## MEASUREMENT ERROR

Ms Chido Dziva Chikwari; BSc, MSc, PhDc Biomedical Research and Training Institute March 12, 2019

## **Sources of Error in Epi**

### Chance (Random Error)

**Bias (Systematic Error)** \*errors in the design or conduct of the study i.e. responsibility of the researcher.

### Confounding (Systematic Error)

\*a problem out there i.e. a real association in the population.

**Selection Bias** 

### **Information Bias**

- -Measurement Error
- -Misclassification

## **Objectives**

- I) What do we mean by measurement error and misclassification?
- 2) How does it <u>arise</u>?
- □ 3) How can we <u>quantify</u> it?
- 4) What are the <u>consequences</u> for epidemiological studies?

# **Objectives**

1) What do we mean by measurement error and misclassification?
 Terminology: instrument, measurement error/misclassification, validity, reliability

2) How does it arise?

Poor design, inadequate protocol, poor execution Data entry/analysis

□ 3) How can we quantify it?

Validity: Plots, sensitivity, specificity; Reliability: Kappa statistic

4) What are the consequences for epidemiological studies?

Information bias. Non-differential vs differential misclassification



## 1) <u>What do we mean by measurement error</u> and misclassification?

## What is Measurement Error?

 Difference between the "measured"/recorded value and "true" value

- Can apply to continuous variables • e.g. blood pressure, height





What is Measurement Error – Misclassification ?

...or categorical/binary data, e.g.

- Smoker misclassified as a non-smoker
- Recorded cause of death incorrect





## Terminology – Instrument

Just a means of measuring something.

## Terminology – Instrument

Just a means of measuring something.

- A device to measure blood pressure
- A questionnaire to measure a macro or micronutrient
- A test to measure HIV status



	Questions	0	1	2	3	4
1	How do you feel about the pleasure you get from food, compared with the time when you had natural teeth?	0	0	0	0	С
2	With respect to chewing, how satisfied are you with your dentures?	0	0	0	0	С
3	With respect to appearance, how satisfied are you with your dentures?	0	0	0	0	С
4	With respect to how comfortable your dentures are, how satisfied are you?	0	0	0	0	С
5	With respect to being self-assured and self-conscious, how satisfied are you with your dentures?	0	0	0	0	С
6	With respect to your social and affective relationships, how satisfied are you with your oral conditions?	0	0	0	0	С
7	With respect to your professional performance, how satisfied are you with your oral conditions?	0	0	0	0	С
8	With respect to eating, how satisfied are you with your dentures?	0	0	0	0	С
9	Are you satisfied with your smile (esthetics)?	0	0	0	0	С



## Terminology – Validity and Reliability

What is the difference between them?

## Terminology – Validity and Reliability

### What is the difference between them?





### $\square$ 2) How does it <u>arise</u>?

## Poor Design

## E.g. Questionnaire questions

- When did you start drinking regularly?
- Are you (A) married; or (B) single?
- Poorly calibrated weighing scale



I can't believe I was doing it wrong all these years.

## Poor Design

Other examples of poorly designed questions:

- Have you ever been a smoker?
- Do you regularly wash your hands after using the toilet?
- How much do you weigh?
- Other Examples?

## **Poor Instructions**

Insufficient detail in protocol

e.g. "collect blood samples from eligible household members"

Insufficient training of staff

Best practice: Interviewers are sent self study materials as well as have 5 days of classroom instructions –go through protocol, questionnaire, consent and other forms, answer questions, mock interviews etc.

+on the job supervision and quality control

 See the Demographic and Health Surveys websites for good examples of standard operating procedures (SOPs)

## **Poor Execution**

- Failure to follow protocol/read instructions
- Poor supervision
- Improper handling of specimens



## Poor Execution

Study participants

- Failure to remember •
- Limited knowledge of proxy respondents



## Errors in Data entry

Data entry errors (~1 in 100 key strokes)
 Programming errors





### $\square$ 3) How can we <u>quantify</u> it?

## Validity

# Extent to which the instrument measures the characteristic of interest, e.g.

- How well does the blood pressure (BP) monitor measure TRUE BP?
- How well does questionnaire capture TRUE fatty food intake?
- How well does oral HIV test identify TRUE HIV status?

## Validity

Extent to which the instrument measures the characteristic of interest, e.g.

- How well does the blood pressure (BP) monitor measure TRUE BP?
- How well does questionnaire capture TRUE fatty food intake?
- How well does oral HIV test identify TRUE HIV status?

Need to know the validity of each specific measure and the standardised methods to carry out each test or tests in the correct order and/or number of times

How do we quantify validity?

## Example



### DIAGNOSTIC ACCURACY OF HIV ORAL RAPID TESTS VERSUS BLOOD BASED RAPID TESTS AMONG CHILDREN



Chido Dziva Chikwari<sup>1,2</sup>, Irene N. Njuguna<sup>3,4</sup>; Jillian Neary<sup>7</sup>, Crissi Raine<sup>6</sup>, Belinda Chihota<sup>6</sup>, Jennifer A. Slyker<sup>3</sup>, David Katz<sup>3</sup>, Dalton C. Warnalwa<sup>7</sup>, Laura Oyiengo<sup>9</sup>, Tsitsi Bandason<sup>2</sup>, Grace McHugh<sup>2</sup>, Ethel Dauy<sup>2</sup>, Kearsley A Stewart<sup>6</sup>, Grace C. John-Stewart<sup>8</sup>, Rashida Ferrand<sup>1,2</sup>, Anjuli D. Wagner<sup>3</sup> ('co-first authors)

<sup>1</sup>London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine; <sup>2</sup> Biomedical Research and Training Institute; <sup>3</sup>University of Washington; <sup>4</sup>Kenyatta National Hospital; <sup>4</sup>Duke University; <sup>4</sup>Centre for Infectious Disease Research in Zambia; <sup>3</sup>University of Nairobi; <sup>4</sup>Kenya Ministry of Health;

### Introduction

- Gaps persist in HIV testing globally for children who missed testing as part of prevention of mother to child transmission (PMTCT) programs
- Saliva based tests (SBT) have high sensitivity and specificity (98.0% and 99.7%) in adults but performance has not been established in children (18 months to 12 years)
- SBT may be less traumatic, easy to perform at triage, and pose less risk to health care workers than blood-based tests (BBT)

### **Objective**

 To validate OraQuick ADVANCE Rapid HIV-1/2 saliva based antibody test (SBT) against blood based rapid testing (BBT) in children aged 18 months to 18 years in Kenya and Zimbabwe

### **Methods**

- Antiretroviral therapy (ART)-naïve children were tested for HIV using a series of rapid BBT and SBT
- · BBT followed Kenyan and Zimbabwean national algorithms
- Determine (3<sup>rd</sup> and 4th generation in Kenya and Zimbabwe respectively), followed by First Response if Determine was reactive
- · SBT samples collected and interpreted by research staff
- · BBT performed and interpreted by clinic or research staff
- Sensitivity and specificity calculated using BBT national algorithms as gold standard; secondary analysis excluded 2 cases where SBT was positive but national algorithm was initially falsely negative
- Binomial distribution used for 95% confidence intervals [95%CI]



Global WACh, Kizazi, Kenya Research & Training Center (KRTC) Study team and participants

Funding provided by University of Washington Center for AIDS Research and Thrasher Pediatric Research Foundation

#### Table 1: Baseline characteristics BBT HIV positive **BBT HIV negative** n=1705 n=71 n (%) or median n (%) or median characteristics (IQR) (IQR) 7.4 (4.7, 11.6) 6.8 (4.2, 11.0) Age (vears) 18-<24 months 1 (0.1) 1 (1) 2-5 years 21 (30) 491 (29) >5-12 years 34 (48) 811 (48) >12-18 years 15 (21) 402 (24) 46 (65) 872 (51)

		(·)
Recruitment		
Zimbabwe	28 (39)	1542 (90)
Kenya	43 (61)	163 (10)

#### Table 2: Performance of SBT vs BBT

	BBT			
		Positive	Negative	Total
	Positive	71	2	73
SBT	Negative	0	1703	1703
	Total	71	1705	1776

Specificity: 99.9% (95% CI 99.5-100)

### Results

#### Excluding children where BBT was incorrect

- 2 truly positive children tested SBT positive and BBT negative
  - 9 year old, mom positive, confirmed positive by ELISA 1 week after initial BBT
  - 2 year old child was confirmed positive by First Response and INSTI
- Excluding the 2 children

#### Sensitivity: 100% (97.5% CI 94-100) Specificity: 99.9% (97.5% CI 99.8-100)

#### Stability of results (Kenyan sites)

- Among 43 children with positive SBT at 20 minutes
   43 (100%) had positive SBT at 40 minutes
- Among the 163 children with negative SBT at 20 minutes
   163 (100%) had a negative SBT at 40 minutes

#### Strength of test results from manufacturer

reading cards (Kenya sites)
 Among 43 positive SBT results:
 Strongly positive results:

 26 (60%) at 20 minutes
 29 (67%) at 40 minutes



2000

 Weakly positive results:
 3 weakly positive at 20 minutes, all strongly positive at 40 minutes

### Conclusions

- · SBT tests have high sensitivity and specificity in ART-naïve children and adolescents
- · Considerations to expand use of SBT in children are warranted
- As in adults, recommendations should include a warning not to use SBT in children on ART
- · The ease and safety of SBT may allow HIV testing at outpatient triage or allow task shifting from HCW to caregivers
- Future research will explore the acceptability and uptake in diverse settings (in and out of facilities) as well as by diverse users (caregivers and HCW)



#### BGAP study team

Funding provided by: Duke Global Health Institute, the UK Medical Research Council (MRC) and the UK Department for International Development (DFID) under the MRC/DFID Concordat agreement and is also part of the EDCTP2 programme supported by the European Union (MR/P011268/1)

### Need some data on instrument measure vs "true" measure

Patient	Cuff SBP (mmHg)	Arterial line SBP (mmHg)
1	103	105
2	125	125
3	91	96
4	136	132
5	111	110
6	110	112
	130	125

Pearson correlation?

- Often used
- ...but measures association NOT agreement



 $\rho = 1$  i.e. perfectly correlated but cuff underestimates BP

### Do an initial raw scatter plot



### Should look at differences vs mean

Patient	Cuff SBP (mmHg)	Arterial line SBP (mmHg)	DIFFERENCE (instrument – gold standard)	MEAN
1	103	105	-2	104
2	125	125	0	125
3	91	96	-5	93.5
4	136	132	+4	134
5	111	110	+1	110.5
6	110	112	-2	111
	130	125	+5	127.5

### Plot the differences vs mean



Mean (sd) of differences = 0.17 (4.51) mmHg

See also Bland & Altman, Lancet 1986; 307-310

# Quantifying validity – binary variable

## Example: oral test for HIV

- how can we quantify its validity?
- i.e. how well it measures true HIV status



# Quantifying validity – binary variable

## Oral HIV Test

# Western Blot (Gold Standard)





Since we can measure the true HIV status, we can evaluate validity of oral test.

How?

Test sample of people with gold standard test and instrument – cross tabulate



- Since we can measure the true HIV status, we can evaluate validity of oral test.
- How?
- Test sample of people with gold standard test and instrument – cross tabulate



Since we can measure the true HIV status, we can evaluate validity of oral test.

How?

Test sample of people with gold standard test and instrument – cross tabulate



What percentage of genuinely HIV+ people are correctly identified by the test?



What percentage of genuinely HIV+ people are correctly identified by the test?



 What percentage of genuinely HIV+ people are correctly identified by the test?
 280/285 x 100 = 98.21% [SENSITIVITY]

Watern Blat (Cold transard test)

		western blot (dola standard test)			
		TRUE +	TRUE -		
OraQuick	TEST +	280	2		
test	TEST -	5	5470		
	Total	285	5472		

BUT what percentage of genuinely HIVpeople are correctly identified by the test?



 BUT what percentage of genuinely HIVpeople are correctly identified by the test?
 5470/5472 x 100 = 99.96% [SPECIFICITY]

		western blot (Gold standard test)			
		TRUE +	TRUE -		
OraQuick	TEST +	280	2		
test	TEST -	5	5470		
	Total	285	5472		

and Dist (Cald standard to st)

# Sensitivity and Specificity

Quantify validity of an instrument measuring a binary quantity

## Sensitivity

% of those truly with the condition that are identified correctly (e.g. test +ve) by the instrument

## Specificity

% of those truly free of the condition that are identified correctly (e.g. test –ve) by the instrument

## OraQuick HIV test



Sensitivity = 98.21%; Specificity = 99.96%

A particular individual receives a +ve test result. What is the probability they really have HIV? POSITIVE PREDICTIVE VALUE (PPV) = 280/282 x 100 = 99.3%

- Quantifies probability that an individual with a +ve test result really has the condition...
- Hence of interest in interpreting individual test results

- Quantifies probability that an individual with a +ve test result really has the condition...
- Hence of interest in interpreting individual test results
- Not in itself a useful measure of validity
   depends on validity (sensitivity & specificity)
   AND
- underlying prevalence of condition
- same test can have very different PPV in different populations

	TRUE +	TRUE -	
TEST +	280	2	
TEST -	5	5470	
 Total	285	5472	

Sensitivity = 98.21%; Specificity = 99.96%

Prevalence = 5%

**PPV = 280/282 x 100 = 99.3%** 

			TRUE -	
	TEST +	<del>280</del> 56	2	
	TEST -	<del>5</del> 1	5470	
and the first state of the	Total	<del>285</del> 57	5472	

Sensitivity = 98.21%; Specificity = 99.96%

Prevalence = 5%

**PPV = 280/282 x 100 = 99.3%** 

Prevalence = 1%

**PPV = 56/58 = 96.5%** 

## Reliability

- How consistent is the instrument?
- When different observers make the same measurement (Int<u>er</u> – observer reliability)
- When the same observer makes repeated measurements (Int<u>ra</u> – observer reliability)
- Sometimes called repeatability or reproducibility

We will focus on measures for *categorical* data E.g. How *reliable* is mammogram for identifying breast cancer?

### Intra-observer reliability:





BART (later)

	Patient	Cancer? (Attempt 1)	Cancer? (Attempt 2)
	1	Yes	Yes
	2	No	No
	3	No	No
	4	No	No
<	5	Yes	No
	6	No	No
	••		

### Inter-observer reliability:





	-
LISA	

	Patient	Cancer? (Bart)	Cancer? (Lisa)
	1	Yes	Yes
	2	No	No
	3	No	No
<	4	No	Yes
	5	Yes	Yes
	6	No	No

We can summarise the results in a frequency table



Mean pair agreement /observed agreement (A) = (7+84)/96 = 0.95



Mean pair agreement /observed agreement (A) = (7+84)/96 = 0.95

- BUT a proportion would agree by chance alone ..and this depends on the prevalence.
- The Kappa statistic gives a measure of agreement that takes into account level of agreement due to just chance.

## Measuring reliability: Kappa



Mean pair agreement (observed (A) = (7+84)/96 = 0.95

Expected in "yes/yes" cell by chance alone?  $(10 \times 9)/96 = 1$ Expected in "no/no" cell by chance alone?  $(86 \times 87)/96 = 78$ Expected pair agreements by chance alone (B) = 79/96 = 0.82

Kappa ( $\kappa$ ) = <u>agreement > chance</u> (<u>observed (A)-expected (B)</u>) (<u>0.95-0.82</u>) = 0.72 max possible agreement > chance (<u>1 - expected (B)</u>) (<u>1-0.82</u>) = 0.72

## Interpreting Kappa

0 = no agreement better than chance
1 = perfect agreement
No universal rules, but as a guideline, it is generally considered that:

<0.4 Reflects fairly poor agreement 0.4-0.75 Moderate to good >0.75 Very good/excellent



## a) What are the <u>consequences</u> for epidemiological studies?

## Non-differential misclassification

- For an <u>exposure</u> variable, this means misclassification is independent of outcome
- E.g. Case-control study same chance of misclassification for cases and controls
- □ In general, dilutes effects
  - Shifts odds ratio/rate ratio towards the null
- Can lead to incorrect conclusion of lack of effect

## Non-differential misclassification

- For an <u>outcome</u> variable, this means misclassification is independent of exposure
- E.g. Cohort study same chance of misclassification for exposed and unexposed
- The impact depends on study type and direction of misclassification:

Case control study: dilutes odds ratio towards 1 Cohort study:

- If outcome is under-ascertained –rate ratio unbiased.
- If outcome is over-ascertained rate ratio diluted towards 1 – Rate *difference* will be biased

## **Differential misclassification**

- Misclassification of exposure is systematically different for those with vs those without outcome.
- e.g. mesothelioma cancer cases more likely to recall exposure to asbestos than controls
- Misclassification of outcome is systematically different for exposed vs unexposed
- e.g. High BP more likely in women on oral contraceptives than those not attending family planning clinics.
- Can go the other way as well. Impact is harder to predict.

# Summary 1

- Measurement error occurs when our measured value differs from the true value (Categorical data: "misclassification")
- Poor design/instructions/execution; limitations
   of participants; data/programming errors
- Important to try and quantify measurement errors and their impact.
- We discussed various tools and concepts that can help.

# Summary 2

- Validity: how well does instrument measure what we are trying to measure; quantify (binary data) with sensitivity/specificity
- Reliability: how consistent is instrument in measuring same thing; quantify (categorical data) with Kappa statistic
- Impacts of measurement error can depend on whether non-differential or differential, as well as on study design, and type of variable (exposure/outcome)

