
Study Designs in Epidemiology

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Comparison

Qualitative

- Understanding
- Interview/observation
- Discovering frameworks
- Textual (words)
- Theory generating
- Quality of informant more important than sample size
- Subjective
- Embedded knowledge
- Models of analysis: fidelity to text or words of interviewees

Quantitative

- Prediction
- Survey/questionnaires
- Existing frameworks
- Numerical
- Theory testing (experimental)
- Sample size core issue in reliability of data
- Objective
- Public
- Model of analysis: parametric, non-parametric

Descriptive Studies: Uses

- Hypothesis Generating
- Suggesting Associations

Descriptive Studies

- **Case reports**
- **Case series**
- **Population studies**

Analytical Studies

- Observational
- Experimental

Observational Studies

- **Cross-sectional**
- **Case-control**
- **Cohort**

Cross-sectional study; Definition

- A **cross-sectional** studies
 - a type of **observational** or **descriptive** study
 - the research has **no control over the exposure** of interest .
- It involves
 - identifying a **defined population** at a particular **point in time**
 - measuring a **range of variables** on an individual basis
 - include **past and current exposure**

Cross-sectional Study

- Data collected at a **single point in time**
- Describes **associations**
- **Prevalence**



A “Snapshot”

Prevalence vs. Incidence

- Prevalence (شيوخ)
 - The total number of cases at a point in time
 - Includes both new and old cases
- Incidence (بروز)
 - The number of new cases over time

Uses of cross-sectional studies

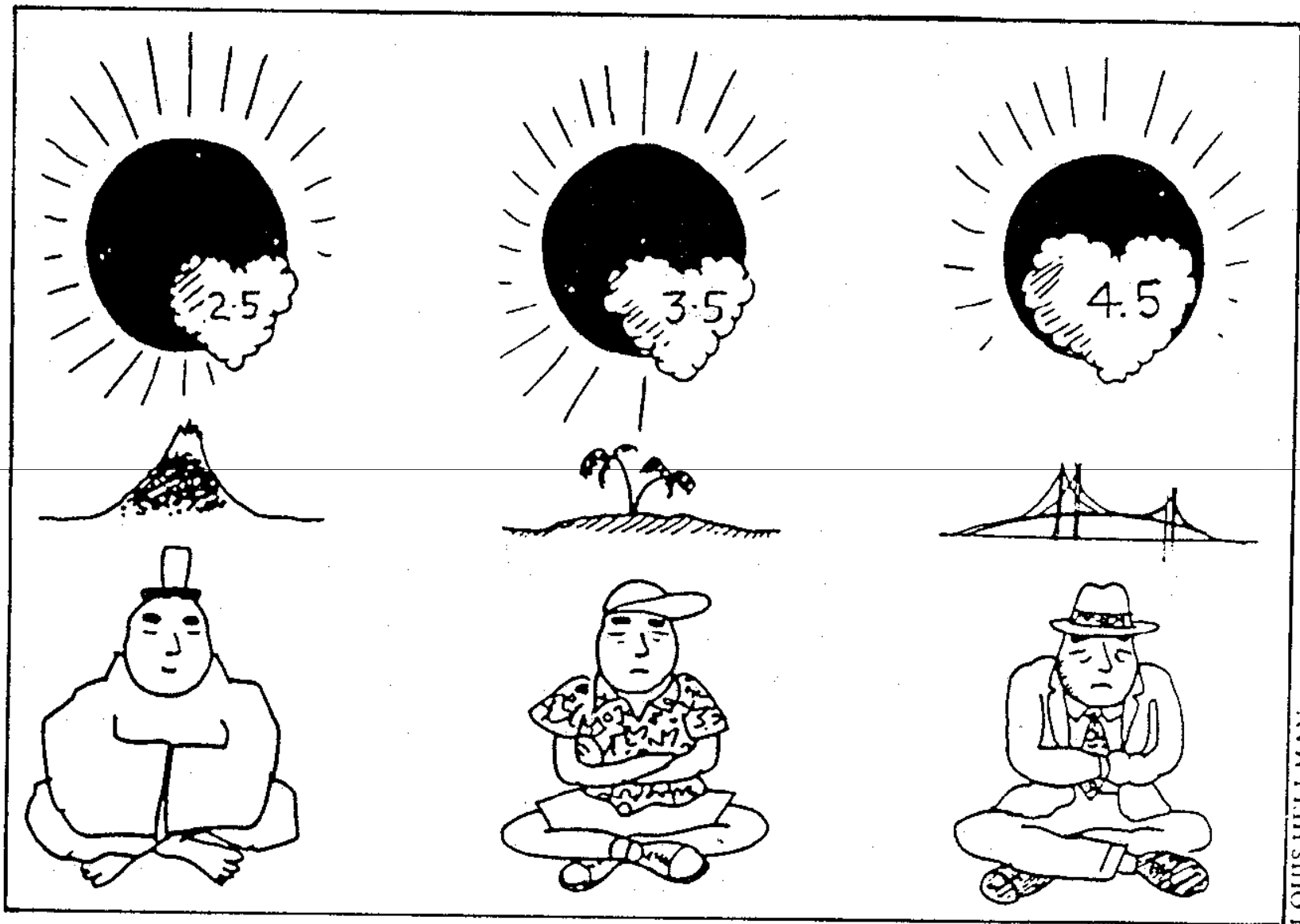
- **Prevalence survey:**

The studies are commonly used to describe the burden of disease in the community and its distribution.

- **Describe population characteristics:**

In terms of **person (who?)** and **place (where?)**

- The British National Diet and Nutrition Survey
- Nutrition and Health Survey in Taiwan
- To describe various age groups in the population in terms of food and nutrient intake and range of other personal and lifestyle characteristics.



LOUIS HELLMAN

g. 13.3 Prevalence (percentage) of coronary heart disease (as indicated by Q waves in electrodiogram) among men of Japanese ancestry living in Japan (left), Honolulu (centre), and San Francisco Bay area (right). (Source: Marmot and Davey-Smith.⁹)

Design of cross-sectional survey

- The problem to be studied must be **clearly described (PICO format)** and a thorough literature review undertaken **before starting the data collection.**
- **Specific objectives** need to be formulated.
- Data collection **techniques** need to be decided.
- **Sampling** is a particularly important issue.

Limitation of cross-sectional study

- It is **not possible** to talk about **causality**. (علیت)

Causality by cross-sectional design means (不能判定因果關係) !!!

- **Confounded** results may lead to **misinterpretation**.

*e.g.: Association of **Boldness** & Heart Diseases ($p < 0.05$)*

- etc

Cross-sectional study

- **Fieldwork** needs planning:
 - **Who** is available to collect the data ?
 - Do they need **training** ?
 - If **more than one** is to collect the data then it is necessary to assess **between-observer variation**.
- The **collection, coding and entry of data** need planning.
- A **pilot study is essential** to test the proposed methods and make any alternations as necessary.

The steps are summarized below

Questions to ask

What is the problem and why should it be studied?

What information is already available?

What do we hope to achieve?

What data do we need to meet our objectives?
How will this be collected?

Steps to take

Choose the problem and analyse it

Literature review

Formulation of objectives

Research methodology

Important elements/step

- Problem identification
- Prioritizing problem
- Problem analysis

- Literature and other available information

- General and specific objectives
- Hypothesis

- Sampling
- Variables
- Data collection techniques
- Plan for data collection, processing, and analysis
- Ethics, pilot study

Who will do what and when?

How will the study be administered?

What resources do we need?

How will we use the results?

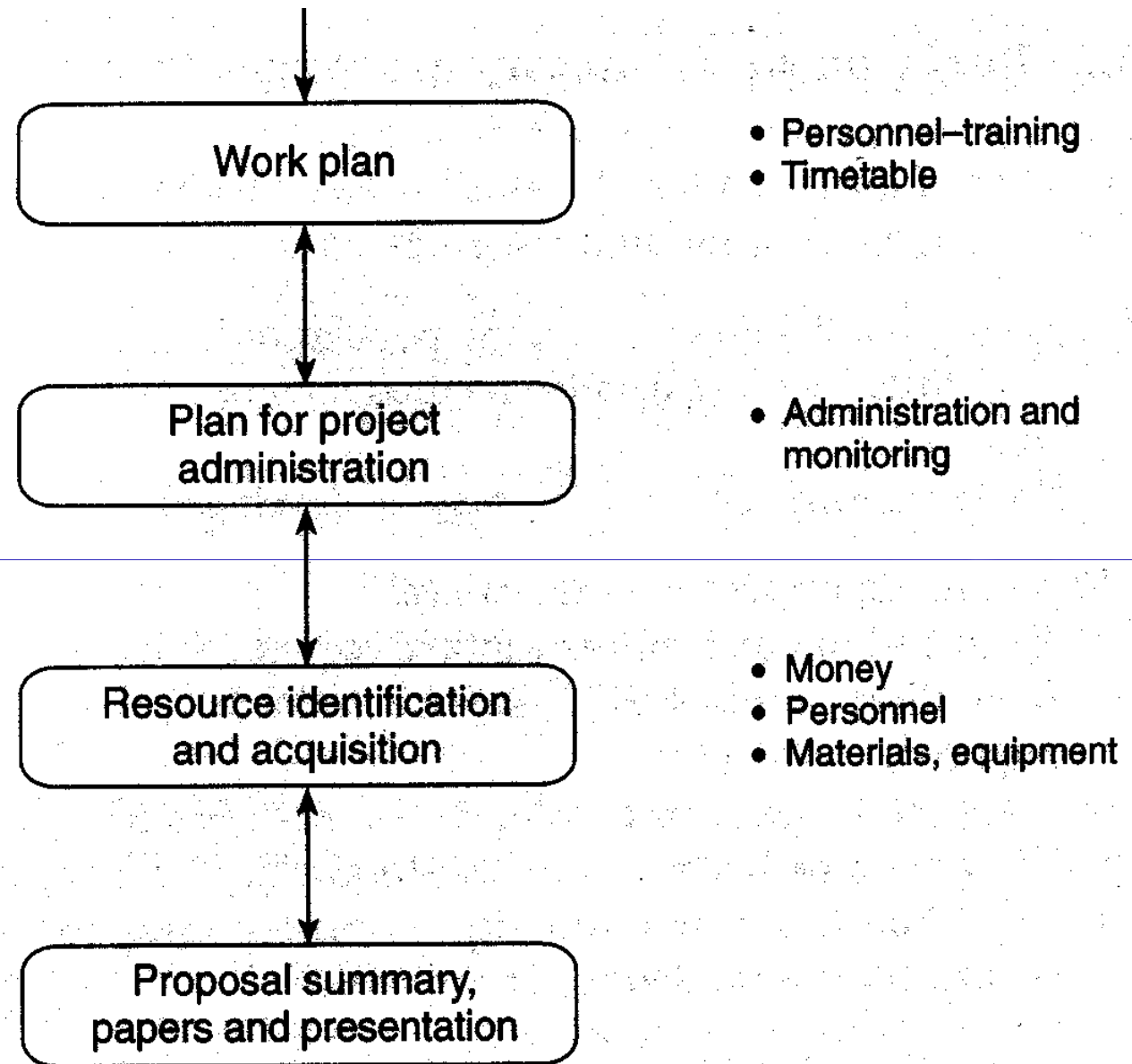


Fig. 13.5 Steps in the design of a cross-sectional study. (Modified from Varkevisser *et al.*²³)

Analysis of cross-sectional study

- **Before starting any analysis**, the data should be checked for any errors.
 - Obvious **error** must be corrected.
 - Checking normality of data **distribution**.
The Kolmogorov-Smirnov or Histogram for distribution of data
 - **Outliers**
 - **etc**

Cross-sectional studies

- People are studied at a “point” in time, **without follow-up**.
- Can combine a **cross-sectional** study **with follow-up** to create a **cohort (longitudinal) study**.
- Can conduct **repeated cross-sectional** studies to measure **change in a population**.

Cross-sectional studies

- 43.0 million people in the U.S., under age 65 years old, were **uninsured (16.4%)**

(National Health Interview Survey, 2007)

- **66.3%** of no institutionalized U.S. adults age 20+ years were **overweight or obese.**

(National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey, 2003-2004)

- **35%** (~7.4 million) of births to U.S. women during the preceding 5 years were **mistimed or unwanted.**

(2002 National Survey of Family Growth, Series 23, No. 25, Table 21)

Cross-sectional studies

- Incidence information is not available from a typical cross-sectional study.
- The source of most of what we know about the population

Case - Control Studies

- **Characteristics:** two source populations;
(*assumption that non-cases are representative of the source population of cases.*)
- **Merits:** least expensive; least time-consuming; suitable for study of rare diseases
- **Limitations:** not suitable for rare exposures; liable to selection bias and recall bias; not suitable for calculation of frequency measures.
- **Effect measure: Odds Ratio (نسبت شانس)**

Design of Case-Control Studies

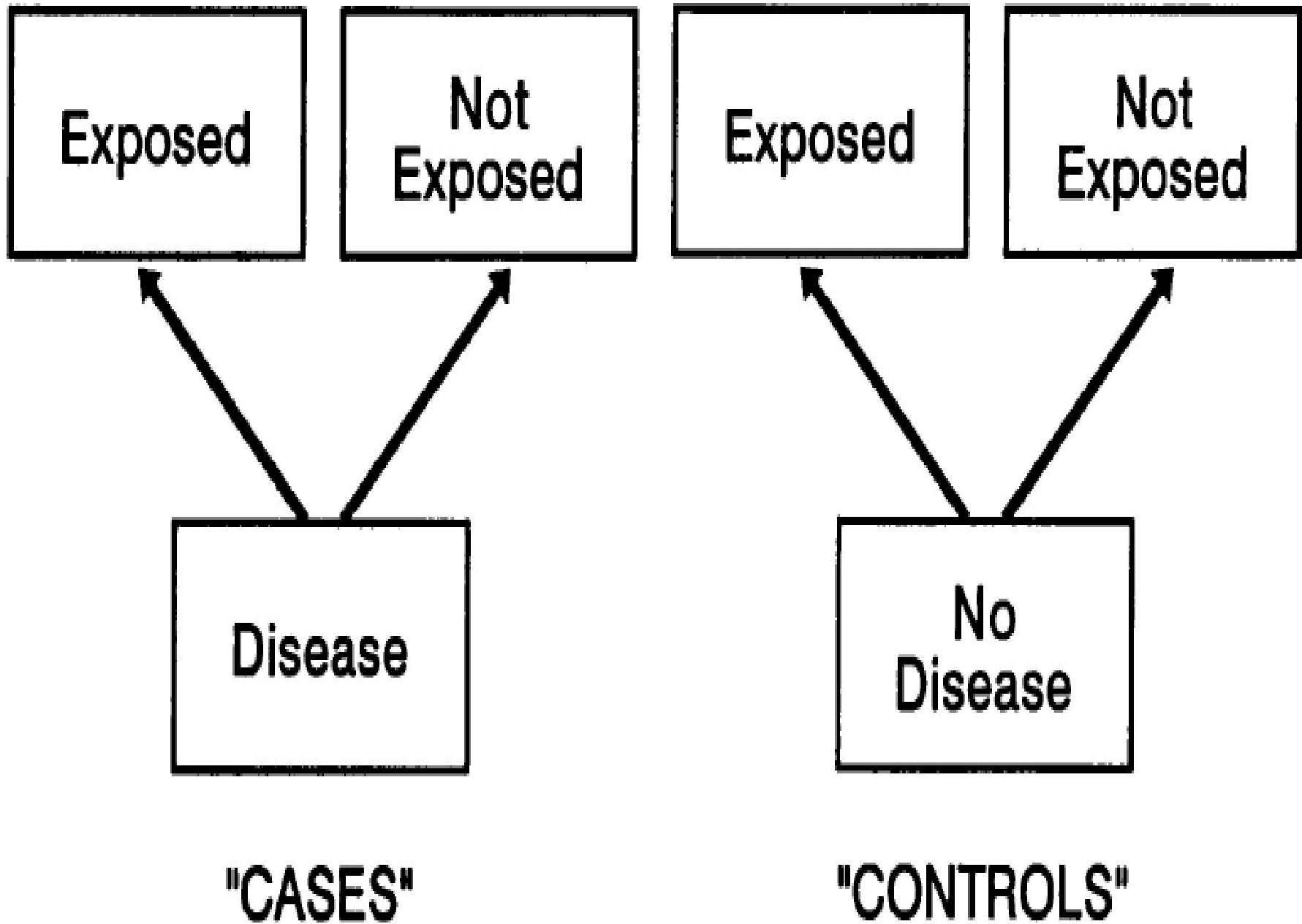
- **Cases:**

persons/group with a given disease

- **Controls:**

persons/group without the given disease

- Ascertain exposure or background of the two groups and **compare the odds**
- Best suited for study of diseases where medical care usually sought, (hip fracture, cancer) because this makes it easier to identify cases



Selection of Cases

- **Ideally**, investigator identifies & enrolls all **incident cases** in a defined population in a specified time period.
- Select cases from **registries or hospitals, clinics**
- *When all **incident cases** in a population are included, the study is **representative**; otherwise there is potential for bias (e.g. **referral bias**)*
- Use of **prevalent** vs. incident cases (**rare diseases**)

Selection of controls

- Critical that the **exposure in the controls** is representative of the **exposure in the population**
- **Ideal controls** would have **same/similar characteristics as the cases**
- Matching cases to controls (*avoid overmatching*)

Population-Based Controls

- The **best control group** is a random sample of individuals from same source population (as the cases) who have not developed the disease
- Population-based controls are the best way to ensure that the **distribution of exposure among the controls is representative**

Hospital Controls

- Hospital controls are **the most frequently** used source
- Hospital controls **may not** be representative of exposure rates in the target population
- The use of other **ill persons as controls** will provide a valid result **only if** their illness is unrelated to the exposure in question.

Hospital Controls

- Convenient
- Cheap
- Numerous
- Avoids non-response

When a population-based case registry is not available, hospital controls better represent the subpopulation from which the cases arose

Other Controls

- **Neighborhood** controls are somewhat matched on SES & environmental exposures but may “overmatch” & be expensive
- **Friends & relatives** also cause problems with “overmatching” with habits, environment and occupation & are generally a **poor choice for controls**

Multiple Controls

- Control to Case **ratio** used is usually **1:1**; if large number and cost is the same for both groups
- If a study has a **small number of cases**, increasing the number of controls increases power of study

Control to Case ratio	power of study
1:1	65-70%
2:1	75-80%
3:1	90-95%
4:1	95-97%

Advantages of Case Control Design

- Relatively **inexpensive**
- **Good** for diseases with **long latency**
- **Optimal** for rare diseases
- Multiple exposure evaluated for single disease
- Shorter time
- Smaller sample

Limitations of Case Control Design

- Identifying **controls** may be **difficult**
- **Temporal relationship** between exposure & disease **difficult** to establish
- Prone to **bias (Recall)** compared with other study designs

Limitations of Case Control Design

- **Difficult** to determine **representativeness** of cases & controls

- **Can't** measure **incidence** of disease

*Nested case control design can measure **incidence** of disease*

- **Bad** for rare exposures

Case Control Design

- At baseline:
 - Selection of cases (disease) and controls (no disease) based on disease status
 - Exposure status is unknown
- Retrospective design – **lacks temporality !**

Case Control Design



Sources of cases and controls

CASES

All cases diagnosed in
the community

All cases diagnosed in a
sample of the population

All cases diagnosed in
all hospitals

All cases diagnosed in a
single hospital

**Any of the above
methods**

CONTROLS

Sample of **general
population**

Non-cases in a **sample of
the population**

Sample of patients in **all
hospitals** who do not have
the disease

Sample of patients in **the
same hospital** who do not
have the disease

**Spouses, siblings or
associates of cases**

Assessing Exposure in Case-Control Design

- Exposure estimates are subject to *recall bias and interviewer bias*
 - Some protection may be afforded by **blinding interviewers** and carefully **phrasing interview questions**
- **Potential confounders** need to be **accurately** assessed in order to be controlled in the analysis

Odds Ratio (OR)

- A ratio that measures the **odds of exposure** for cases compared to controls
- **Odds of exposure** = number exposed ÷ number unexposed
- **OR Numerator:** Odds of exposure for cases
- **OR Denominator:** Odds of exposure for controls

Odds Ratio (OR)

		<u>Disease Status</u>	
		CHD cases (Cases)	No CHD (Controls)
<u>Exposure Status</u>	Smoker	112	176
	Non-smoker	88	224
	Total	200	400

Odds Ratio $\gg= \frac{AD}{BC} = \frac{112 \times 224}{176 \times 88} \gg= 1.62$

Interpreting the Odds Ratio

- The odds of exposure for cases are **1.62 times** the odds of exposure for controls.
- Those with CHD are **1.62 times** more likely to be smokers than those without CHD.
- Those with CHD are **62% more likely** to be smokers than those without CHD.

	OR<1	OR=1	OR>1
Odds comparison between cases and controls	Odds of exposure for cases are less than the odds of exposure for controls	Odds of exposure are equal among cases and controls	Odds of exposure for cases are greater than the odds of exposure for controls
Exposure as a risk factor for the disease?	Exposure reduces disease risk (Protective factor)	Particular exposure is not a risk factor	Exposure increases disease risk (Risk factor)

Possible Sources of Bias and Error

- **Information on the potential risk factor (exposure) may not be available either from records or the study subjects' memories**
- **Information on potentially important confounding variables may not be available either from records or the study subjects' memories**

Possible Sources of Bias and Error

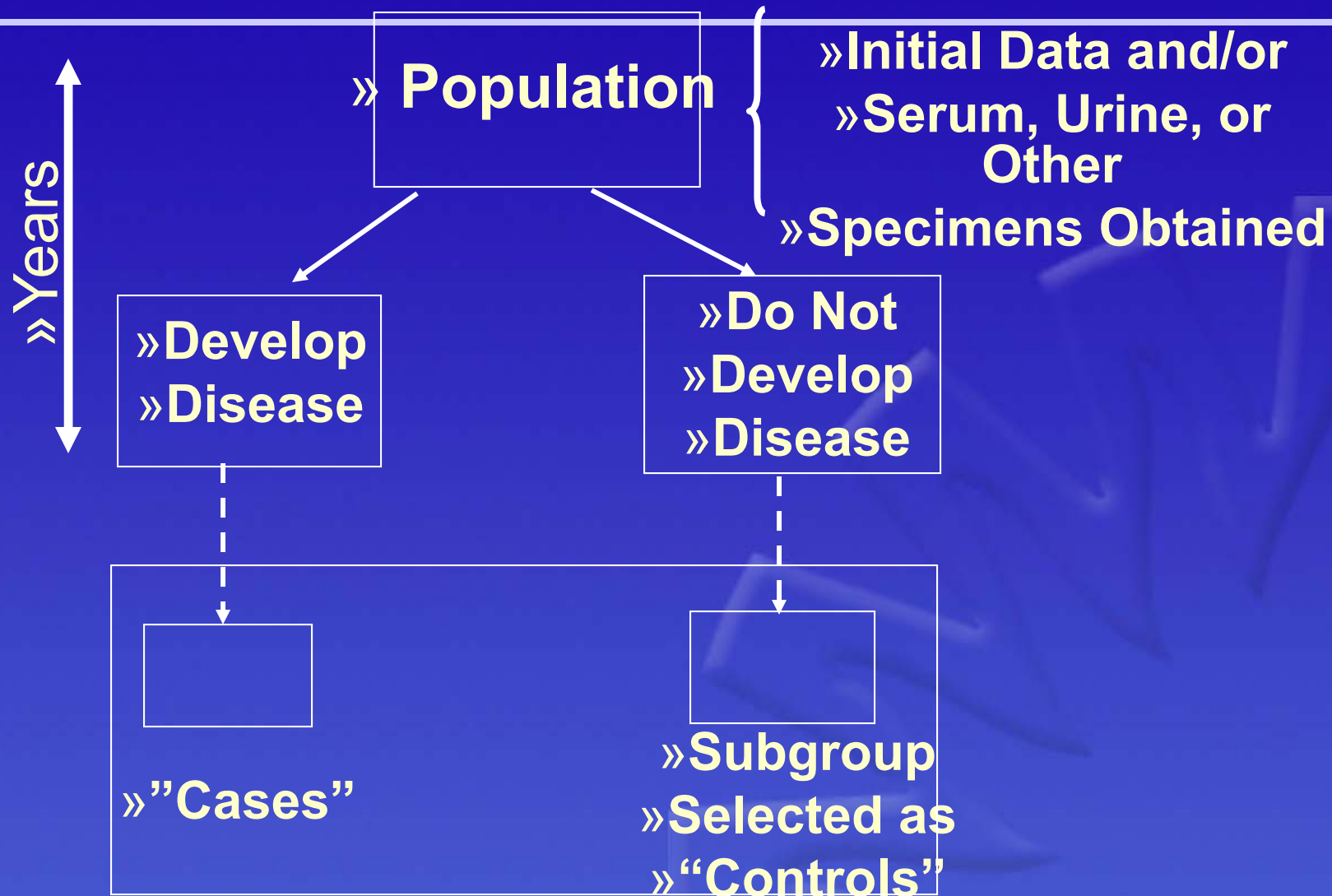
(cont.)

- **Cases may search for a cause for their disease and thereby be more likely to report an exposure than controls (recall bias)**
- **The investigator may be unable to determine with certainty whether the suspected agent caused the disease or whether the occurrence of the disease caused the person to be exposed to the agent**

Possible Sources of Bias and Error (cont.)

- **Identifying and assembling a case group representative of all cases may be unduly difficult**
- **Identifying and assembling an appropriate control group may be unduly difficult**

Nested Case-Control Study



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»CASE-CONTROL STUDY

ORs, P-Values and 95% CIs for Case-Control Study with 3 Different Sample Sizes

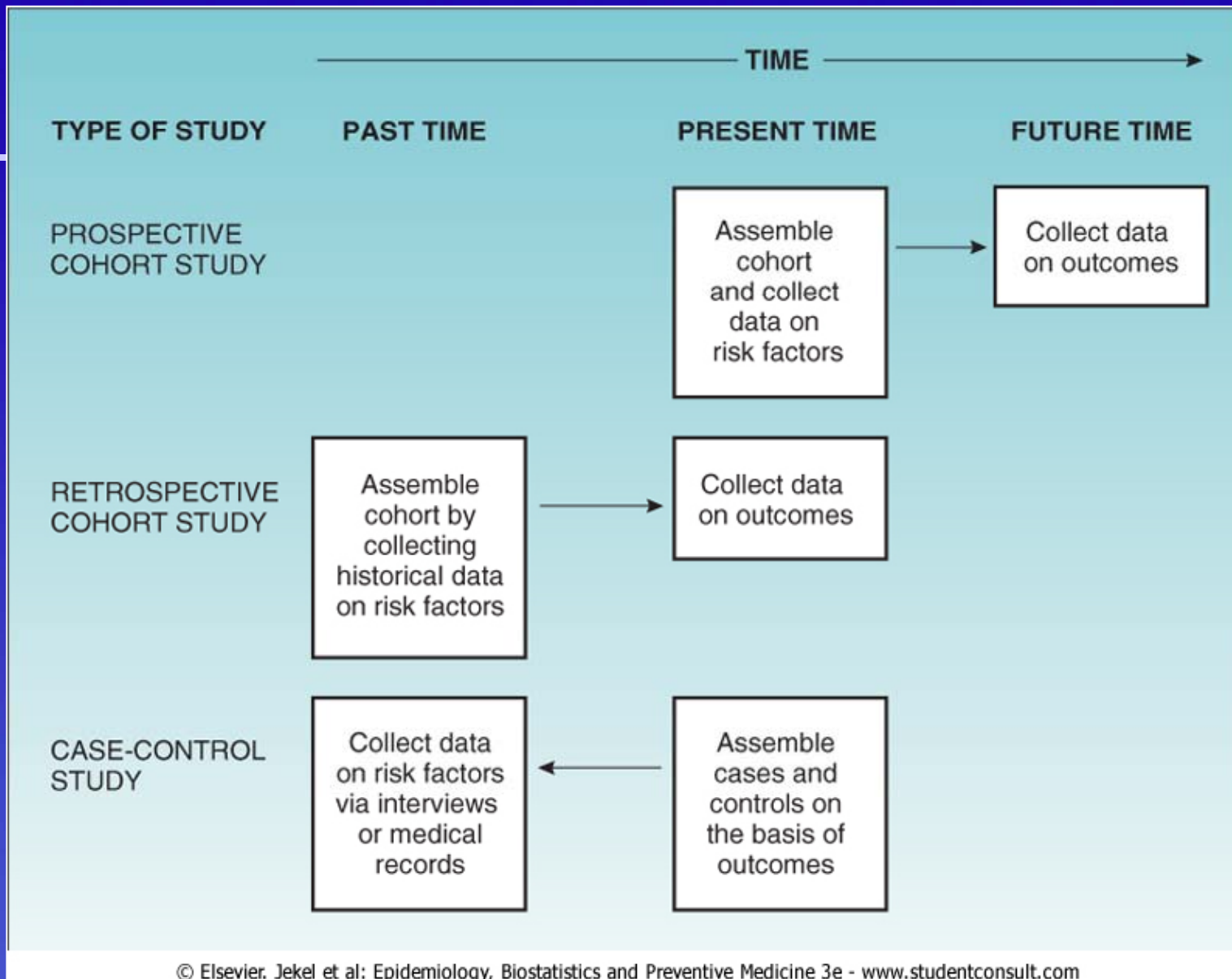
	Sample Size		
Parameter Computed	n=20	n=50	n=500
OR	2.0	2.0	2.0
p-value	0.500	0.200	0.001
95% CIs	0.5, 7.7	0.9, 4.7	1.5, 2.6

Advantages of Case-Control Studies

- Quick and easy to complete, cost effective
- Most efficient design for rare diseases
- Usually requires a smaller study population than a cohort study

Disadvantages of Case-Control Studies

- Uncertainty of exposure-disease time relationship
- Inability to provide a direct estimate of risk
- Not efficient for studying rare exposures
- Subject to biases (recall & selection bias)



»Comparison of Case/Control & Cohort Studies

»Case/Control

»Cohort

- Rare Exposure
- Rare Disease
- Disease with long latency
- Cost
- Time
- Size

- Inefficient
- Efficient
- Efficient
- Cheap
- Shorter
- Smaller

- Difficult to assess

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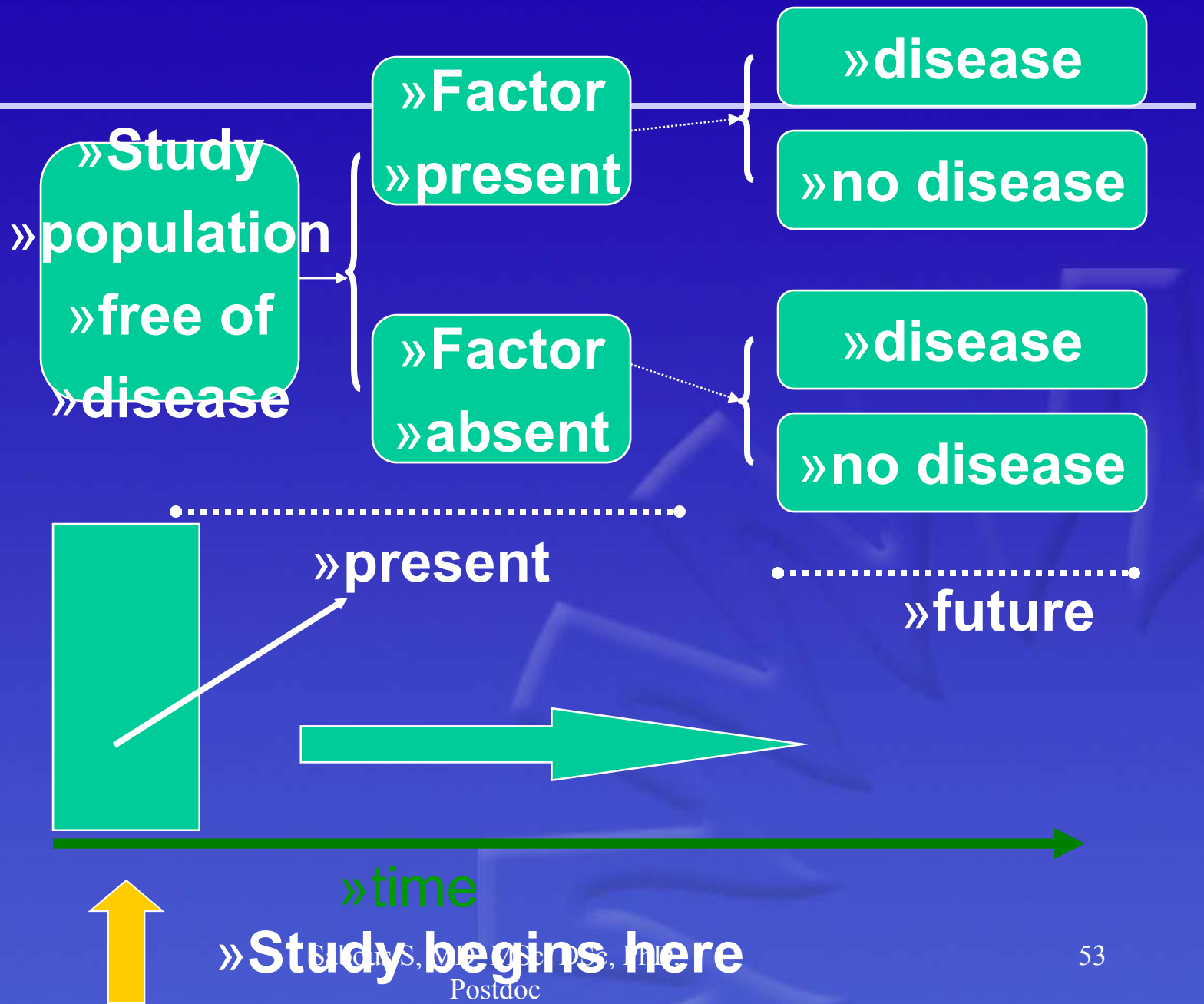
- Efficient
- Inefficient
- Inefficient
- More Expensive
- Longer
- Larger

- Good to determine (RR)

Cohort Studies

- Characteristics: follow-up period (prospective; retrospective)
- Merits: no temporal ambiguity; several outcomes could be studied at the same time; suitable for incidence estimation
- Limitations (of prospective type): expensive; time-consuming; inefficient for rare diseases; may not be feasible
- **Effect measure:** Risk Ratio (Relative Risk)

Cohort Design



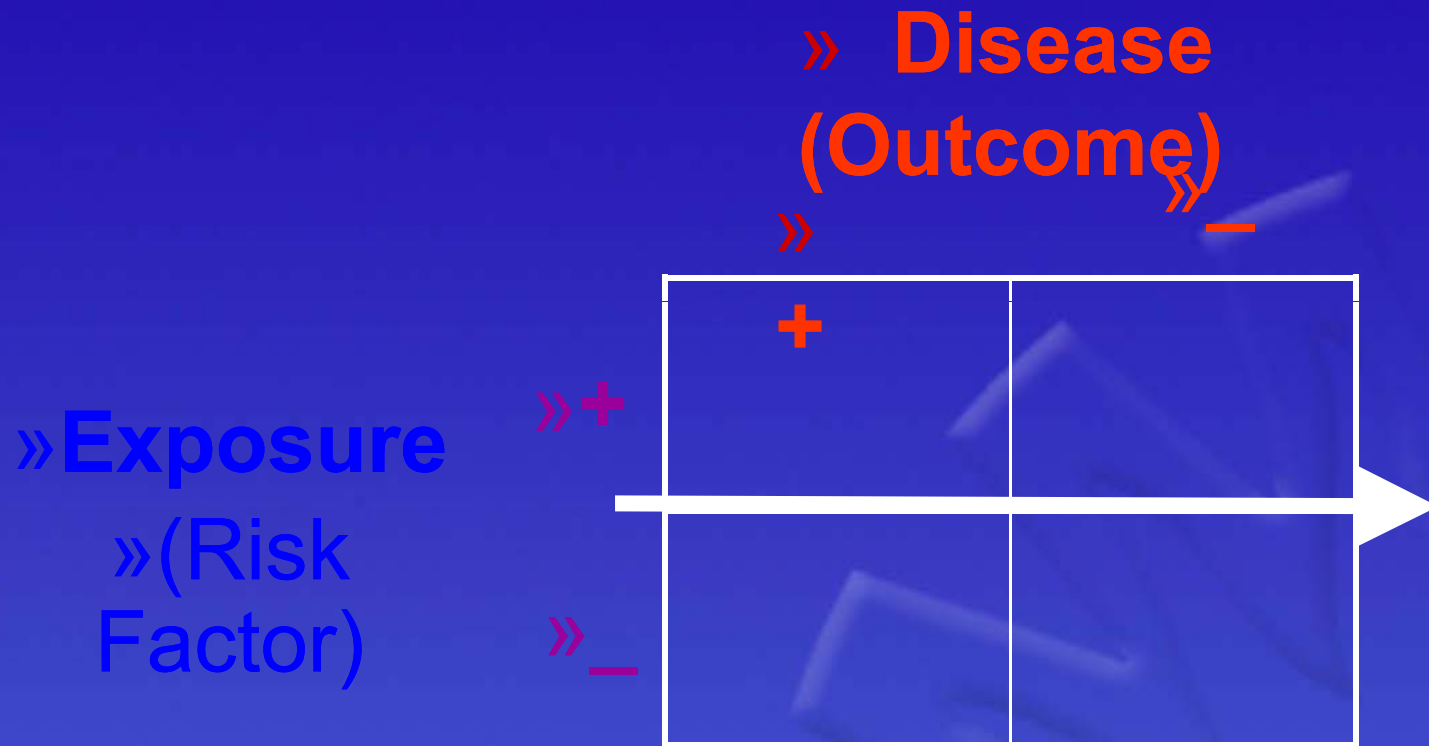
Study Design

- Objectives
- *☞ 1. Introduce concepts of “counterfactual argument” and “study base”*
- *☞ 2. Review the three fundamental study designs*
 - *-Cohort (including clinical trials)*
 - *-Case-Control*
 - *-Cross-Sectional survey*
- *☞ 3. Discuss Cohort Studies*
 - *-Uses*
 - *-Strengths/weaknesses*
 - *-Measure of effect (Relative Risk)*

Cohort Studies

- ➤ Begin with sample → “**Healthy Cohort**” (i.e., subjects without the outcome *yet*)
- ➤ Start with **Exposure** status, then compare **subsequent disease** experience in exposed vs. unexposed.

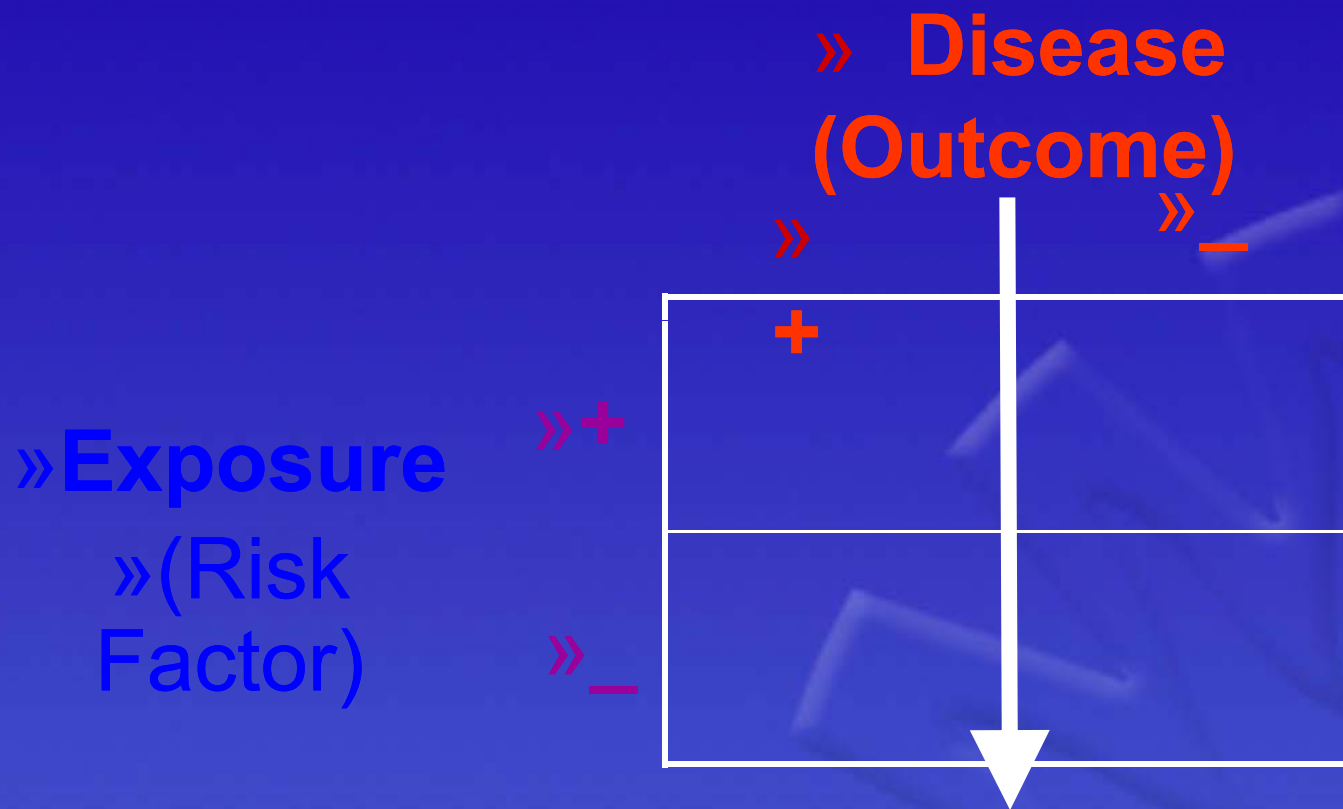
Study Design



Case-Control Studies

- ➤ Begin with sample of “Cases and Controls”
- ➤ Start with **Disease** status, then assess and compare **Exposures** in cases vs. controls.

Study Design



Cross-Sectional Studies

- ➤ Begin with “Cross-sectional” sample
- ➤ Determine Exposure and Disease at same time

Study Design



COHORT STUDIES

- Cohort Study



Key Point:

- Presence or absence of risk factor is determined before outcome occurs.

COHORT STUDIES

		»Disease	
		»(+)	»(-)
»R.F	»(+)	50%	50%
.	»(-)	10%	90%

»Basic Idea:

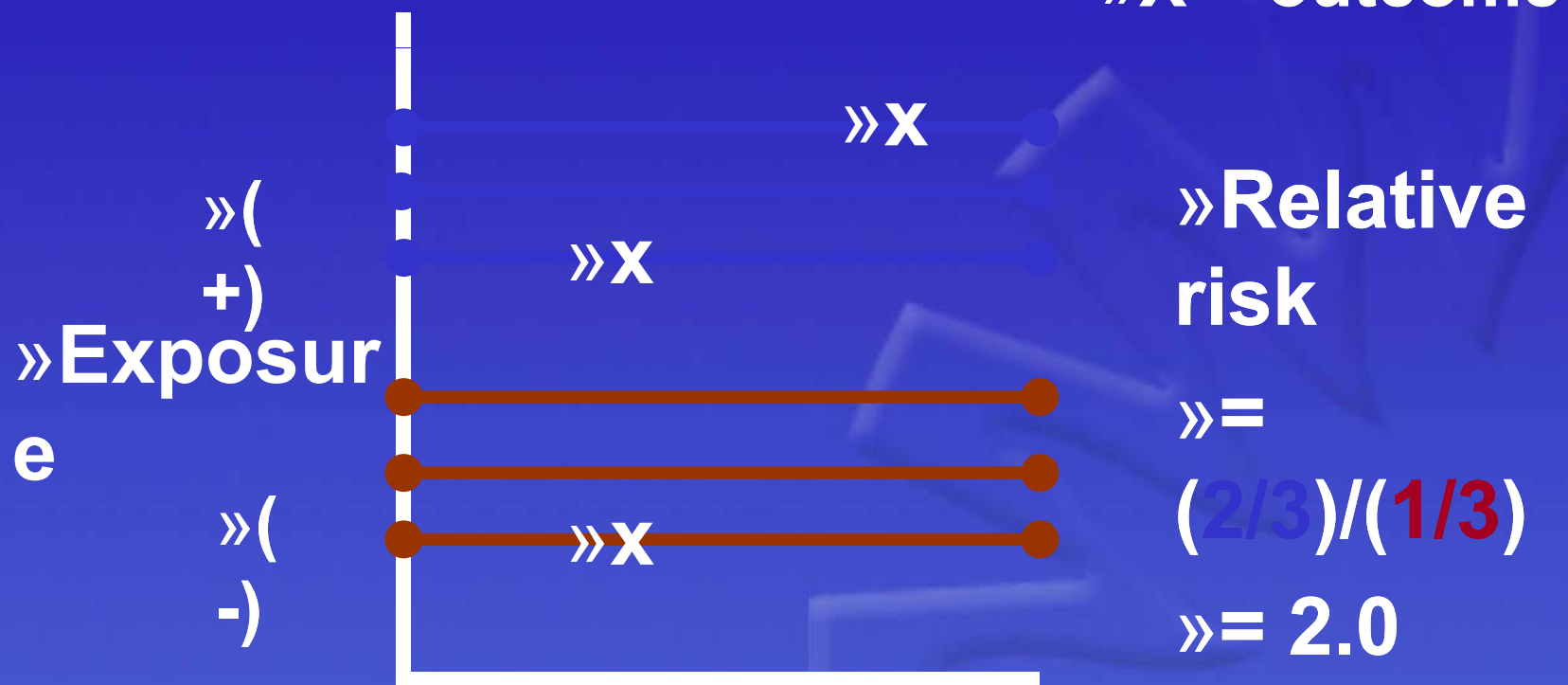
»See if those with the risk factor develop more disease than those without the risk factor

COHORT STUDIES

- Basic Approach: Cohort Study
 - Identify Cohort (s)
 - Measure exposure and outcome variables
 - Follow for development of outcomes

COHORT STUDIES

- Fixed Cohort



COHORT STUDIES

» Fixed cohort

» Disease = Hepatitis

	A	»(+)	»(-)
»S	a	30	70
a	»(+)	a	b
I	»(+)		
a	»(-)	3	57
d	»(-)	c	d

» a + b
» 100

» c +
d
60

» Risk
= $a/(a+b)$
= 0.3

» Risk
= $c/(c+d)$

» Rel. Risk = 0.05

$$\frac{\frac{a}{a+b}}{\frac{c}{c+d}} = 0.3/0.05 = 6$$

COHORT STUDIES

»Disease = Hep A

»S

	»(+)	»(-)
a I +)	30 _a	70 _b
a d »(-)	3 _c	57 _d

»a + b
»= 100

»c + d
»= 60

»Rel. risk=

$$\frac{\frac{a}{a+b}}{\frac{c}{c+d}} = \frac{0.3}{0.05} = 6$$

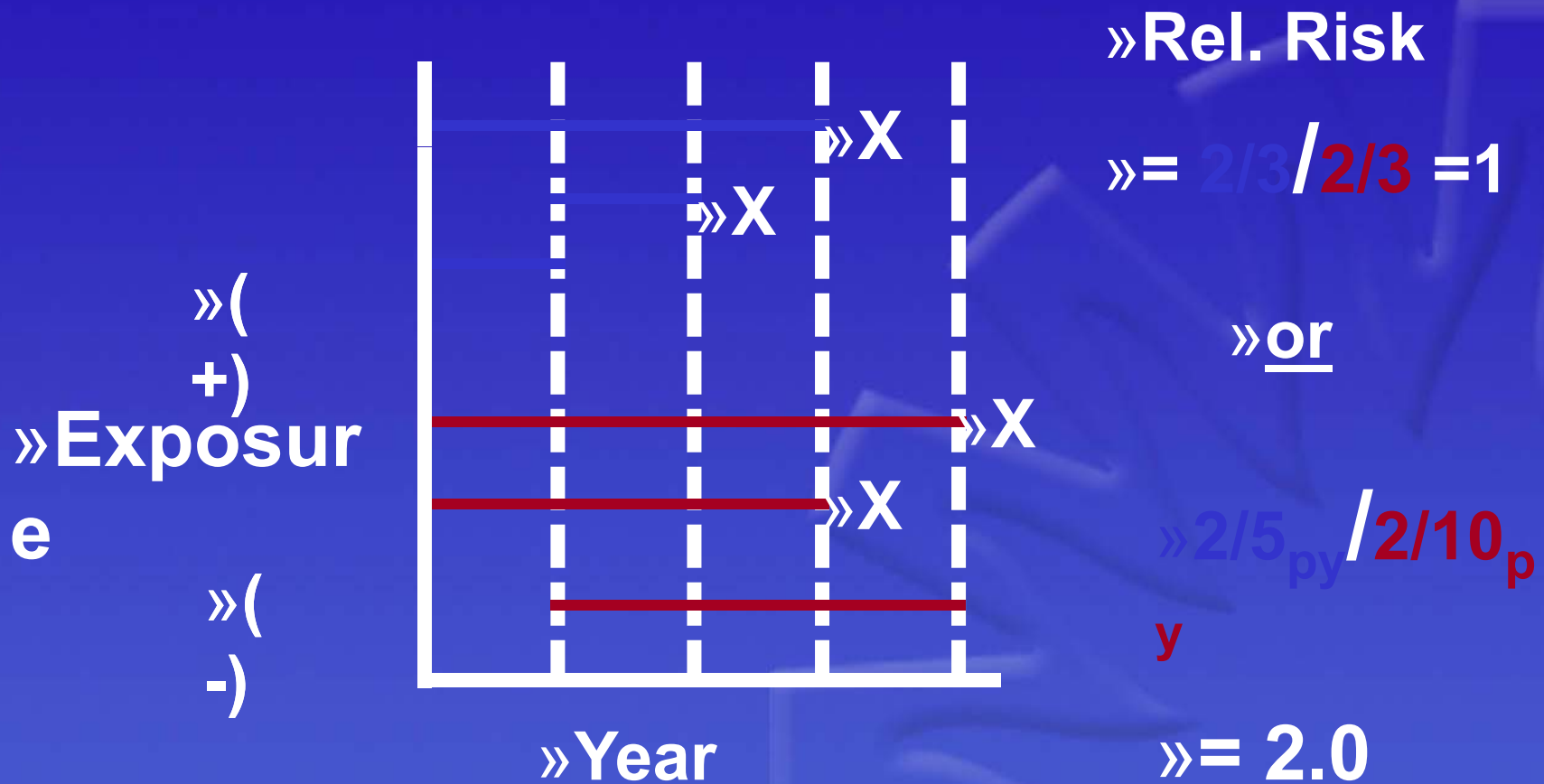
»Odds Ratio:

$$(a/c)/(b/d) = (a/b)/(c/d)$$

$$(30/3)/(70/57) = 8.14$$

COHORT STUDIES

• Dynamic Cohort



COHORT STUDIES

- Cohort : 16, 936 Harvard grads
- Measure: Question re: activity level
- Follow: “Sedentary”: 24 CHD deaths per 10,000 person-years
- vs. “Active”: 16 CHD deaths per 10,000 person-years
- Relative risk = $24/16 = 1.5$

COHORT STUDIES

- Questions:
 - Findings due to confounding?
 - Could subclinical disease have affected the risk factor (activity)?

COHORT STUDIES

- Take-Home Message:
- The best measure of effect is the “relative risk.” For a fixed cohort, this will be the ratio of the cumulative incidences. For a dynamic cohort, this will be the ratio of the incidence rates.
- The odds ratio can be used for fixed cohorts comparing cumulative incidences. It will be close to the relative risk for rare diseases.

COHORT STUDIES

- Variations on a theme:
- Retrospective (Historical) Cohort

COHORT STUDIES

- Prospective: Outcomes have not yet occurred as study begins. Example: Women's Health Study.
- Retrospective: Outcomes have already occurred as the study begins. Example: finding a trove of medical records allowing you to follow a cohort born in 1880 to death.

COHORT STUDIES

- Utility and Strengths
- Incidence and natural history
- Temporal sequence
- Avoid survivor bias
- Avoid reporting bias
- Look at multiple outcomes

COHORT STUDIES

- Limitations:
-
- Inefficient for rare diseases
- Confounding may occur
- Sub-clinical disease may affect risk factor levels
- Loss to follow-up

»Epidemiologic Study Designs

»M. Tevfik DORAK

»*HUMIGEN LLC*

»*Genomic Immunoepidemiology Laboratory*

»*Hamilton, NJ*

»*USA*

»Clinical Studies & Objective Medicine

»Bodrum, 15-16 April 2006

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»Epidemiologic Study Designs

»Experiment

»(RCTs)
al

»Observation



al



»Analytic



al



»Descrip

tive

»Case- »Cohort

»+ cross-sectional & ecologic
Control



»Epidemiologic Study Designs

»*Descriptive studies*

»Examine patterns of disease

»*Analytical studies*

»Studies of suspected causes of diseases

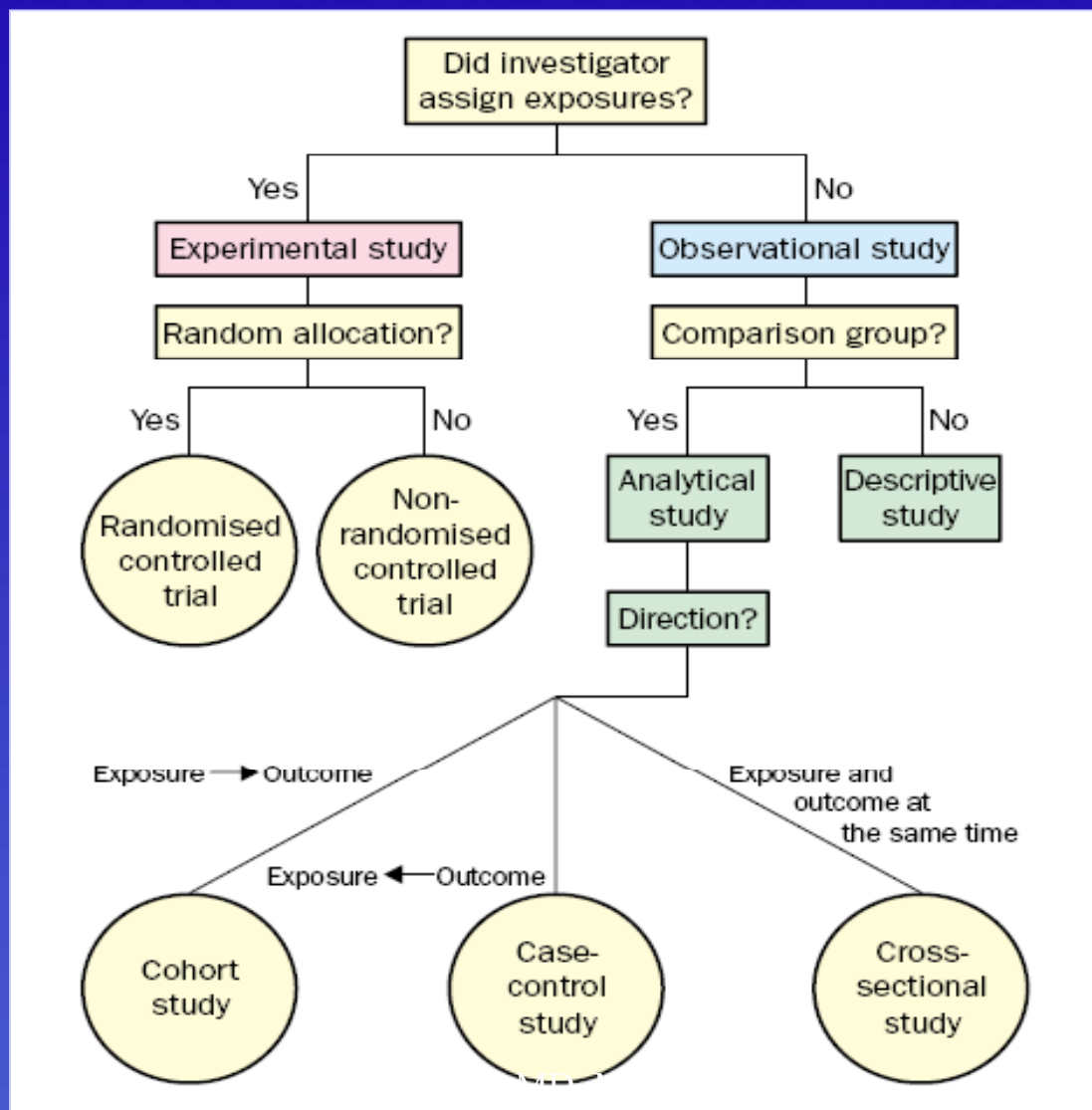
»*Experimental studies*

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»Compare treatment modalities

» Epidemiologic Study Designs



Postdoc

»Hierarchy of Epidemiologic Study Design

Case reports

Generate hypotheses

Case series

Ecologic studies

Cross-sectional studies

Case-control studies

Cohort studies

Randomized controlled trials

Establish causality



»Observational Studies

»(no control over the circumstances)

» - Descriptive: Most basic demographic studies

» - Analytical: Comparative studies testing an hypothesis

» * cross-sectional

» (a snapshot; no idea on cause-and-effect relationship)

» * cohort

» (prospective; cause-and-effect relationship can be inferred)

» * case-control

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»Epidemiologic Study Designs

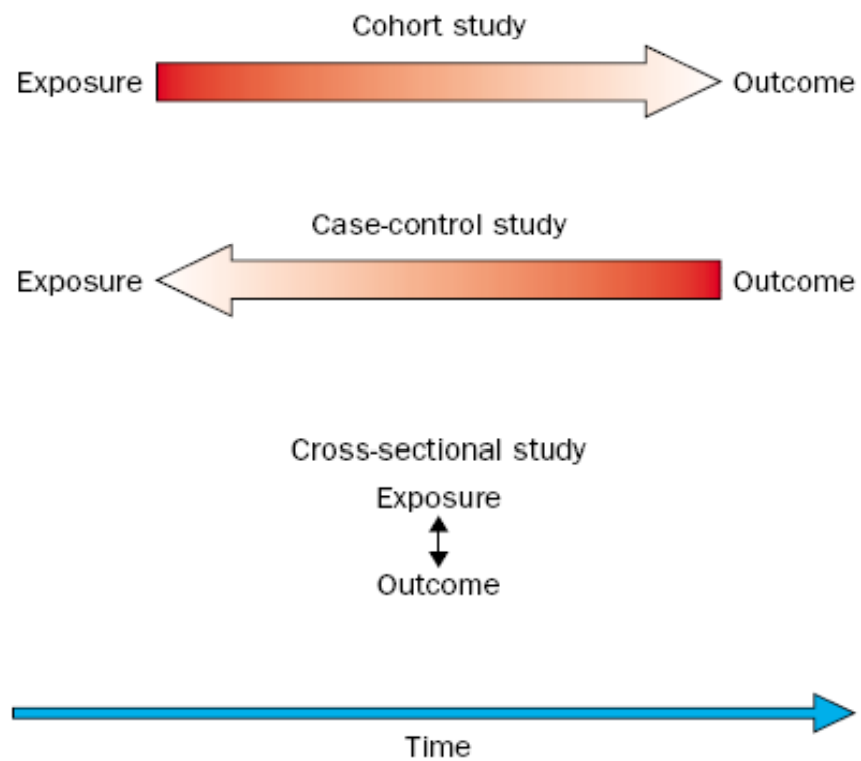


Figure 2: **Schematic diagram showing temporal direction of three study designs**

»Analytical Studies

»(comparative studies testing an hypothesis)

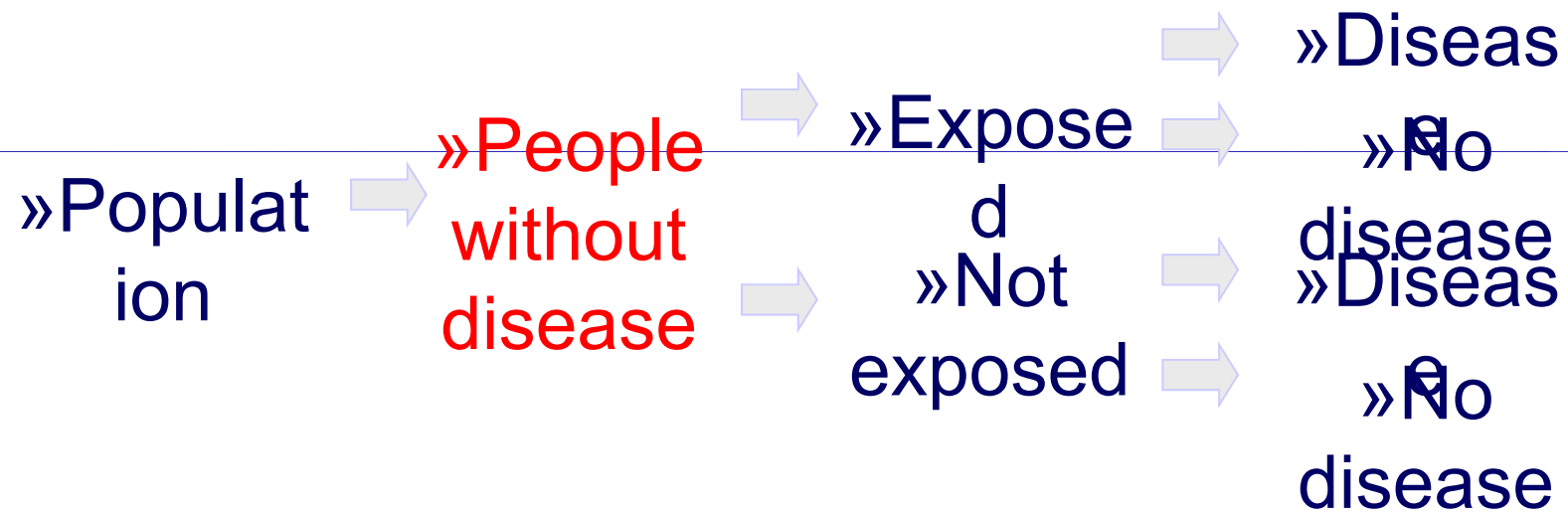
» * **cohort** (prospective)

» *Begins with an exposure (smokers and non-smokers)*

» * **case-control** (retrospective - trohoc)

» *Begins with outcome (cancer cases and healthy controls)*

» Cohort Studies



» Examples of Cohort Studies

» * *Framingham Heart Study* ([www](#))

» * *NHANES Studies* ([www](#))

» * *MACS* ([www](#))

» * *Physicians' Health Study* ([www](#))

» * *Nurses' Health Study* ([www](#))

» * *ALSPAC* ([www](#))

»Advantages of Cohort Studies

- »- Can establish population-based incidence
- »- Accurate relative risk (risk ratio) estimation
- »- Can examine rare exposures (asbestos > lung cancer)
- »- Temporal relationship can be inferred (prospective design)
- »- Time-to-event analysis is possible
- »- Can be used where randomization is not possible
- »- Magnitude of a risk factor's effect can be

»Disadvantages of Cohort Studies

- »- Lengthy and expensive
- »- May require very large samples
- »- Not suitable for rare diseases
- »- Not suitable for diseases with long-latency
- »- Unexpected environmental changes may influence the association
- »- Nonresponse, migration and loss-to-follow-up biases
- »- Sampling, ascertainment and observer biases are still possible

»Presentation of cohort data:
Population at risk

»Does HIV infection increase risk of developing TB among a population of drug users?

» Population Cases
»(follow up 2 years)

»HIV +	215	8
»HIV -	289	1

»Source: Selwyn et al., New York, 1989
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Does HIV infection increase risk of developing TB among drug users?

Exposure	Population (f/u 2 years)	Cases	Incidence (%)	Relative Risk
HIV +	215	8	3.7	11
HIV -	298	1	0.3	

»Presentation of cohort data:
Person-years at risk

»Tobacco smoking and lung cancer, England & Wales, 1950-1969

	»Person-years	Cases
»Smoke	102,600	133
»Do not smoke	42,800	3

»Presentation of data:
Various exposure levels

Daily number of cigarettes smoked	Person-years at risk	Lung cancer cases
> 25	25,100	57
15 - 24	38,900	54
1 - 14	38,600	22
none	42,800	3

Cohort study: Tobacco smoking and lung cancer, England & Wales, 1951

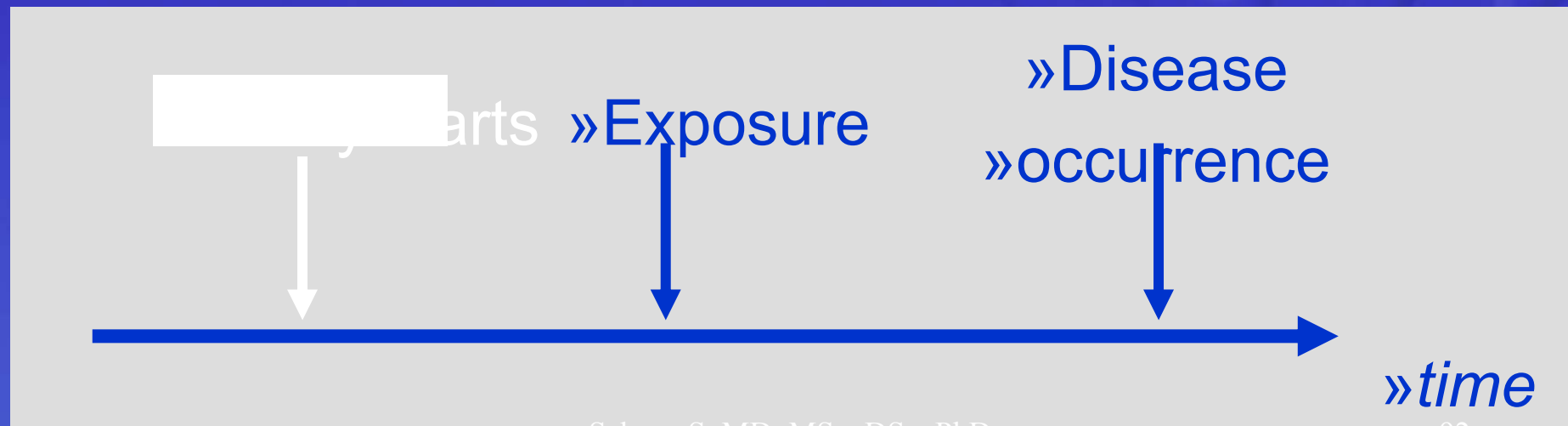
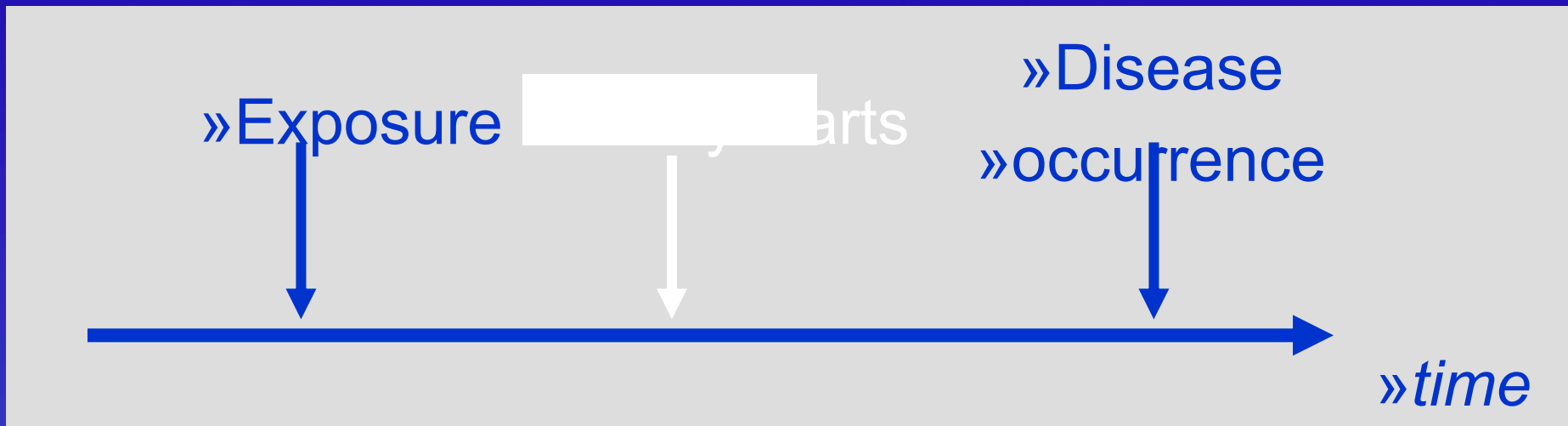
Cigarettes smoked/d	Person-years at risk	Cases	Rate per 1000 p-y	Rate ratio
> 25	25,100	57	2.27	32.4
15 - 24	38,900	54	1.39	19.8
1 - 14	38,600	22	0.57	8.1
none	42,800	3	0.07	Ref.

»Source: Doll & Hill

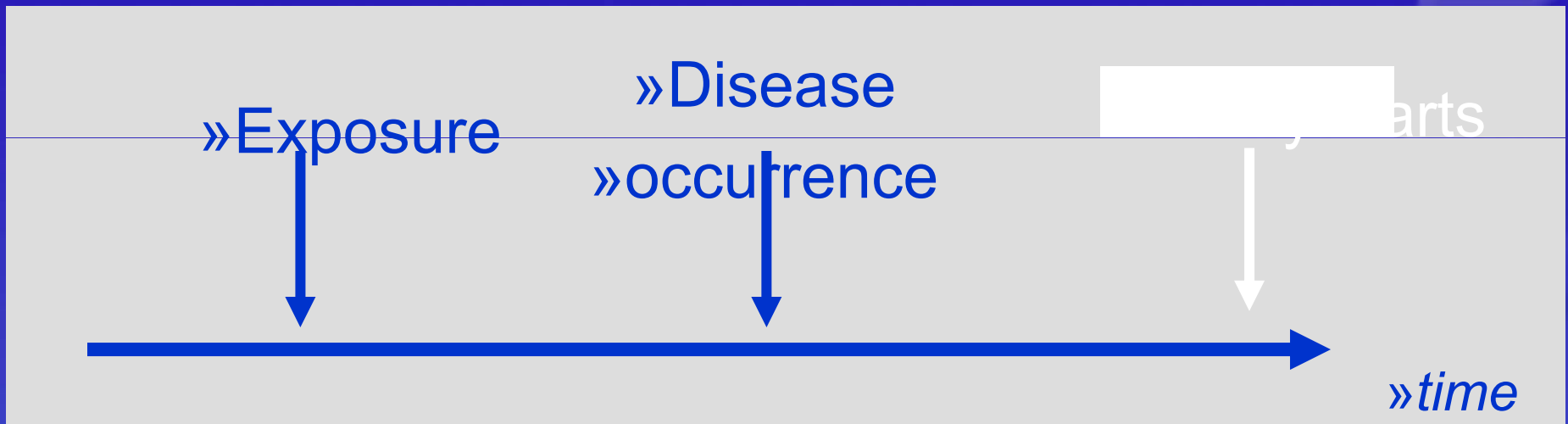
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»EPIET ([www](http://www.epiet.com))

Prospective cohort study



»Retrospective cohort studies



» Cohort Studies

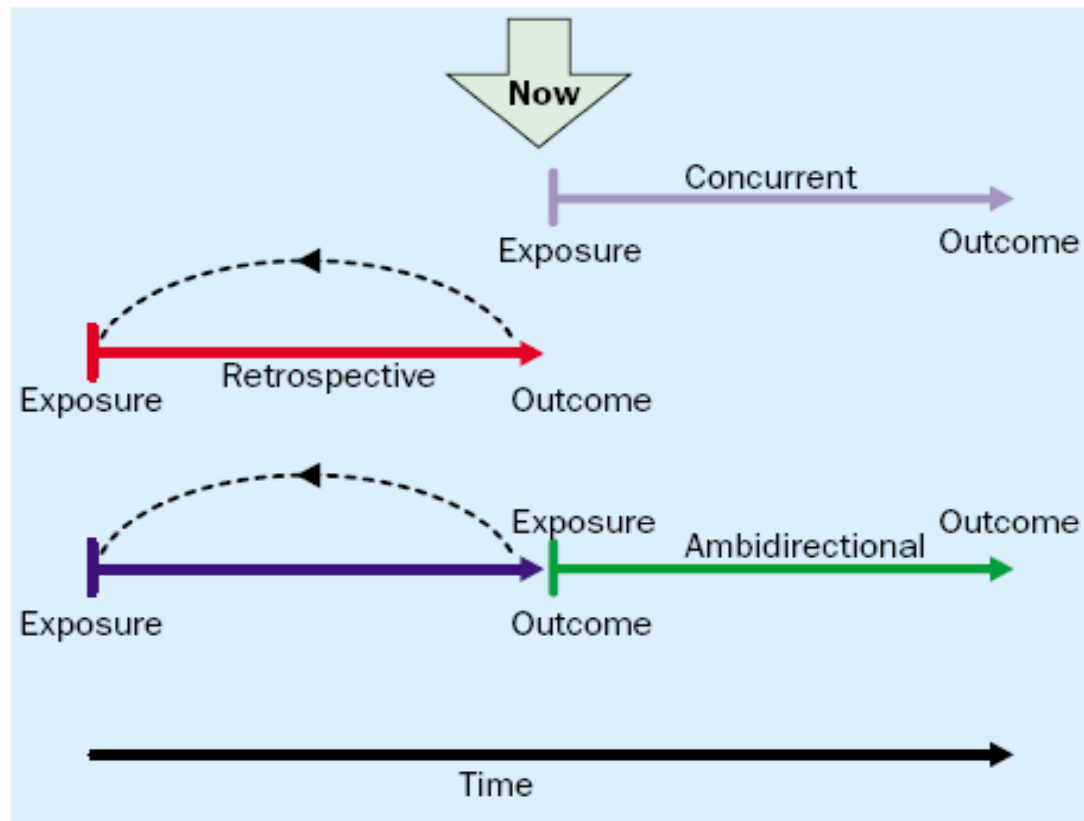


Figure 2: **Schematic diagram of concurrent, retrospective, and ambidirectional cohort studies**

»Cohort Studies

Panel 2: Features to look for in a cohort study

How much selection bias was present?

- 1 Were only people at risk of the outcome included?
- 1 Was the exposure clear, specific, and measurable?
- 1 Were the exposed and unexposed groups similar in all important respects except for the exposure?

What steps were taken to minimise information bias?

- 1 Was the outcome clear, specific, and measurable?
- 1 Was the outcome identified in the same way for both groups?
- 1 Was determination of outcome made by an observer blinded as to treatment?

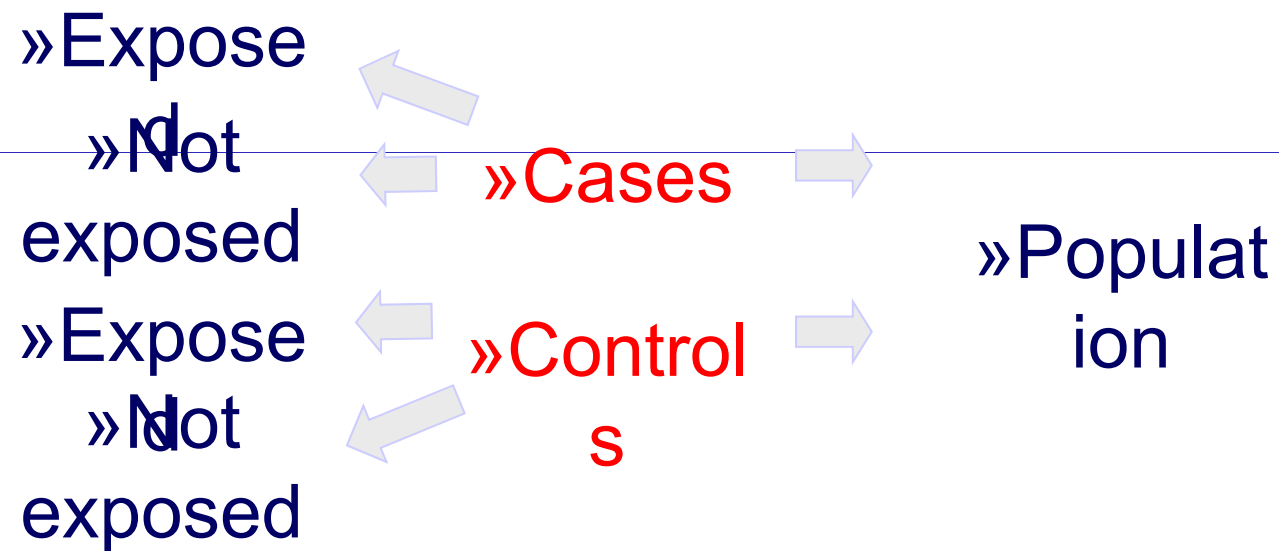
How complete was the follow-up of both groups?

- 1 What efforts were made to limit loss to follow-up?
- 1 Was loss to follow-up similar in both groups?

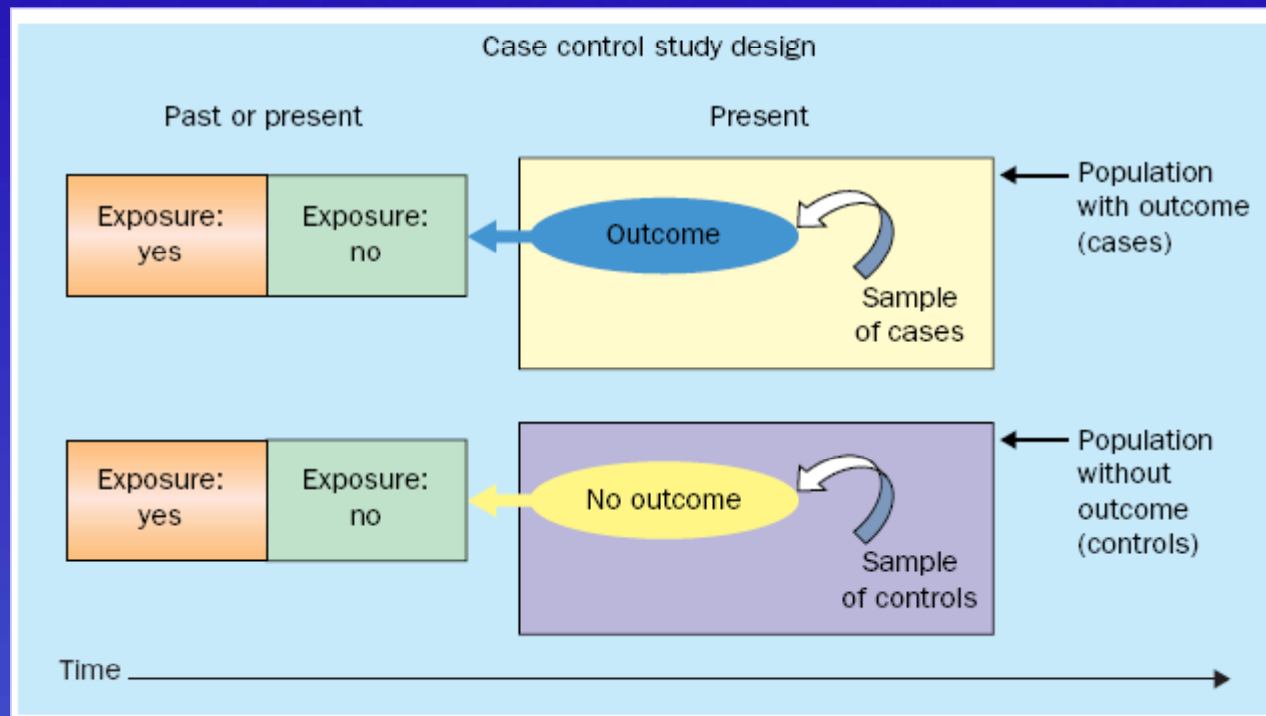
Were potential confounding factors sought and controlled for in the analysis?

- 1 Did the investigators anticipate and gather information on potential confounding factors?
- 1 What method(s) were used to assess and control for confounding?

»Case-Control Studies



»Case-Control Studies



»Schulz & Grimes, 2002 ([www](#)) ([PDF](#))

»Advantages of Case-Control Studies

- »- Cheap, easy and quick studies
- »- Multiple exposures can be examined
- »- Rare diseases and diseases with long latency can be studied
- »- Suitable when randomization is unethical
- » (alcohol and pregnancy outcome)

»Disadvantages of Case-Control Studies

- »- Case and control selection troublesome
- »- Subject to bias (selection, recall, misclassification)
- »- Direct incidence estimation is not possible
- »- Temporal relationship is not clear
- »- Multiple outcomes cannot be studied
- »- If the incidence of exposure is high, it is difficult to show the difference between cases and controls

»Case-Control Studies:

»Potential Bias

Panel 2: Introduction of bias through poor choice of controls

Cases	Control selection	Non-representativeness	Selection bias
Colorectal cancer patients admitted to hospital	Patients admitted to hospital with arthritis	Controls probably have high degrees of exposure to NSAIDs	Would spuriously reduce the estimate of effect (odds ratio)
Colorectal cancer patients admitted to hospital	Patients admitted to hospital with peptic ulcers	Controls probably have low degrees of exposure to NSAIDs	Would spuriously increase the estimate of effect (odds ratio)

NSAIDs=non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs.

»Schulz & Grimes, 2002 ([www](#)) ([PDF](#))

»Cause-and-Effect Relationship

Temporal sequence

Did exposure precede outcome?

Strength of association

How strong is the effect, measured as relative risk or odds ratio?

Consistency of association

Has effect been seen by others?

Biological gradient (dose-response relation)

Does increased exposure result in more of the outcome?

Specificity of association

Does exposure lead only to outcome?

Biological plausibility

Does the association make sense?

Coherence with existing knowledge

Is the association consistent with available evidence?

Experimental evidence

Has a randomised controlled trial been done?

Analogy

Is the association similar to others?

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Postdoc

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»Grimes & Schulz, 2002 ([www](#)) ([PDF](#))

»Cause-and-Effect Relationship

Panel 1: What to look for in observational studies

Is selection bias present?

In a cohort study, are participants in the exposed and unexposed groups similar in all important respects except for the exposure?

In a case-control study, are cases and controls similar in all important respects except for the disease in question?

Is information bias present?

In a cohort study, is information about outcome obtained in the same way for those exposed and unexposed?

In a case-control study, is information about exposure gathered in the same way for cases and controls?

Is confounding present?

Could the results be accounted for by the presence of a factor—eg, age, smoking, sexual behaviour, diet—associated with both the exposure and the outcome but not directly involved in the causal pathway?

If the results cannot be explained by these three biases, could they be the result of chance?

What are the relative risk or odds ratio and 95% CI?^{11,12}

Is the difference statistically significant, and, if not, did the study have adequate power to find a clinically important difference?^{13,14}

If the results still cannot be explained away, then (and only then) might the findings be real and worthy of note.

Sabous S, MD, MSc, DSc, PhD,
Postdoc

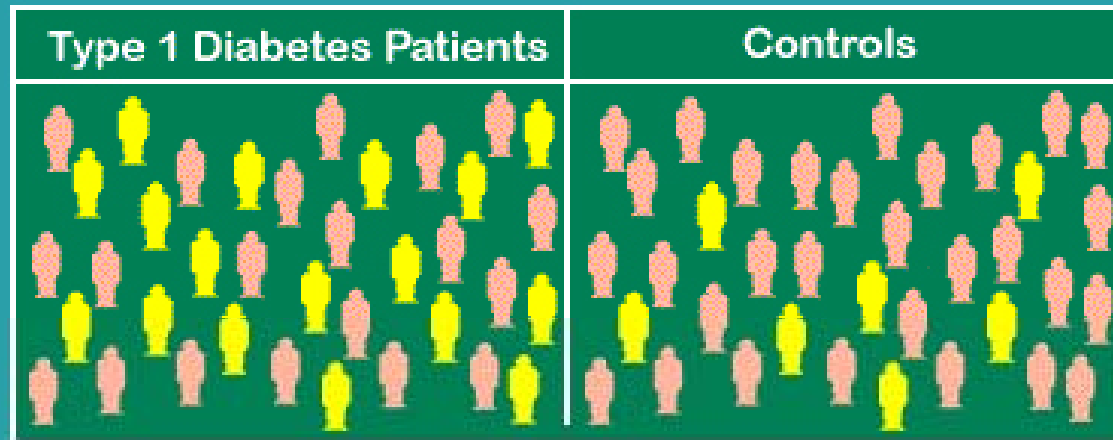
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»Grimes & Schulz, 2002 ([www](#)) ([PDF](#))

»Epidemiologic Association / Impact Measures

- »(Absolute Risk) (AR)
- »Relative Risk (Risk Ratio) (RR)
- »Odds Ratio (OR)
- »Phi coefficient / Cramer's V / Contingency coefficient
- »Attributable Fraction (AF)
- »Attributable Risk (AR)
- »Relative Risk Reduction (RRR)
- »Absolute Risk Reduction (ARR)
- »Number Needed to Treat (NNT)
- »Measures of test accuracy:
 - »Sensitivity, specificity, positive and negative predictive value (PPV, NPV)

Association Studies



Genotype	Type 1	Controls	Total
HLA DR4	17	7	24
NON-HLA DR4	20	30	50
	37	37	

$$\chi^2_{.05} = 5.377$$

$$p < 0.025$$

 = HLA DR4

 = non-HLA DR4

»Odds Ratio: 3.6

»95% CI = 1.3 to 10.4

»ROCHE Genetic Education ([www](http://www.roche.com/genetic))

Genotype	Type 1	Controls	Total
HLA DR4	17	7	24
NON-HLA DR4	20	30	50
	37	37	

»a = 17

»b = 20

»c = 7

»d = 30

»OR = $ad / bc = 17 \cdot 30 / 20 \cdot 7 = 3.6$

»RR = $(a/(a+c)) / (b/(b+d)) = (17/24)/(20/50) = 1.8$

»EBM toolbox ([www](#))

»EpiMax Table Calculator ([www](#))

All-Purpose 4-fold Table Analyser

The CATmaker's Scratching Post.

1. Type the appropriate numbers in the white boxes (you can TAB between boxes to save using the mouse);
2. Click (or un-click) the sets of calculations you want to do (Rx for therapy, Dx for diagnosis and H for harm/aetiology);
3. Click CALC;
4. Click CLEAR to, er, clear the values and start again

Please note that you will need the Shockwave plug-in to view this interactive image. If you do not have Shockwave installed, you will be presented with the opportunity to download it. We recommend you do so, as this adds functionality to your browser.

Note that this image is 20K.

sample size 0		target disorder or outcome	
		present	absent
Rx Dx H	control, test +ve, exposure +ve	<input type="text" value="0"/>	<input type="text" value="0"/>
		a	b
Rx Dx H	experimental, test -ve, exposure -ve	<input type="text" value="0"/>	<input type="text" value="0"/>
		c	d

Rx

Dx

H

cohort study

case-control

CER:

ARR:

NNT:

sensitivity:

specificity:

prevalence:

RR:

NNH:

Chi square:

EER:

RRR:

LR+:

LR-:

OR:

- [Click here to find out about the full CATmaker](#)
- You can even email us to let us know how it could be improved

EpiMax Table Calculator

**Epidemiology & Lab Statistics from Study Counts
With Chi Square, NNT & "Cost to Treat" Estimates**

[For Demonstration Only-Not for Official Use]

Clinical & Economic Software Solutions

[Health Decision Strategies, LLC](#)

Princeton, New Jersey USA

Data Entry Page

Instructions: Using 2x2 study data, you can change the "Title" and fill in the four center cells in the table below (the cells in blue) and if you wish, enter a "Cost Per Person" value. Hit the "Calculate" button to see the estimated results.

(Results generated will appear in the boxes outside and below the center cells.)

		Target Disorder or Outcome		
Analysis Title:		Present	Absent	
TPA vs Strepto: Fiction		Case	Control	
		True Positive(a)	False Positive(b)	a + b
Rx Dx H	<input checked="" type="radio"/> Control Group <input type="radio"/> Diag. Test positive <input type="radio"/> Exposed to Risk Factor	100	900	<input style="width: 50px;" type="text"/>
Rx Dx H	-- Experimental Group -- Diag. Test negative -- Not Exposed to Risk	90	910	<input style="width: 50px;" type="text"/>
Incremental Cost Per Person (CPP) Per Duration		a + c	b + d	a+b+c+d
\$ 2000		<input style="width: 50px;" type="text"/>	<input style="width: 50px;" type="text"/>	<input style="width: 50px;" type="text"/>

Expand All | Collapse

- Home
- Info and Help
 - Calculator
 - Counts
 - SMR
 - Proportion
 - Two by Two Table
 - Dose-Response/Trend
 - R by C Table
 - Matched Case Control
 - Person Time
 - 1 Rate
 - Compare 2 Rates
 - Diagnostic/Screening
 - Continuous Variables
 - Mean CI
 - Median/%ile CI
 - t test
 - ANOVA
 - Sample Size
 - Proportion
 - Unmatched CC
 - Cohort/RCT
 - Mean Difference
 - Power
 - Unmatched CC
 - Cohort
 - Clinical Trial
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Enter New Data

Add Stratum | Stratum 1 | Delete Stratum

		'Exposure'		Totals
		(+)	(-)	
'Disease'	(+)	66	36	102
	(-)	28	32	60
Totals		94	68	162

Two by Two Tables

Two by two tables are used to evaluate the association between a possible risk factor ("Exposure") and an outcome ("Disease"). Counts summarizing the occurrence of the four possible combinations of events in the study population are entered into the appropriate cells. The table can be rotated or flipped so that either rows or columns represent Exposure, and the column headings (+) and (-) can be in either order to match common textbooks of epidemiology. A single table or multiple strata can be entered.

Statistics produced include the Fisher and mid-p exact tests, chi squares, odds ratio, maximum likelihood odds ratio estimate, risk/prevalence ratio (relative risk), risk difference, and etiologic fractions with confidence limits produced by several methods, with stratified analysis

Author(s)

Statistics

Kevin M. Sullivan, Emory University
and Andrew G. Dean, EpiInformatics.com
based on code from John C. Pezzullo

Exact and maximum likelihood statistics adapted from a Pascal program by David Martin. Thanks to Ray Simons for advice and testing.

Interface

Andrew G. Dean and Roger Mir

Load Demo Data

Stratum	Measures of Association	
	Fisher Exact	Mid-P Exact
1	0.01881	0.01341
2	0.1349	0.1131
all	0.01458	0.01158
crude	0.01448	0.01166

All expected values (row total*column total/grand total) are >=5
OK to use chi square.

Stratum	Chi Square	p value	ChiSq Corrected	p value	Mantel-Haenszel	
					ChiSq	p value
1	5.047	0.02466	4.314	0.03716	5.016	0.02811
2	1.486	0.2213	1.218	0.2708	1.482	0.2239
All strata: Mantel-Haenszel Summary Chi Sq = 5.211 p = 0.02245, 1 d.f.						
crude	5.209	0.02247	4.787	0.02868	5.199	0.02260

Stratum	Exact Odds Ratio Estimates and Confidence Limits	
	CMLE OR*	Mid-P Limits

Select, copy, and paste results to other programs or download OpenEpi to local disk and run OpenEpiSave.HTA to save automatically.

»Epidemiologic Study Designs

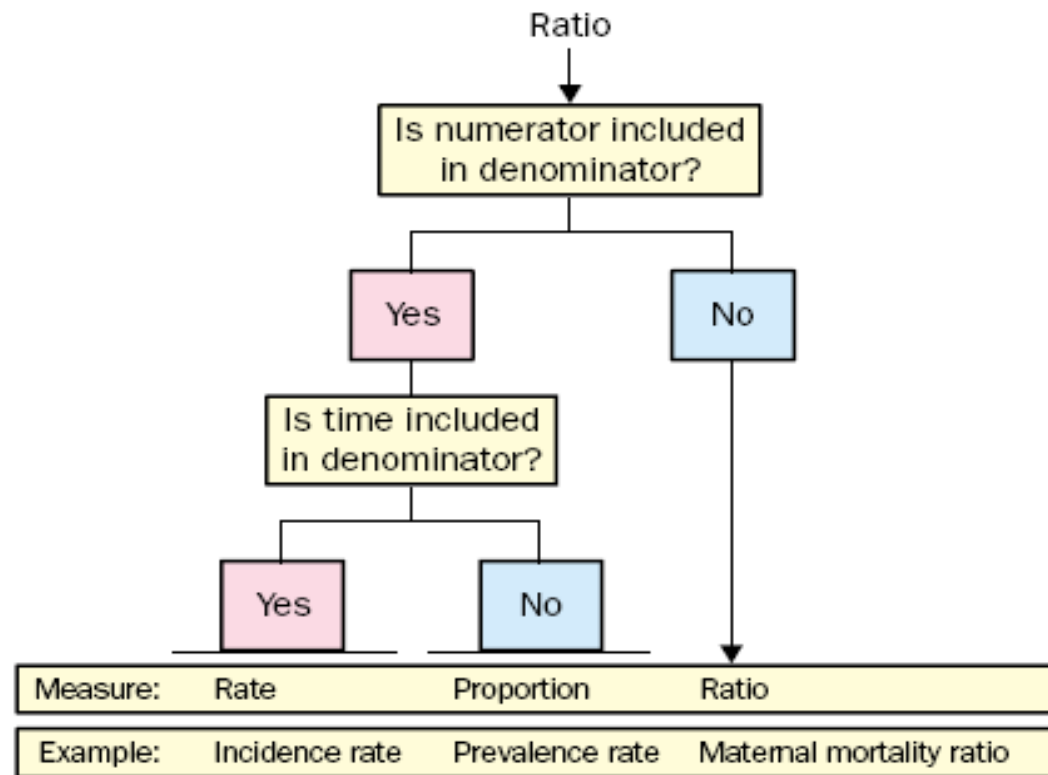


Figure 3: **Algorithm for distinguishing rates, proportions, and ratios**

Multi-Sample Cohort Study Design



Selecting Comparison (Control)

Groups

- If the cohort is the general population, subjects are selected based on exposure and the comparison group is **internal** - from the same sample - who do not have the exposure
- If the cohort is based on a high risk population selected on the basis of a given exposure (e.g., Chernobyl residents, asbestos workers), **external controls must be sought**
- Sometimes **both** comparison groups are

Selecting Comparison Groups (cont.)

- If a comparison group cannot be assembled, known population rates for outcomes may be acceptable but only if they are **adjusted** for the exposure
 - Lung cancer rates are based on the population but **should not be used** for comparison to compare to populations with high smoking rates, such as miners. **WHY?**
 - Leukemia rates from the general population **can be used** to compare rates to Three Mile Island residents. **WHY?**

Determining Exposure

- Valid means of determining exposure include:
 - Questionnaires
 - Laboratory tests
 - Physical measurements
 - Special procedures
 - Medical records
- What if the exposure is chronic, such as radon or smoking?

Measuring Disease

- **You must determine endpoints in a similar manner for both the exposed and the non-exposed**

- **That is, procedures for disease identification must be the same for the exposed and the non-exposed**

- **Define the outcomes of interest (set diagnostic criteria)**

- **If you are looking for multiple outcomes, each must be defined**

Measuring Disease (cont.)

- Mortality may be ascertained from medical records, autopsy records, death certificates, physician records, or next-of-kin
 - Using mortality records does not allow for multiple outcomes
- Hospital records can be scanned for specific types of admissions
 - Health records of employers and schools can be monitored
 - Reportable diseases may be ascertained from state registries
- Absenteeism may be monitored with work records, self reporting, school records or household surveys
- Common ailments that do not usually require medical care may be monitored through self-reports, telephone surveys or calendar sheets

Relative Risk (RR)

- **A ratio that measures the risk of disease among the exposed to the risk among the unexposed**
- **RR Numerator: Incidence rate in the exposed**
- **RR Denominator: Incidence rate in the unexposed**

Example: Calculating the Relative Risk

Disease

Status

CHD cases NO CHD

TOTAL

Exposure
Status

Smoker

	(Cases)	(Control)	
Smoker	112	176	288
Non-smoker	88	224	312

Non-smoker

»Relative Risk = $\frac{A/(A+B)}{C/(C+D)}$ = $\frac{112/288}{88/312}$ = 1.38

Example: Interpreting the Relative Risk

»Relative Risk = 1.38

»The risk of developing CHD is 1.38 times higher for a smoker than for a nonsmoker.

»0

»The risk of developing CHD is 38% higher for a smoker than for a nonsmoker.

Types of Cohort Studies

- **Prospective**

- Exposure baseline in the present
- Follow-up period: present to future

- **Retrospective:**

- Exposure baseline in the past
- Follow-up period: past to present

- **Historical prospective or ambispective:**

- Exposure baseline in the past

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Postdoc

Types of Cohort Studies (cont.)

- You may also **NEST** a case-control study within a cohort study

Example:

- Begin with a cohort of 10,000 individuals without rheumatoid arthritis
- Test for the presence of RA antigen
- Assume those with RA antigen are the exposed and those without the controls
- Follow for 10 years and determine the incidence of disease among both cohorts
- This reduces the **cost of testing**

Outcome Measures

- Incidence in the exposed
- Incidence in the unexposed
- Relative risk
- Attributable risk (risk difference)
- Population attributable risk
- Attributable risk percent
- Population attributable risk percent
- Standardized mortality ratio

~~Advantages of Cohort Studies~~

- **Temporality:** Exposure precedes outcome because the cohort is disease free at baseline
- **Efficient for studying rare exposures**
- **May be used to study multiple outcomes**
- **Allows for calculation of incidence of diseases in exposed and unexposed individuals**
- **Minimizes recall bias**

Disadvantages of Cohort Studies

- Tend to be expensive (large sample size) and time consuming (long follow-up period)
- Loss to follow-up
 - When multiple outcomes or specific disease incidence is the outcome of interest, bias can be a serious problem
- Inefficient to study rare diseases

~~Disadvantages of Cohort Studies~~

(cont.)

- Nonparticipation (selection bias) – it cannot be assumed that those who chose to participate had the same prevalence of exposures nor incidence of disease as those who did not participate
 - A difference in prevalence of exposure in nonparticipants **will not** bias the results
 - A difference in rate of disease among nonparticipants **will** bias the results

Experimental Designs

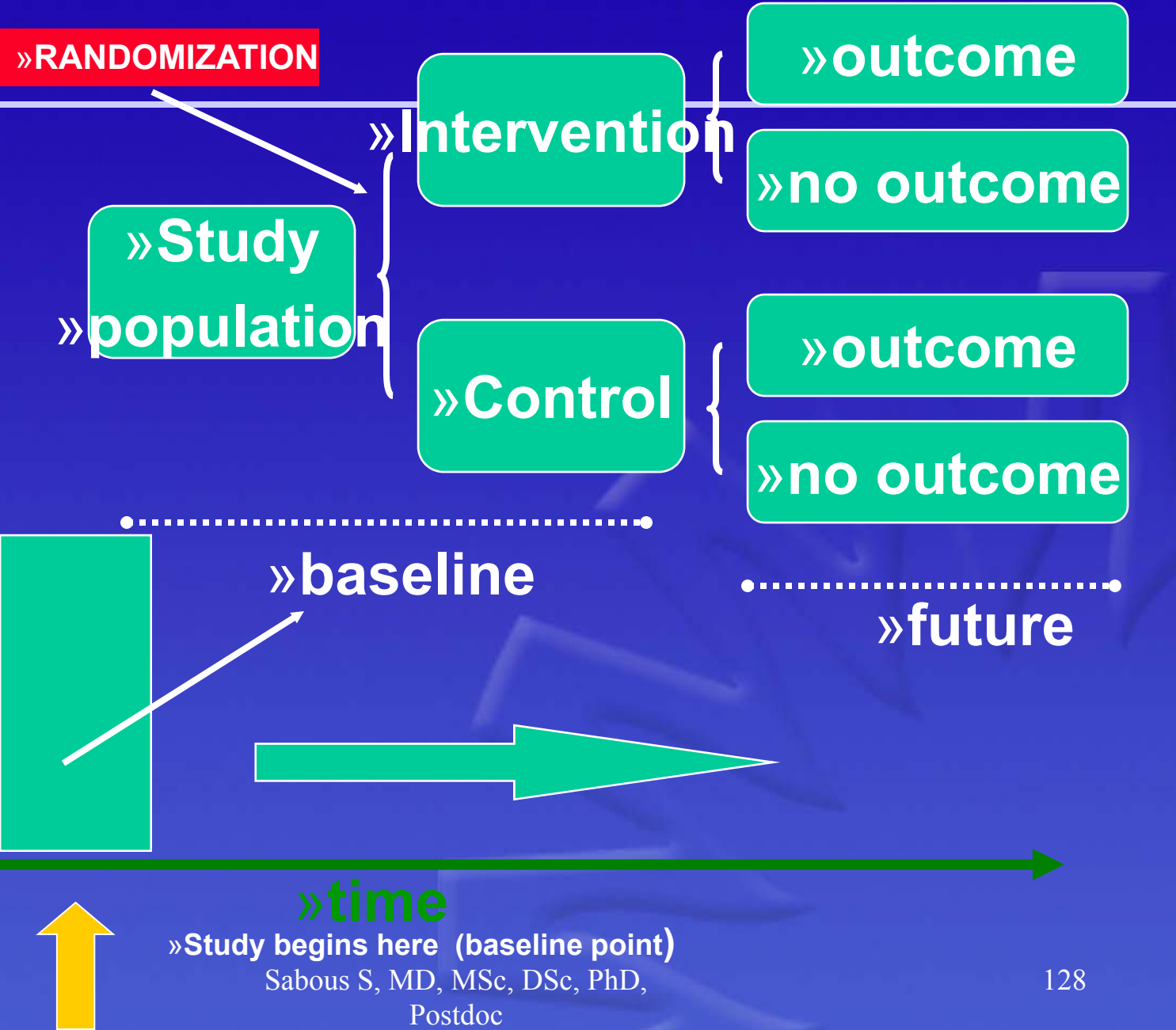
Experimental Study Design

A study in which a population is selected for a planned trial of a regimen, whose effects are measured by comparing the outcome of the regimen in the experimental group versus the outcome of another regimen in the control group. Such designs are differentiated from observational designs by the fact that there is manipulation of the study factor (exposure), and randomization (random allocation) of subjects to treatment (exposure) groups.

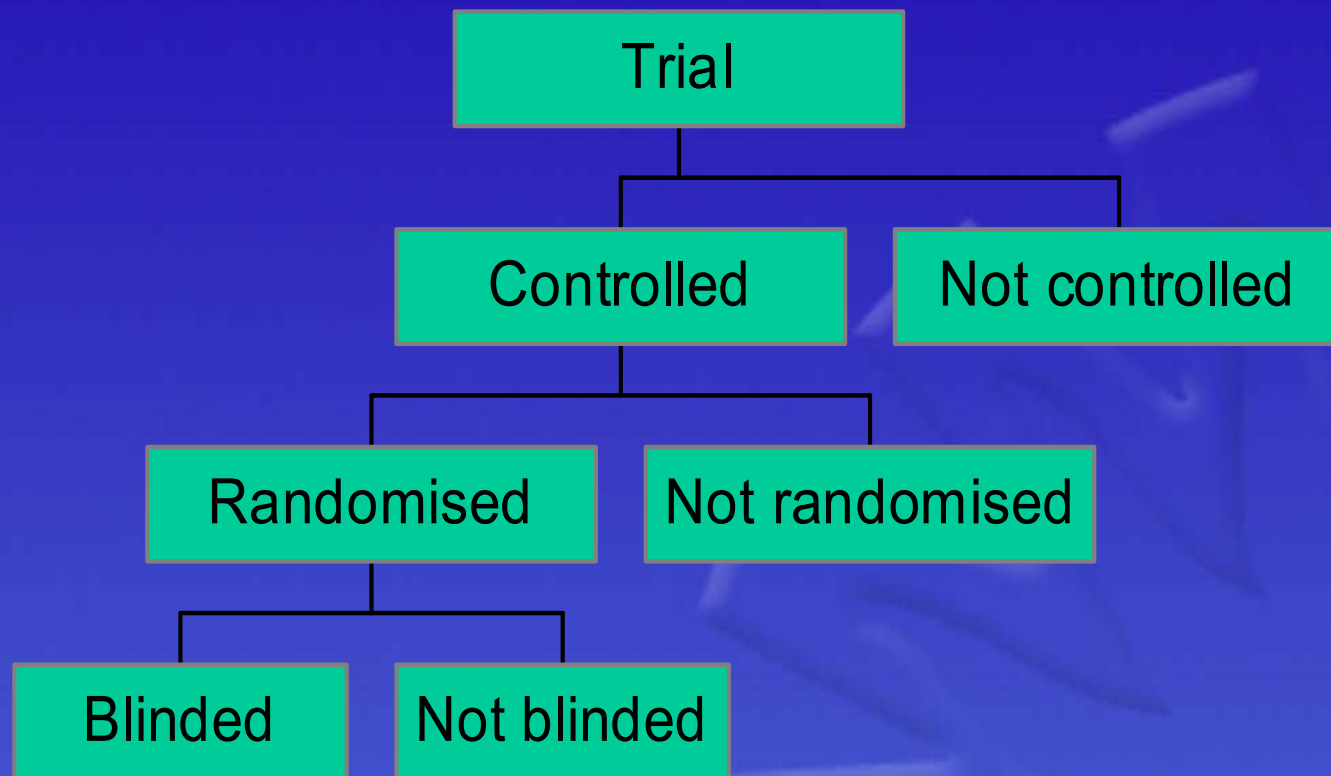
Why Performed ?

1. Provide stronger evidence of the effect (outcome) compared to observational designs, with maximum confidence and assurance
2. Yield more valid results, as variation is minimized and bias controlled
3. Determine whether experimental treatments are safe and effective under “controlled environments” (as opposed to “natural settings” in

Experimental Design



Types of trials





RCT Advantages (I)

– the “gold standard” of research designs. They thus provide the most convincing evidence of relationship between exposure and effect. Example:

- *trials of hormone replacement therapy in menopausal women found no protection for heart disease, contradicting findings of prior observational studies*

RCT Advantages (II)

- **Best evidence study design**
- **No inclusion bias (using blinding)**
- **Controlling for possible confounders**
- **Comparable Groups (using randomization)**

RCT Disadvantages

- **Large trials (may affect statistical power)**
- **Long term follow-up (possible losses)**
- **Compliance**
- **Expensive**
- **Public health perspective ?**
- **Possible ethical questions**

Choice of Design (I)

Depends on:

- Research Questions
- Research Goals
- Researcher Beliefs and Values
- Researcher Skills
- Time and Funds

Choice of design (II)

It is also related to:

- **Status of existent knowledge**
- **Occurrence of disease**
- **Duration of latent period**
- **Nature and availability of information**
- **Available resources**

Comparing study designs

- **Theme**
- **Ease**
- **Timing**
- **Maintenance and continuity**
- **Costs**
- **Ethics**
- **Data utilisation**
- **Main contribution**
- **Observer bias**
- **Selection bias**
- **Analytic output**

Overlap in the conceptual basis of quantitative study designs

- The cross-sectional study can be repeated
- If the same sample is studied for a second time i.e. it is followed up, the original cross-sectional study now becomes a cohort study.
- If, during a cohort study, possibly in a subgroup, the investigator imposes an intervention, a trial begins.
- Cohort study also gives birth to case-control studies, using incident cases (nested case control study).
- Cases in a case-series, particularly a population based one, may be the starting point of a case-control study or a trial.
- Not every epidemiological study fits neatly into one of the basic designs.

Conclusion (I)

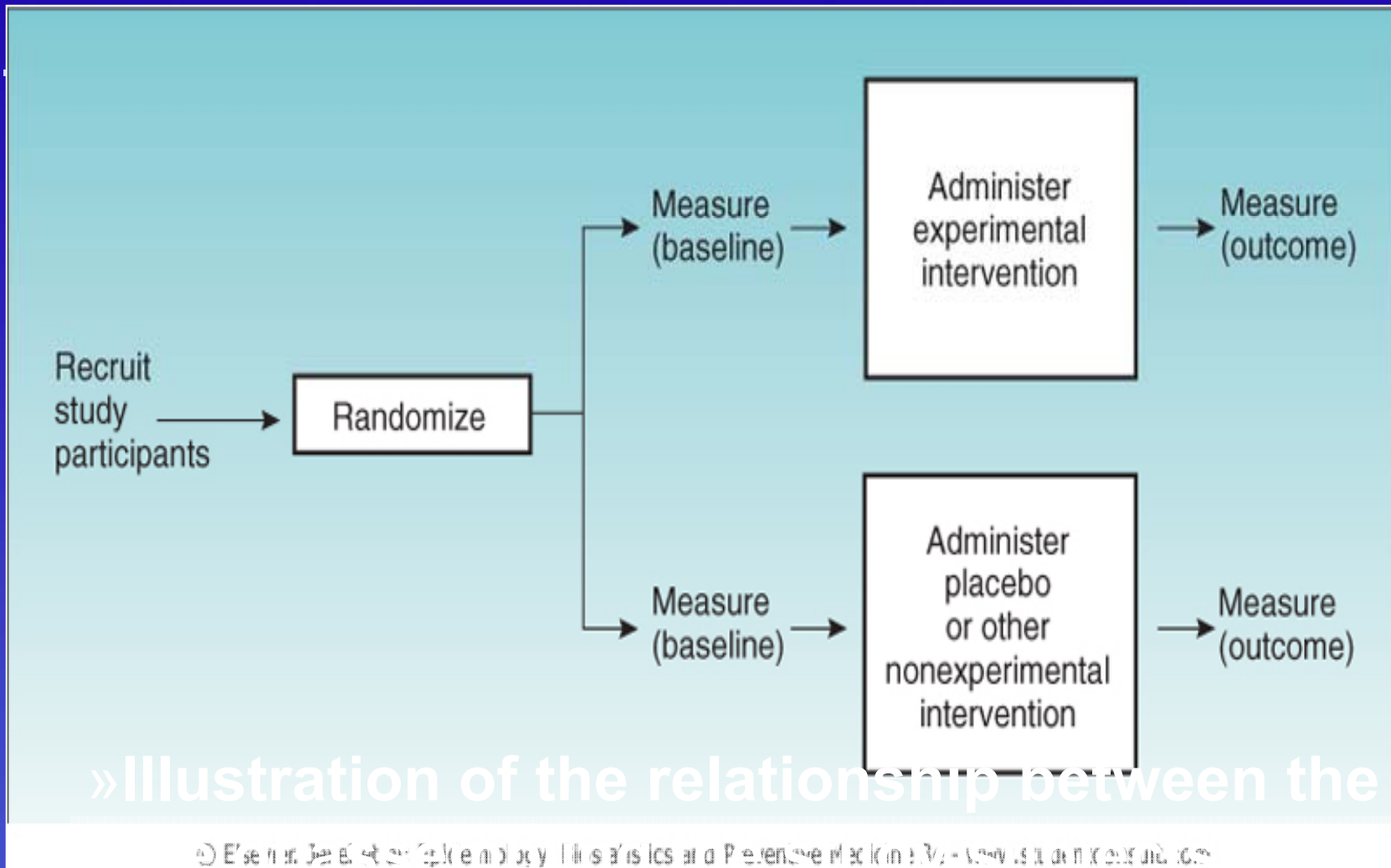
- **Qualitative designs are complementary to quantitative designs, are important in study of social determinants of health problems**
- **Quantitative designs have a common goal to understand the frequency and causes of health-related phenomena**
- **Seeking causes starts by describing associations between exposures (causes) and outcomes**

Conclusion (II)

- **Case-series is a coherent set of cases of a disease (or similar problem).**
- **Cases are compared with reference group, we have a case control study**
- **In a population studied at a specific time and place (a cross-section) the primary output is prevalence data, though association between risk factors and disease can be generated.**
- **In cross-sectional studies, we are looking for both exposure and outcome**
- **In case-control studies, we know the outcome, looking for the exposure**
- **In cohort studies, we know the outcome, following up looking for the outcome in question**

Conclusion (III)

- If the population in a cross-sectional survey is followed up to measure health outcomes, this study design is a cohort study.
- If the population of such a study are, at baseline, divided into two groups, and the investigators impose a health intervention upon one of the groups the design is that of a trial.
- Studies based on aggregated data are commonly referred to as ecological studies.
- Mostly, ecological studies are mode of analysis, rather than a design.
- Interpretation and application of data are easier when the relationship between the population observed and the target population is understood
- RCTs represent the “gold standard” of research designs. They thus provide the most convincing evidence of relationship between exposure and effect..



»Illustration of the relationship between the

time of enrolling the study subjects and

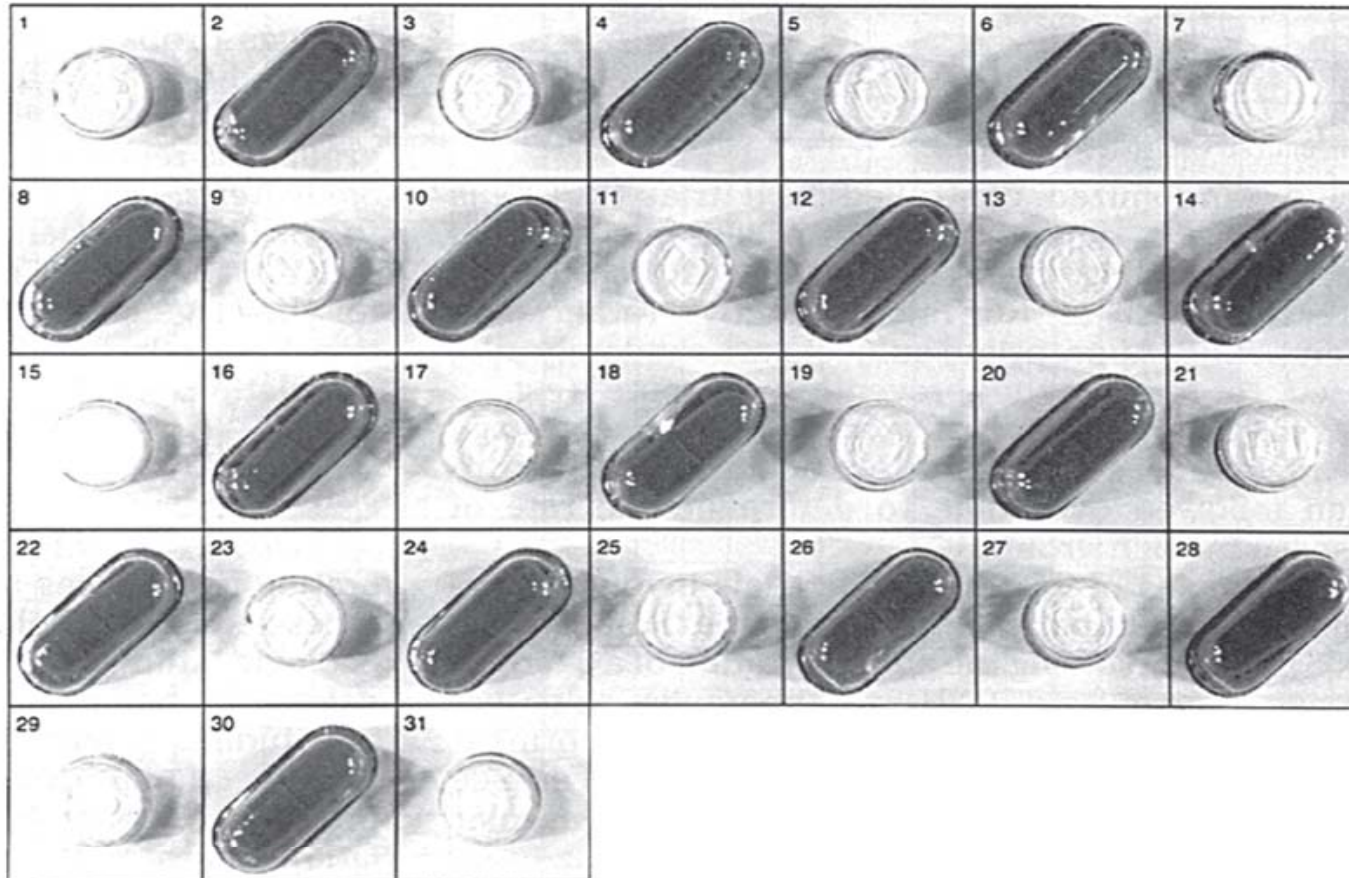
the time of data collection

»in an RCCT and an RCT.

Inquiries to: **PHYSICIANS HEALTH STUDY, HARVARD MEDICAL SCHOOL**

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Directions: Please take 1 pill each day. Use the tablet or capsule with the current date.
Store cards in a cool, dry place out of direct sunlight.



»22,000

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»Aspirin to reduce cardiovascular disease and beta carotene to prevent cancer.

»To have true blinding, the nonexperimental treatment must appear identical (e.g., in size, shape, color, taste) to the experimental treatment

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Postdoc

Randomized Controlled Clinical Trials

- Blinding is impossible and unethical:
 1. **Surgical intervention**
 2. **Intervention were the best available**
 3. **Prenatal care**

Problems of RCCT

- **Lost to follow-up** (for various reasons)
- **Therapy changes** (due to side effects)
- **Publication bias** (only positive results are publishing)

Randomized Controlled Field Trials

- An RCFT is similar to an RCCT except that the intervention in an RCFT is **preventive** rather than therapeutic, and usually it is done in the **community**.
- Appropriate subjects are randomly allocated to receive the preventive measure (e.g., **a vaccine or an oral drug**) or to receive the placebo (e.g., **an injection of sterile saline or an inert pill**).
- They are followed over time to determine the rate of disease in each group.

RCCT & RCFT

- **Disadvantages:**

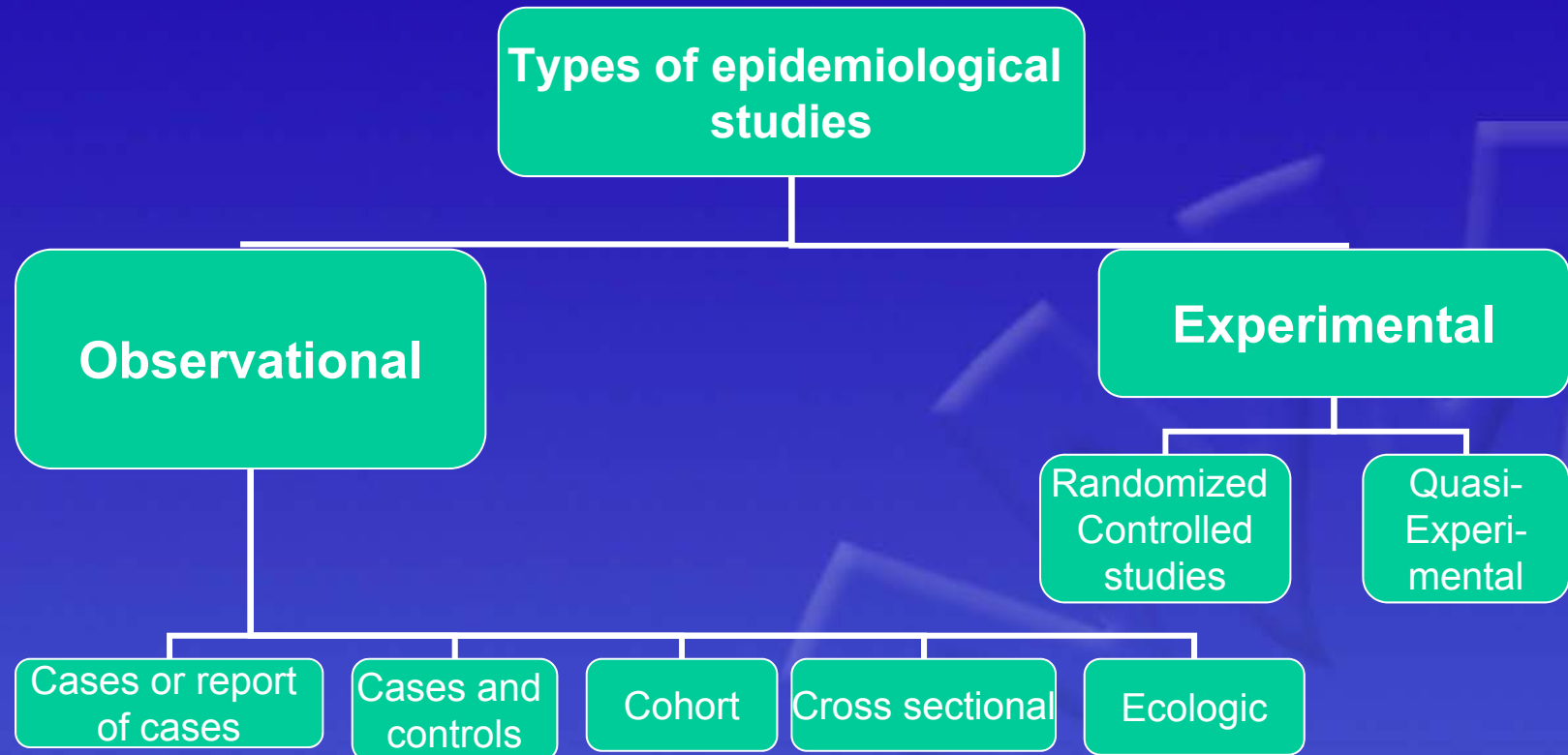
1. The results may take a long time to obtain
2. Has to do with external validity

(which is the ability to generalize the findings to other groups in the population as opposed to **internal validity**, which concerns the validity of results for the persons in the study)

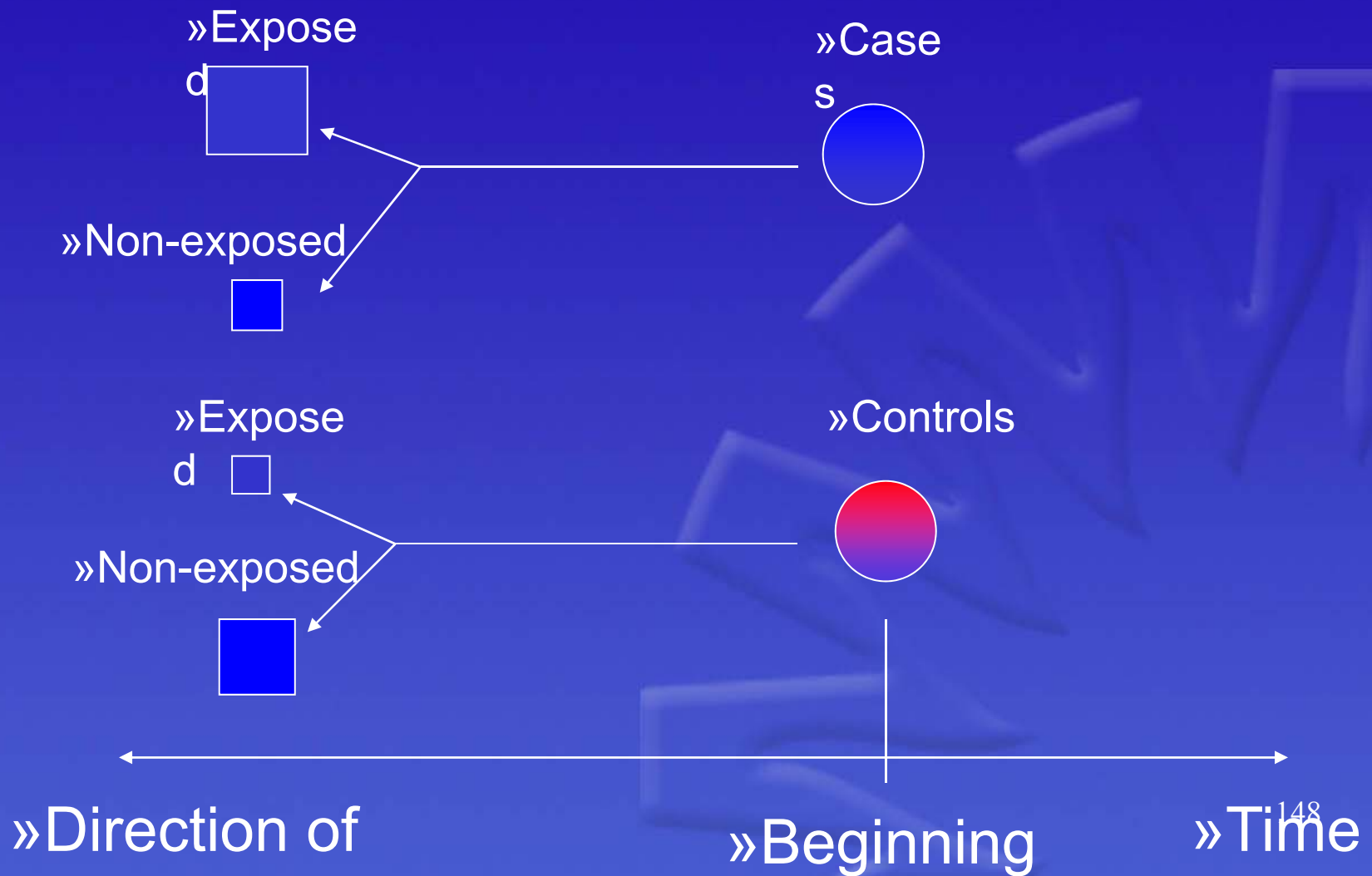
Headlines

- **Epidemiological research**
- **Classification of designs**
- **Qualitative methods**
- **Quantitative methods**
- **Choice of design**

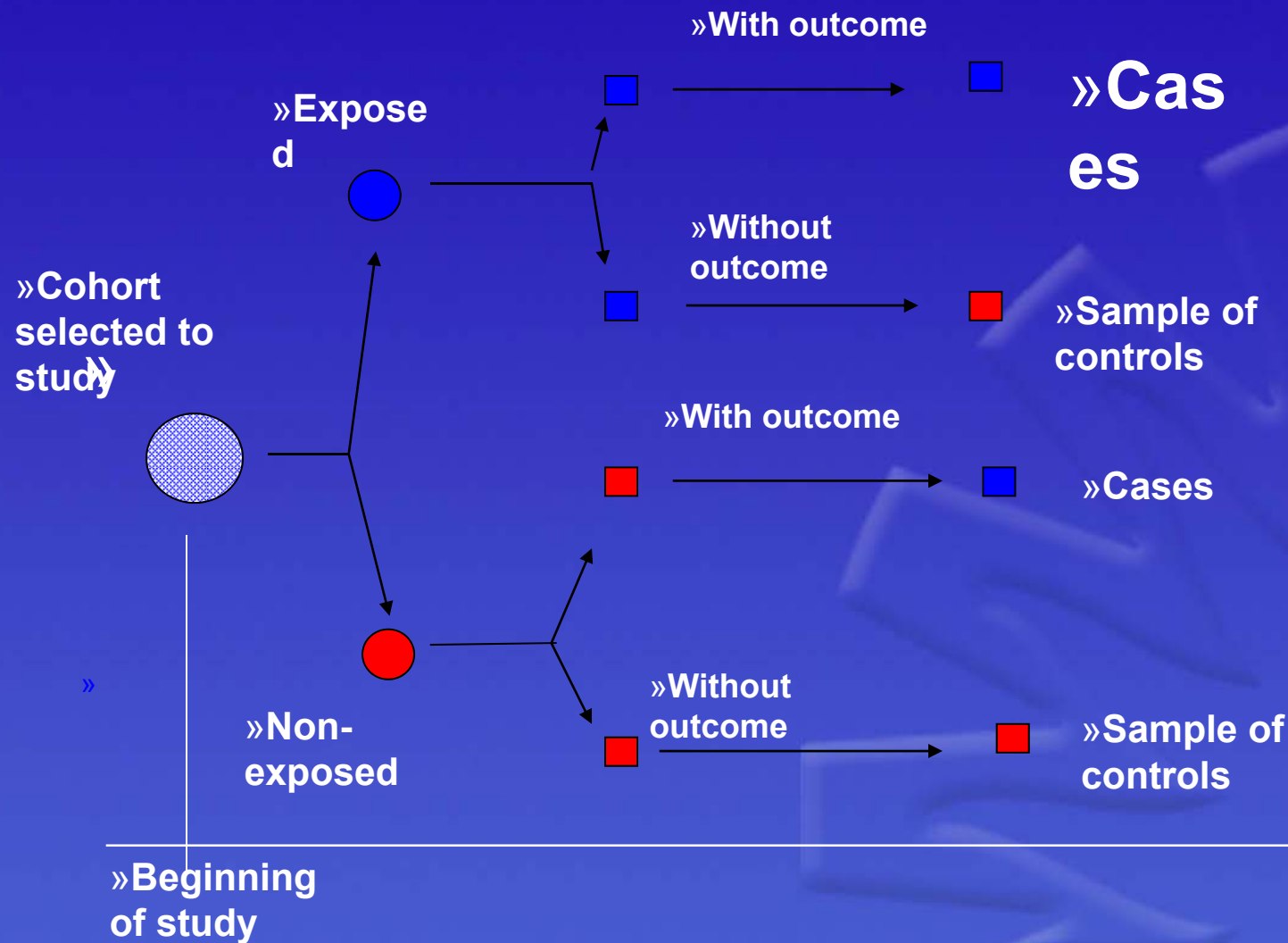
Types of studies



Cases and controls studies

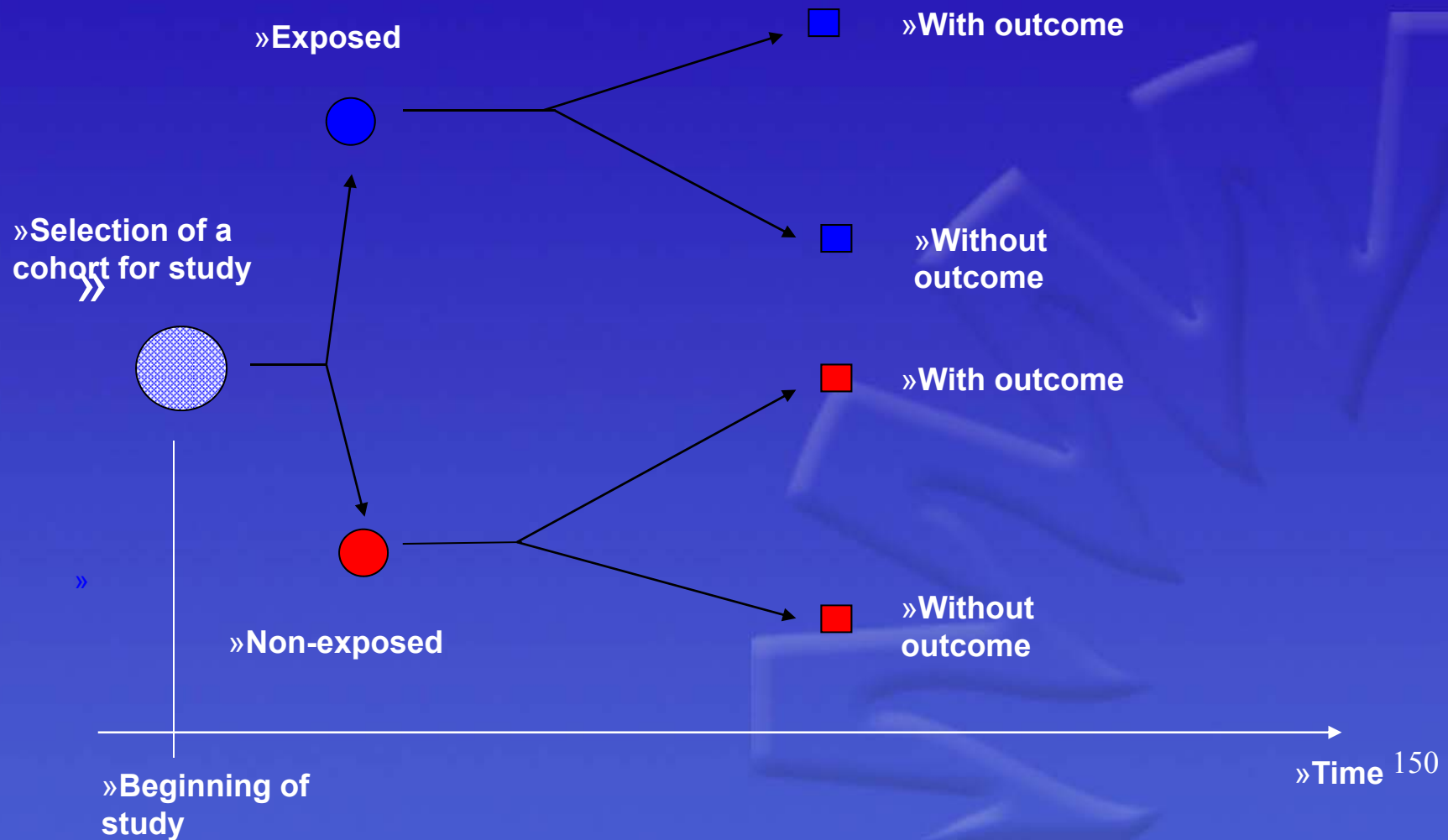


» Nested cases and controls studies

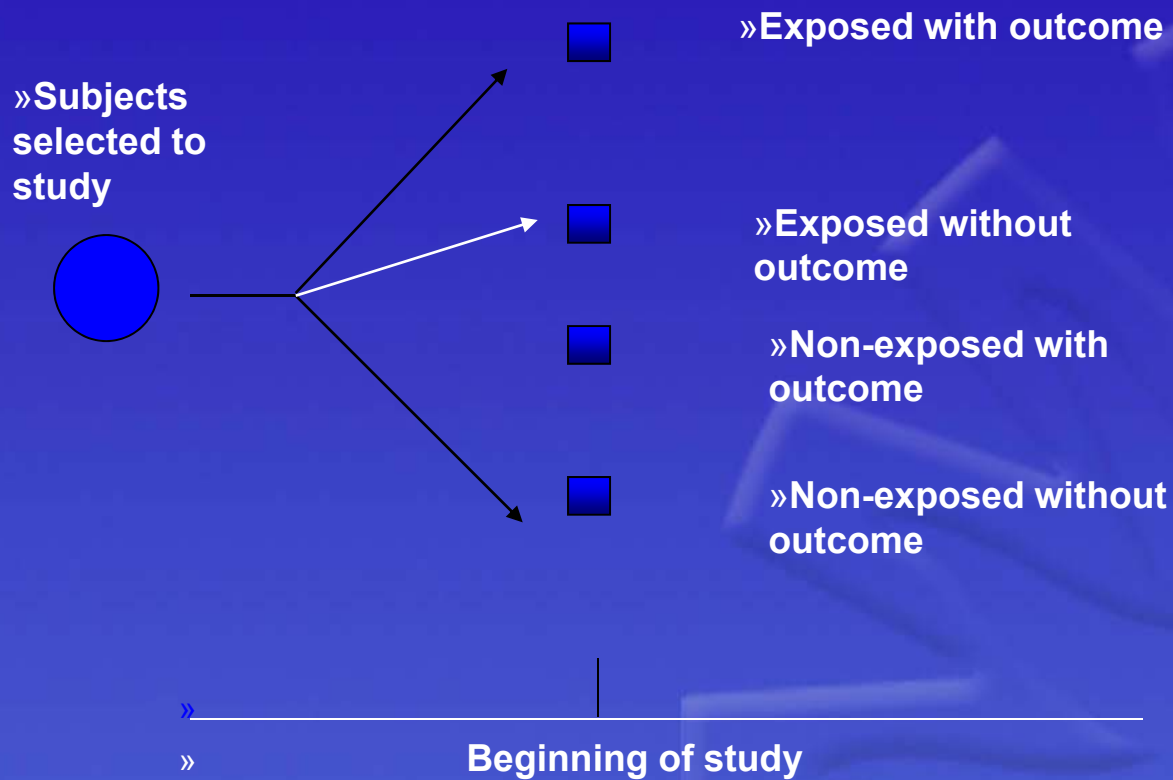


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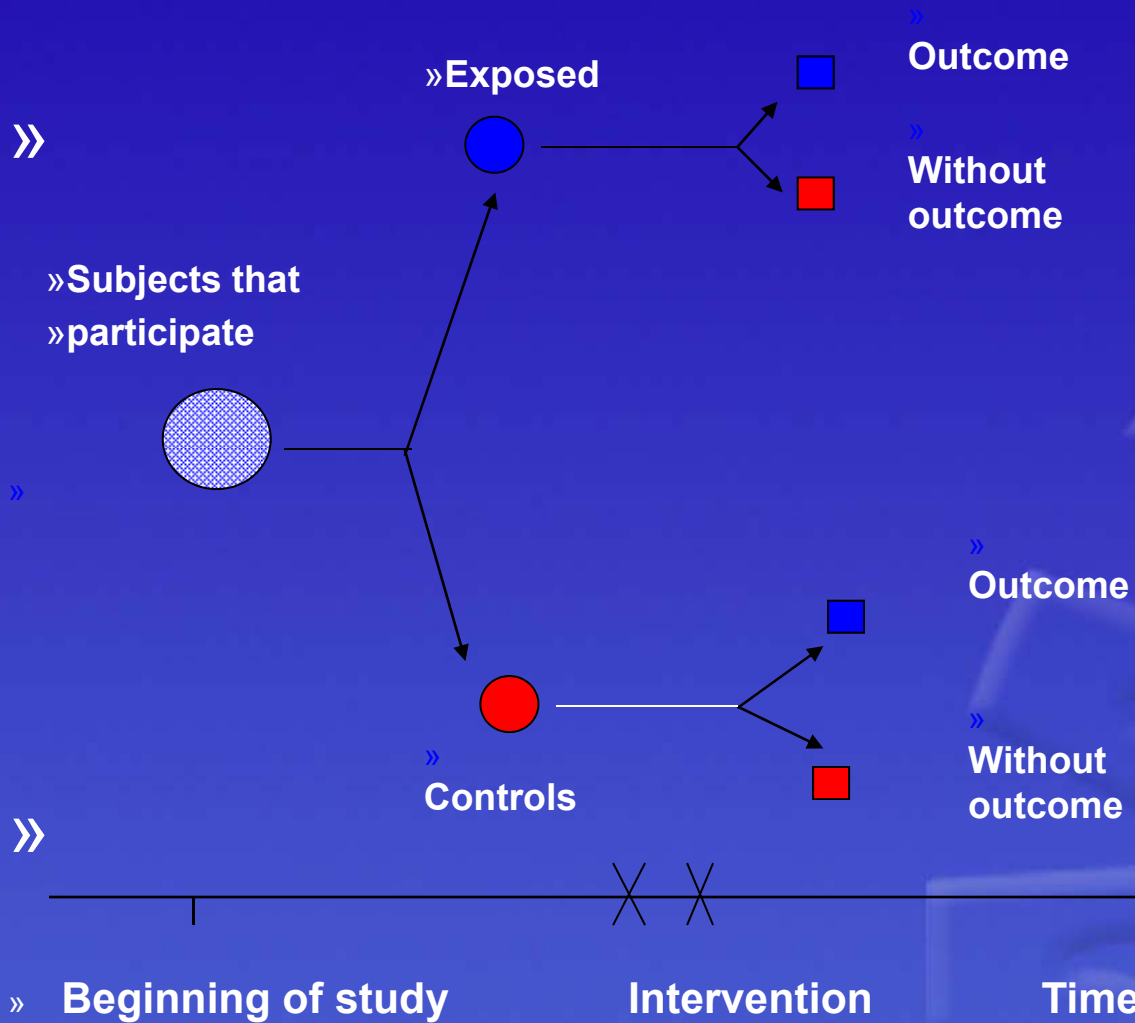
Cohort studies



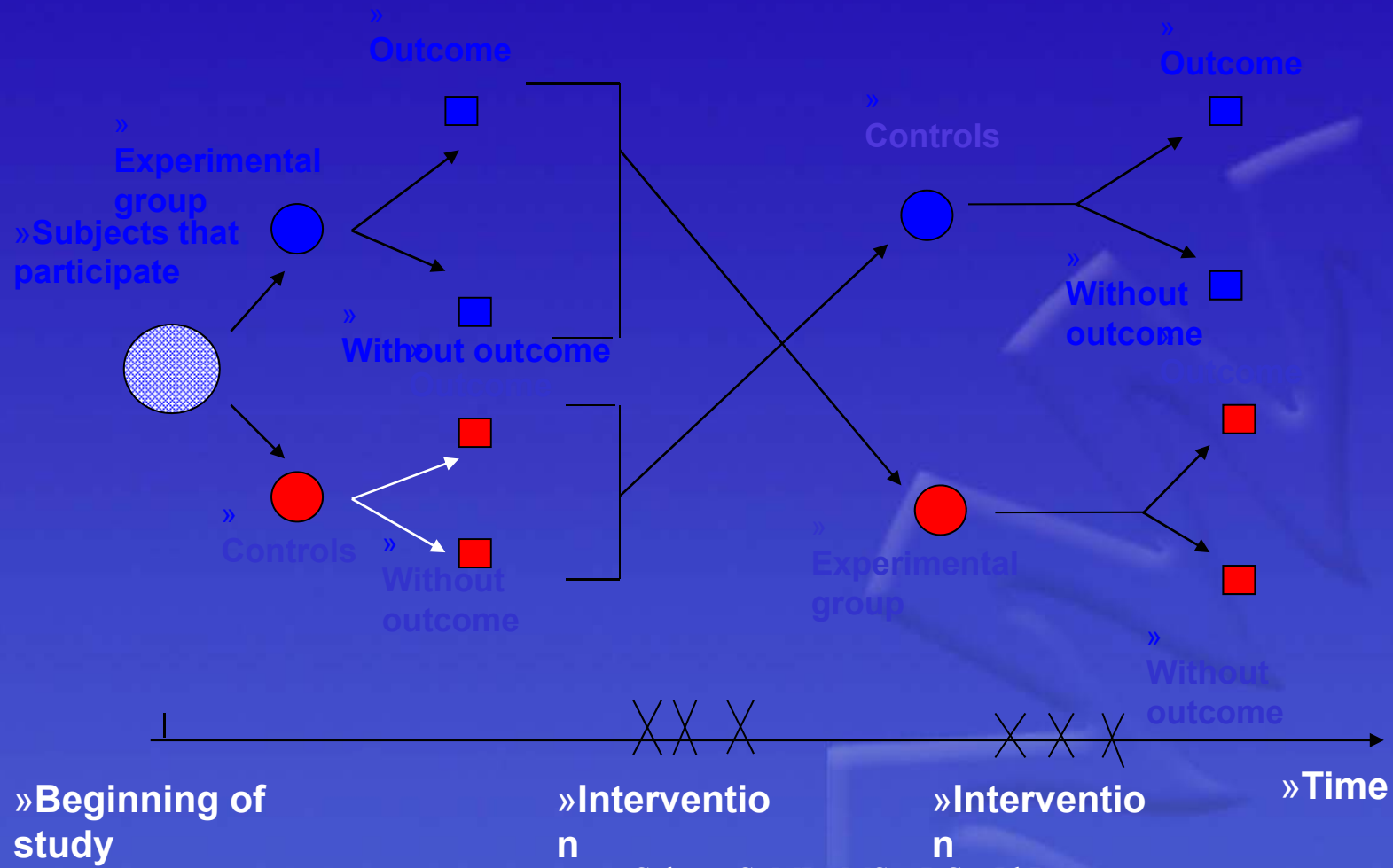
Cross sectional studies



Experimental studies

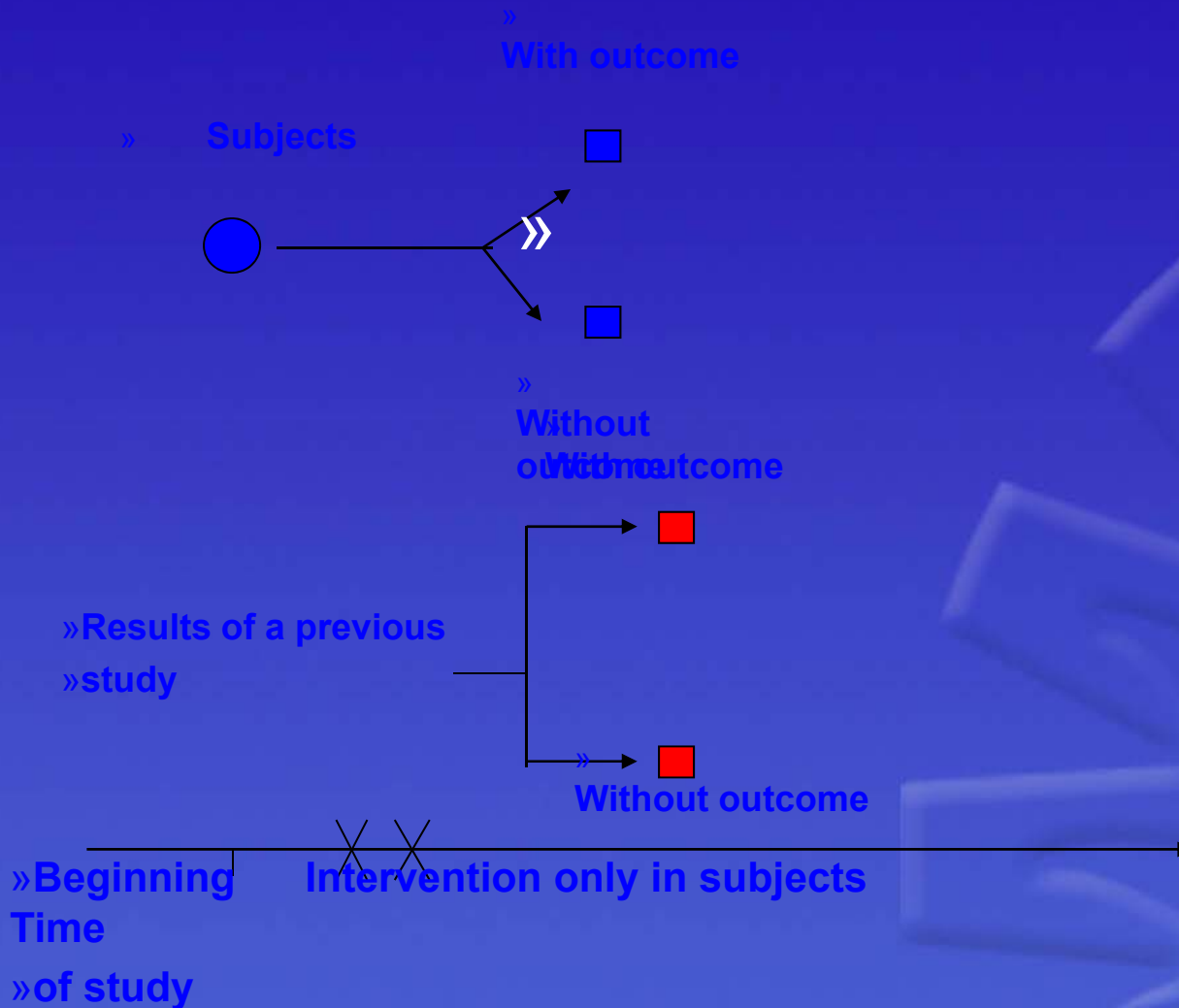


Experimental studies



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Postdoc

» Experimental studies





Thank You