

## Air quality and lung cancer: Analysis via Local Control

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### Abstract

The possible association between PM<sub>2.5</sub> and lung cancer mortality can be partitioned into components, within similar observational units, and across different observational units. Within unit's covariates are very similar and across unit's covariates can be, and usually are, very different. Hence, there is a need to understand the possible effect of PM<sub>2.5</sub> on mortality taking into account within and between observational units. To know the important covariates, our idea is to use Local Control Analysis (LCA) to estimate these two components and determine how much of the variation in estimates can be attributed. For the purpose of analysis, we calculated Local Treatment Difference (LTD) for LTD approach and slope and intercept for Local Control Regression (LCR) approach, to determine if the treatment (PM<sub>2.5</sub>) effects vary significantly across clusters. For that evaluation, we used Recursive Partitioning (RP). The benefit of this study is twofold. First, we use a reliable strategy (LCA) for observational data. Second and importantly, there is subgroup heterogeneity in the effect of PM<sub>2.5</sub> on lung cancer mortality and this heterogeneity is largely explained by factors other than air quality.

**Keywords:** PM<sub>2.5</sub>, Lung Cancer Mortality, Local Control Analysis

### 1. Introduction

Epidemiological studies conducted on particles PM<sub>2.5</sub> indicate that PM<sub>2.5</sub> has substantially greater toxicity than larger particles [1-3]. A few study make the case that if potential bias is carefully taken into account then there is no association between air quality and deaths [4-8]. Although results have been mixed, overall, an association between PM<sub>2.5</sub> (particles having aerodynamic diameter  $\leq 2.5 \mu\text{m}$ ) exposure and lung cancer mortality have been reported by recent studies [7, 9, 10]. PM<sub>2.5</sub> is associated with greater increases in daily mortality than larger particles, and are of greater public health concern [1, 3], suggesting that size is not the only indicator of PM-related health effects.

The empirical estimation of cumulative environmental exposures, from different environmental sources, is difficult. As a result, epidemiologic research has traditionally focused on single environmental exposures [11, 12]. However, it is impossible to get total picture of the environmental effects on health by measuring a single environmental exposure. Rather, various environmental exposures (including social exposures) occur simultaneously, to engender poor health upshots, including cancer. The Environmental Quality Index (EQI) was developed to capture multidimensional ambient environmental exposures. The publically available EQI [13] is a county-level measure of cumulative ambient environmental exposures for the United States for the period 2000- 2005 [11, 14].

We examined county-level lung cancer incidence rates for the period 2010-2014 in association with the EQI, which represents the period 2000-2005. To assess which environmental domains drive the associations with cancer incidence, we also considered three domain-specific indices namely land EQI, sociodemographic EQI and built EQI. The magnitude of this association varies with geographic location [15].

We also investigated associations between lung cancer incidence and the PM<sub>2.5</sub>. The possible association between PM<sub>2.5</sub> and lung cancer mortality can be partitioned into components, within similar observational units and across different observational units. Within unit's covariates are very similar and across unit's covariates can be, and usually are, very different. Hence, there is a need to understand the possible effect of PM<sub>2.5</sub> on mortality taking into account within and between observational units. In this study, our idea is to use a relatively new statistical strategy known as Local Control Analysis (LCA) to estimate these two components and determined how much of the variation in estimates can be attributed to know the important covariates. The basic idea of LCA is to cluster experimental units, in our case counties, into subgroups that have similar socio-economic characteristics but are not necessarily spatially contiguous. We then make statistical comparisons primarily within these clusters of counties that are relatively homogeneous in terms of important confounding factors.

To determine if the treatment (PM<sub>2.5</sub>) effect varies significantly across clusters, we calculated Local Treatment Difference (LTD) for LTD approach and slope and intercept for Local Control Regression (LCR) approach. Recursive Partitioning (RP) is used for that purpose. The benefits of this study are twofold. First, we use a reliable strategy (LCA) for observational data. Second and importantly, there is subgroup heterogeneity in the effect of PM<sub>2.5</sub> on lung cancer mortality and this heterogeneity is largely explained by factors other than air quality.

## **2. Methodology**

### **2.1 Data and Variables**

Data comes from two different sources. Population-based lung cancer incidence rates for the period 2010-2014 (most updated data) were abstracted from National Cancer Institute state cancer profiles [16]. This national county-level database of cancer data is collected by state public health surveillance systems. The domain specific county level environmental quality index (EQI) data for the period 2000-2005 were abstracted from United States Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA) profile. Complete descriptions of the datasets used in the EQI are provided in Lobdell's paper [17]. Data were merged based on the Federal Information Processing Standards (FIPS) code. Out of 3144 counties in United States this study has available information for 2602 counties: Data was not available for four states namely Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota and Nevada due to state legislation because of state legislation and regulations which prohibit the release of county-level data to outside entities, county whose lung cancer mortality information is missing were omitted from the data set, the Union county, Florida is an outlier in terms of mortality information which was deleted from the data set, in the process of local control analysis this study experiences two non-informative clusters (non-informative cluster is one for which either treatment or control group information is missing) (cluster 28 and 29). For the purpose of analysis, non-informative clusters information was deleted from the data set.

Three types of variables was used in this study: (i) lung cancer mortality as an outcome variable (ii) binary treatment indicator is the PM2.5 high (greater than 10.59 mg/m<sup>3</sup>) vs. low (less than 10.59 mg/m<sup>3</sup>) (iii) three potential X confounder for clustering namely land EQI, sociodemographic EQI and built EQI. For each index, higher values correspond to poorer environmental quality [18].

## 2.2 Local Control Analysis

Local Control Analysis first clusters the data set and then a simple analysis within each cluster. The statistics (LTD, Slope and Intercept) coming from each cluster are then analyzed further. Once the descriptive statistics are computed, we determine if these treatment effects vary significantly across clusters. For that evaluation, we use recursive partitioning (RP). There is a SAS JMP Add-In, Local Control, for automating steps in the analysis process [19].

Local control, LC, analysis strategy [20, 21, 22], for large, observational data sets is easily explained as it is a series of simple steps that together provide a coherent analysis strategy.

**Step1:** LC starts by dividing data points without regard for their either status as treated or control, into many subgroups. The point is to assure that objects within a cluster are as alike as possible for their observed baseline x-characteristics. They used hierarchical clustering.

**Step2:** Next, a simple difference between the two treatments is computed within each cluster:

$$E[(Y|t=1) - (Y|t=0) | X],$$

so that they have a single degree of freedom comparison, given X. That is known as “fair treatment comparison” and a local treatment difference, LTD or LC effect size estimates. These LC effect-sizes are (continuous) measures of within-cluster association between local observed y-outcomes and t-exposures.

**Step3:** Next, they display the LTDs in a histogram.

**Step4:** Once the descriptive statistics are computed, we determine if these treatment effects vary significantly across clusters using RP.

Therefore, the LCA starts by designating just one of the available X-confounders as the treatment t-exposure, which is the "main cause" of observed variation in the Y-outcome variable. LC then repeats through its three nonparametric preprocessing phases (Aggregate, Confirm and Explore) to “design” new variables LTDs, Slopes or Intercept. Finally, we use Reveal phase to determine whether LTSs, Slope or Intercept appear to be either truly heterogeneous or most random. In this study, we used two approaches of LC method:

**A.** Local Treatment Difference (LTD) approach: Local Treatment Difference, LTD ( $\partial$ ), defined as, LTD ( $\partial$ ) =  $E[(Y|t=1) - (Y|t=0) / X \text{ within } \partial]$ , where  $\partial$  denotes a cluster of subjects who are relatively well-matched in X confounder space.

**B.** Local Control Regression (Slope and Intercept) approach: We performed simple linear regression for 50 clusters, got slope and intercept for each cluster, found 48 non-

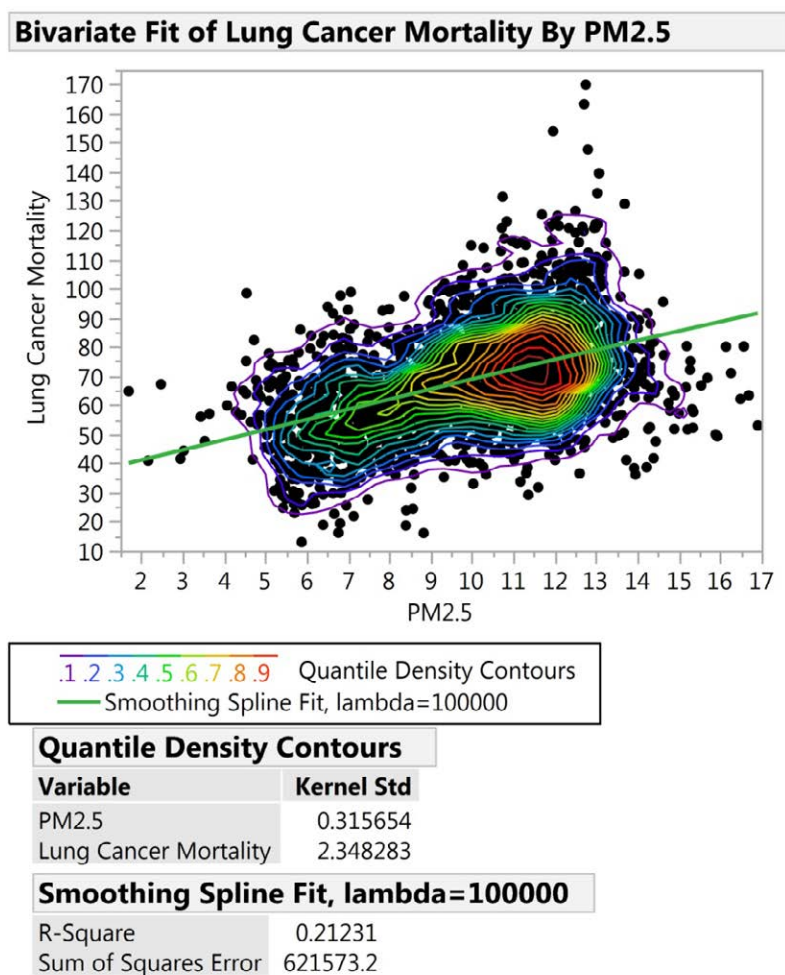
informative clusters. Here slope and intercept takes the place of LTD. Finally, repeated the 4-phase process of LTD approach for slope and intercept.

### 2.3 Clustering Technique

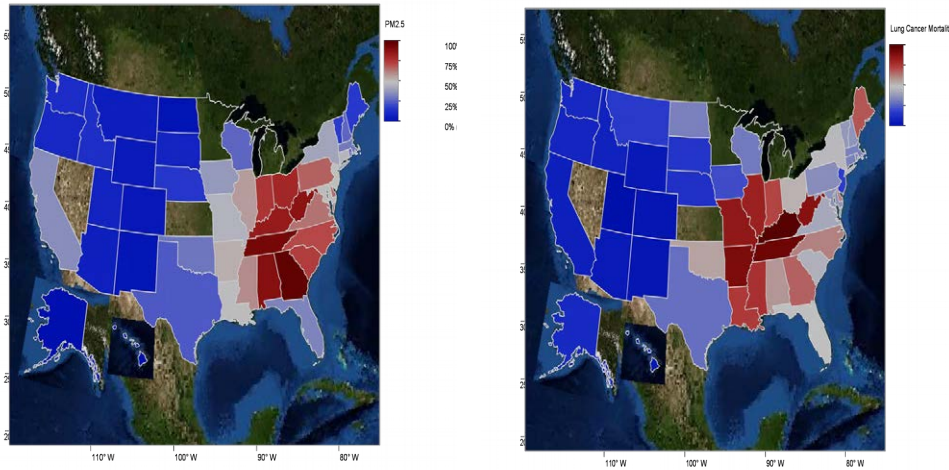
Hierarchical clustering technique is used to cluster the county level lung cancer data. Hierarchical cluster analysis begins by separating each object into a cluster by itself. Wards method is used as a linkage criterion. In this study, we produced 50 subgroups or clusters using wards method. Within each subgroup, counties are relatively well matched based on the 3 potential X confounders. JMP software is used to cluster the data.

### 3. Results

The EQI was linked to county-level annual age-adjusted cancer incidence rates from the Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results (SEER) Program state cancer profiles. Figure 1 shows a positive association between PM2.5 and lung cancer mortality.



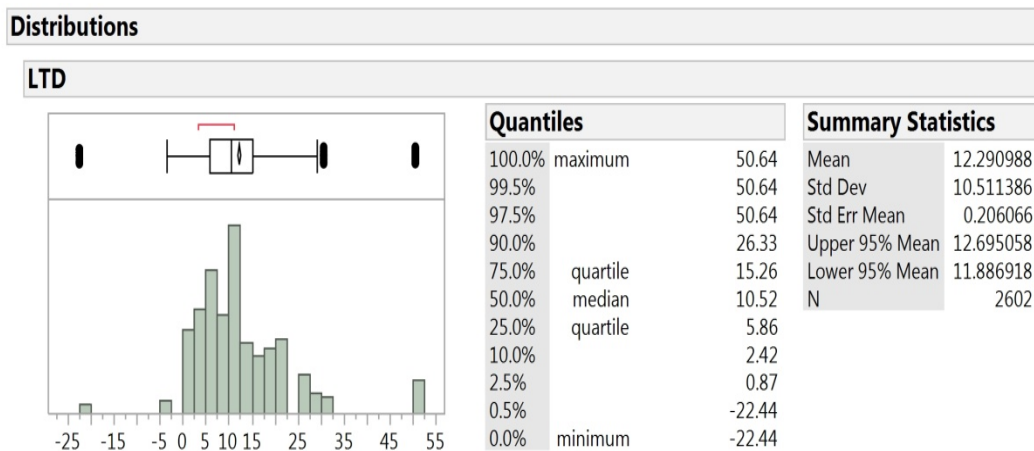
**Figure 1:** Association between PM2.5 and lung cancer mortality



**Figure 2:** State colored by PM2.5 (left figure) and lung cancer mortality (right figure)

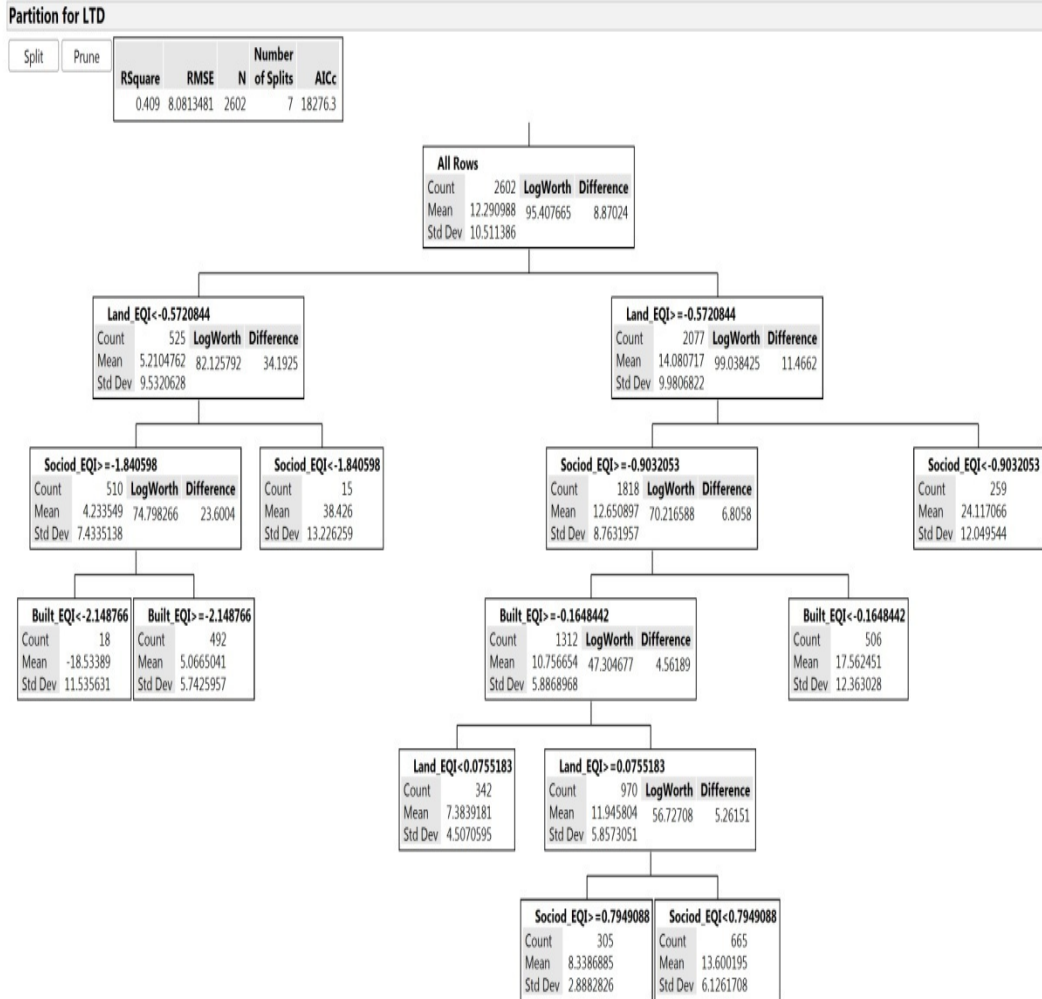
Figure 2 shows that data is missing for 4 states namely Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota and Nevada. Due to high PM2.5 in the different North East and South East central states, lung cancer is also very high. PM2.5 is high in Alabama, Georgia, Tennessee, Kentucky, Virginia, West Virginia, Illinois, Indiana, South Carolina, North Carolina and Pennsylvania. Lung cancer is almost high in the same states plus Arkansas, Missouri, Iowa and Maine. Most of the manufacturing industries are in Alabama, Arkansas, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Michigan, Mississippi, North Carolina, Ohio, Pennsylvania, South Carolina and Texas. As a result, the rate of PM2.5 rate is high in these states, which leads to the high lung cancer mortality. Only exception is Maine. Maine’s lung cancer mortality rate is 30% higher than the national average. Smoking and tobacco use was identified as the major risk factor for lung cancer.

### 3.1 Distribution and recursive partitioning tree for LTD using JMP



**Figure 3:** Local Treatment Difference (LTD) distribution

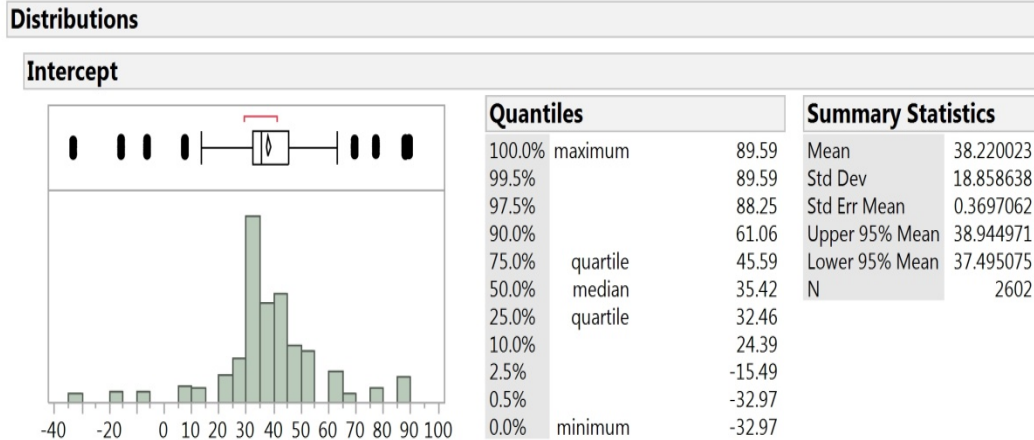
These histograms display distributions of treatment effect sizes. The histogram displays the LTD estimates for 48 informative subgroups of lung cancer patients relatively well matched in x spaces. Figure 3 shows that LTD is positive which indicates that the lung cancer mortality increases with the increase of PM2.5.



**Figure 4:** A “tree model” for prediction of observed local treatment differences

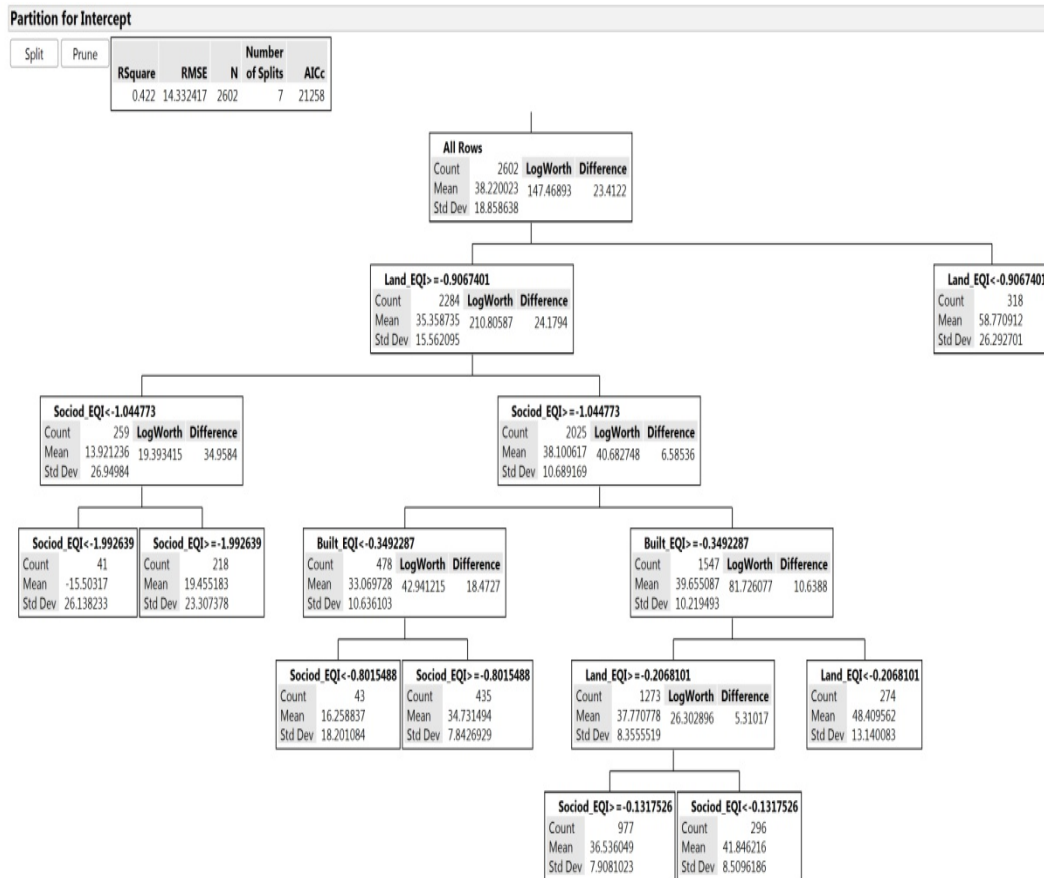
Since land domain separates off 525 counties with much lower LTD (low rate of lung cancer incidence) where the environmental quality is high (less negative EQI), it is no wonder that residents with land EQI is a very good predictor of across cluster variation in LTDs. Similarly, socio-demographic EQI is used in three highly significant splits (high logworth value (logworth is negative log of the p-value for the split)), with LTDs expected to be higher where the land EQI is high. On the other hand, built EQI is used in two highly significant splits, with high LTD. For both splits, the land EQI is high. So, all three x confounders are important predictors. Note that the SD does not decrease much indicating heterogeneity. The high logworth value and standard deviation indicates that LTD values differ significantly across clusters.

### 3.2 Distribution and recursive partitioning tree for intercept using JMP



**Figure 5:** Distribution of intercept for non-informative clusters

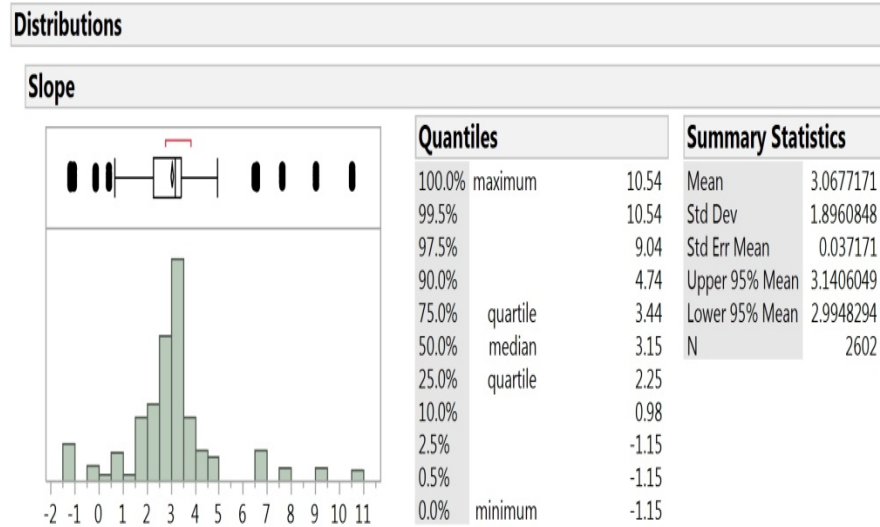
Point to histogram of intercepts indicates that there are major differences across the counties related to covariates. The overall differences are positive and are not random.



**Figure 6:** A “tree model” for prediction of intercept

Again, the lung cancer mortality is low in case of high land EQI (high environmental quality), sociodemographic EQI and built EQI. Mean LTD is comparatively low in case of high environmental quality means that 3 confounders are good predictors. The land and sociodemographic domain dominates the intercept tree. In overall, the logworth value is very high means the splits are highly significant. Therefore, we can conclude that heterogeneity exists across the counties related to covariates.

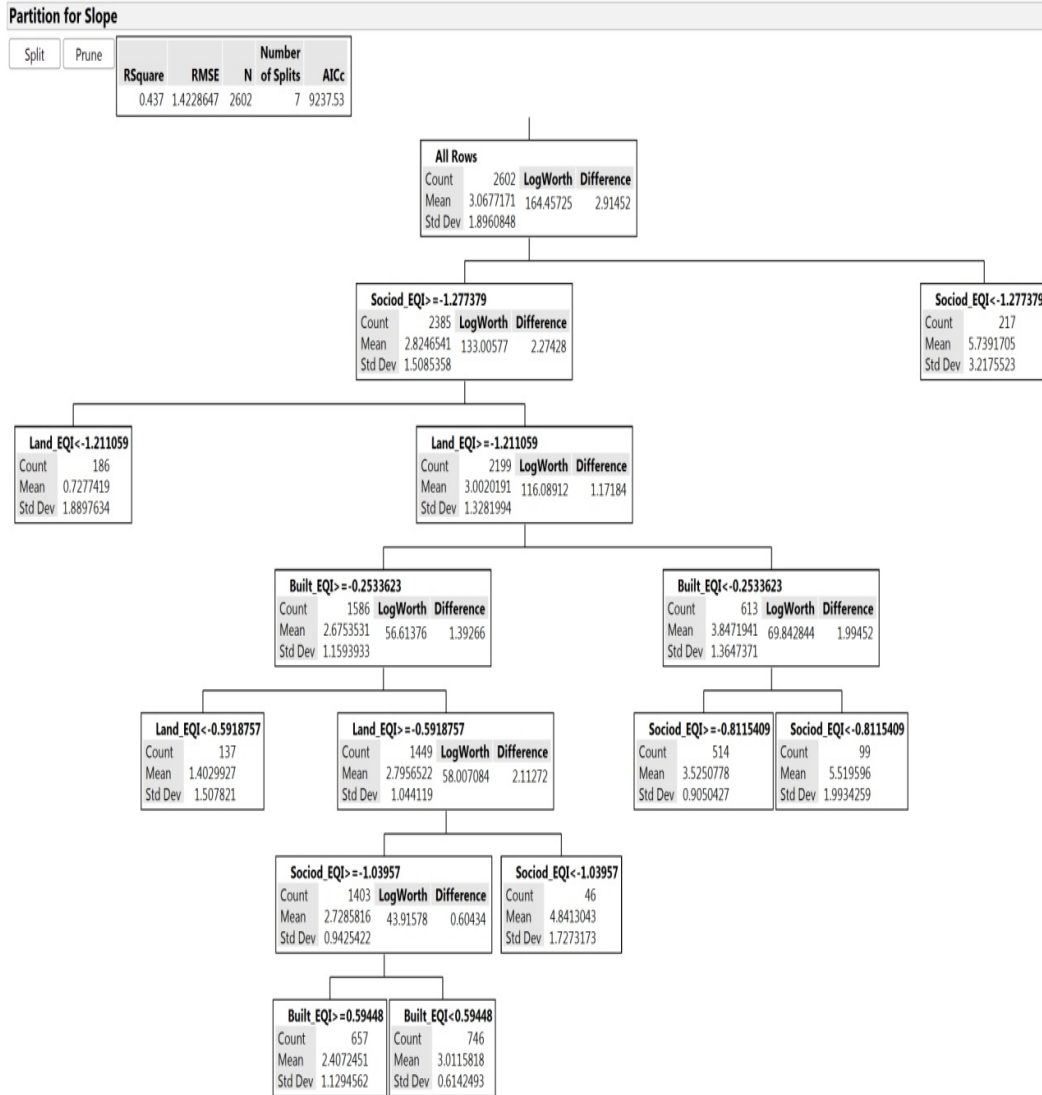
### 3.3 Distribution and recursive partitioning tree for slope using JMP



**Figure 7:** Distribution of slopes for non-informative clusters

The slope histogram display distributions of treatment effect sizes. Slope did the same thing that LTD done where the only difference is that these two methods are used for two different approaches (LTD approach and Local Linear Regression approach) of Local Control. The histogram displays the slope estimates for 48 informative subgroups of lung cancer patients relatively well matched in x spaces. Figure 7 shows that slope is positive which indicates that the lung cancer mortality increases with the increase of PM2.5.





**Figure 8:** A “tree model” for prediction of slope

Figure 8 shows that the sociodemographic EQI is most important as it appears in 1<sup>st</sup> split and often in the tree. The overall logworth value is high indicates the higher heterogeneity. The large heterogeneity says that there is no constant/ consistent effect of PM2.5.

#### 4. Conclusion

LC strategy gives importance on local effect-size estimates and their empirical distribution, rather than upon the statistical significance of some of their values [23]. Local Control approach is so straightforward simple that one can easily grasp the idea by understanding of clustering, simple differences, single predictor linear regression and histograms. Histograms are drawn robustly estimate LTD, intercept and slope and display their distribution across clusters.

In case of LTD approach, we consider a binary treatment variable. Based on that binary variable we compute the mean of lung cancer incidence rate for each non-informative cluster. This study considers PM2.5 as binary treatment variable. On the other hand, the LCR approach does not need any binary treatment variable. Instead of that LCR consider the PM2.5 as continuous independent variable to perform the simple linear regression for each 50 clusters, which gives the slope, and intercept for each cluster. LCR developed by Young and Obenchain [23] is very similar to what Janes et al [6] and Greven et al [7] have done; they look within and across locations, and Young and Obenchain work within and across clusters of locations. In this study, intercepts represent baseline effects while slopes can be taken to be the adjusted effects of lung cancer incidence versus PM2.5 exposures within clusters.

In this study, the bivariate graph shows the positive association between lung cancer incidence and PM2.5. In addition, the histogram shows that the overall distribution of LTD and slope is positive. This positive distribution depicts that the lung cancer mortality increases with the increase of PM2.5. Point to histogram of intercepts indicates that there are major differences across the counties related to covariates. The decision tree for LTD shows that the land domain is the most important as it appears in first split and appears often in the tree. Sociodemographic and land is the most important domain in case of slope and intercept decision tree respectively. For each tree, the logworth value is high. However, with logworths this large, the splits are still highly significant. The large heterogeneity says that there is no constant/ consistent effect of PM2.5. One possible explanation for this high heterogeneity is that there may well be important unmeasured covariates.

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