Epidemiologic Methods 2

Research Skill 2

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Topics

- Association
- Internal and External validity
- Causation

Association



Relative measures (Multiplicative)

Additive measures (Health impact)

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Relative Risk (RR)
Odds Ratio (OR)

Attributable risk (AR_{exp})

- Other names: Excess risk, Risk difference
- the difference between the incidence rates in exposed and non-exposed groups

AR_{exp} = Incidence in exposed – Incidence in un-exposed

 Excess risk of the outcome in the exposed group compared with the non-exposed group.

Association between contraceptive pills use and urinary tract infection (UTI)

D'II.	UTI		Total
Pills use	Yes	No	
Yes	27	455	482
No	31	1,831	1,862
Total	58	2,286	2,344

AR = Incidence in exposed - Incidence in un-exposed = a / (a + b) - c / (c + d) = (27/482) - (31/1,862)

$$= 0.056 - 0.017 = 0.039$$

Attributable risk percent (%AR_{exp})

- Other names: Attributable rate percent, Attributable proportion, Etiologic fraction
- Percentage of disease in the exposed group that can be attributed to the exposure.
- Proportion of disease which can be reduced among exposed the risk factor is removed.

$$%AR_{exp} = \frac{AR_{exp}}{Incidence in exposed} \times 100$$

Association between contraceptive pills use and urinary tract infection (UTI)

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Pills use	Yes	No	
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$$%AR = \frac{AR}{\text{Incidence in exposed}} \times 100$$

$$= \frac{0.039}{0.056} \times 100 = 69.64\%$$

Population attributable risk (PAR)

 Proportion of disease in the study population that is attributable to the exposure

PAR = Incidence in population – Incidence in unexposed or

= (AR) * (proportion of exposed in the population)

Association between contraceptive pills use and urinary tract infection (UTI)

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Total	58	2,286	2,344

PAR =Incidence in population - Incidence in un-exposed

$$= a + c / (a+b+c+d) - c / (c + d) = (58/2,344) - (31/1,862)$$

$$= 0.025 - 0.017 = 0.008$$

Population attributable risk (%PAR)

- Percentage of disease in the population that can be attributed to the exposure.
- Proportion of disease which can be reduced in population if the risk factor is removed.

%PAR =
$$\frac{PAR}{Incidence of disease in population} \times 100$$
$$= \frac{\{Pe(RR-1)\}}{\{Pe(RR-1)\} + 1} \times 100$$

Pe=proportion of exposure in population

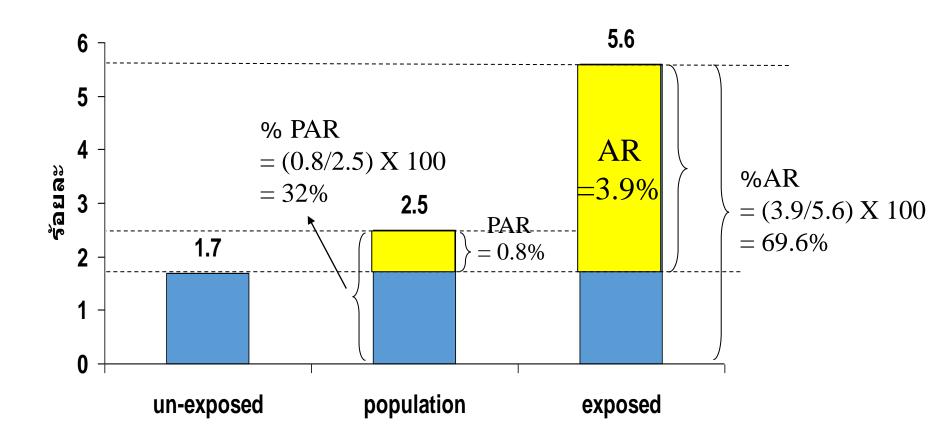
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D'II.	UTI		Total
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$$%PAR = \frac{PAR}{Incidence in population} X 100$$

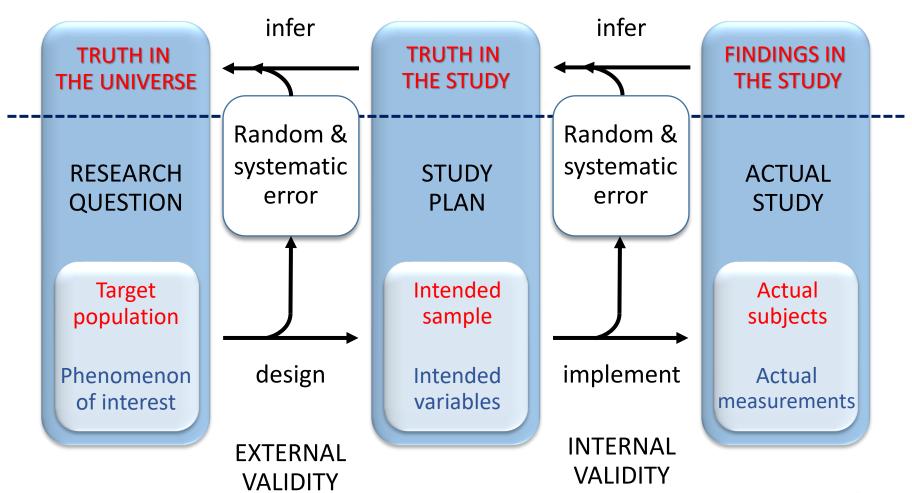
$$= \frac{0.008}{0.025} X 100 = 32\%$$

Diagram shows relationships between AR, %AR, PAR, %PAR



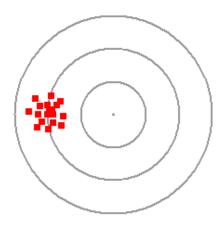
Internal and external validity

How research works

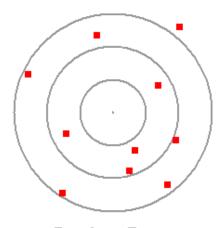


Internal validity

- Systemic error
 - Selection bias
 - Information bias
 - Confounding
- Random error (chance)
 - Inadequate sample size

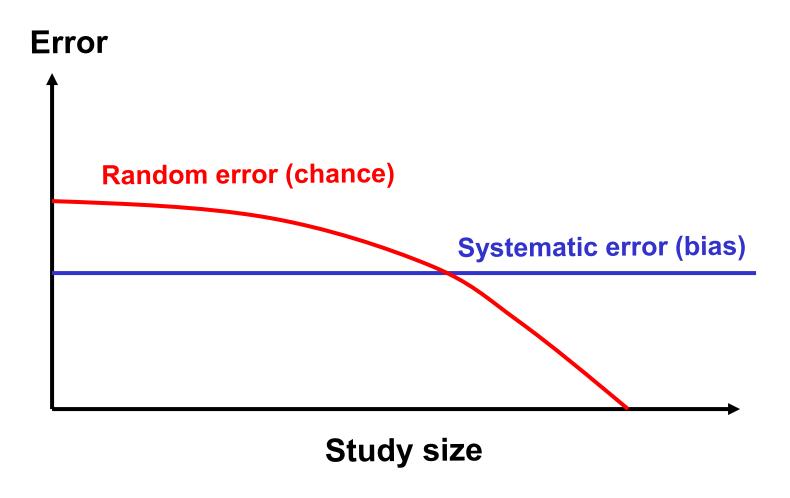


Systematic Error



Random Error

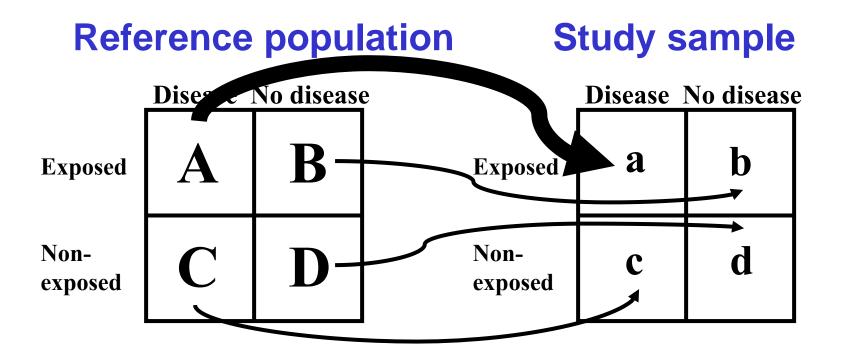
Errors in Epidemiological studies



Source: Rothman, 2002

Selection bias

- Bias of study results due to bias in selecting the study subjects
- Some types of population were sampled into study more than others



Healthy worker effect (HWE)

- "Workers usually exhibit lower overall death rates than the general population because the severely ill and chronically disabled are ordinarily excluded from employment" – Last, 1995.
- The reduction of mortality or morbidity of workers when compared with the general population leads to underestimation of the exposed risk among workers.

Mortality (SMR) of gas workers compared with national experience (Doll et al. 1965)

Heavy exposure	105
Intermediate exposure	90
No exposure	84

SMR in general population = 100

Healthy worker effect (HWE)

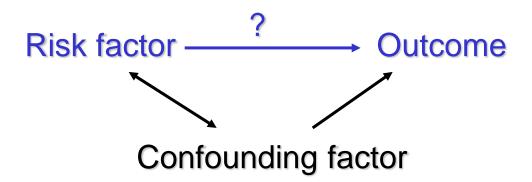
- Healthy hire: Employees in certain professions need to be ablebodied. Further, hiring of workers may be affected by personal habits and physical conditioning such as weight, alcohol intake, smoking, or gender depending on the situation
- Survival effect: Over time, the health status of workers drops, and they leave the workforce. The ones who remain over time are the healthiest of those who started.
- Advantages of working: Workers tend to remain employed as a result of their improved access to healthcare, regular screening for disease, early treatment of conditions, and physical exercise.

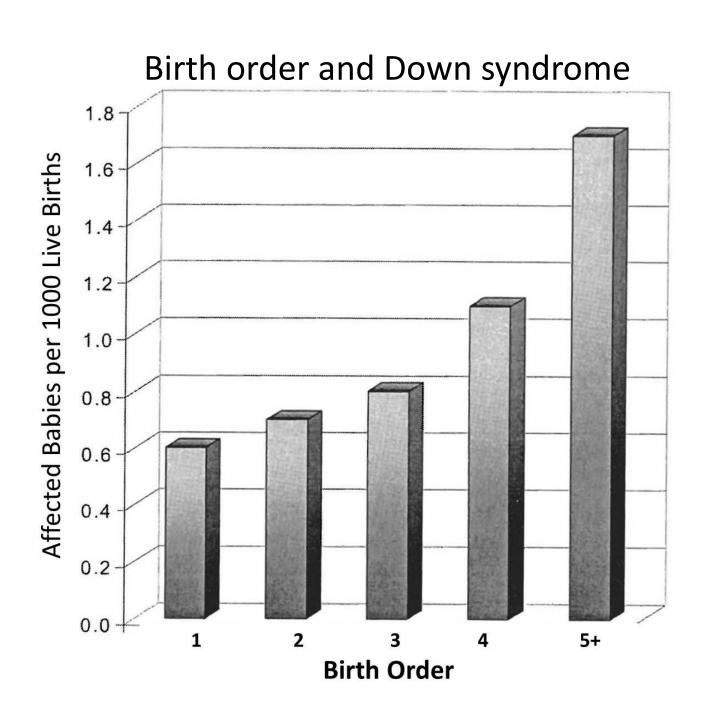
Information bias

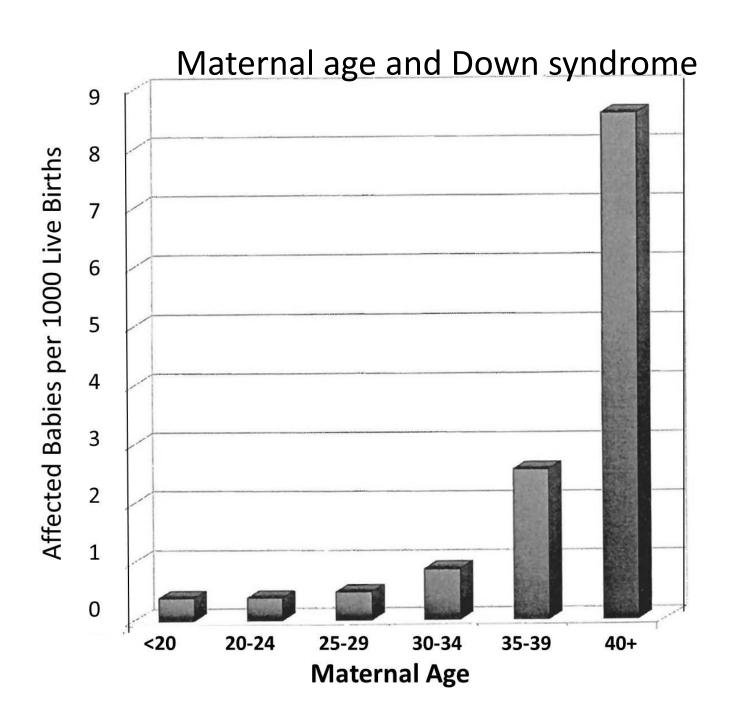
- Bias during data collection process
- Systematic different in collecting data regarding risk factor (intervention) or outcome
- Example
 - Instrument bias
 - Interviewer bias
 - Recall bias
 - End digit preference bias

Confounding

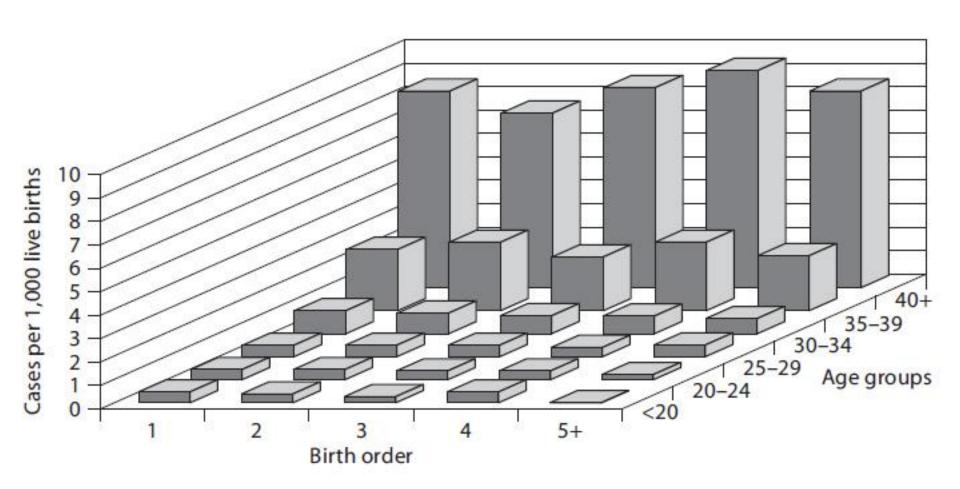
- Wrongly conclude the association between the variables under study due to the effect of other variable (Confounding factor)
- The confounding factor must:
 - Be risk factor of outcome under study
 - Associate with the risk factor



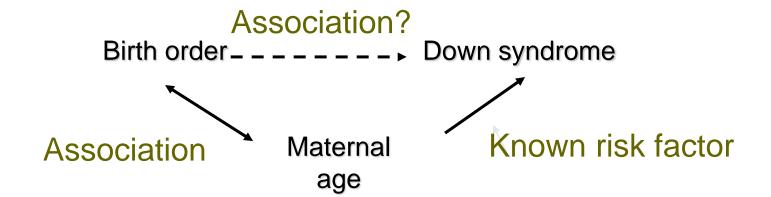




Birth order and Down syndrome stratified by age group



Confounding



Question: "Does treatment A improve survival?"

E = Treatment

D = Survival

	Survived	Died	\neg	% survived
Treatment A	18	12	30	60%
Placebo	12	18	30	40%

RR = 1.5

"Patients getting treatment A were 1.5 times more likely to survive than patients receiving placebo"

 This analysis <u>only</u> examined the exposure and disease

We call this "crude analysis", or a "crude association"

 Is there some <u>other</u> variable that distorts the real association?

Early stage disease	Survived	Died	\neg	% survived
Treatment A	17	3	20	85%
Placebo	9	1	10	90%
Late stage disease	Survived	Died	_	% survived
Treatment A	1	9	10	10%
Placebo	3	17	20	15%

Early	stage	disease
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Treatment A

Placebo

Survived	Died		
17	3	20	RR = 0.94
9	1	10	

Died

Late stage disease

Treatment A

Placebo

1	9
3	17

Survived

10

 $\mathbf{RR} = \mathbf{0.67}$

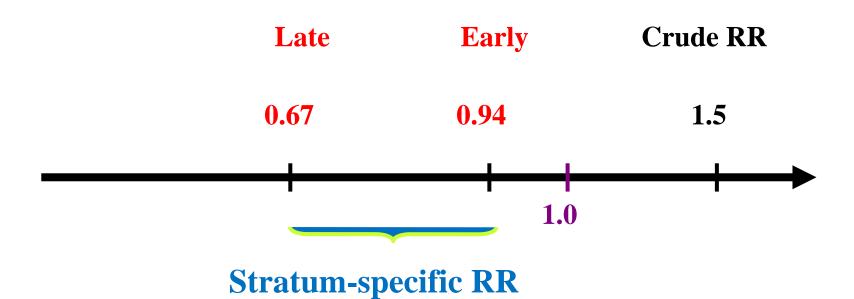
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- The potential confounder is: stage of disease at the time of therapy
- Early stage is associated with better survival (C → D)
- More persons in early stage received treatment A than those in late stage (C → E)
- In <u>both</u> cases, treatment A is <u>not</u> associated with better survival

How to Identify Confounding

- Examine 2 x 2 table and E-D association (RR or OR) for each value of confounding variable
- This is called "stratum-specific analysis", or "stratified analysis"
 - e.g. Strata 1= Early stage Strata 2= Late stage
- If crude RR is not inside the range of stratumspecific RR, AND, stratum specific RR are "similar" to each other, then confounding is occurring

Example of confounding



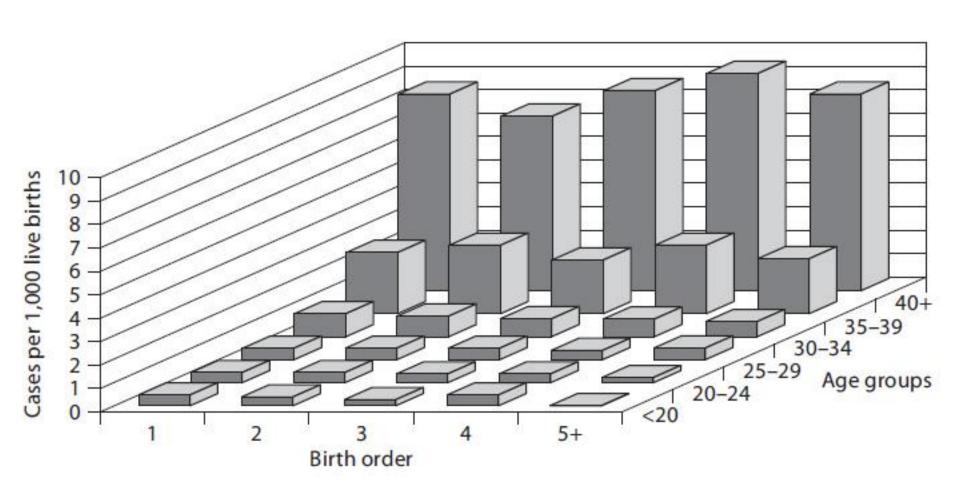
Effects of Confounding

- Confounding can result in either overestimation or underestimation of the "true" association between E and D
- In this example, confounding led to an overestimation of the association

Control of Confounding

- Design
 - Randomization
 - Restriction
 - Matching
- Analysis
 - Stratification
 - Adjustment

Stratification



Stratified by age group

Adjustment

- We want to show the "true" relationship between treatment A and survival, controlling for stage of disease
- We must calculate an "adjusted RR" that removes the effect of the confounder
- Most computer programs will do this for you

The Mantel- Haenszel Adjusted RR or OR

- Calculates a weighted average of each of the 2 x 2 tables (the different strata)
- Takes out influence of third variable (e.g stage of disease) by making the result "as if" there were equal numbers of subjects in each group
- Computers can do this

Adjusted RR

Died

Died

20

10

10

20

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Treatment A

Placebo

Sui viveu	Dicu
17	3
9	1

Survived

Survived

RR = 0.94

Late stage

Treatment A

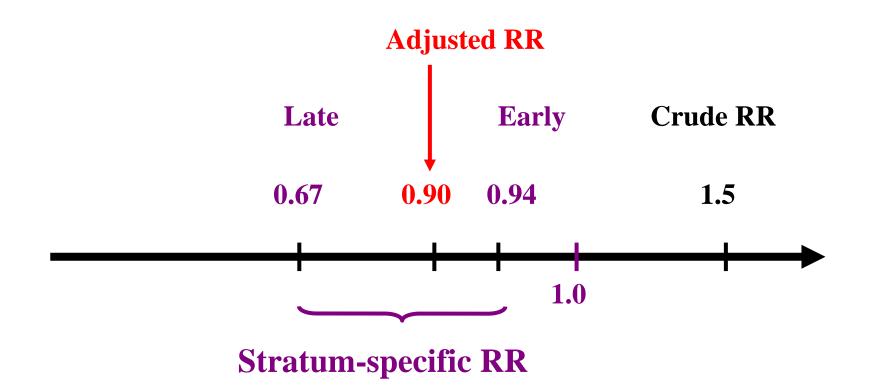
Placebo

1	9
3	17

RR = 0.67

 $RR_{MH} = 0.90$

Example of Adjusting for Confounding



Results of the National Health Examination Survey V (2013-2014)

Diagnosed with HT	n/N	(%)	OR (95% CI)	
Marital status				
- Single	280/2,056	(13.6)	1	
- Married	3,007/12,576	(23.9)	2.00 (1.75-2.28)	
- Widow/divorce	1,188/3,203	(37.1)	3.74 (3.24-4.32)	

	AOR (95% CI)
	1
	1.04 (0.89-1.20)
	1.17 (0.98-1.38)

Adjusted for age

Interaction (Effect Modification)

Effect Modification

The relation between an exposure and an outcome/disease is modified by the presence or absence of a third factor.

Example

Question: "Are women at greater risk of hip fracture than men?"

Study design: Case Control study (n=387)

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E = exposure = female
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D = disease = hip fracture (HF)

EM = effect modifier = age

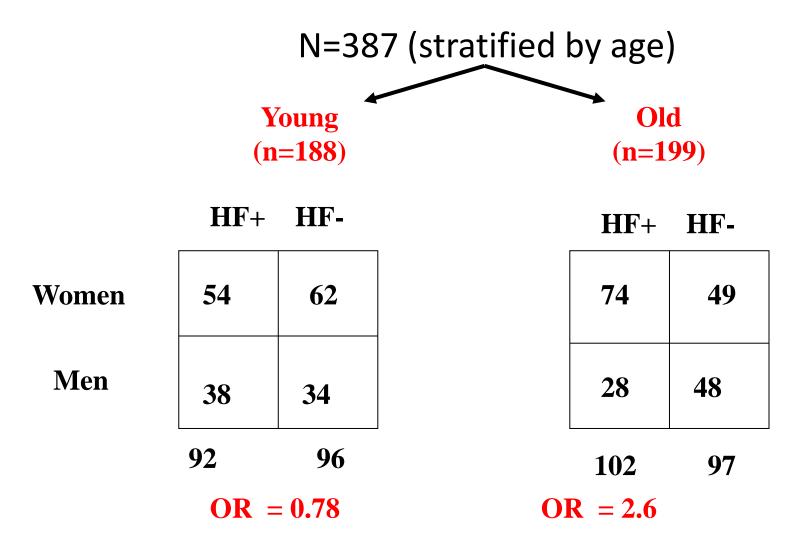
Example (N=387)

	Hip fracture	No hip fracture	
Women	128	111	239
Men	66	82	148
	194	193	•
OR = (128x8)	32) / (66x111)	= 1.4	

"The odds of suffering from a hip fracture are 1.4 times greater for women than men"

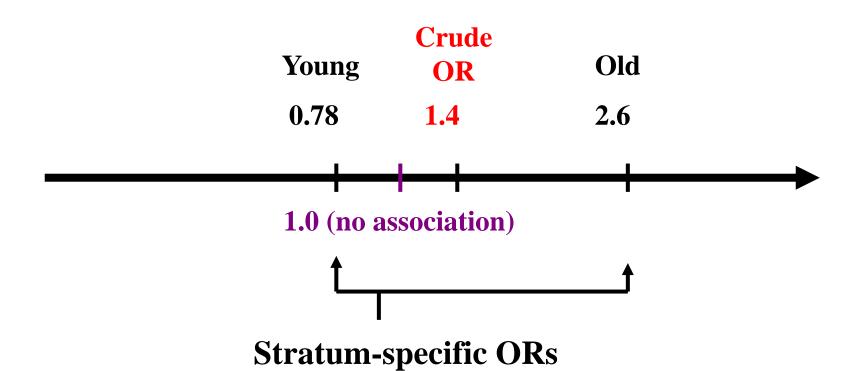
Example

- This analysis <u>only</u> examined the exposure and disease
- We call this "crude analysis" (simple analysis)
- Is there some other variable that modifies exposure-disease association?
- Age?



"The association between sex and hip fracture is modified by age."

Effect Modification



Effect Modification

- The effect should be shown (present stratum specific RR/ORs rather than crude RR/OR-do not combine RR/OR!!!!).
 - Crude OR (1.4) OR Combined OR does <u>not</u> accurately describe the relation between sex and HF
 - Stratum specific ORs (0.78 and 2.6) better describe the true relation between sex and HF

Confounding ≠ Effect Modification

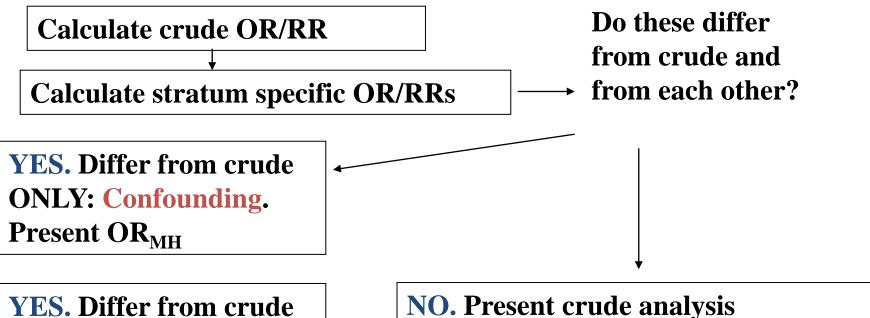
Confounding

- Bias
- Control confounding
- Something to eliminate

Effect Modification

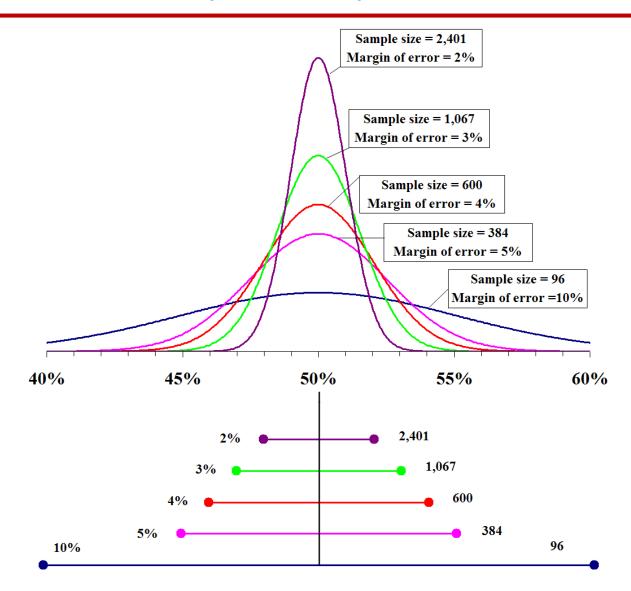
- Description of effect
- Report effect modification
- Something to show

Assessment and Control of Confounding and Effect Modification with Stratified Analysis



YES. Differ from crude AND each other: Effect Modification: Present stratum specific ORs/RRs

Random error (chance)



External validity, Generalizability

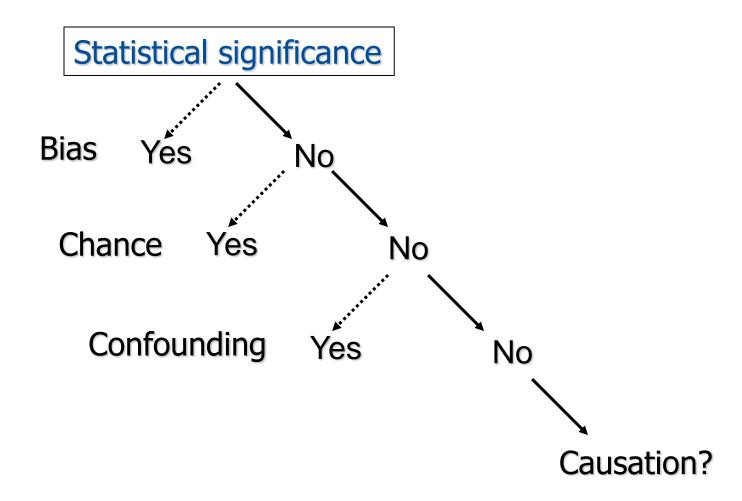
- How much would the study results still be true when apply to other populations or situations
 - Infer the study result from subjects to accessible population (geographical and time)
 - Infer the study result from accessible population to target population (demographic and clinical characteristics)
- Biomedical association has higher external validity when compared to behavior or social association

Example

Study rocult	External	
Study result	validity	
A new COVID-19 vaccine showed efficacy in	high	
prevention of new infections.		
A new surgical technique to remove gall bladder is	medium	
better than the standard technique.		
A sex education curriculum helped reduce sexual risk	low	
behavior in a high school youth in Chiang Mai		

Causation

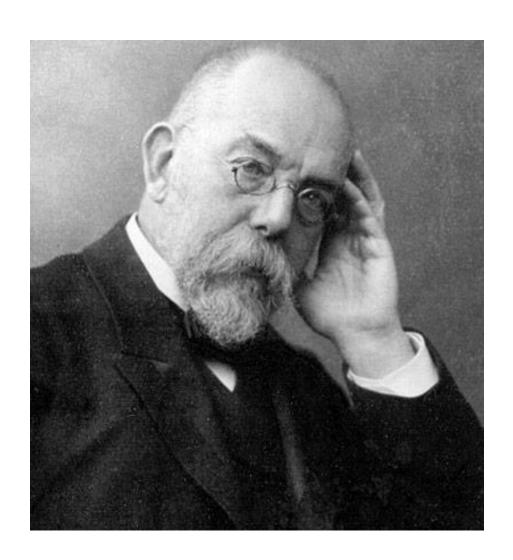
Association & causation



Cause and effect association

- Koch's postulates
- Hill's criteria of causality
- Concept of sufficient cause and component causes

Koch's postulates



Robert Koch 1843-1910

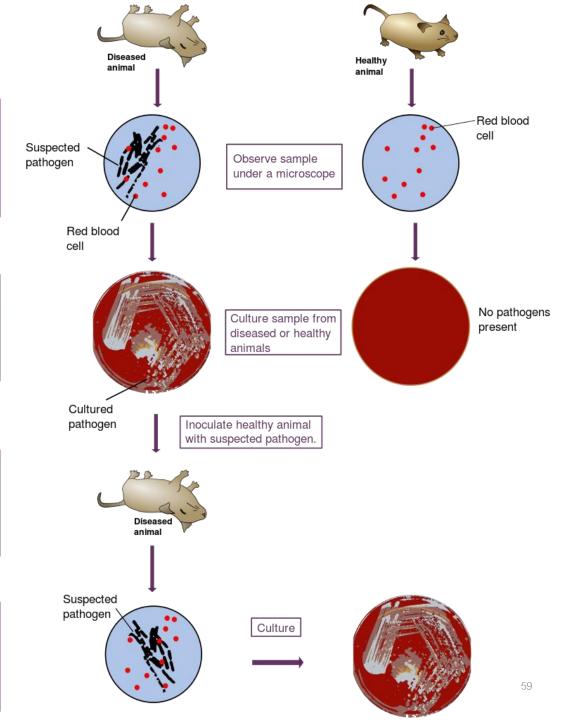
Koch's Postulates:

The microorganism must be found in abundance in all organisms suffering from the disease, but should not be found in healthy organisms.

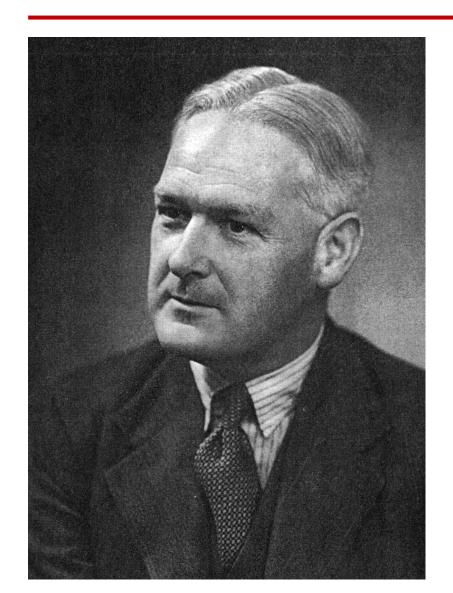
② The microorganism must be isolated from a diseased organism and grown in pure culture.

The cultured microorganism should cause disease when introduced into a healthy organism.

The microorganism must be reisolated from the inoculated, diseased experimental host and identified as being identical to the original specific causative agent.



Hill's criteria of causality



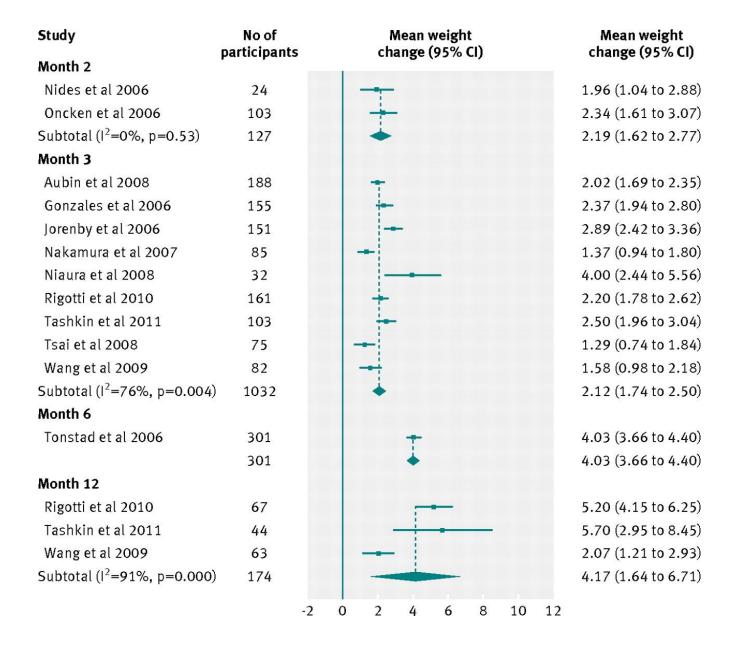
Sir Austin Bradford Hill

1897-1991

Hill's criteria of causality

- Strength: The stronger the association between the exposure to a treatment and the clinical outcome, the less likely it is influenced by an external variable.
- Consistency: Consistent findings observed by different persons in different places with different samples strengthens the likelihood of an effect.

Weight gain in smoker after quitting cigarette (Aubin HJ, et al. 2012)

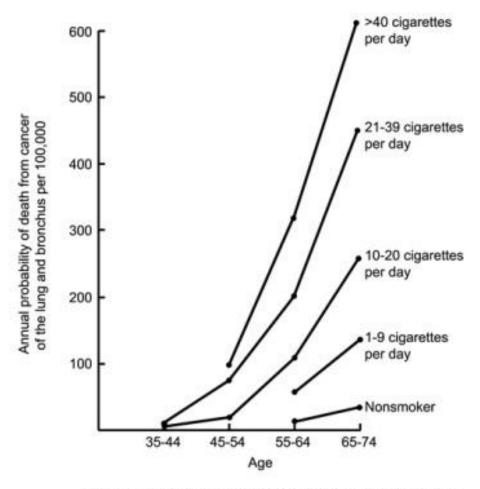


Hill's criteria of causality

- Strength: A small association does not mean that there is not a causal effect, though the larger the association, the more likely that it is causal.
- Consistency: Consistent findings observed by different persons in different places with different samples strengthens the likelihood of an effect.
- Specificity: Causation is likely if a very specific population at a specific site and disease with no other likely explanation. The more specific an association between a factor and an effect is, the bigger the probability of a causal relationship.

Hill's criteria of causality

- **Temporality**: The effect has to occur after the cause (and if there is an expected delay between the cause and expected effect, then the effect must occur after that delay).
- Biological gradient: Greater exposure should generally lead to greater incidence of the effect. However, in some cases, the mere presence of the factor can trigger the effect. In other cases, an inverse proportion is observed: greater exposure leads to lower incidence.



Death rates from cancer of the lung and bronchus in nonsmokers and smokers of various numbers of cigarettes per day.

Source: Kahn (1966).

Hill's criteria of causality

- Temporality: The effect has to occur after the cause (and if there is an expected delay between the cause and expected effect, then the effect must occur after that delay).
- Biological gradient: Greater exposure should generally lead to greater incidence of the effect. However, in some cases, the mere presence of the factor can trigger the effect. In other cases, an inverse proportion is observed: greater exposure leads to lower incidence.
- Plausibility: There is stronger support for causality if there is a likely biological or pharmacological mechanism that can explain the association between exposure to treatment and the outcome.

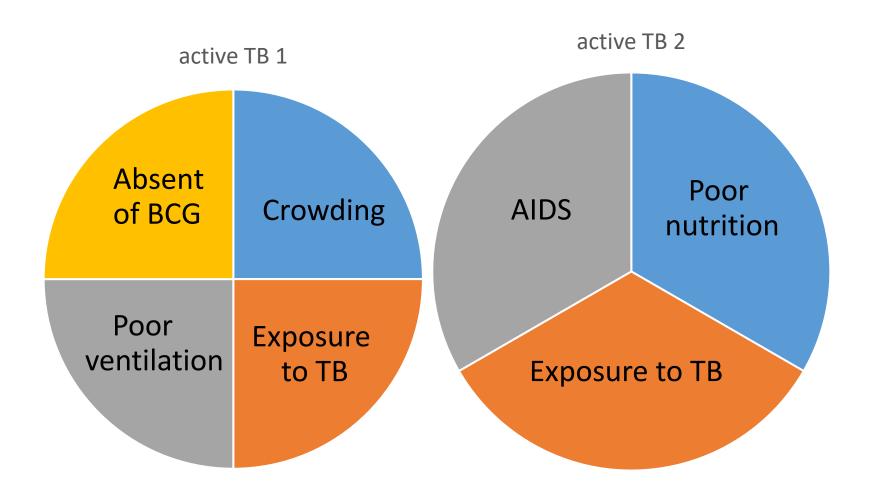
Hill's criteria of causality

- Coherence: Causality between exposures to an intervention and the observed findings is supported when the association is coherent with current knowledge of the disease. Vice versa, conflicting or lack of supporting evidence would count against coherence.
- Experiment: If experimental manipulation of the exposure-outcome association impacts the outcome, experimental evidence is given.
 This delivers the strong support for causation.
- Analogy: The effect of similar factors may be considered as association.

Concept of sufficient cause and component causes

- Cause: an agent, event, condition or characteristic which plays an essential role in producing an occurrence of the disease
- Component causes: disease outcomes have multiple contributing determinants that act together to produce a given instance of disease
- Sufficient cause: a minimum set of factors and circumstances that, if present in a given individual, will produce the disease

Example: TB



Sufficient cause model

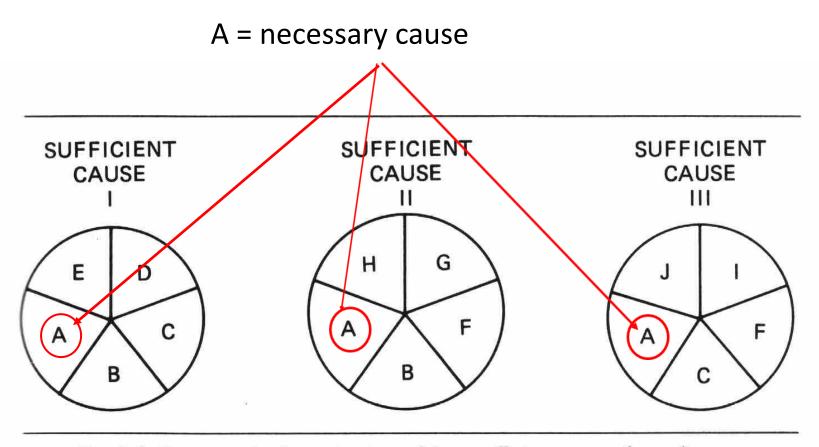


Fig. 2-1. Conceptual schematization of three sufficient causes for a disease [Rothman, 1976].

Example: TB

