

Risk

Exposure to disease

Observational study

Cohort study

Cohort

Exposed group

Unexposed group

Incidence study

Prospective cohort study

Retrospective/ historical cohort study

Case-cohort design

Measure of effect

Absolute risk

Attributable risk

Risk difference

Risk ratio

Population-attributable risk

Population-attributable fraction

Extraneous variable

Covariate

Crude measure of effect

Confounding

Intermediate outcome

Confounding

Intermediate outcome

**Confounding variable/
confounder**

Controlling

Restriction

Matching

Stratification

Standardization

Multivariable analysis

Logistic regression

**Cox proportional hazard
model**

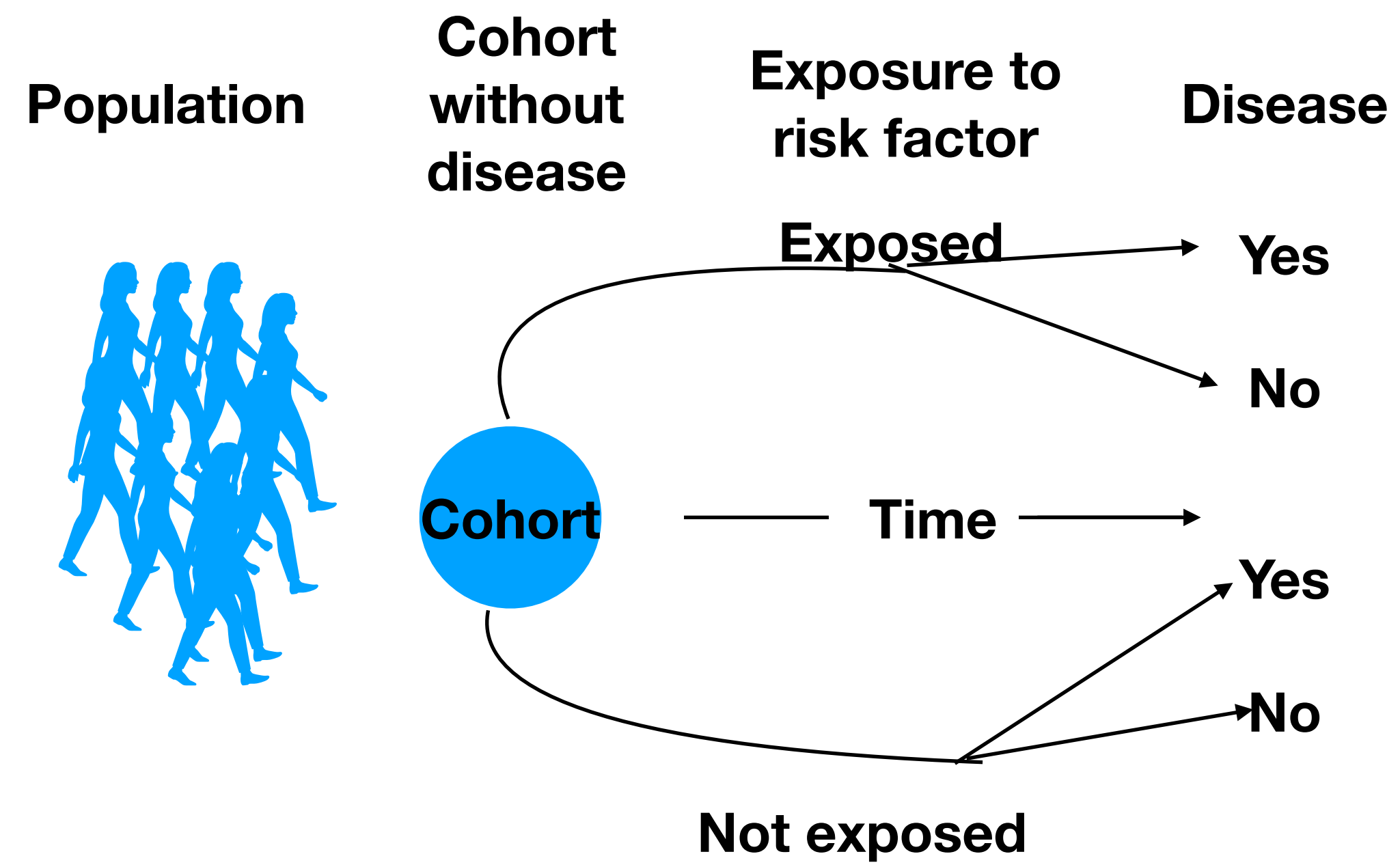
Unmeasured confounder

Residual confounding

Effect modification

Interaction

Mendelian randomization





PAST

PRESENT

FUTURE

**Retrospective
(historical) cohort**

+advantage of computerized medical databased and population registries
less time, less expensive, more feasible than prospective.
Cannot undertake studies of factors not recorded in computerized data.
-Lifestyle, social standing and education are often not included.
-Medical care records = information collection not standardized=bias. Large databases useful for studying treatment/outcomes.

**Prospective
cohort**

assess purported risk factors
not captured in medical records
(eg breast feeding)

Advantages

Disadvantages

All cohort study types

The only way to establish incidence

Confoinding/bias susceptibility

If persons are exposed, do they get the disease?

Exposure can be elicited without the bias that might occur if outcome was known on beforehand

Can assess relationship between exposure and disease

Retrospective cohort

More efficient than prospective- data already collected

Range of possible risk factors that can be studied is more narrow than prospective study

Cheaper than prospective

Cannot examine patient characteristics unavailabnle in data set

Faster than prospective (outcome has occurred)

Case-cohort

All advantages of retrospective

All disadvantages of retrospective cohort studies apply

More efficient than retrospective cohort because only a sample of unexposed group analyzed.

Difficult for readers to understand weighing

Express and compare risk: measures of effect

Absolute risk

Incidence of disease in a group initially free of the condition?

I = number of new cases/people

Attributable risk (risk difference)

Incidence if disease attributable to exposure?

$AR = \text{Incidence}_{\text{exposed}} - \text{Incidence}_{\text{unexposed}}$

Relative risk (risk ratio)

How many times more likely are the exposed to develop the disease?

$RR = I_e / I_{ue}$

Population-attributable risk

What is the incidence of disease in a population associated with the prevalence of the risk factor?

$AR_p = AR * \text{Prevalence}$

Population-attributable fraction

What fraction of the disease in a population is attributable to exposure of the risk factor?

$AF_p = AR_p / I_t$

Population-attributable risk What is the incidence of disease in a population associated with the prevalence of the risk factor?

Population-attributable fraction What fraction of the disease in a population is attributable to exposure of the risk factor? Population attributable risk divided by the total incidence of disease in the population. (e.g. smoking: annually contributes to 156 lung cancer deaths for every 100000 men in the population=population-attributable risk; accounts for 82% of all lung cancer death in the population. = The more common a risk factor is, the bigger fraction of diseased associated with the risk factor.

Pitfalls when interpreting attributable and relative risk

Night work and miscarriage: a Danish nationwide register-based cohort study

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Abstract

Objective Observational studies indicate an association between working nights and miscarriage, but inaccurate exposure assessment precludes causal inference. Using payroll data with exact and prospective measurement of night work, the objective was to investigate whether working night shifts during pregnancy increases the risk of miscarriage.

Methods A cohort of 22 744 pregnant women was identified by linking the Danish Working Hour Database (DWHD), which houses payroll data on all Danish public hospital employees, with Danish national registers on births and admissions to hospitals (miscarriage). The risk of miscarriage during pregnancy weeks 4–22 according to measures of night work was analysed using Cox regression with time-varying exposure adjusted for a fixed set of potential confounders.

Results In total 377 896 pregnancy weeks (average 19.7) were available for follow-up. Women who had two or more night shifts the previous week had an increased risk of miscarriage after pregnancy week 8 (HR 1.32 (95% CI 1.07 to 1.62) compared with women, who did not work night shifts. The cumulated number of night shifts during pregnancy weeks 3–21 increased the risk of miscarriages in a dose-dependent pattern.

Conclusions The study corroborates earlier findings that night work during pregnancy may confer an increased risk of miscarriage and indicates a lowest observed threshold level of two night shifts per week.

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/oemed-2018-105592>

Workplace

Table 1 Characteristics of the study population according to exposure of night work (n=22 744)		
Characteristics	Exposed ≥1 registered night shift during pregnancy week 3–21 (n=10 047)	Reference group No registered night shifts during pregnancy week 3–21 (n=12 697)
Outcome of pregnancy, n (%)		
Births	9 089 (90)	11 007 (87)
Miscarriages	740 (8)	1 149 (9)
Molar and ectopic pregnancies	44	96 (1)
Induced abortions	174 (2)	445 (3)
Time for miscarriage (pregnancy week)		
Gestational age, median (min, max)	9.0 (4.0, 21.0)	8.0 (4.0, 21.0)
Follow-up weeks at risk, median (Pct 25, 75)	22 (22,22)	22 (22,22)
Work during pregnancy weeks 3–21, median (Pct 25,75)		

Från 9% till 8% risk...?

HR 1,32 (1,07-1,62)

When examined condition is common, the attributable risk increases

Confounding

Extraneous variable = *Covariates* are variables that are not the primary studied, but may be part of the study. (E.g. level of education). Term not perfect – do not by definition co-vary... are not per definition extraneous, but may co-vary

Confounding – threat to validity of observational study. Confounding occurs when exposure is associated with another variable which is itself related to the outcome -> systematic error (bias) where one effect is attributed to the wrong variable. A confounding variable is:

- 1) associated with exposure.
- 2) Associated with disease.
- 3) Not a part of the causal chain from exposure to disease.

Intermediate outcome=events that are part of the causal chain from exposure to disease.

Potential confounders? Previous research? Variables that make sense based on current knowledge.

Potential confounders?



Identify

Previous research?

Variables that makes sense based on matter knowledge.

Control for confounding

Randomization

Restriction

Matching

Stratification

Simple adjustment

Multivariable adjustment

Beest case/worst case analysis

Confirm

is variable associated with exposure and
(separately) disease?

Does crude relationship changes when
accounting for potential confounder?

Control for confounding

Randomization

Restriction

Matching

Stratification - data analysis, results presented for subgroups of patients

Simple adjustment - standardization: what would the overall rate of disease be if strata-specific rates were applied to a population made of similar proportions in each stratum?

Multivariable adjustment/multivariable analysis/mathematical modeling - consider effects of many variables simultaneously.

Logistic regression=used in cohort and case-control studies (dichotomous outcome)

Cox proportional hazard model=outcome is the time to the event (e.g. survival analyses)

Best case/worst case analysis

Not one way of dealing with extraneous variables are without limitations

Only identified variables can be modeled

Effect modification

"A finding reported, not a bias avoided"

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