



Case-Control study

Problem

- 200 students appeared for Exam
- Only 90 passed, 110 failed
- Problem – Why many students failed?


What is the reason?

- Analysis – Possible reasons for failure
 1. Question paper difficult - No
 2. Lecture taken – Yes
 3. Attended lecture – All students did not attend.
- How do we know not attending the lecture is the correct reason?

Case Control study

Reason	Failed in exam (Problem +)	Pass (Problem -)	
Reason + (absent from lecture)	a	b	a+b
Reason '-' (present for lecture)	c	d	c+d
	a+c	b+d	

	Failed in exam (problem+)	Pass (Problem-)	
Reason '+' (absent from lecture)			a+b
Reason '-' (present for lecture)			c+d
	110 (a+c)	90 (b+d)	200

	Failed in exam (problem+)	Pass (Problem-)	
Reason '+' (absent from lecture)	 <div data-bbox="787 513 1039 730">100 (a)</div>	<div data-bbox="1228 513 1480 730">10 (b)</div>	a+b
Reason '-' (present for lecture)	<div data-bbox="787 865 1039 1082">10 (c)</div>	<div data-bbox="1228 865 1480 1082">80 (d)</div>	c+d
	110 (a+c)	90 (b+d)	200

- ***Definition***

The **Odds Ratio** is a measure of ***association*** which compares the odds of disease of those exposed (**cases**) to the odds of disease those unexposed (**control**).

- ***Formulae***

OR = (odds of disease in exposed) /
(odds of disease in the non-exposed)

odds of exposure in cases = No of cases with exposure / No of cases without exposure = **a/c**

odds of exposure in control = No of controls with exposure / No of controls without exposure = **b/d**

odds of exposure in cases = **a/c** = **ad**

odds of exposure in controls = **b/d** = **bc**

OR = $\frac{ad}{bc}$

Analysis

- Odds ratio = $a \times d / b \times c$
- $100 \times 80 / 10 \times 10$
 $= 80$
- **Students not attending lecture has 80 times more chance of failing in the exam than those who attend the lecture.**

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EpiInfo Version 6 Statcalc November 1993

+ Disease -

+	100	10	110
-	10	80	90
E	110	90	200

Analysis of Single Table
 Odds ratio = 80.00 (29.26 <OR< 228.82)
 Cornfield 95% confidence limits for OR
 Relative risk = 8.18 (4.55 <RR< 14.72)
 Taylor Series 95% confidence limits for RR
 Ignore relative risk if case control

	Chi-Square	P-values
Uncorrected :	127.35	0.0000000 ←
Mantel-Haenszel:	126.72	0.0000000 ←
Yates corrected:	124.15	0.0000000 ←

F2 More Strata; <Enter> No More Strata; F10 Done

F1-Help F2-Stratum F5-Print F6-Open File F10-Done

This result is not by chance because P-value is < (less than) 0.05

Phocomelia



Phocomelia

- In 1950 many children in Europe were born with Phocomelia
- Doctors were worried. Why is this happening?
- They asked mothers of these children
 - Was there any problem during pregnancy? No
 - Did they suffer from any disease? No
 - Did they take any medicine? Yes – Thalidomide for morning sickness

Thalidomide tragedy

- They did a Case-Control study to find whether it is the reason
- Case-Control study proved that Thalidomide was the cause
- Thalidomide was banned

Analytical epidemiology

- We test whether there is an association between a disease and the suspected factor.
- We also measure the strength of association.

Case Control study

- Sometimes called 'retrospective study'
- Is the first step to test hypothesis
- Both cause and outcome (disease) have occurred before doing the study

Case Control study

- There is a control or comparison group to test the hypothesis
- This is the most important feature of Analytical epidemiology

Design of a Case Control study

	Cases (Disease+)	Control (Disease-)	
Risk factor present(+)	a	b	
Risk factor absent (-)	c	d	
	a+c	b+d	

Design of Case Control study

	Cases (Disease +)	Control (Disease -)	
Risk factor +	a	b	
Risk factor -	c	d	
	a+c	b+d	

Steps in a Case Control study

- Selection of cases and controls
- Matching
- Measurement of exposure to risk factor
- Analysis and interpretation

Selection of Cases

- Cases selected should have the correct diagnosis.
- Only cases with the confirmed diagnosis should be included

Selection of Controls

- Controls must be **FREE** from the disease under study.
- If there are sub-clinical cases, do laboratory test to make sure that the person has no disease

Sources of controls

- Hospitals (patients having other disease)
- Neighborhood controls
- General population

- How many controls will you take for a case?
 - In large studies generally 1
 - In small studies (below 50) up to 4

Matching

- Matching is a process by which we select controls in a such a way that they are similar to cases in important variables
- Age, Sex, Occupation etc.
- By matching we can neutralize any confounding factor.

Matching - examples

- For studying Lung cancer the Controls should be males and **not** females
- For studying Lung cancer the Controls should be adult males and **not** small boys
- For studying Breast cancer the controls should be females and **not** males!
- For studying Breast cancer the controls should be adult females and **not** small girls

Measurement of exposure to cause

- There must be a clear Definition for the risk factor.
- That should be same for Cases and Controls
- E.g. Smoking- number of cigarettes, duration of smoking, type of cigarette etc.

Analysis

- Calculate exposure rates among cases and controls
- Calculate the disease risk associated with exposure (Odds ratio)

Analysis

	Cases (Lung cancer +)	Controls (No lung cancer)
Smoking +	33(a)	55(b)
Smoking -	2(c)	27(d)
	35(a+c)	82(b+d)

Exposure rate to smoking

Cases = $a/a+c$ $33/35 = 94.2\%$

Controls = $b/b+d$ $55/82 = 67\%$

Estimation of risk

- Those who are having lung cancer are smoking more(94.2%)
- However it does **not** mean that 94.2% of all smokers will develop lung cancer.
- We estimate risk to develop lung cancer in smokers by calculating 'Odds ratio'

Odds ratio

Odds ratio = ad/bc

$$33 \times 27 / 55 \times 2 = 8.1$$

Those who smoke have 8.1 times the risk of developing Lung cancer than those who do not smoke

- If the odds ratio is 1 means **no** risk or exposure doesn't affect odds of the disease.
- $OR > 1$ exposure associated with higher odds of disease.
- $OR < 1$ exposure associated with lower odds of disease.

P- value

- We have found cigarette smokers has 8.1 times more risk of getting Lung cancer
- There are thousands of Lung cancer patients in the world
- We have taken only a small sample of 35 cases
- How do we know it is true for all lung cancer patients?

P-value

- To see if this association is due to chance.
- It is the probability that the difference is due to chance
- If P value is <0.05 it is considered statistically significant.
 - P value in lung cancer study is <0.001

Analysis

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EpiInfo Version 6 Statcalc November 1993

+ Disease -						
+	<table border="1"><tr><td>33</td><td>55</td></tr><tr><td>2</td><td>27</td></tr></table>	33	55	2	27	88
33	55					
2	27					
-		29				
E	35	117				
x						
p						
o						
s						
u						
r						
e						

Analysis of Single Table
Odds ratio = 8.10 (1.70 <OR< 52.74*)
Cornfield 95% confidence limits for OR
*Cornfield not accurate. Exact limits preferred.
Relative risk = 5.44 (1.39 <RR< 21.28)
Taylor Series 95% confidence limits for RR
Ignore relative risk if case control

	Chi-Square	P-values
Uncorrected :	9.74	0.0017994 ←
Mantel-Haenszel:	9.66	0.0018828 ←
Yates corrected:	8.34	0.0038809 ←

F2 More Strata; <Enter> No More Strata; F10 Done

F1-Help F2-Stratum F5-Print F6-Open File F10-Done

CC study - advantages

- Easy to conduct
- Inexpensive
- No risk to people
- No attrition (loss of patients) problems
- No ethical problems

CC study - disadvantages

- Problem of accuracy of data
 - Loss of memory
 - How many cigarettes a person smoked 20 years ago?
 - Incomplete records
 - What medicine a lady took in pregnancy?
- Getting good controls is difficult

Summary

- Case Control study is used to test hypothesis
- It involves four steps
 - Selection of cases and controls
 - Matching
 - Measuring exposure
 - Analysis (Exposure rate, Odds ratio and P value)

Summary

- The analysis of Case Control study is by a 2x2 design
- Exposure rates are calculated among cases and controls

	Dis +	Dis -	
RF +	a	b	
RF -	c	d	
	a+c	b+d	



Summary

- Odds ratio is calculated to estimate the risk of disease among those who are exposed to the cause
- P value is calculated to know whether the difference is statistically significant



Cohort study



Cohort

- Is a group of people who share a common characteristic or experience
 - People born on a same day
 - Students who joined college in a year
 - People doing same work e.g. doctors

Cohort study

- Also called Prospective study or Incidence study.
- Is usually done **after** doing Case-Control study to get more proof of the cause of disease.
- The study is done on people **before** the disease occurs.

Design of Cohort study

	Disease +	Disease -	
Study cohort (Risk factor +)	a	b	a+b
Control cohort (Risk factor -)	c	d	c+d
	a+c	b+d	

Design of Cohort study

	Disease +	Disease -	
Study Cohort Risk factor +	a	b	a+b
Control Cohort Risk factor +	c	d	c+d
	a+c	b+d	

Elements of a Cohort study

1. Selection of study Cohort
2. Selection of comparison (Control) Cohort
3. Data collection and Follow-up
4. Analysis and interpretation

Selection of Study Cohort

- They are selected from general population or from specific groups e.g. Doctors, students etc.
- Members of the **study cohort** must **NOT** have the disease.
- Members of the **study cohort** must be exposed to the risk factor.

Selection of Control Cohort

- They are selected from general population or from specific groups e.g. Doctors, students etc.
- Members of the **control cohort** must **NOT** have the disease.
- Members of the **control cohort** must **NOT** be exposed to the risk factor.
- Members of the control cohort must be similar to the study cohort in age, sex etc.

Follow up

- Both the Study cohort and Control cohort is followed up to see how many develop the disease.
- This is done by
 - Medical examination
 - Personal visit, Phone call etc.
- Follow up is difficult because some persons will not respond.

Smoking and Lung cancer

	Disease + Lung cancer +	Disease - No Lung cancer	
Study Cohort Smoking +	70 (a)	6930 (b)	7000 a+b
Control Cohort Smoking -	3 (c)	2997 (d)	3000 c+d
	a+c	b+d	

	Disease + Lung cancer +	Disease – No Lung cancer	
Study Cohort Smoking +	70 (a)	6930 (b)	7000 a+b
Control Cohort Smoking -	3 (c)	2997 (d)	3000 c+d
	a+c	b+d	

Incidence rate among smokers = $70/7000 = 10$ per 1000

Incidence rate among non-smokers = $3/3000 = 1$ per 1000

Relative risk =

Incidence of disease among exposed

Incidence of disease among non-exposed

10/1 = 10

- Relative risk of 10 means that those who smoke have 10 times more risk of developing lung cancer than those who are not smoking.
- If relative risk is 1, that means there is no risk.

P value

- There are many millions of cigarette smokers.
- We have studied only 7000.
- We have to know whether the Relative Risk of 10 is by chance or not.
- We calculate the P value. If the P value is less than($<$) 0.05 we accept the Relative Risk.
- P value in our Lung cancer study is <0.001

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EpiInfo Version 6 Statcalc November 1993

+ Disease -

70	6930	7000
3	2997	3000
73	9927	10000

Analysis of Single Table
 Odds ratio = 10.09 (3.07 <OR< 40.11*)
 Cornfield 95% confidence limits for OR
 *Cornfield not accurate. Exact limits preferred.
 Relative risk = 10.00 (3.15 <RR< 31.73)
 Taylor Series 95% confidence limits for RR
 Ignore relative risk if case control study.

	Chi-Square	P-values
Uncorrected :	23.47	0.0000013 ←
Mantel-Haenszel:	23.47	0.0000013 ←
Yates corrected:	22.25	0.0000024 ←

F2 More Strata; <Enter> No More Strata; F10 Quit

F1-Help F2-Stratun F5-Print F6-Open File F10-Done

This result is not by chance because P-value is < (less than) 0.05.

Advantage of Cohort study

- Incidence of disease can be calculated.
- More than one disease due to the risk factor can be studied.
 - Smoking and Lung cancer, peptic ulcer, Coronary heart disease etc.
- Gives better proof of the risk factor than Case Control study.

Disadvantages

- It takes long time to complete study.
- Persons may lose interest and will not come for follow-up.
- The person who is doing the study may lose interest or take another job.
- Cohort studies are expensive.
- Has more ethical problems.

Summary

- Cohort study gives better proof of the cause of disease.
- A group of people (Study Cohort) with the risk factor is selected.
- Another group of people (Control Cohort) without the risk factor is selected.
- Both groups are followed up to see how many develop disease.

Summary

- Incidence rate of disease is calculated among study cohort.
- Incidence rate of disease is calculated among the control cohort.
- Relative risk is calculated.
- Cohort study is more difficult and expensive than Case Control study.