



# Bias & Confounding

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# Key concepts

## ■ **Bias**

→ Should be minimized at the designing stage.

## ■ **Random errors**

→ is the nature of quantitative data.

## ■ **Non-differential misclassification**

→ is the nature of (inaccurate) classification.

## ■ **Confounding**

→ Indicative of true association. Can be controlled at the designing or analysis stage.



# **ERROR VS. BIAS**

# Two types of errors: ---Error or bias?

- Random error

→ is the nature of quantitative data.

- Systematic error (= **bias**)

→ should be minimized at the designing stage.

## Random error

---

Measured value  
(mm)

---

53

47

48

49

51

52

50

---

Mean=50

## Systematic error

---

Measured value  
(mm)

---

48

48

48

48

48

48

48

---

Mean=48

God knows that the true value is 50mm.

## Is the following study acceptable?

- **We want to compare the mean of blood pressure levels between two groups.**
- **The blood pressure checker has a problem and always gives 3mmHg-higher than true values.**
- **All subjects were examined by the same blood pressure checker.**



# Two-group comparison with **random errors**

God knows that the true value is 50mm in both groups.

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**Group A(mm)**

**Group B(mm)**

---

**53**

**47**

**47**

**51**

**48**

**52**

**49**

**50**

**51**

**48**

**52**

**49**

**50**

**53**

**Mean 50**

**50**

---

**Mean difference=0 → correct result**

# **Systematic** error occurred in **both** groups

God knows that the true value is 50mm in both groups.

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<b>Group A(mm)</b>	<b>Group B(mm)</b>
49	48
48	49
46	49
47	48
49	46
49	47
48	49
<b>Mean 48</b>	<b>48</b>

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**Mean difference=0 → correct result**



**Systematic error occurred in only group B**  
God knows that the true value is 50mm in both groups.

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<b>Group A(mm)</b>	<b>Group B(mm)</b>
<b>53</b>	<b>45</b>
<b>47</b>	<b>49</b>
<b>48</b>	<b>50</b>
<b>49</b>	<b>48</b>
<b>51</b>	<b>46</b>
<b>52</b>	<b>47</b>
<b>50</b>	<b>51</b>
<b>Mean 50</b>	<b>48</b>

---

**Mean difference = 2 → wrong result**

# ***Proper comparison between groups :***

***1 ) Comparison using accurate data***

***2 ) Comparison using (in)accurate data***

***As long as the magnitude of random error and bias occur in a same manner among groups.***





# **MISCLASSIFICATION**

# Non-differential Misclassification in Two Exposure Categories

## Correct Data

	Test +	Test -
Cases	240	200
Controls	240	600

OR =

Sensitivity = 0.8

Specificity = 1.0

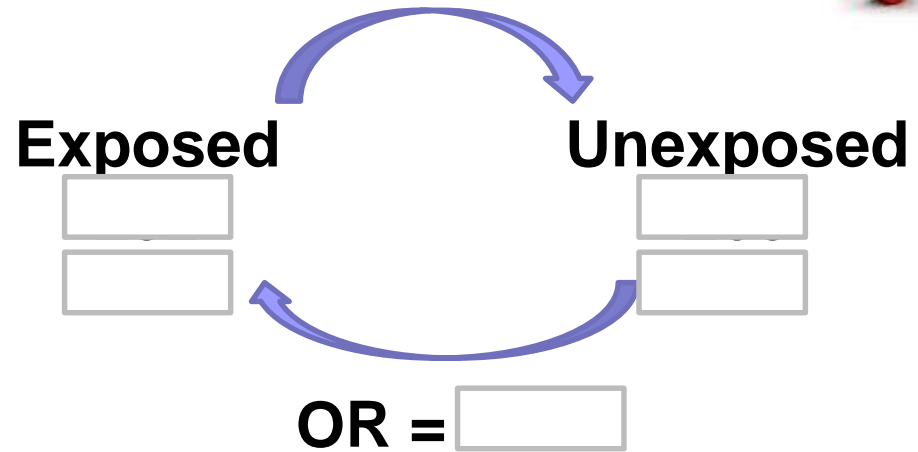
	Test +	Test -
Cases	192	248
Controls	192	648

OR =

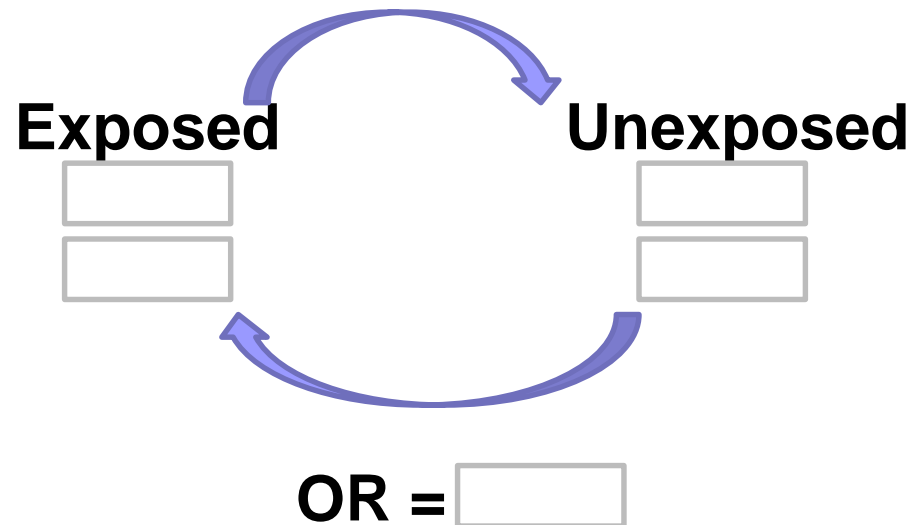
# What is the number of each cell? Please calculate OR.



Sensitivity = 0.8  
Specificity = 0.8  
Cases  
Controls



Sensitivity = 0.4  
Specificity = 0.6  
Cases  
Controls



# Two types of misclassification

- **Non-differential** misclassification
  - Systematic error may not be a critical issue as long as it occurs in all comparison groups.
- **Differential** misclassification
  - If the error occurs only in one specific group due to bias, the risk estimate deviate from null.



# ***BIAS IN EPIDEMIOLOGIC STUDY***

# Different types of bias

- **Selection bias:**  
It occurs at sampling
- **Detection bias:**  
It occurs at diagnosis (outcome)
- **Measurement (information) bias:**  
It occurs at surveillance
  - **Recall bias**
  - **Family information bias**



# Selection bias

- **Selective differences between comparison groups that distort the relationship between exposure and outcome**
- **Unrepresentative nature of sample**  
**Usually, comparative groups *NOT* coming from the same study base and *NOT* being representative of the populations they come from**

## Example A

### A case-control study of childhood leukemia and exposure to electromagnetic field (EMF)

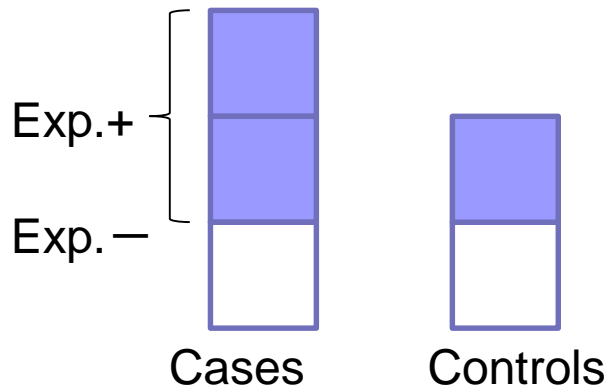
- If parents of cases, living in the neighborhood of power lines, suspect the association and tend to agree on participation to the study,
  - ➔ the association may become stronger than what it should be.



## **Example B**

### **A case-control study of childhood leukemia and exposure to electromagnetic field (EMF)**

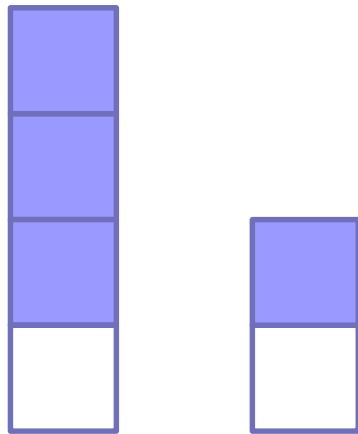
- **All the parents of cases may be willing to participate in the study. On the other hand, the parents of **control children** may tend to participate in the study **only if they live in the neighborhood of power lines** since EMF exposure is strongly suspected to be related to power line.**
- ➔ **The association may become **weaker** than what it should be.**



True risk estimate

$$OR = (2/1) / (1/1)$$

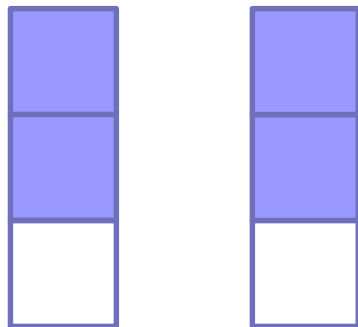
$$= 2$$



Example A

$$OR = (3/1) / (1/1)$$

$$= 3 \dots \text{overestimation}$$



Example B

$$OR = (2/1) / (2/1)$$

$$= 1 \dots \text{underestimation}$$

## **Selection bias caused by low participation rate**

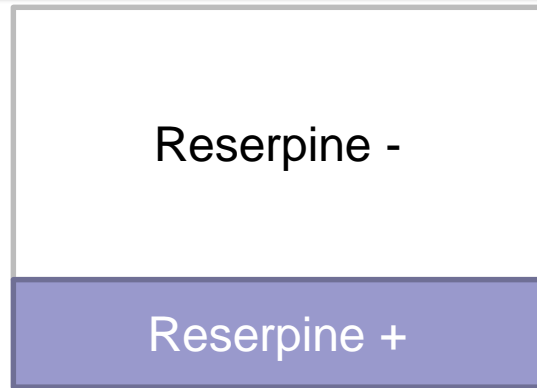
- **In a case-control study for lung cancer**
- **Cases were identified by cancer registry**
- **Controls were recruited from a population base but the participation rate was too low, say 20% (in general, health-conscious people tend to participate in this kind of study).**

**What happened in the association between smoking and lung cancer risk is that ...**



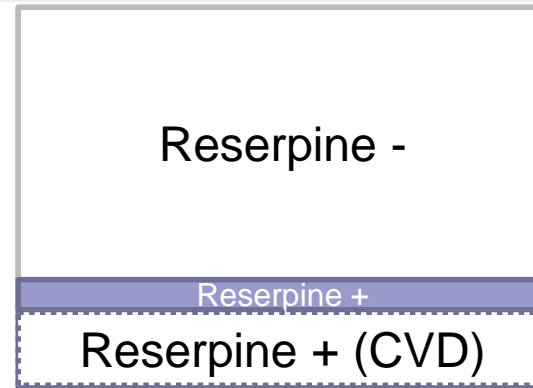
**the association become stronger than what it should be**

# Is Reserpine a cause of breast cancer?



Cases: Breast cancer patients

Horwitz RI, Feinstein AR. Exclusion bias and the false relationship of reserpine and breast cancer. Arch Intern Med. 1985;145(10):1873-5.



Controls: Patients at the same hospital

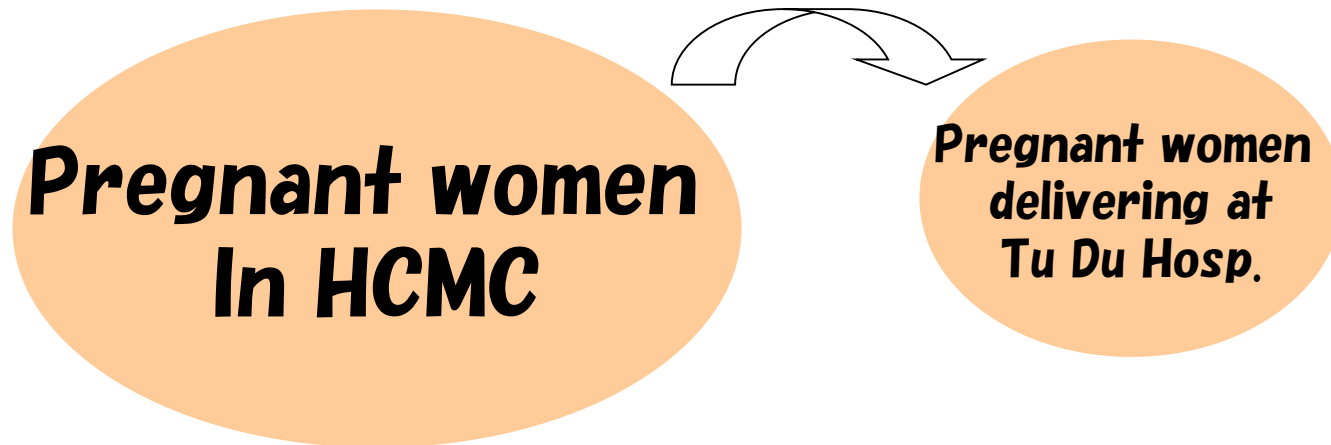
(Except who have cardiovascular diseases to which Reserpine is likely to be prescribed.)

**Selection bias influences *internal validity* of the obtained results.**

**NOTE for advance learners:**

**Sampling is a different issue from selection bias.**

**Prevalence of postpartum depression at Tu Du  
= Prevalence in HCMC?**

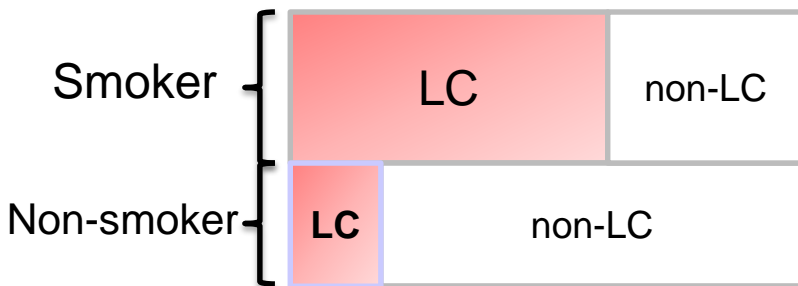
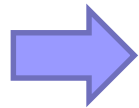


**Sampling may influence *generalizability*  
(*external validity*) of the obtained results.**

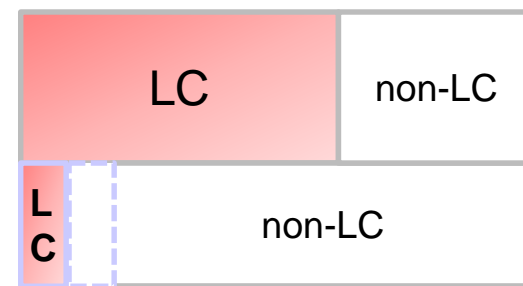
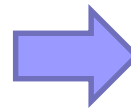
**A doctor may examine the patient's chest X-ray more carefully if he knew the patient is a heavy smoker but not for non-smoking patients.**



**the association may become  than what it should be.**



True prevalence



In the presence of detection bias

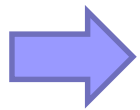


# Detection bias

- Typically, this is the situation where the exposure of interest makes asymptomatic case to symptomatic.
- It is a special situation where case ascertainment depends on exposure.

## **A case-control study of acoustic neuroma and mobile phone use**

- **This brain tumor is asymptomatic and is occasionally noticed by hearing difficulty or hearing loss. In other words, those who use mobile phone may have a higher chance of noticing unilateral hearing difficulty and visiting hospitals, where the acoustic neuromas are detected.**



**the association may become *stronger* than what it should be.**

# Measurement (information) bias

- Once the subjects to be compared have been identified, the information to be compared must be obtained.
- Information bias can occur whenever there are **errors in the measurement** of subjects, but the consequence of the errors are different, depending on whether distribution of errors for one variable (e.g., exposure or disease) depends on the actual values of other variables.
- For discrete variables, measurement error is called **classification error or misclassification.**

**Suppose, you conducted a case-control study on relationship of prenatal infections and congenital malformations.**

**You asked mothers regarding prenatal episode of infections by interview / questionnaire.**

**Cases  
(mothers of babies  
with defect)**



**Controls  
(mothers of  
healthy babies)**





***What is the possible bias?***

***How do you avoid / minimize the bias?***

# Controlling for misclassification

- - **Blinding**

- prevents investigators and interviewers from knowing case/control or exposed/non-exposed status of a given participant

- - **Form of survey**

- mail may impose less “white coat tension” than a phone or face-to-face interview

- - **Questionnaire**

- use multiple questions that ask same information

- - **Accuracy**

- Multiple checks in medical records & gathering diagnosis data from multiple sources



# **CONFOUNDING**

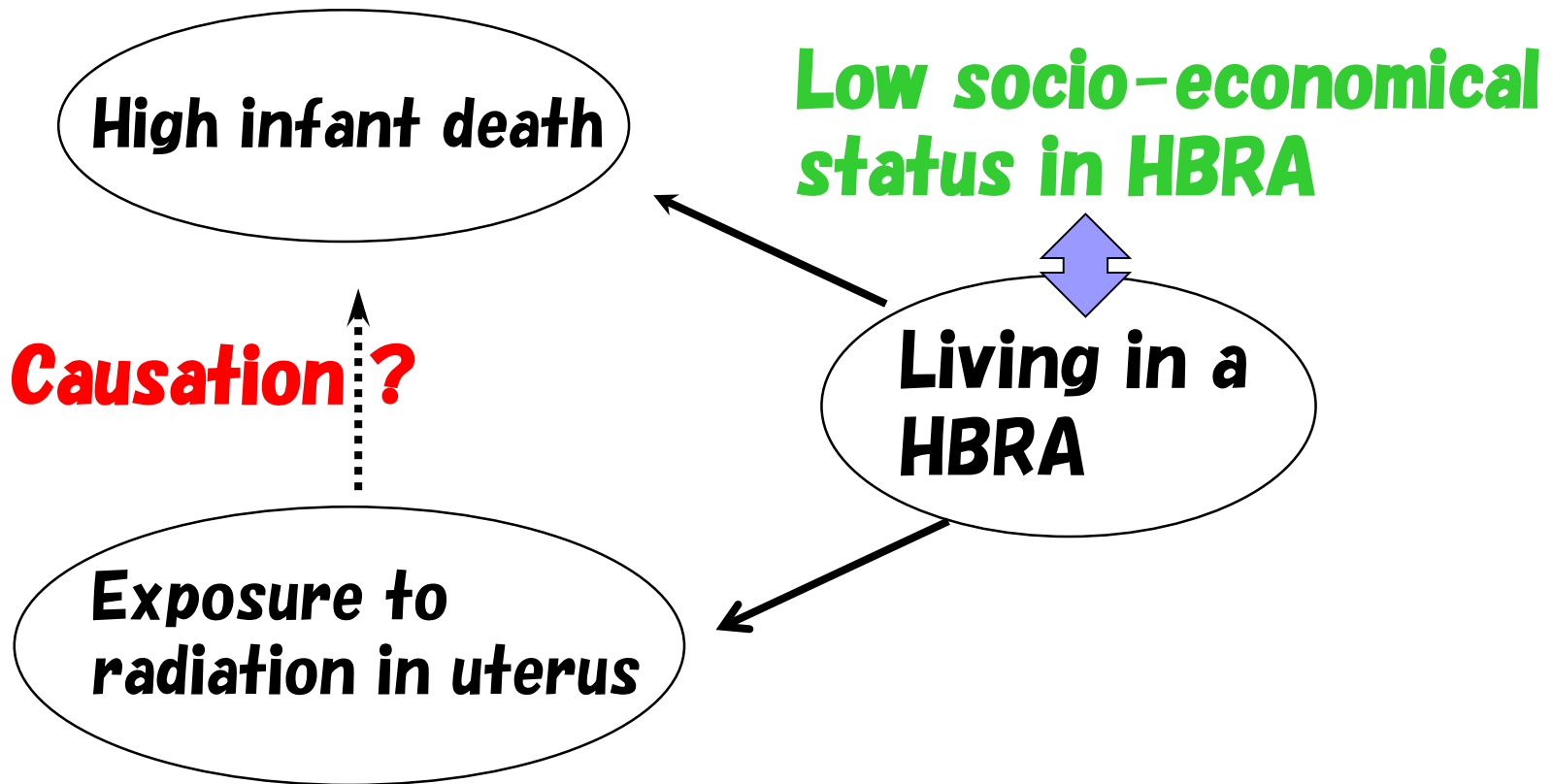
## **3 conditions of Confounding**

- 1. Confounders are *risk factors* for the outcome.**
- 2. Confounders are *related to exposure* of your interest.**
- 3. Confounders are *NOT on the causal pathway (intermediate)* between the exposure and the outcome of your interest.**



# Example of confounder

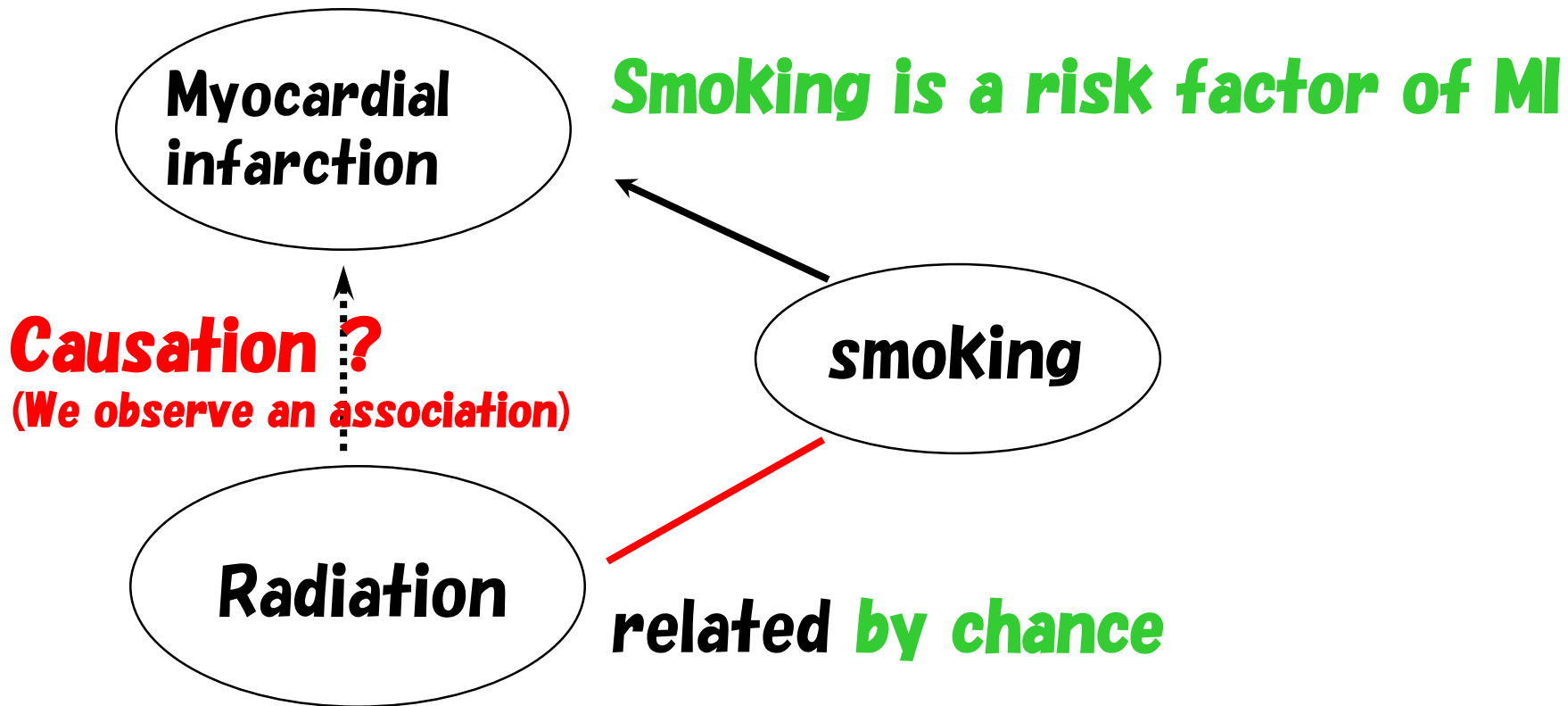
- living in a HBRA is a confounder -



**HBRA: high background radiation area**

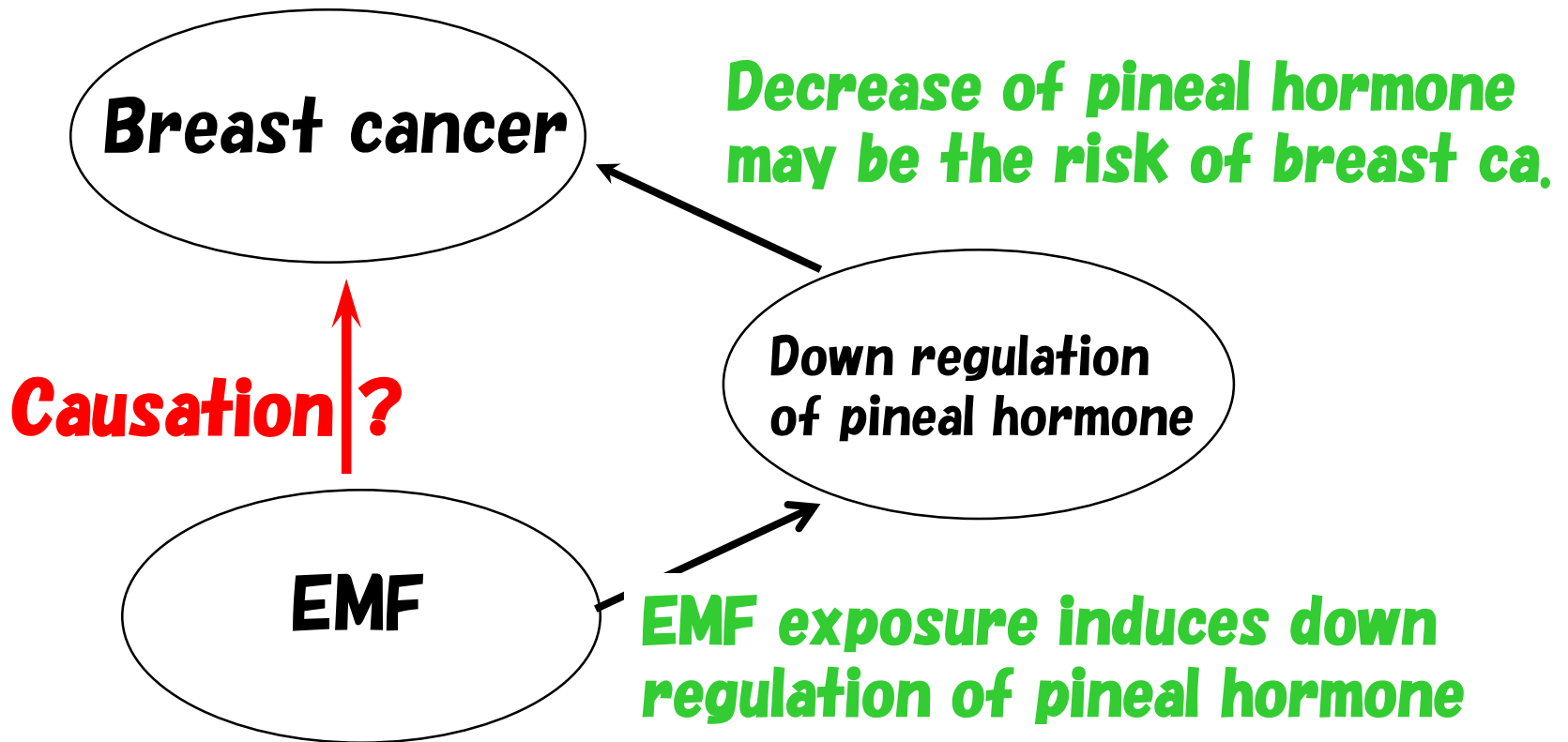
# Example of confounder

– smoking is a confounder –



# Example of “not” confounder

- pineal hormone is not a confounder -

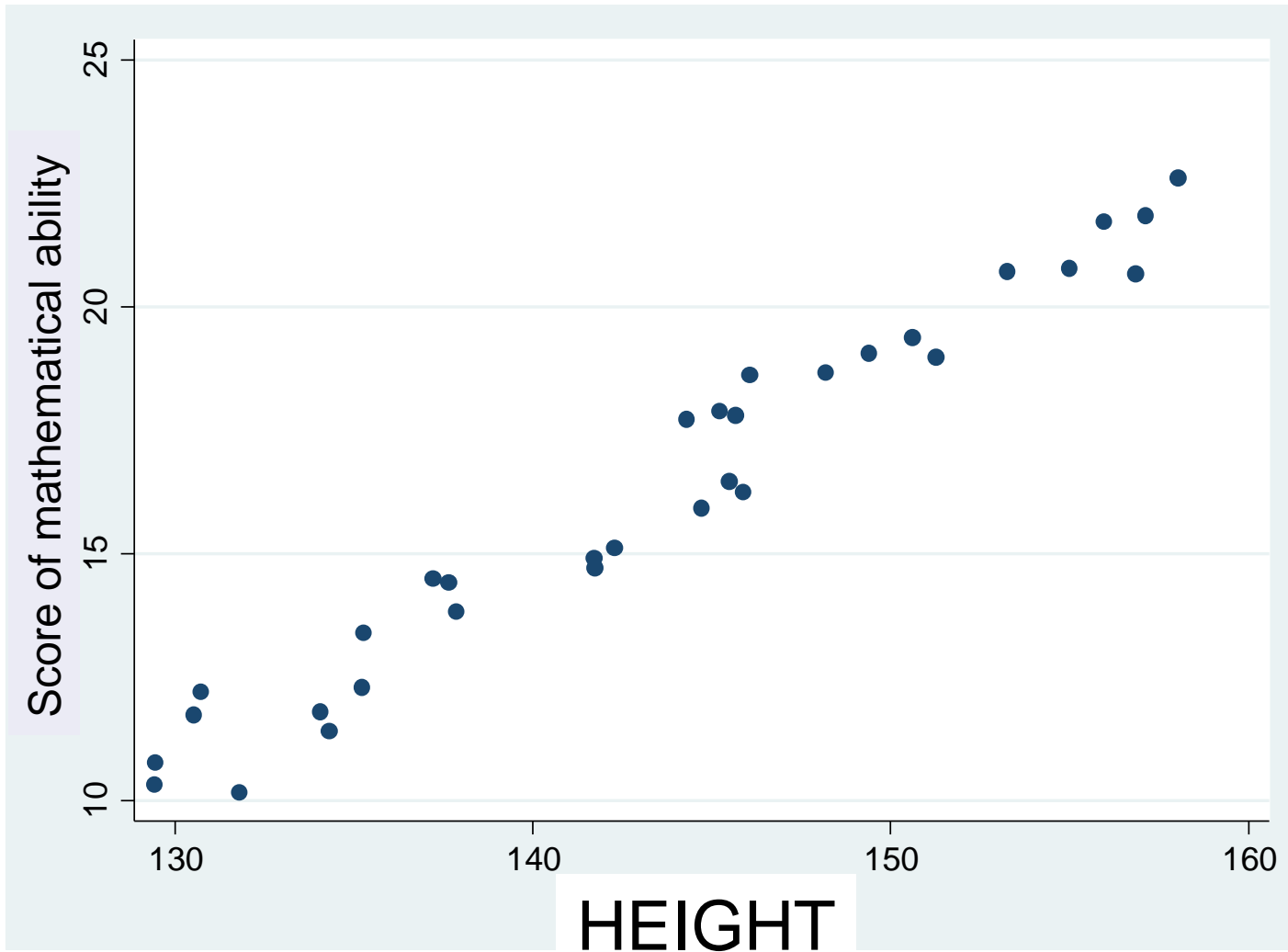


**EMF: electro-magnetic field**

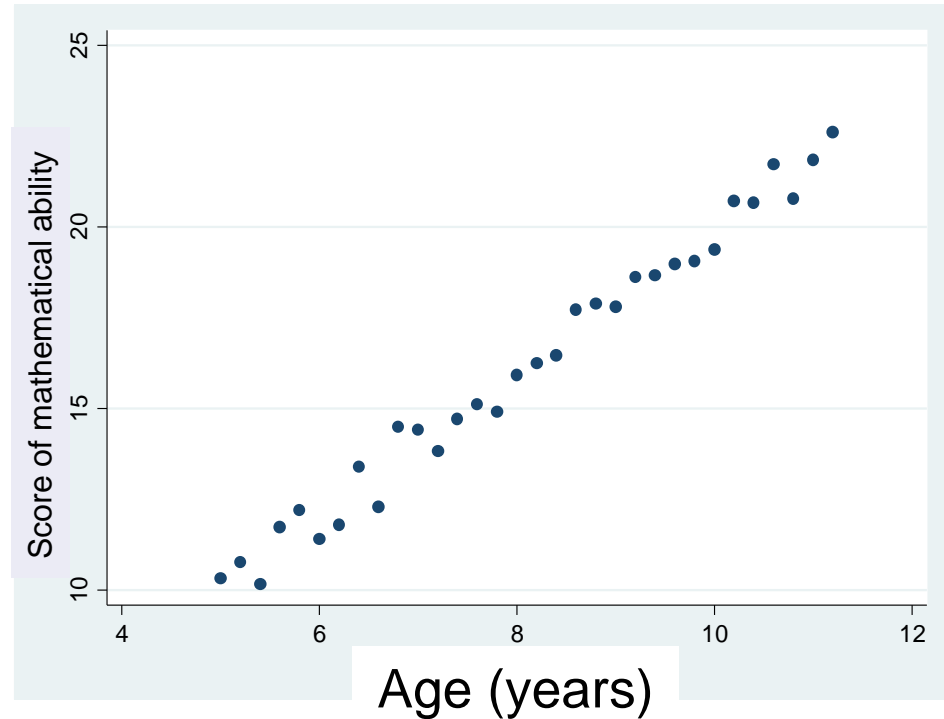
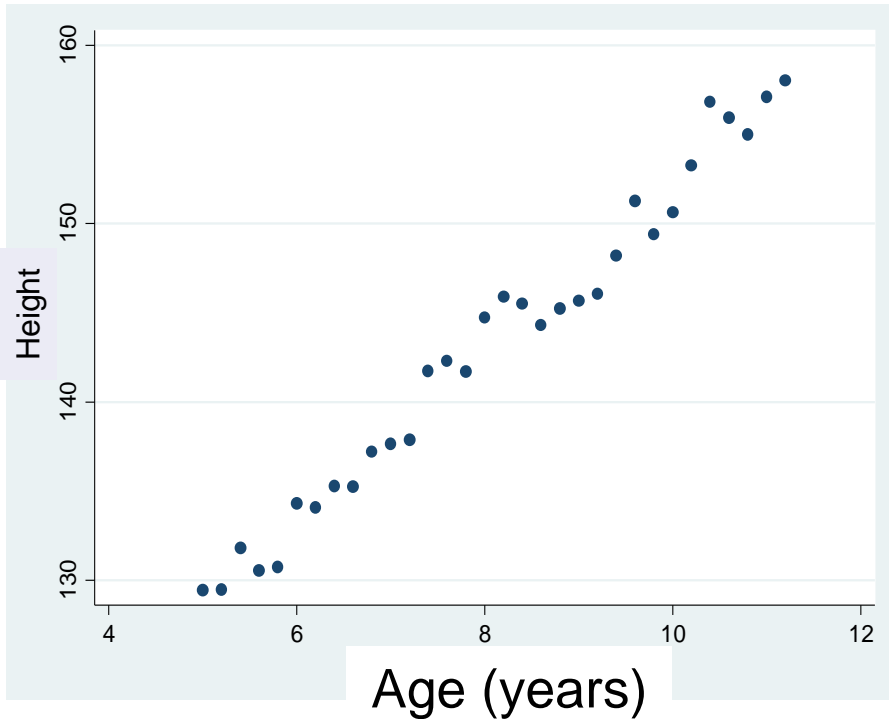
# ***Why do we have to consider confounding?***

- ***We want to know the “true” causal association but a distorted relationship remains if you do not adjust for the effects of confounding factors.***

# Association between **height** and score of **maths**



# Both height and ability of maths increase with age



Age is a **confounding factor** in the association between height and ability of maths.



# How can we solve the problem of confounding?

**“Prevention”** at study design

- ✓ **Limitation**
- ✓ **Randomization** in RCTs
- ✓ **Matching** in a cohort study

**Notice: Matching does not always prevent the confounding effect in a case-control study.**

# How can we solve the problem of confounding?

**“Treatment”** at statistical analysis

- ✓ **Stratification** by a confounder
- ✓ **Multivariate** analysis