

CMED 305

Case Control Studies

Nurah Alamro, MD. MPH. DrPH. Assistant Professor - Community Medicine Unit, Family & Community Medicine Department <u>nmalamro@ksu.edu.sa</u> **Learning Objectives:** By end of this session students will be able to:

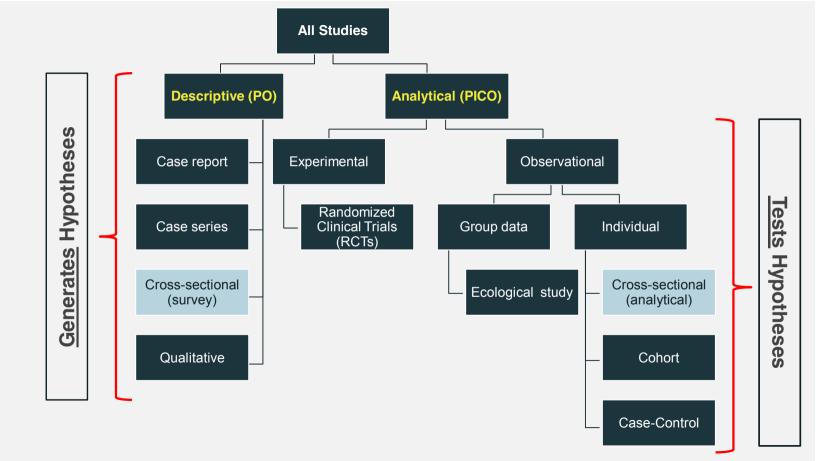
1. Describe the design of case-control studies

2. Identify steps for conducting case-control studies

3. Identify issues in the design of case-control studies

4. Describe the strengths and weaknesses of case-control studies





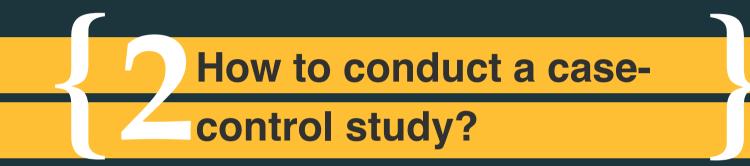
A case-control study is a study that **compares** patients who have a disease or outcome of interest (cases) with *patients* who do not have the disease or outcome (controls), and looks back retrospectively to compare how frequently the exposure to a risk factor is present in each group to determine the relationship between the risk factor and the disease.

When to Conduct a Case-Control Study

- The outcome of interest is rare
- Multiple exposures may be associated with a single outcome
- Funding or time is limited

(1) To <u>investigate cause-effect</u>
when experimental trials (e.g.
RCT) are not ethical or feasible,
(lung cancer and smoking)

(2) To <u>investigate cause-effect</u> when cohort studies are expensive or non-feasible e.g. (to investigate etiology of rare disease e.g. cancer)



1- Define a **source population**

Steps in conducting a case-control study 2- Determine **Study Subjects:** "<u>Cases</u>" (<u>Case-subjects:</u> They have the disease or outcome of interest)

> 3- Determine Study Subjects: "Controls"

(**Control-subjects:** They **DO NOT** have the disease or outcome of interest)

4- Decide on the Ratio of Cases to Controls

Important principles in case-control study design - will discuss more later



6- Estimate sample size

5- Decide on Matching Cases

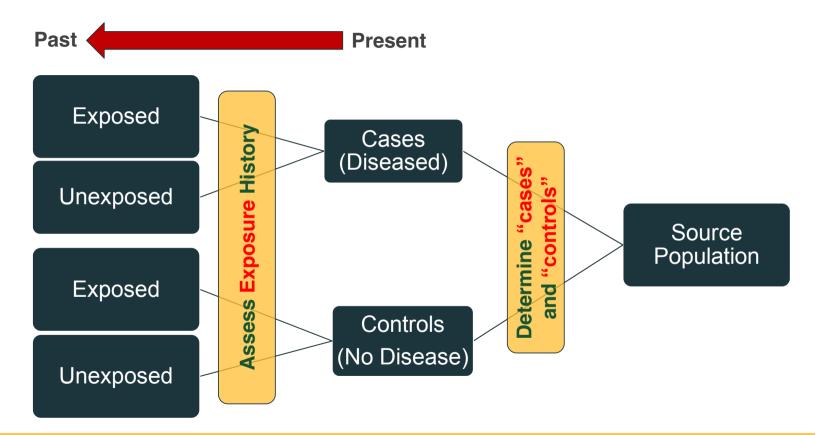
7- <u>Select</u> Cases and Controls

8- Measure Exposure (Risk Factor(s))

9- Analyze the data

Important principles in case-control study design – will discuss more later

and Controls



The study Subjects: "Cases" = WHO IS THE CASE

Sou	rces for Cases	Selection of Cases	
Hospital- Based	Cases admitted to or discharged from a hospital, clinic or any health care facility.	 Establish a"standard case definition": adopt a "standard diagnostic criteria" Set inclusion and exclusion criteria: 	
Population-based	Death certificates with recorded cause of death.	 Area of residence, age, gender, etc 3) Decide on the type of cases: incident cases (newly diagnosed 	
	Disease registries (e.g. Cancer registry)	cases)	
	Incident cases in a going cohort study	 prevalent cases ((people who may have had the disease for some 	
	Cases reported or diagnosed during a survey or surveillance system	time)	
	Employment records		

The study Subjects: "Controls" = WHO IS THE CONTROL

Hospital-Based Controls		Community-Based Controls		
Advantages	Disadvantages	Advantages	Disadvantages	
 Subjects are easily accessible. Patients usually have time to participate. Patients are often motivated to cooperate with investigators. Controls and cases may be drawn from similar social and geographical environment. Differential recalls of prior exposure is likely to be minimized. 	 Differential hospitalization patterns may introduce selection bias. Difficult to blind disease status from cases and controls. An underestimate of the study effect may result if control's disease is etiologically similar to cases' disease 	 Reduction of selection bias. Generalization of study results is more valid. May provide convenient control of extraneous (confounding) variables. 	 Time and money consuming. May suffer low participation rate. Cases and control may exhibit differential recall of prior exposures. 	

The study Subjects: "Controls" = WHO IS THE CONTROL

Selection of Controls:

- The <u>ideal</u> "controls" are the healthy ones (very challenging!)
- It is crucial to select control group/s from people who we are certain not to have got the specified disease/condition.

• Aim of selecting controls:

- Is to compare the exposure rate among both cases and controls (e.g. % smoking among cases and controls)
- Then to confirm/refute if that the risk factor has occurred more frequently in the cases than in the controls using the measurement of association.

Determining controls

•3- Being <u>comparable</u> to cases in terms <u>of</u> <u>susceptibility</u>

2- <u>Free</u> from health problems <u>known to be associated</u> <u>with the exposure</u>

•1- <u>Free from the disease</u> / health problem under investigation

The control and the Ratio of Cases to Controls

- The ratio of cases to control should be at least and ideally 1:1
- However, in many situations we may not be able recruit a large number of cases and it may be easier to recruit more controls for the study.
- It has been suggested that we can increase the number of controls to increase statistical power (if we have limited number of cases) of the study.
- Increase in the ratio lead to increase in "study precision": 1:2, 1:3, 1:4
- Further increase in the ratio is associated with little increase in study precision relative to the cost involved (i.e will not add much to the study power but will add to the cost!)

The content of Matching Cases and Controls

- A major concern in conducting a case-control study is that cases and controls <u>may differ in</u> <u>characteristics or exposures other than the one that has been targeted for study.</u>
- An approach to deal with this challenge: Matching!
- <u>Matching</u>: The process of selecting the controls so that they are similar to the cases in certain characteristics (confounders), such as age, race, gender, socioeconomic status, and occupation.
- Matching reduces the possible <u>confounding effect</u>
- Matching on several characteristics is not advisable as it:
 - Creates difficulties in finding controls
 - Requires more complex statistical analysis
 - May result in overmatching

Analysis in Case-Control Studies

- The odds ratio (OR) is used in case-control studies to estimate the strength of the association between exposure and outcome.
- Note that it is <u>not possible to estimate the incidence of disease from a case</u> <u>control study</u> unless the study is population based and all cases in a defined population are obtained.
- The odds ratio is a measure of the odds of disease in the exposed compared to the odds of disease in the unexposed (controls) and is calculated as: OR = ad/bc
- OR interpretations: OR>1, OR=1, OR<1



Case-control study of vaping and pulmonary illness among 100 cases and 400 controls.

Exposure: vaping **Outcome:** pulmonary illness

	cases	controls	Total
vaping	60	100	160
No vaping	40	300	340
Total	100	400	500

	cases		controls		Total
vaping	60	а	100	b	160
No vaping	40	С	300	d	340
Total	100		400		500

OR = <u>Odds of exposure among cases (a/c)</u>

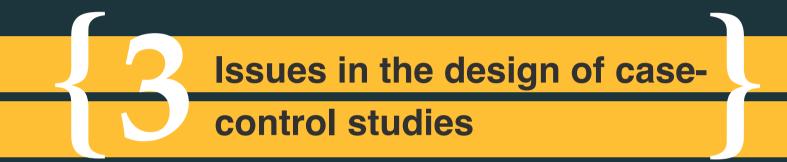
Odds of exposure among controls(b/d)

= ad / bc

= (60X300) / (100X40) = 4.5

What does 4.5 mean??

Those who vape are 4.5 times more likely to develop pulmonary illness than non-vaping



Formulation of a clearly defined hypothesis, case, and sources

- **Clearly defined hypothesis:** a case-control study should begin with the formulation of a clearly defined hypothesis.
- **Case definition:** It is essential that the case definition is clearly defined at the outset of the investigation to ensure that all cases included in the study are based on the same diagnostic criteria.
- Source of cases: The source of cases needs to be clearly defined.

Measuring exposure status

- In case-control studies, the measurement of exposure is established <u>after</u> the development of disease.
- As a result is prone to both **recall** and **observer bias**.
- Various methods can be used <u>to ascertain exposure status</u>, including:
 - Standardized questionnaires
 - Biological samples
 - Interviews with the subject
 - Interviews with spouse or other family members
 - Medical records
 - Employment records
 - Pharmacy records
- The procedures used for the collection of exposure data <u>should</u> be the same for cases and controls.

 Selection bias: Selection bias occurs when the persons in one group are different on some factor (other than disease)

- **2.** Ascertainment bias: may arise because:
 - Cases may recall exposure better
 - Investigators may search for exposure more thoroughly in cases
 - Different data collection instrument may be used for the controls

3. Confounding

Confounding in Case-Control Studies

- The two groups differ in some characteristic which is associated with both the outcome and exposure being studied
- A confounding variable is one that **can influence both the exposure and the outcome**

E.g. in relation between vaping and pulmonary illness, cigarette smoking is a likely confounder

 Males who use vapors are more likely to smoke, and smoking is strongly associated with pulmonary illness. <u>Age could be another confounder!</u>

E.g., is vapors use associated with pulmonary illness?

- Cases: all males admitted to hospital with pulmonary illness aged 20-49 in region X
- Controls: a random sample of resident males in region X; age: 20-49 who have not had pulmonary illness
- Exposure: vapors use during 3 months prior to interview
- Data collection: personal interview of cases and controls cases in hospital, controls telephone interview
- Potential bias: cases are younger than controls. Age is related to both exposure (vapors use) and outcome (pulmonary illness)



Strengths

- Cost effective relative to other analytical studies such as cohort studies.
- Case-control studies are retrospective, and cases are identified at the beginning of the study; therefore there is no long follow up period (as compared to cohort studies).
- Efficient for the study of diseases with long latency periods.
- Efficient for the study of rare diseases.
- Good for examining multiple exposures.

Weakness

- Particularly prone to bias; especially selection, recall and observer bias.
- Case-control studies are limited to examining one outcome.
- <u>Unable to estimate incidence rates</u> of disease (unless study is population based).
- Poor choice for the study of rare exposures.

Thank you!

Office Hours (by appointment via email): Mondays & Wednesdays 11 AM – 1 PM College of Medicine West Building Level 1 - Office 4011034

nmalamro@ksu.edu.sa

References:

- Celentano, David D., and Scd Mhs. Gordis Epidemiology. Elsevier, 2018.
- Hulley, Stephen B., ed. Designing clinical research. Lippincott Williams & Wilkins, 2007.
- Haynes, R. Brian. Clinical epidemiology: how to do clinical practice research. Lippincott williams & wilkins, 2012.
- Carlson, Melissa DA, and R. Sean Morrison. "Study design, precision, and validity in observational studies." Journal of palliative medicine 12.1 (2009): 77-82.
- The Centre for Evidence-Based Medicine develops, promotes and disseminates better evidence for healthcare. Study Design. NA. Accessed September 13, 2019: https://www.cebm.net/2014/04/study-designs/
- Alexander, Lorraine K., Brettania Lopes, Kristen Ricchetti-Masterson, and Karin B. Yeatts. "ERIC notebook." 2014.
- Coggon, David, David Barker, and Geoffrey Rose. Epidemiology for the Uninitiated. John Wiley & Sons, 2009.
- Hennekens, Charles H., and J. E. Buring. "Case-control studies." Epidemiology in medicine (1987): 132-152.