

Lecture 2

Study designs for research on SDH



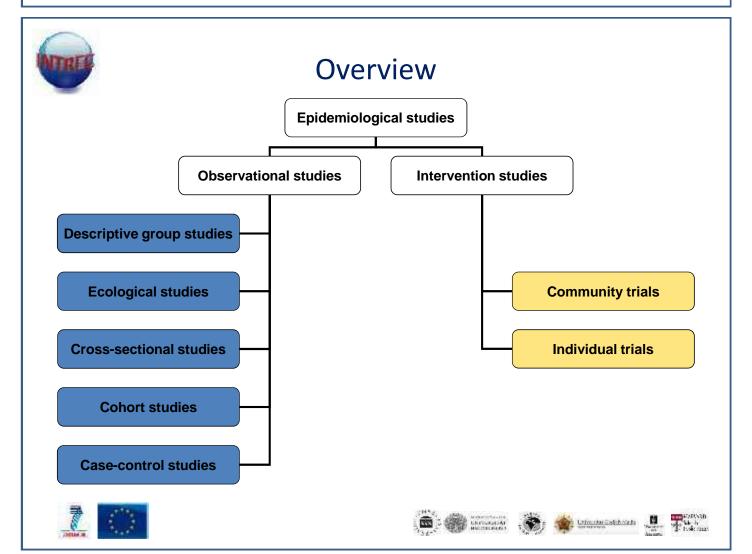






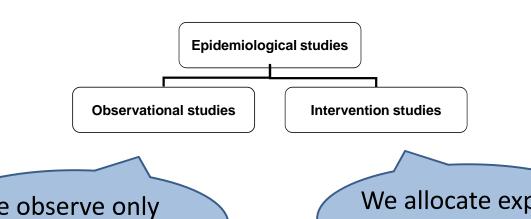








Observational vs intervention



We observe only "non-experimental"

We allocate exposure "experimental"













Key definitions

- 1. Outcome of interest
 - The event or state for which we want to know more about its causes
- 2. Exposure of interest
 - The "risk factor" under study hypothesised to influence the outcome of interest
- Other exposures that may influence the outcome (potential confounders)



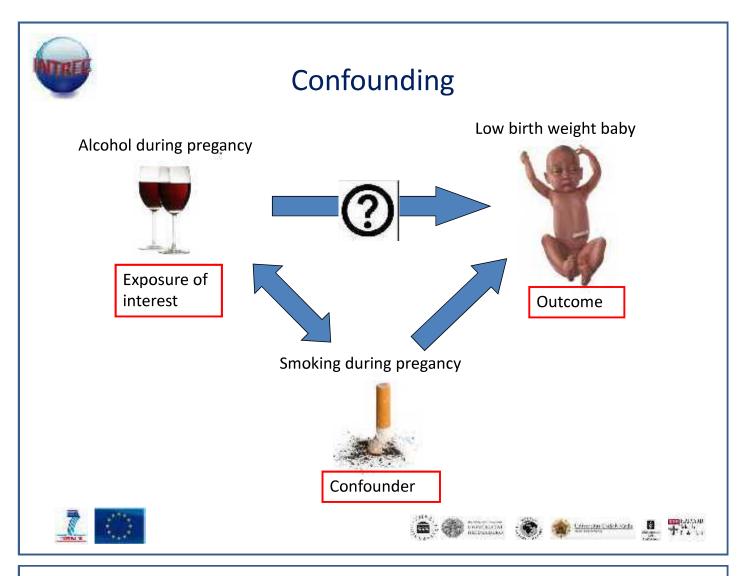








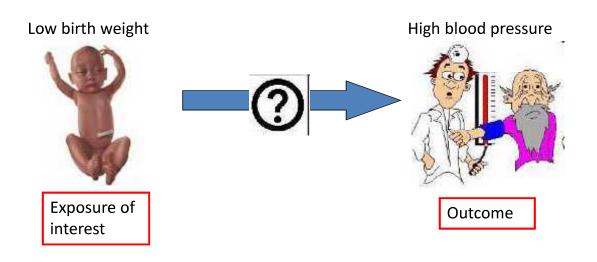






Exposures and outcomes

An **outcome** in one study, can be **exposure** in another





















Descriptive group studies

- Describing the frequency of certain factors (e.g. disease, mortality, etc.) in populations
- Person place time
- Often from routine data collection
- E.g. mortality statistics















Ecological studies

= "Studies in which the units of analysis are populations or groups of people, rather than individuals."

Last: Dictionary of Epidemiology, 1988















Ecological studies

- Describing disease frequency in populations
- But additionally including information on an exposure
- Comparison of average disease frequency between groups with different average exposure
- Looking at association → = analytical study
- Has nothing to do with "ecology"
- Better term may be "correlation studies"





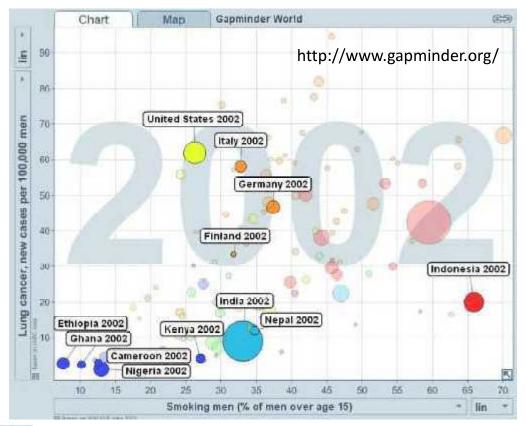








Ecological studies – example 1











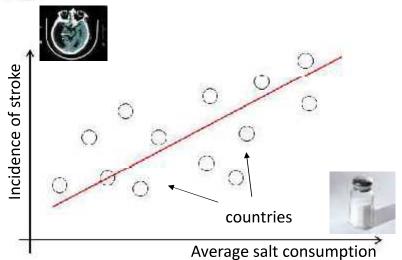








Ecological studies – example 2



www.who.int

Cardiovascular diseases (CVDs) are the leading cause of death in the world. High blood pressure is the leading risk for mortality globally.

The WHO Member States in WHA 66.10 have agreed on a voluntary global NCD target for a 30% relative reduction in mean population intake of salt, with the aim of achieving a target of less than 5 grams per day (approximately 2g sodium) by 2025.

They have also agreed on a voluntary global NCD target for a 25% relative reduction in the prevalence of raised blood pressure.







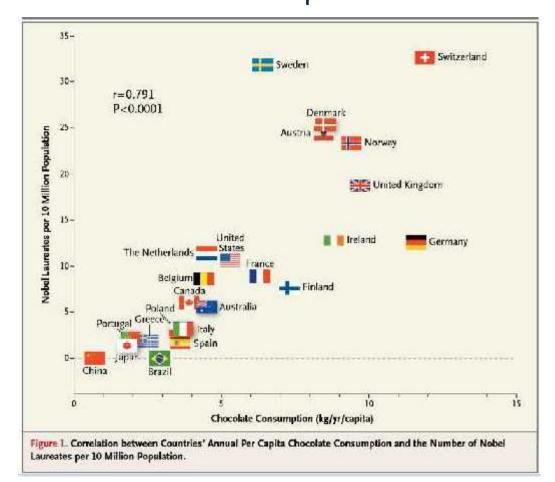








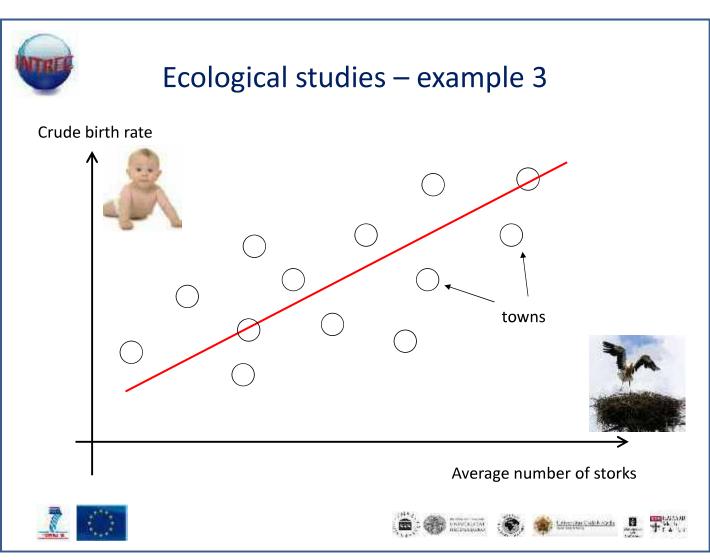
Chocolate and nobel prizes

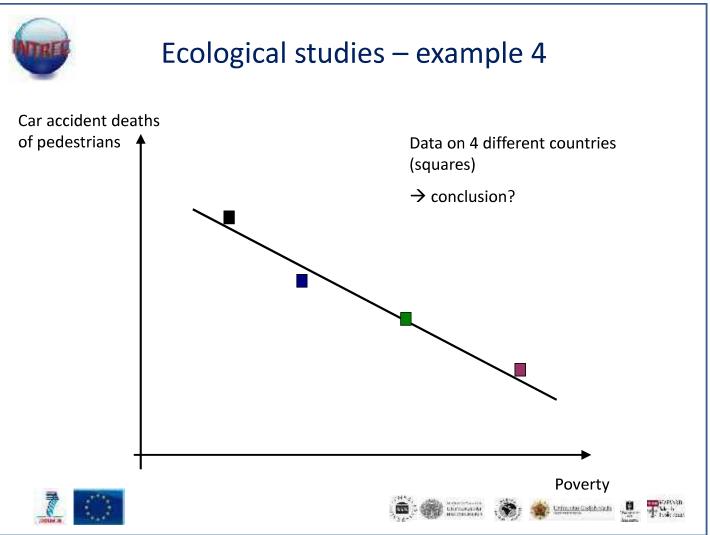


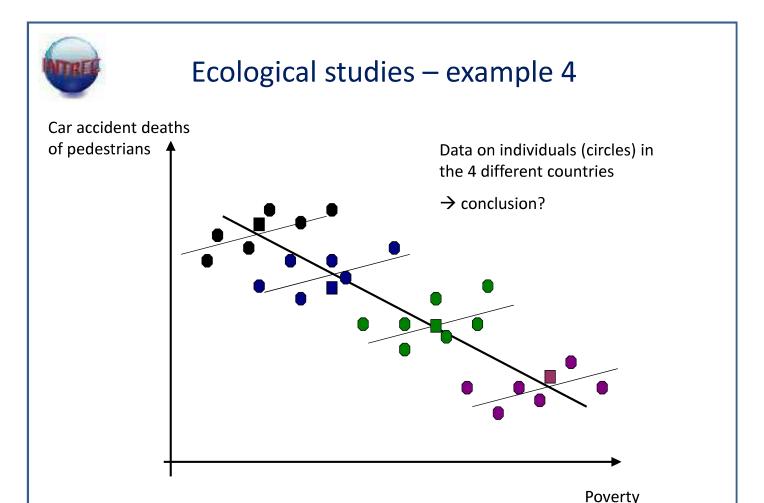
Messerli, NEJM (2012)367;16













Ecological studies

- + Quick and cheap
- + Useful for studying group-level properties e.g. health care system
- + Useful for hypothesis generation (especially when difference between groups is larger than within groups)
- Limited control for confounding
- Group results cannot be extrapolated on the individual level ("ecological fallacy")

<u>Historical example</u>: Durkheim 1897 in Prussia: higher suicide levels in mainly protestant regions

→ Useful but one needs to be aware of the limitations

















Cross-sectional studies

- At one **point** in time \rightarrow Does **NOT** measure incidence!
- **Descriptive**: prevalence of a variable of interest
- **Analytical**: prevalence of outcome and exposure
 - → comparing prevalence of the outcome between exposure groups: association?

Exposure and outcome are measured at the same point in time!

→ This creates some problems...















Cross-sectional studies

Exposure and outcome are measured at the same point in time

→ Is the exposure we measure now really the aetiologically relevant exposure?

Example: Risk factors for cervical cancer?

Latency period exposure > outcome

- 1. blood group
- 2. working with chemicals
- 3. sexual activity



Change over time

→ Ask about past exposure (but: recall errors,... more later)

















Cross-sectional studies

And furthermore...

- → Do we really know the exposure came first or did having the outcome change the exposure?
- → "chicken and egg" problem

<u>Example:</u> Does unemployment cause depression? Maybe, but depression may also make people more likely to lose their job...















Reverse causality



Row of men at the New York City docks out of work. Photograph by Lewis Hine, 1934















depression







Reverse causality















Methodological issues

- Validity of the measurements: Do we really measure what we want to measure?
- **Repeatability** of the measurements: Do we get the same results if we measure the same?
- Sampling: Representativeness of the sample
 - → random sample preferred

<u>Example:</u> What is the prevalence of anaemia in women in Accra?

- Sampling among women encountered at the exit of the gym?
- Sampling among women encountered in a supermarket?
- Sampling among women encountered at the university campus?
- Sampling among women who have a landline telephone number?

















Sampling

- **Steps**
 - Definition of target population
 - Selection of a sampling frame (list)
 - Probability or Nonprobability sampling
 - Sampling Unit
 - Error
- Random sampling error (chance fluctuations)
- Non-sampling error (design errors)









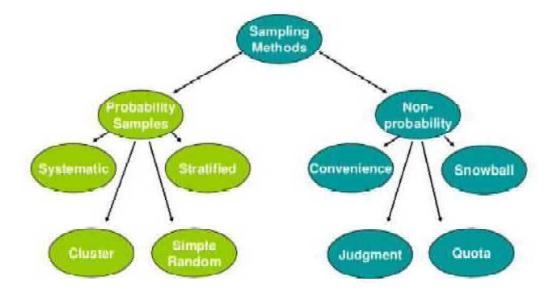








Classification of sampling methods





















Methodological issues

Non-response:

Even if we picked a random sample, what happens if 25% of people refuse to join the study?

Example: Of 1000 women in our anaemia study,250 refused to provide a blood sample = response rate 75%

- We find 75 / 750 = 10% to be anaemic.
- If all the non-responders were anaemic, what would we have found?
 75+250 / 1000 = 32.5% anaemia prevalence
- If all the non-responders were non-anaemic, what would we have found?
 75 / 1000 = 7.5% anaemia prevalence













Methodological issues

- Measurement problems (validity and repeatability of our instruments)
 - → "information bias"
- Sampling and non-response problems
 - → "selection bias"

BIAS = systematic error → wrong estimate (more later)



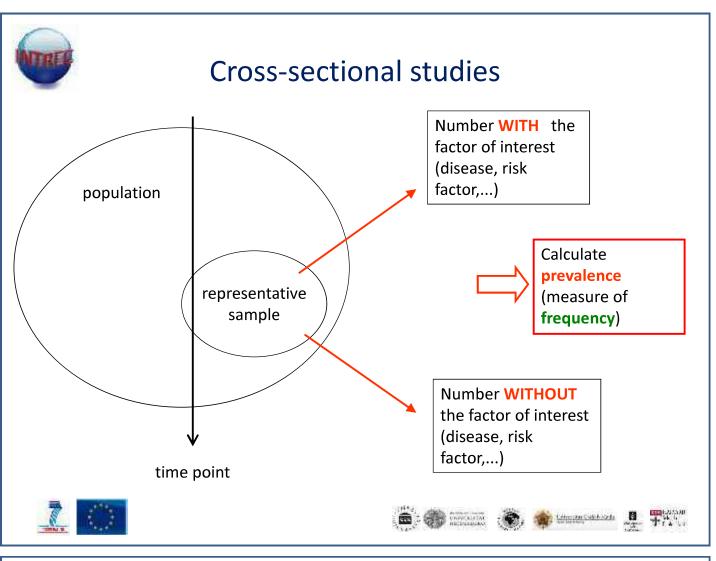


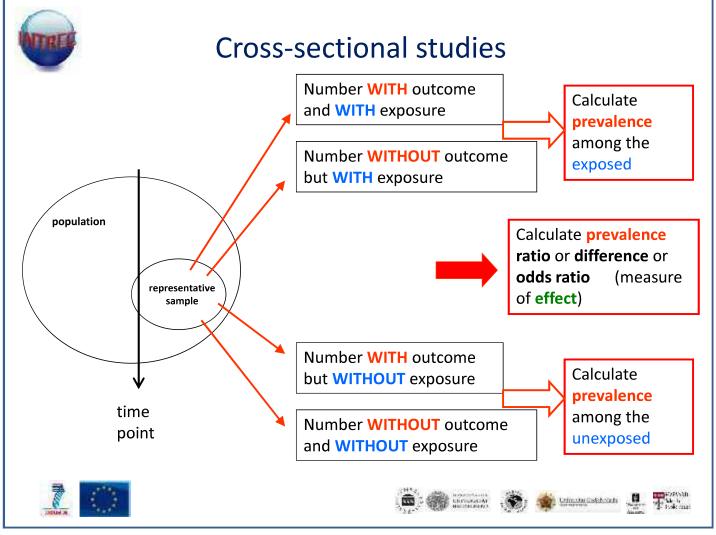


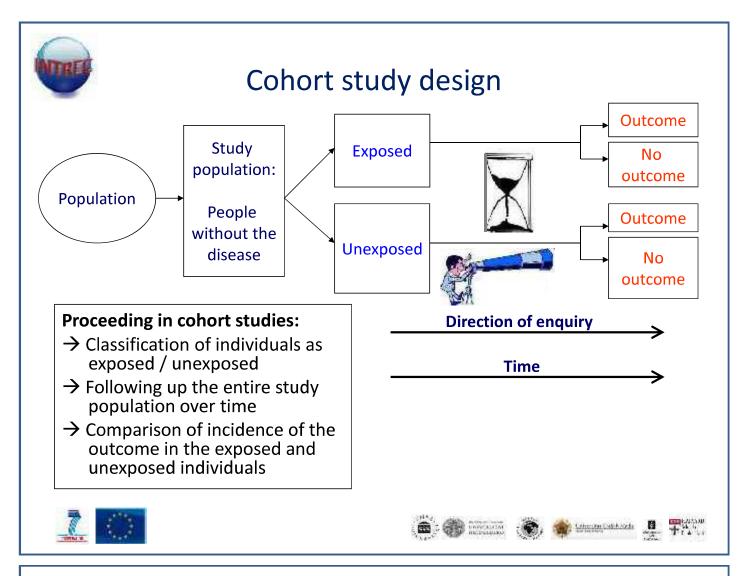














Cohort studies

- = Follow-up studies
- Follow individuals who are initally free from the outcome (e.g. a certain disease) over time
- Measures **incidence** of an outcome (or several outcomes)
- Exposure is determined BEFORE development of the outcome
- →Overall incidence (descriptive study)
- → Comparing incidence between exposed and unexposed (analytical study)



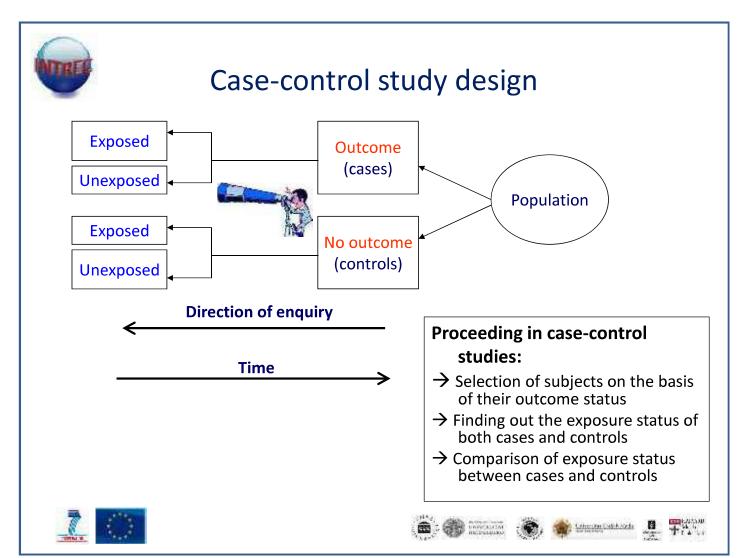














Case-control studies

- "Backwards": Asking about the exposure once the outcome has already developed
- Case selection: purposefully picking people with the outcome of interest
- Control selection: from the population that gave rise to the cases (tricky!)
- Useful for rare outcomes ("concentrating" cases)
- No information on measures of frequency (unless we know the sampling fraction for cases and controls)
 - → always analytical
- Can investigate several different exposures









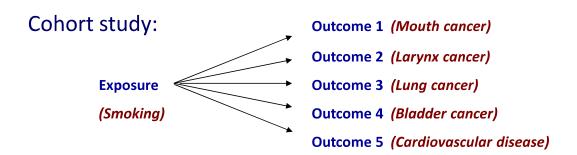








Comparison cohort and case-control study



Case-control study:

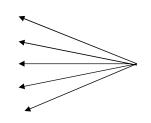
Exposure 1 (Asbestos)

Exposure 2 (Arsenic)

Exposure 3 (Chromate)

Exposure 4 (Snus tobacco)

Exposure 5 (Smoking)



Outcome (Lung cancer)





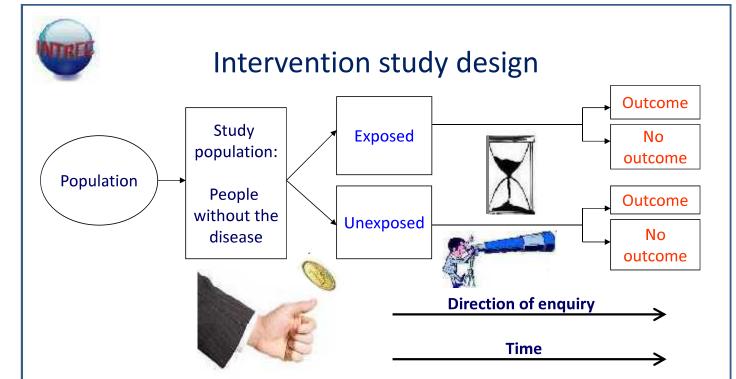












Proceeding in intervention studies:

- Allocation of individuals or groups into exposed / unexposed
- → Otherwise similar to cohort

















Intervention study

- The researcher deliberately allocates the exposure
- Not always possible for ethical reasons
- Preferred form: randomised controlled trial (RCT)
- Allocation by chance alone
- Individual allocation (clinical trial) or group allocation (community trial)
- If the trial is sufficiently large, all other risk factors will be evenly distributed between the groups \rightarrow no confounding
- Set up to study effect of exposures in a clean setting → always analytical

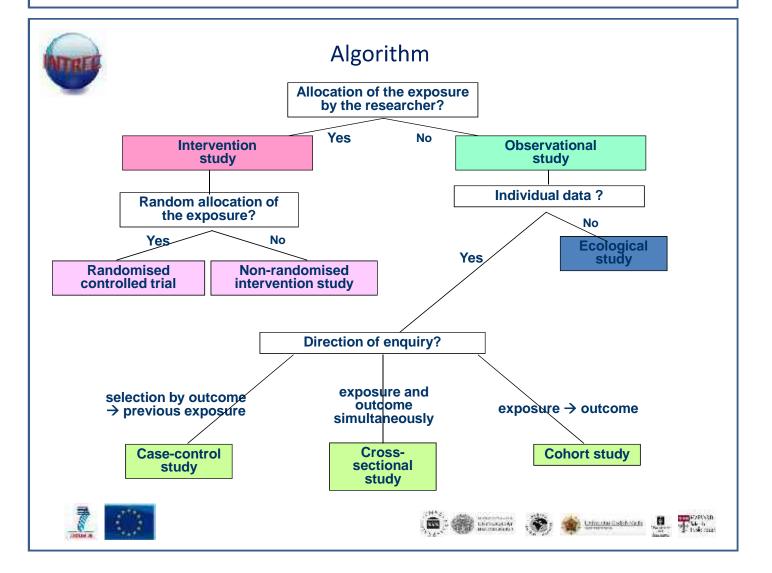














Choice of study design

Which is the best study design?

→ This depends on the question and circumstances!

On what does it depend exactly?

- Frequency of the outcome, frequency of the exposure
- Whether want to study several outcomes, or several exposures
- Whether reverse causality is an issue
- Whether we need an incidence measure
- Expected latent period between exposure and outcome
- Time scale and funding for study
- · Issues of bias and confounding
- What studies have been done before already, what is known











