

Biostatistics – Spring 2026  
Lecture 12: Measures of Association  
Risk, Relative Risk, Odds, and Odds Ratio

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## Introduction

In epidemiology and biostatistics, we often want to measure the association between an exposure and an outcome.

For example:

- smoking and lung cancer,
- obesity and diabetes,
- a new drug and recovery,
- occupational exposure and disease.

Testing association with Chi-square tells us whether an association may exist, but it does not tell us the **strength** or **direction** of that association.

For that purpose, we use measures such as:

- risk,
- relative risk (RR),
- odds,
- odds ratio (OR).

By the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

- organize exposure–disease data in a  $2 \times 2$  table,
- compute risk in each group,
- compute and interpret relative risk,
- compute odds in each group,
- compute and interpret the odds ratio,
- distinguish when RR and OR are usually used.

## 1. The Basic $2 \times 2$ Table

Many epidemiologic data can be arranged as follows:

	Disease Yes	Disease No	Total
Exposure Yes	$a$	$b$	$a + b$
Exposure No	$c$	$d$	$c + d$
Total	$a + c$	$b + d$	$N$

Here:

- $a$ : exposed and diseased,
- $b$ : exposed and not diseased,
- $c$ : unexposed and diseased,
- $d$ : unexposed and not diseased.

## 2. Risk in Each Group

The risk of disease in the exposed group is:

$$\text{Risk}_{\text{exp}} = \frac{a}{a + b}$$

The risk of disease in the unexposed group is:

$$\text{Risk}_{\text{unexp}} = \frac{c}{c + d}$$

These are simply proportions of diseased individuals in each group.

## 3. Relative Risk (RR)

Relative risk compares the risk in the exposed group to the risk in the unexposed group.

$$RR = \frac{a/(a + b)}{c/(c + d)}$$

### Interpretation

- If  $RR > 1$ , exposure is associated with higher risk.
- If  $RR < 1$ , exposure may be protective.
- If  $RR = 1$ , there is no difference in risk between groups.

### Example 1: Smoking and lung cancer

	Lung cancer Yes	Lung cancer No	Total
Smoking Yes	50	150	200
Smoking No	20	180	200
Total	70	330	400

Risk among smokers:

$$\frac{50}{200} = 0.25$$

Risk among non-smokers:

$$\frac{20}{200} = 0.10$$

So:

$$RR = \frac{0.25}{0.10} = 2.5$$

### Interpretation

Smokers have 2.5 times the risk of lung cancer compared with non-smokers.

### Example 2: Gender and heart disease

	Heart disease Yes	Heart disease No	Total
Female	3	147	150
Male	8	192	200
Total	11	339	350

Risk among females:

$$\frac{3}{150} = 0.02$$

Risk among males:

$$\frac{8}{200} = 0.04$$

So:

$$RR = \frac{0.02}{0.04} = 0.5$$

### Interpretation

In this sample, females have half the risk of heart disease compared with males.

## 4. Odds

Odds compare the probability of an event to the probability of no event.

If the probability of disease is  $p$ , then the odds of disease are:

$$\text{Odds} = \frac{p}{1-p}$$

In a  $2 \times 2$  table:

$$\text{Odds in exposed group} = \frac{a}{b}$$

$$\text{Odds in unexposed group} = \frac{c}{d}$$

### Example: odds of lung cancer

Using the smoking example:

$$\text{Odds among smokers} = \frac{50}{150} = 0.333$$

$$\text{Odds among non-smokers} = \frac{20}{180} = 0.111$$

Interpretation: The disease odds are higher among smokers.

## 5. Odds Ratio (OR)

The odds ratio compares the odds in one group to the odds in another group.

$$OR = \frac{a/b}{c/d} = \frac{ad}{bc}$$

### Interpretation

- If  $OR > 1$ , exposure is associated with higher odds of disease.
- If  $OR < 1$ , exposure may be protective.
- If  $OR = 1$ , there is no association in terms of odds.

### Example: smoking and lung cancer

$$OR = \frac{50 \times 180}{150 \times 20} = \frac{9000}{3000} = 3$$

### Interpretation

The odds of lung cancer among smokers are 3 times the odds among non-smokers.

## 6. Relative Risk Versus Odds Ratio

Although RR and OR are related, they are not the same.

### Relative Risk

- compares risks,
- easier to interpret directly,
- commonly used in cohort studies and clinical follow-up studies.

## Odds Ratio

- compares odds,
- commonly used in case-control studies,
- also widely used in logistic regression.

## Important note

When disease is rare, RR and OR may be numerically close. But when disease is common, OR may be farther from 1 than RR.

## 7. When Do We Use Each Measure?

### Use RR mainly when:

- you can directly compute risk,
- the study is cohort-based,
- subjects are followed over time.

### Use OR mainly when:

- the study is case-control,
- risk cannot be directly estimated from sampling design,
- logistic models are used.

## 8. Common Interpretation Rules

- $RR = 2$ : the exposed group has twice the risk.
- $RR = 0.5$ : the exposed group has half the risk.
- $OR = 3$ : the odds are three times as large.
- Value = 1: no association.

But always remember:

A large RR or OR in a sample does not automatically mean statistical significance. Confidence intervals are also important.

## 9. Common Student Mistakes

- Confusing risk with odds.
- Interpreting OR as if it were exactly RR.
- Forgetting the cross-product formula  $OR = \frac{ad}{bc}$ .
- Using RR in case-control studies without thinking about design.
- Saying “cause” when the study only shows association.

## 10. Summary

- A  $2 \times 2$  table is the basic structure for exposure–outcome data.
- Relative risk compares risks between groups.
- Odds compare probability of disease to probability of no disease.
- Odds ratio compares odds between groups.
- RR is commonly used in cohort studies; OR is commonly used in case-control studies.

## Homework (HW)

### HW1

For the following table, compute the risk in each group and the relative risk:

	Disease Yes	Disease No	Total
Exposed	24	76	100
Unexposed	12	88	100

### HW2

For the same data in HW1, compute:

1. the odds in each group,
2. the odds ratio.

### HW3

Explain in words the difference between RR and OR.

### HW4

In what type of study is OR usually preferred over RR?