Suppose you have the following 2x2 table:

	Exposed	Not exposed	
Disease	а	b	a+b
No Disease	С	d	c+d
	a+c	b+d	N

In a *prospective* study you start by collecting a bunch of people who either were or were not exposed and follow them forward to see if they get the disease. Then you compare the proportion of people who get the disease in those two exposure groups.

So you want to compare the following probabilities:

$$\theta_1$$
 = P(disease| exposed)
 θ_2 = P(disease| not exposed)

where
$$\hat{\theta}_1 = \frac{a}{a+c}$$
 and $\hat{\theta}_2 = \frac{b}{b+d}$

The estimated odds ratio of disease is given by

$$\frac{\hat{\theta}_{1}/(1-\hat{\theta}_{1})}{\hat{\theta}_{2}/(1-\hat{\theta}_{2})} = \frac{\hat{\theta}_{1}(1-\hat{\theta}_{2})}{\hat{\theta}_{2}(1-\hat{\theta}_{1})} = \frac{ad}{bc}$$

And the estimated relative risk is given by

$$\frac{\hat{\theta}_1}{\hat{\theta}_2} = \frac{a(b+d)}{b(a+c)}$$

Now in a retrospective study, you start by collecting a bunch of people who either have or do not have the disease and you look back into the past to see if they were exposed.

But now you can not compare the conditional probabilities above, because the number of people who have the disease is fixed by the study design.

So you have the same table, but you want to compare the following probabilities:

$$\theta_3$$
 = P(exposed| disease)
 θ_4 = P(exposed| no disease)

where
$$\hat{\theta}_3 = \frac{a}{a+b}$$
 and $\hat{\theta}_4 = \frac{c}{c+d}$

Luckily, the estimated odds ratio for exposure is the same as the odds ratio for disease before

$$\frac{\hat{\theta}_3 / (1 - \hat{\theta}_3)}{\hat{\theta}_4 / (1 - \hat{\theta}_4)} = \frac{\hat{\theta}_3 (1 - \hat{\theta}_4)}{\hat{\theta}_4 (1 - \hat{\theta}_3)} = \frac{ad}{bc}$$

Here the associated relative risk is:

$$\frac{\hat{\theta}_3}{\hat{\theta}_4} = \frac{a(c+d)}{c(a+b)}$$

Here is the example we discussed in class. Suppose we collected data on the relationship between some disease and exposure, say cancer and living by power lines. And we collect the following data from 3500 females.

Females	Live close	Do not liver	
	to power	close to	
	lines	power lines	
Cancer	110	380	490
No Cancer	390	2620	3010
	500	3000	3500

The analysis yields:

. csi 110 380 390 2620, or w

	Exposed	Unexposed	Total		
Cases Noncases	110 390	380 2620	490 3010		
Total	500	3000	3500		
Risk	.22	.1266667	.14		
	 Point 	estimate	 [95% Conf. +	Interval]	
Risk difference Risk ratio Attr. frac. ex. Attr. frac. pop Odds ratio	1.7	933333 736842 242424 952381 944669	.0551229 1.436418 .3038239 1.53375	.1315438 2.100099 .523832 2.465682	(Woolf)
-		chi2(1) =	31.01 Pr>chi	2 = 0.0000	

And we would get similar results from a hypothesis test that the two probabilities are equal:

Notice that observed Chi-Square test statistic, 31.01, is the square of the observed z-statistic, 5.56.

Indeed these tests are testing the same hypothesis (that the proportions are equal).

Also, I can get the exact p-values (Fisher exact test), by specifying 'exact' after the comma in the 'csi' command.

<u>Side note</u>: Notice that the confidence interval for the difference between two proportions uses one SE, while the hypothesis tests that the two proportions are equal uses the SE that pools the data from the two groups.

This can lead to situations where the duality between confidence intervals and hypothesis tests breaks down (e.g., you reject the null, but zero is still in the interval – or the reverse).

For example:

This is why it is critical to understand the formulae behind the tools. Here the hypothesis test suggests there is a difference, where the confidence interval suggests there is not.

Also, instead of using the 'csi' command, we can use the 'tabi' command:

. tabi 110 380 \ 390 2620

	col		
row	1	2	Total
	+		+
1	110	380	490
2	390	2,620	3,010
	+		+
Total	500	3,000	3,500

Fisher's exact = 0.000 1-sided Fisher's exact = 0.000

. tabi 110 380 \ 390 2620, col row cell

Key
|----| frequency
| row percentage
| column percentage
| cell percentage

ļ	С	ol	
row	1	2	Total
1	110	380	490
	22.45	77.55	100.00
	22.00	12.67	14.00
	3.14	10.86	14.00
2	390	2,620	3,010
	12.96	87.04	100.00
	78.00	87.33	86.00
	11.14	74.86	86.00
Total	500	3,000	3,500
	14.29	85.71	100.00
	100.00	100.00	100.00
	14.29	85.71	100.00

. tabi 110 380 \ 390 2620, chi2 cchi2 exp

++
Key
frequency
expected frequency
chi2 contribution
4

	С	ol	
row	1	2	Total
1	110	380	490
	70.0	420.0	490.0
	22.9	3.8	26.7
2	390	2,620	3,010
	430.0	2,580.0	3,010.0
	3.7	0.6	4.3
Total	500	3,000	3,500
	500.0	3,000.0	3,500.0
	26.6	4.4	31.0

Pearson chi2(1) = 31.0078 Pr = 0.000

Expected counts in each cell – under null hypothesis (=row total*col total/total total)

. display 490*500/3500 70

Chi-square contribution of each cell $(=(O-E)^2/E)$

. display ((110-70)^2)/70
22.857143

Now back to the original example:

Notice also, that if I reverse the table, I get the same odds ratio and inference (confidence interval and test statistics on the odds ratio):

. ***********

	csi	110	380	390	2620,	or	W
--	-----	-----	-----	-----	-------	----	---

	Exposed	Unexposed	Total		
Cases Noncases	110 390	380 2620	490 3010		
Total	500	3000	3500		
Risk	.22	.1266667	.14		
	Point	estimate	 [95% Conf.	Interval]	
Risk difference Risk ratio Attr. frac. ex. Attr. frac. pop Odds ratio	.0933333 1.736842 .424244 .0952381 1.944669		.0551229 1.436418 .3038239 1.53375	.1315438 2.100099 .523832 2.465682	(Woolf)
			31.01 Pr>chi		(110011)

. csi 110 390 380 2620, or w

	Exposed	Unexposed	Total		
Cases Noncases	110	390 2620	500 3000		
Total	490	3010	3500		
Risk	 .2244898 	.1295681	1428571		
	Point	estimate	95% Conf.	Interval]	
Risk difference Risk ratio Attr. frac. ex. Attr. frac. pop Odds ratio	1.7	949217 732601 122833 930233	.0560787 1.434469 .302878 1.53375	.1337647 2.092694 .5221471 2.465682	(Woolf)
-	+	:hi2(1) =	31.01 Pr>chi	2 = 0.0000	

Finally, we took a look at Simpson's paradox by considering the same experiment in males and then looking at the combined table.

Here are the data for the males:

. csi 90 20 1410 980, or w

	Exposed	Unexposed	Total	
Cases Noncases	90 1410	20 980	110	
Total	1500	1000	2500	
Risk	.06	.02	.044	
	 	estimate	 [95% Conf.	. Interval]
Risk difference Risk ratio Attr. frac. ex. Attr. frac. pop Odds ratio (Woolf)	.54	.04 3 666667 454545 .12766	.0251767 1.860321 .4624583 1.91355	4.837875
	'	chi2(1) =	22.82 Pr>chi	L2 = 0.0000

For males, we see a similar association. But notice that the proportion of exposed males 1500/2500 is much greater than that for females (500/3500).

But we when we looked at the overall table (male and females combined) we see something totally different.

	csi	200	400	1800	3600,	or	W
--	-----	-----	-----	------	-------	----	---

	Exposed	Unexposed	Total	
Cases Noncases	200 1800	400 3600	600	
Total	2000	4000	6000	
Risk	.1	.1	.1	
	Point estimate		[95% Conf.	Interval]
Risk difference Risk ratio Attr. frac. ex. Attr. frac. pop Odds ratio (Woolf)		0 1 0 0	0161027 .8512687 1747172	1.174717 .1487313
-	+	 chi2(1) =	0.00 Pr>chi	2 = 1.0000

Here the association has disappeared. There are several reasons for this, which I won't go into here, but the point is that you must be very careful when combining tables or splitting them up. You might find things that are artifacts of the way you split you data.

This is one good reason why subgroup analyses should be specified before you see the data.

The reasons we get this weird result is not really that weird after all. It is the same reason why we can not compare death crude rates in populations where the age distribution is different.

The overall odds ratio is, in some sense, a weighted average of the strata specific odds ratios.

Specifically, the combined odds ratio is derived from the overall probabilities (i.e., the overall probability of disease given exposure) and the overall probabilities are nothing more than the weighted averages of the male and female probability of diseases given exposure.

But the weights are determined by the margins of the table, so when the table changes (i.e., two tables are combined), so do the weights. And the weights act as confounders here.

Hence you can get a combined odds ratio in a different direction than in the two original tables, simply because the weights have substantially changed.

It is possible to calculate an "Adjusted odds ratio", but for that you'll have to find a statistician.