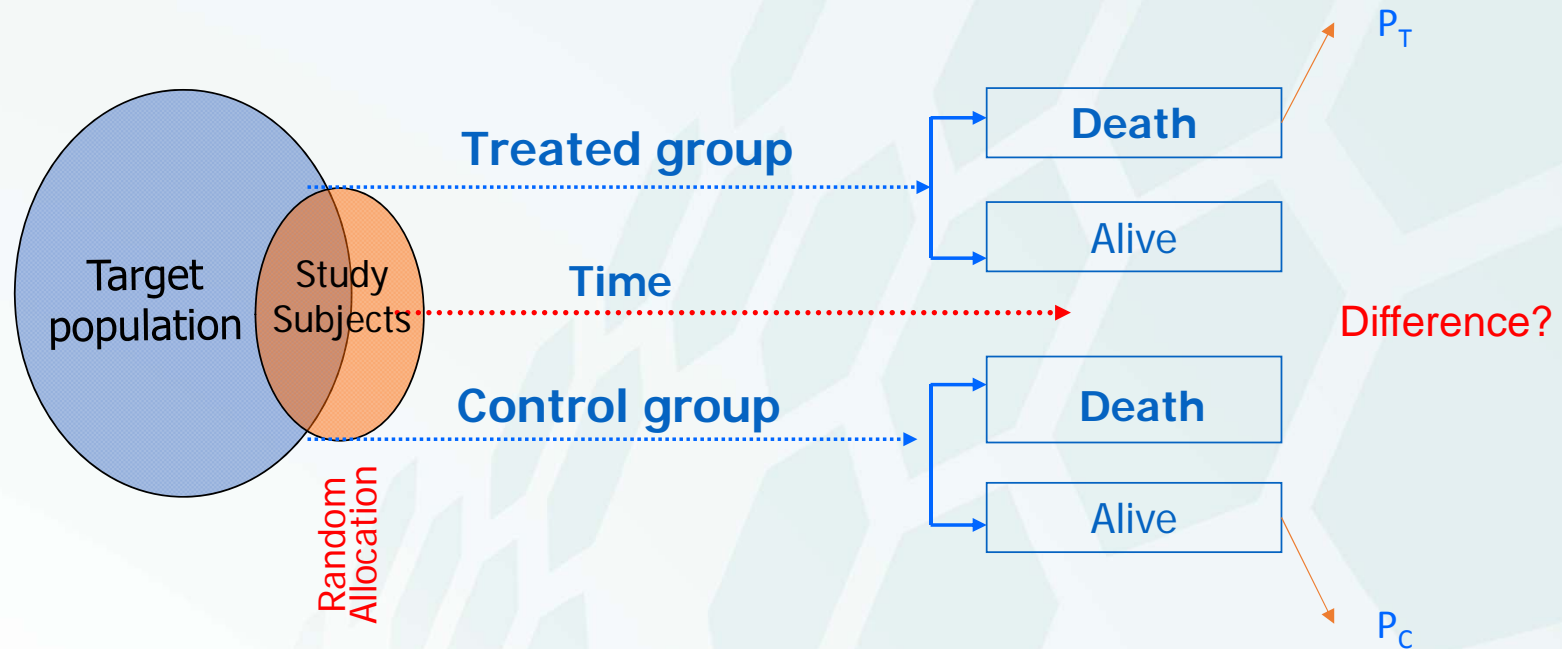
Measuring Binary Variable

- How many subjects die from the disease?



- 90 is the number of events & 120 is the total number of subjects
- $P=0.75$ is the mortality rate (or called risk of the disease)

Effect Measures for Binary Variable



- Risk of the disease in the treatment group (P_T) and risk of the disease in the control group (P_C)

Effect Measures for Binary Variable

- Aim: to examine the difference between P_T and P_C
- Compare the magnitude of P_T and P_C . For example, if the outcome is mortality
- $P_T \ll P_C \rightarrow$ Intervention is effective
- $P_T \sim P_C \rightarrow$ Intervention is not effective
- $P_T \gg P_C \rightarrow$ Intervention is harmful

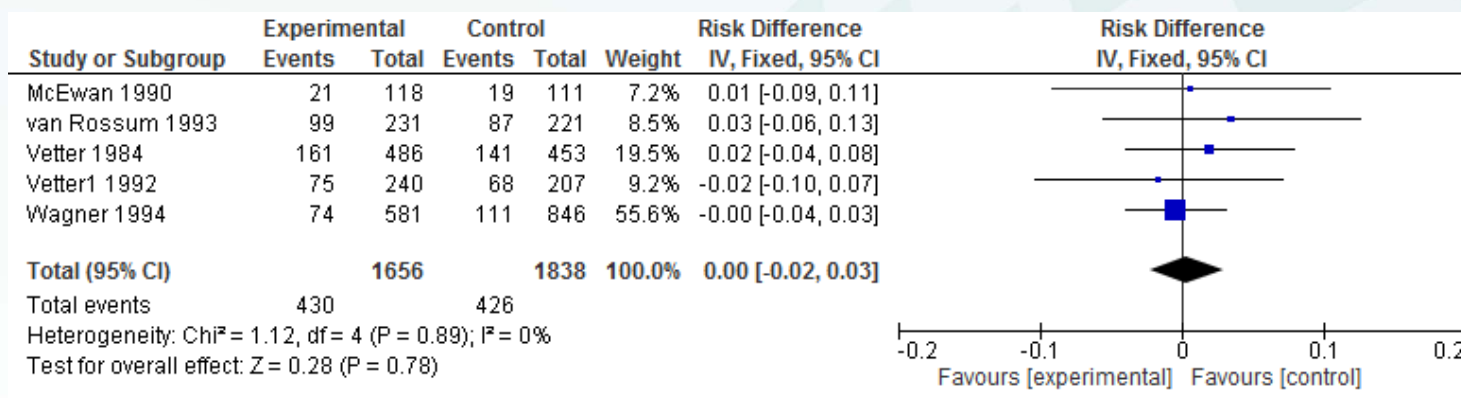
Effect Measures for Binary Variable

- 3 commonly used effect measures (i) Risk Difference, (ii) Risk Ratio and (iii) Odds Ratio
- Risk Difference (RD) = $P_T - P_C$
- Using Wanger's data:
- $P_T = 74/581 = 0.127$; $P_C = 111/846 = 0.131$
- $RD = P_T - P_C = -0.004$
- So $RD < 0$ (i.e. $P_T < P_C$), can we conclude control group is more effective in detecting eye problem among elderly?

| Study or Subgroup | Experimental | | Control | |
|--|--------------|-------------|---------|-------------|
| | Events | Total | Events | Total |
| Vetter | 161 | 486 | 141 | 453 |
| McEwan | 21 | 118 | 19 | 111 |
| Vetter1 | 75 | 240 | 68 | 207 |
| van Rossum | 99 | 231 | 87 | 221 |
| Wagner | 74 | 581 | 111 | 846 |
| Total (95% CI) | | 1656 | | 1838 |
| Total events | 430 | | 426 | |
| Heterogeneity: $\text{Chi}^2 = 0.96$, $\text{df} = 4$ ($P = 0.92$); $I^2 = 0\%$ | | | | |
| Test for overall effect: $Z = 0.48$ ($P = 0.63$) | | | | |

Effect Measures for Binary Variable

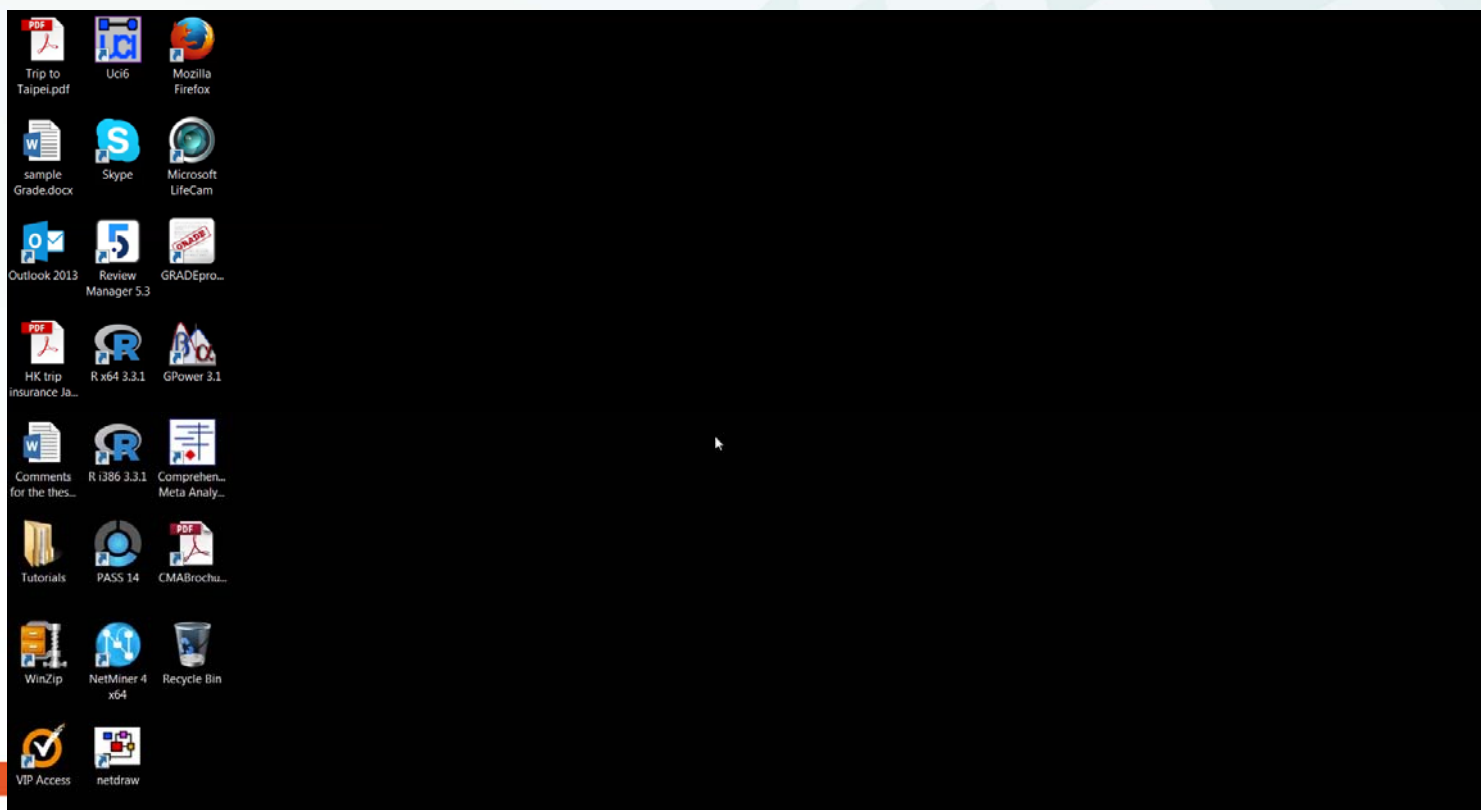
- Following are the RD and its 95% confidence intervals for the trials in the visual screening meta-analysis:



- Demonstration of data-entry for Review Manager (can download at <http://community.cochrane.org/tools/review-production-tools/revman-5/revman-5-download>)

Effect Measures for Binary Variable

- McEwan (1990), 21 out of 118 in treatment group, 19 out of 111 in control group



Effect Measures for Binary Variable

- 3 commonly used effect measures (i) Risk Difference, (ii) Risk Ratio and (iii) Odds Ratio
- Risk Ratio (RR) = P_T / P_C
- Using Wanger's data:
- $P_T = 74/581 = 0.127$; $P_C = 111/846 = 0.131$
- $RR = 0.969$
- So $RR < 1$ (i.e. $P_T < P_C$)

| Study or Subgroup | Experimental | | Control | |
|--|--------------|-------------|---------|-------------|
| | Events | Total | Events | Total |
| Vetter | 161 | 486 | 141 | 453 |
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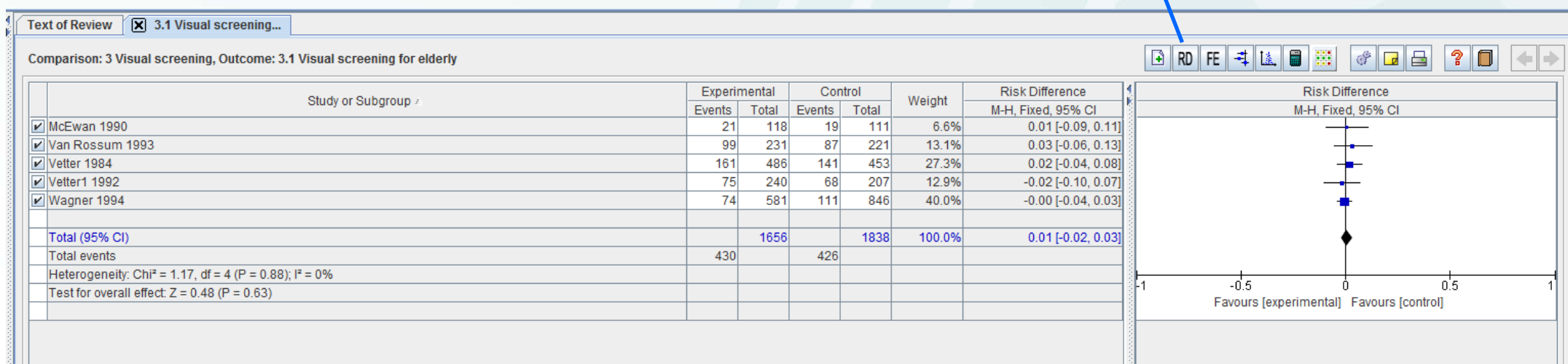
Effect Measures for Binary Variable

- 3 commonly used effect measures (i) Risk Difference, (ii) Risk Ratio and (iii) Odds Ratio
- Odds Ratio (OR) = $P_T (1 - P_C) / [P_C (1 - P_T)]$
- Using Wanger's data:
- $P_T = 74/581 = 0.127$; $P_C = 111/846 = 0.131$
- OR = 0.965
- So OR < 1 (i.e. $P_T < P_C$)

| Study or Subgroup | Experimental | | Control | |
|--|--------------|-------------|---------|-------------|
| | Events | Total | Events | Total |
| Vetter | 161 | 486 | 141 | 453 |
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| Total (95% CI) | | 1656 | | 1838 |
| Total events | 430 | | 426 | |
| Heterogeneity: Chi ² = 0.96, df = 4 (P = 0.92); I ² = 0% | | | | |
| Test for overall effect: Z = 0.48 (P = 0.63) | | | | |

Effect Measures for Binary Variable

- Changing the effect measure by simply clicking “**RD**”, it will shift between RD, RR and OR



Which Effect Measure for Binary Variable?

- RR & OR, relative measures, relatively insensitive to difference in control event (more homogeneous)
- RD, absolute measure, more sensitive to baseline control (more heterogeneous)
- OR (46%) and RR (46%) are more common than RD (1%)

Papageorgiou SN, Tsiranidou E, Antonoglou GN, Deschner J4, Jäger A. Choice of effect measure for meta-analyses of dichotomous outcomes influenced the identified heterogeneity and direction of small-study effects. *J Clin Epidemiol.* 2015 May;68(5):534-41.

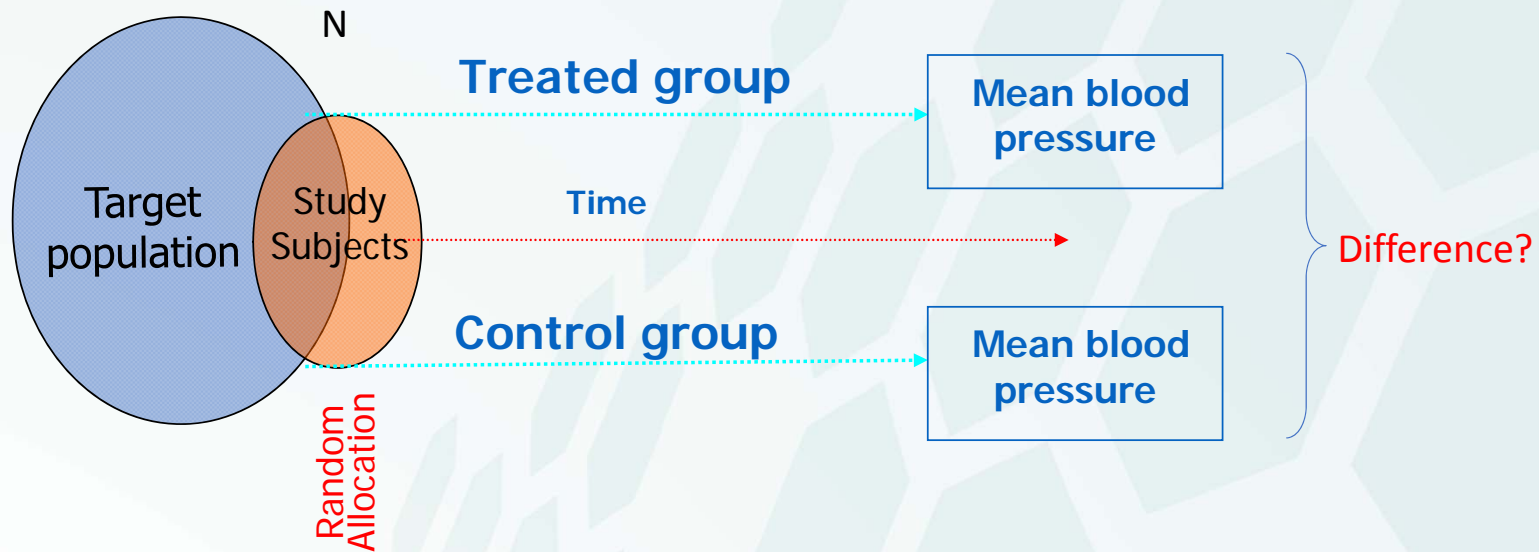
Continuous Variables

- What is the systolic blood pressure of the 50 patients?

| | | | | | | | | | |
|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| 123 | 92 | 103 | 108 | 94 | 135 | 112 | 94 | 135 | 99 |
| 135 | 99 | 134 | 123 | 154 | 126 | 130 | 153 | 98 | 143 |
| 86 | 133 | 99 | 121 | 152 | 104 | 93 | 95 | 132 | 108 |
| 143 | 154 | 112 | 115 | 88 | 98 | 108 | 146 | 133 | 120 |
| 151 | 142 | 100 | 108 | 141 | 110 | 129 | 96 | 144 | 107 |

- The mean systolic blood pressure of the 50 patients is 119.2 mm Hg with standard deviation 20.5 mm Hg
- Mean is the sum of the data divided by the total number of subjects

Continuous Variables



- Mean in the treatment group (\bar{X}_T) and mean in the control group (\bar{X}_C)



Effect Measures for Continuous Variable

- Mean Difference (MD) is the difference between the mean of the outcome in the treatment and the control group, i.e., $\bar{X}_T - \bar{X}_C$

Table II. Specialist care for stroke patients from nine studies: comparing specialist multidisciplinary team care for managing stroke inpatients with routine management in general medical wards. Source: reference 2

| Source | Specialist care | | | Routine management | | |
|-----------------------|-----------------|-------------|------|--------------------|-------------|------|
| | <i>N</i> | Mean LOS | SD | <i>N</i> | Mean LOS | SD |
| 1. Edinburgh | 155 | 55.0 | 47.0 | 156 | 75.0 | 64.0 |
| 2. Orpington-Mild | 31 | 27.0 | 7.0 | 32 | 29.0 | 4.0 |
| 3. Orpington-Moderate | 75 | 64.0 | 17.0 | 71 | 119.0 | 29.0 |
| 4. Orpington-Severe | 18 | 66.0 | 20.0 | 18 | 137.0 | 48.0 |
| 5. Montreal-Home | 8 | 14.0 | 8.0 | 13 | 18.0 | 11.0 |
| 6. Montreal-Transfer | 57 | 19.0 | 7.0 | 52 | 18.0 | 4.0 |
| 7. Newcastle 1993 | 34 | 52.0 | 45.0 | 33 | 41.0 | 34.0 |
| 8. Umea 1985 | 110 | 21.0 | 16.0 | 183 | 31.0 | 27.0 |
| 9. Uppsala 1982 | 60 | 30.0 | 27.0 | 52 | 23.0 | 20.0 |
| Total | 548 | | | 610 | | |

LOS = length of stay measured in days; SD = standard deviation.



Effect Measures for Continuous Variable

- Mean Difference (MD) = 55 - 75 = -20
- Variance of MD can be computed by:

$$s_p^2 = \frac{(155-1)47^2 + (156-1)64^2}{155+156-2} = 3156$$

$$SE = \sqrt{2055\left(\frac{1}{155} + \frac{1}{156}\right)} = 6.37$$

- 95% C.I. for MD = (-20 - 1.96 × 6.37, -20 + 1.96 × 6.37) = (-32.49, -7.51)

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Effect Measures for Continuous Variable

- Standardize Mean Difference (SMD) = $\frac{MD}{S_p} = \frac{55-75}{\sqrt{3156}} = -0.356$
- Variance of SMD can be computed by:

$$V_d = \frac{n_1 + n_2}{n_1 \times n_2} + \frac{SMD^2}{2 \times (n_1 + n_2)} = \frac{155 + 156}{155 * 156} + \frac{-0.36^2}{2(155 + 156)}$$

$$= 0.01286 + 0.000208 = 0.01307$$

$$SE = \sqrt{0.01307} = 0.1143$$

- 95% C.I. for MD = $(-0.356 - 1.96 \times 0.1143, -0.356 + 1.96 \times 0.1143) = (-0.580, -0.132)$

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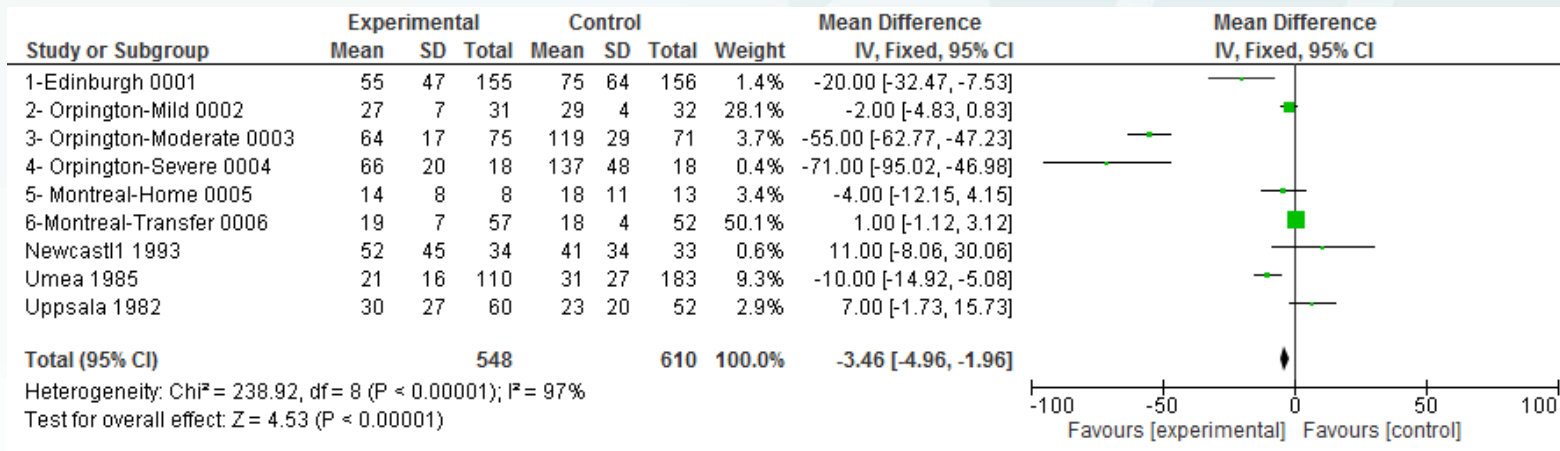


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Effect Measures for Continuous Variable





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Which Effect Measure for Continuous Variable?

- Mean difference is used when all the studies in meta-analysis use the same scale/ instrument as measure.
- If studies in the meta-analysis use different instruments (such as different psychological or educational test) to assess the outcome, then the scale of measurement will differ from study to study and it would not meaningful to combine raw mean difference.

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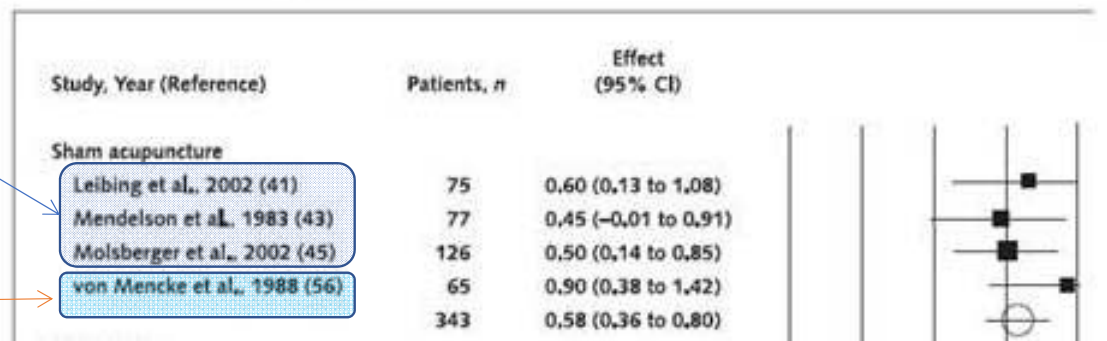
Which Effect Measure for Continuous Variable?

- Examine the effect of sham acupuncture on low back pain*

Figure 1. Short-term effects of acupuncture on pain.

Standard VAS

Author defined score



Reference: Manheimer E, White A, Berman B, Forys K, Ernst E. Meta-analysis: Acupuncture for low back pain. *Ann Int Med* 2005; 142: 651-663.



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Part II: Heterogeneity, Fixed- & Random-effects models



Weighted Average in Meta-analysis

- Average (Mean) across studies



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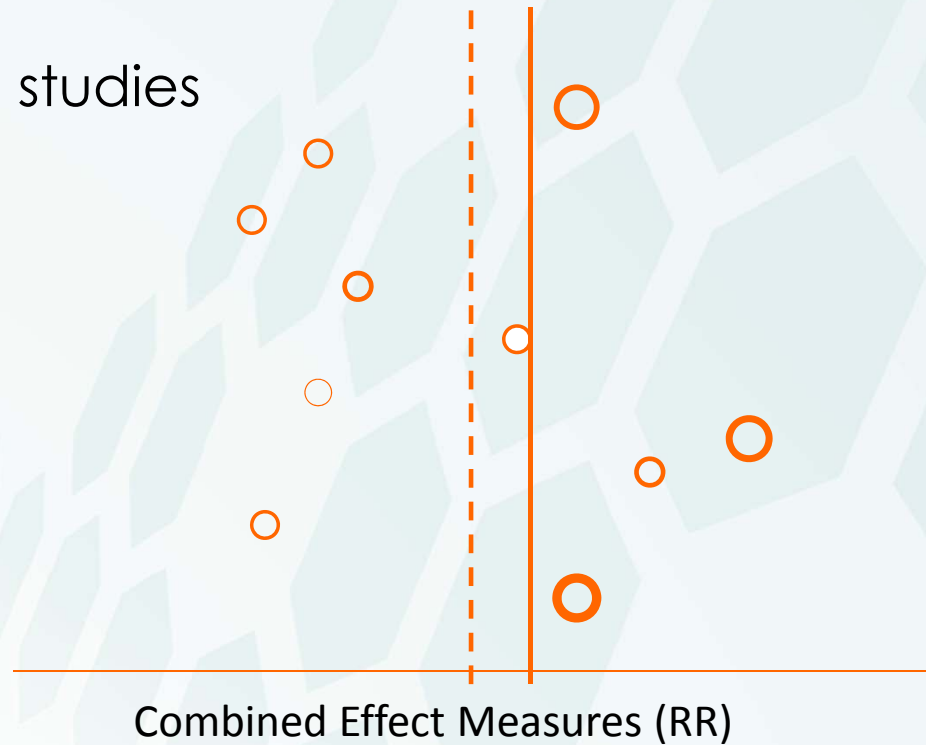


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Weighted Average in Meta-analysis

- Average (Mean) across studies



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Weighted Average in Meta-analysis

- Reasons of using weighted average
 - Trials differ in their closeness to the truth
 - 'Weights' according to the importance of variables are given to the data when calculating the mean
 - The closeness is determined by the variance of the estimate of effect
 - A trial could be weighted according to its variance (within study variance)

Weighted Average in Meta-analysis

- Generic inversed variance approach

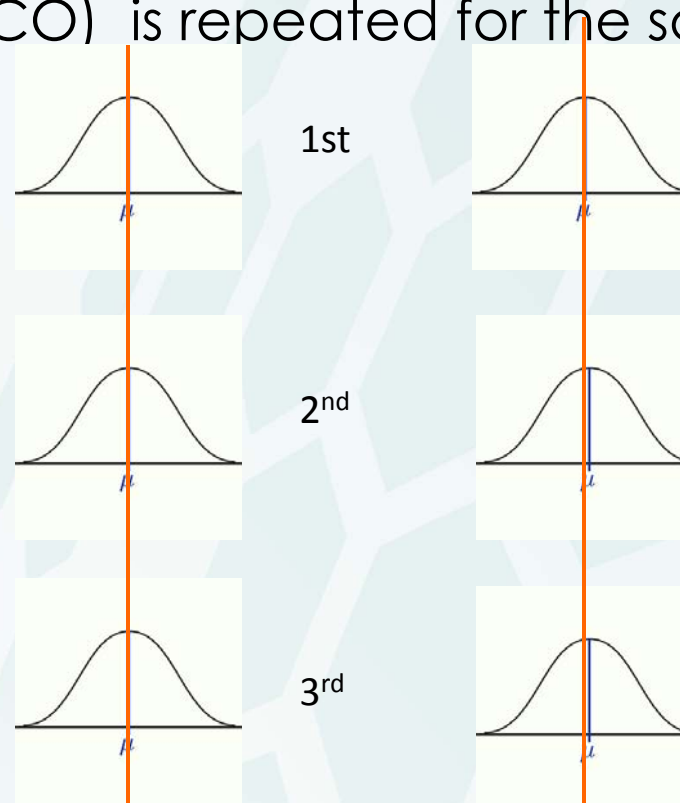
$$\text{Summary effect of meta - analysis} = \frac{\text{Sum of the weighted effects}}{\text{Sum of weights}}$$

- Variance = (SE)² and Weight = 1/variance
- (Note: This weighting method is applicable to combining any statistics such as RD, RR, mean difference, etc.)

$$\text{Summary effect of meta - analysis} = \frac{\sum W * X}{\sum W} = \frac{\sum \frac{1}{Var_{RD}} \times RD}{\sum \frac{1}{Var_{RD}}}$$

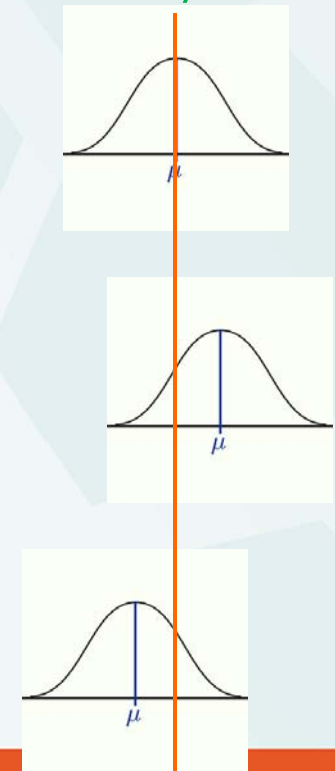
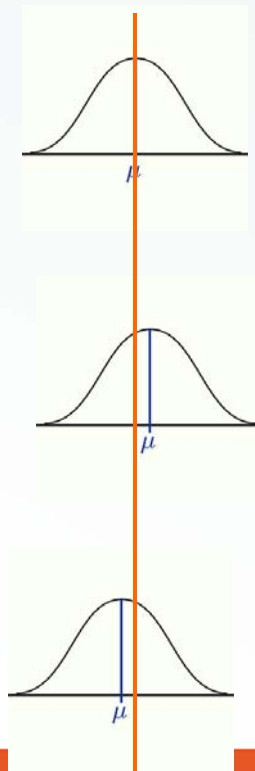
Heterogeneity in Meta-analysis

- Imagine a RCT (identical PICO) is repeated for the same group of subjects for several times



Heterogeneity in Meta-analysis

- Imagine a RCT (identical PICO) is repeated for the **different subjects in the same hospital**
- Imagine a RCT (identical PICO) is repeated for the subjects **from different hospitals in a country**



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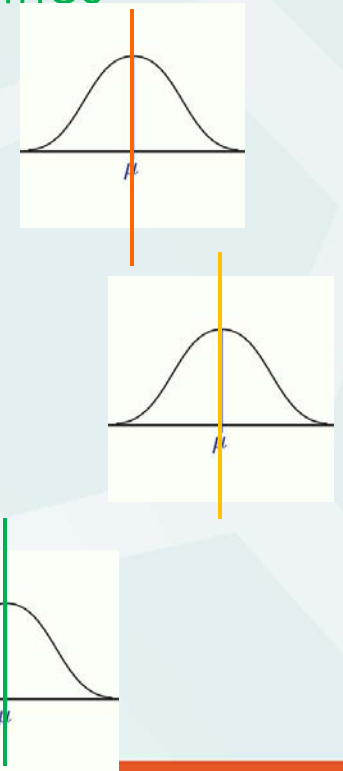
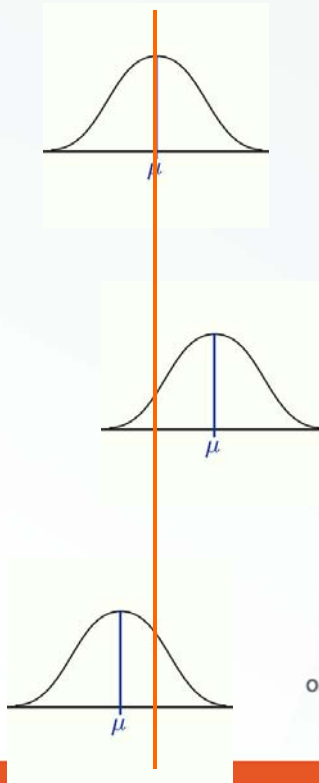


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Heterogeneity in Meta-analysis

- Imagine a RCT (identical PICO) is repeated for the subjects from **hospitals in different countries**
- Imagine a RCT (identical PICO) is repeated for the subjects from **hospitals in different countries**



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Heterogeneity in Meta-analysis

- Clinical heterogeneity – Differences in patients characteristics or treatment regimen
- Methodological heterogeneity – Variation in study design, outcome or duration of follow-up
- Statistical heterogeneity – Multiple ‘true’ treatment effects across the studies (i.e. clinical difference between studies)
- The play of chance – Uncontrollable factors



Evaluation of Heterogeneity in Meta-analysis

- Heterogeneity refers to the variation among study outcomes
- Cochran's Q test is the classical measure to test the heterogeneity. It calculated the weighted sum of squared differences between individual study effects and the pooled effect across studies.

$$Q = \sum w(E - E_C)^2, \text{ where } E_C = \frac{\sum wE}{\sum w}$$

- Q-statistic follows Chi-square distribution with k-1 degree of freedom (df) where k is the number of studies
- $Q > k-1$ (i.e. df) suggesting Statistical Heterogeneity (or the p-value of Q-test < 0.1)

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Evaluation of Heterogeneity in Meta-analysis

- I^2 statistic describes the percentage of variation across studies that is due to significant heterogeneity rather than random chance

$$I^2 = \begin{cases} (Q - (k - 1)) / Q \times 100\% & \text{for } Q > (k - 1) \\ 0 & \text{for } Q \leq (k - 1) \end{cases}$$

- Unlike Q it does not inherently depend upon the number of studies considered
- I^2 : 25%, 50% & 75% considered as low, moderate & high heterogeneity

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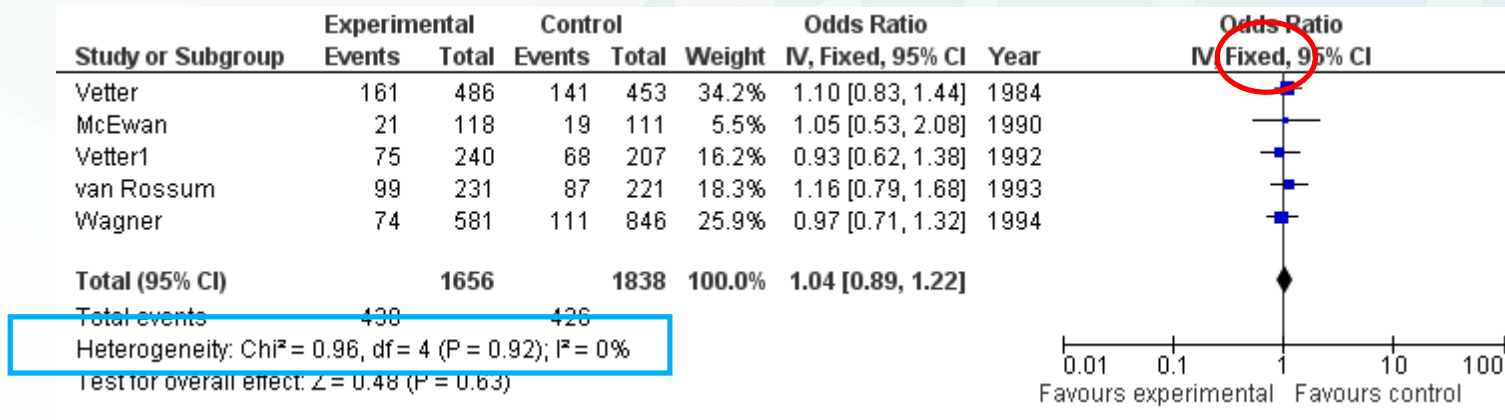


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Evaluation of Heterogeneity in Meta-analysis

- Cochran's Q test → $\chi^2 = 0.96 > 4$ and p-value=0.92
- $I^2 = 0\%$
- Suggesting no heterogeneity (i.e. homogeneous)



Fixed-effect model

- The combined effect size (EC) is given by a weighted average of the observed effect (E) from each individual study

$$E_C = \frac{\sum wE}{\sum w}$$

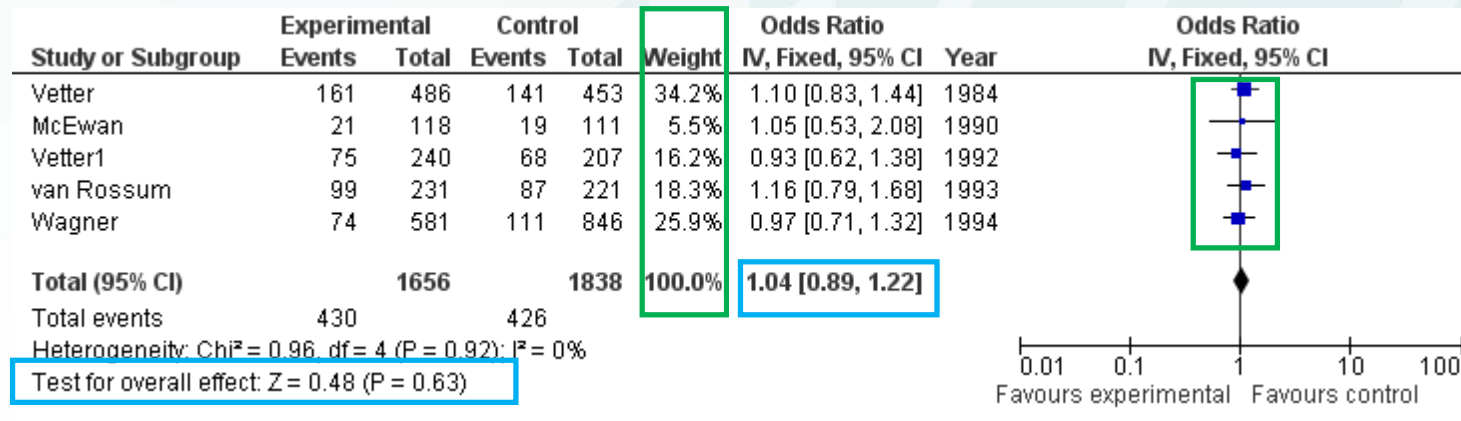
- The weight (w) for each study is the inverse of its variance, i.e.

$$w = \frac{1}{\text{Var}(E)}$$

- More precise (less variance) study would contribute more in estimating the true effect.

Fixed-effect model

- The weight of each study is proportional to the inversed variance of each study (The size of the square is proportional to the weight)
- The combined OR is 1.04 with 95% confidence interval from 0.89 to 1.22 and the effect is not statistically significant as p-value is 0.63.



Random-effects model

- Assumptions:
 - Individual studies are estimating different, but related, treatment effects
 - The treatment of different studies have a distribution with some central value and some degree of variability.
- Results are combined with the studies weighted according to the inverse of the sum of within-study variance & among-study variance:
 - DerSimonian and Laird method

Random-effects model

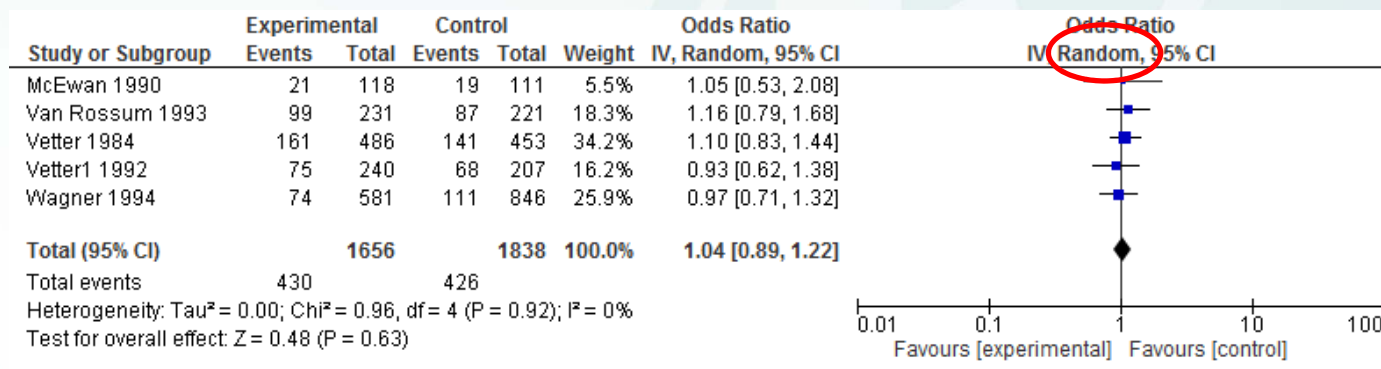
- The excess variation (T) should be taken into consideration in computing the combined estimate
- One common way is to estimate the excess variation:

$$T^2 = \frac{Q - (k - 1)}{C} \quad \text{where } C = \sum w - \frac{\sum w^2}{\sum w}$$

- and Q is the statistic from Cochran Q test; $(k-1)$ is the degree of freedom; w is the weight

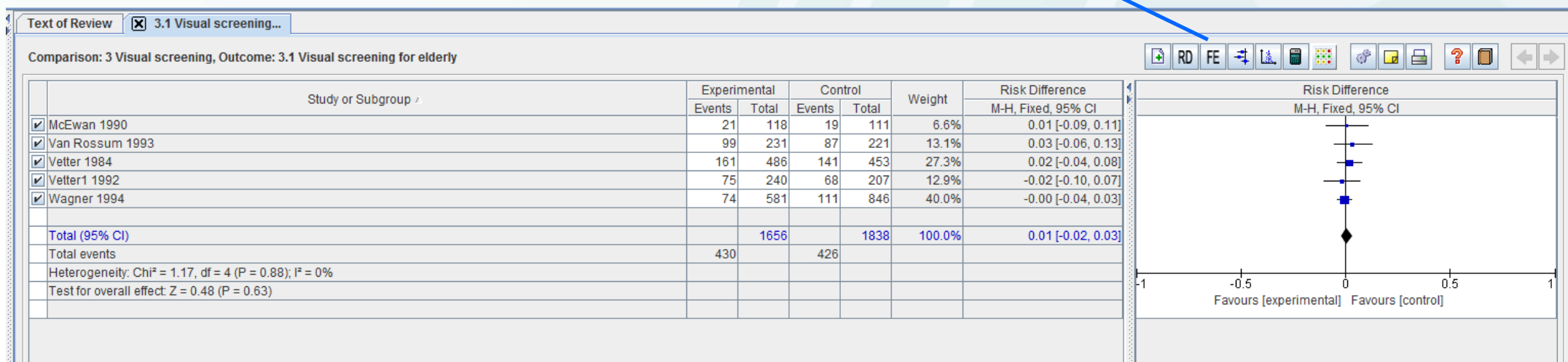
Random-effects model

- $I^2 < 30\%$ can use fixed-effect model
- $30\% (40\%) \leq I^2 < 70\% (75\%)$ can consider to use random-effects model
- $I^2 \geq 70\% (75\%)$ results should not be combined



Effect the model for meta-analysis

- Changing the model by simply clicking “**FE**”, it will shift between FE (i.e. Fixed-effect Model) and RE (Random-effects model)



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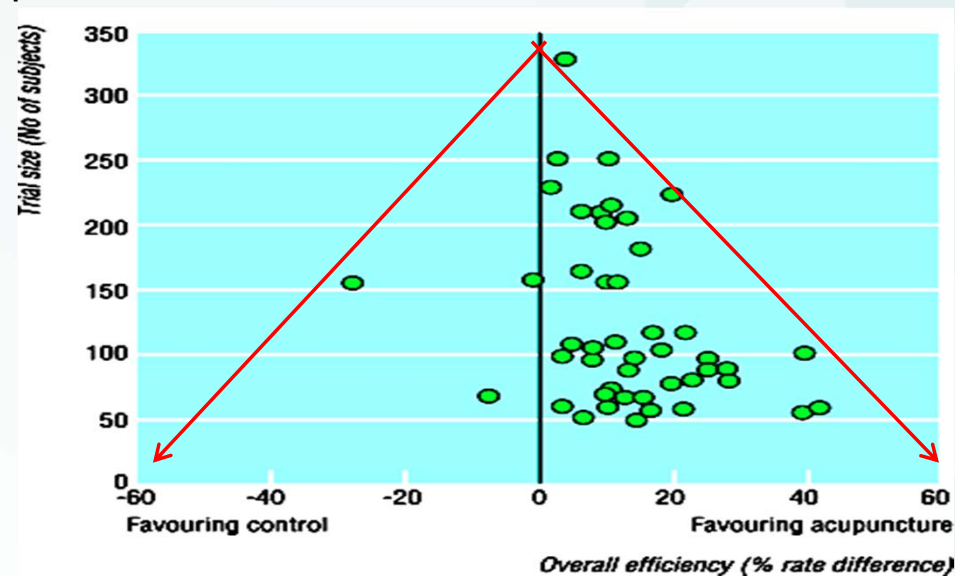


Publication bias in meta-analysis

- Causes:
 - Good news (i.e. significant results) more likely be accepted than bad news (i.e. insignificant results)
 - Small trials with statistically insignificant less likely be published
- Consequence:
 - Leading to over-estimation of the true effect if only published studies included in meta-analysis

Publication bias in meta-analysis

- Trials of Acupuncture in Stroke Rehabilitation



- Can assess by funnel plot (plotting precision or sample size against effect)

Tang JL, Zhan SY, Ernst E. Review of randomised controlled trials of traditional Chinese medicine. *BMJ*. 1999 Jul 17;319(7203):160-1



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