

البحث العلمى

أهمية البحوث: ✓ أسباب المشاكل الصحية وعلاجها... محددات الصحة انتاج المعارف الجديدة وبالتالي تحسين الممارسات الصحية والطبية بناء سياسات صحية بحوث عملياتية، بحوث النظم الصحية، بحوث الخدمات الصحية mascus

البحث العلمى

تعريف:

البحث العلمي بالتعريف هو عمل منهجي منظم يتضمن حملة من الاجراءات والتقنيات الجوهرية بقصد الحصول على معرفة جديدة من خلال الاستقصاء او التحقيق او التجريب للمساهمة في حل مشكلة معينة أو الاجابة على تساؤل ما
 أساليب البحث العلمي هي اساس تحسين فهم محددات الصحة وسبل تعزيز الصحة والوقاية من المرض

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أنماط البحوث

تقسم البحوث بأشكال عدة فهناك التنميط على أساس النهج الفلسفى للبحث وهناك التنميط على أساس وظيفة البحث وهناك التنميط على أساس أهداف البحث وغير ذلك

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أساسيات البحوث الصحية

1- الترتيب

البحوث تعتمد على الملاحظة والقياس، وتتصف الملاحظة في البحوث بأنها منهجية ومرتبة، وهذا أساس في الاستقصاء العلمي. 2- الاستدلال

الاستدلال inference هو الأساس المنطقي للبحث العلمي، وقد يكون استقرائياً أو استنباطياً inductive or deductive.

أساسيات البحوث الصحية

3-الاحتمال

وهو المكونة الحاسمة والهامة في أساسيات البحوث ففيها يتم الاعتماد على تقييم الاحتمالات عند الاستدلال من الخاص إلى العام حيث أن در اسة علي عينة من الجمهرة ستعتمد في إمكانية تعميم نتائجها على الجمهرة كاملة على الاحتمال والاحتمال يحسب بالطرائق الإحصائية المعروفة في البحث العلمي وستكون مجالاً للمزيد من التفصيل لاحقاً في هذا الكتاب

4- الفرضية

الفرضية هي عبارة مبناة بشكل دقيق حول الظاهرة قيد الدراسة. وهي تأتي من طرائق الاستدلال المختلفة لتصاغ بشكل يمكن التحقق منها. ورغم أنه لا يمكن أحياناً التأكد التام من الفرضية إلا أنه من الممكن رفضها ورعم وصياغة فرضية فرضية أكثر معقولية منها.

أساسيات البحوث الصحية

الاستنتاج

البحث العلمي هو من أهم التحديات التي تواجه البشر فهو أساس لاستقدام المعارف والحقائق والتي يجب أن تعتمد في استقدامها على طرائق ذات صدقية وعلى منهجيات بحثية سليمة وأخلاقية

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- تختلف كتابة مشروع بحث علمي من بحث إلى آخر ولكن هناك خطوط عريضة أساسية لأي مشروع/مقترح
- يجب على خطة البحث أن تشمل جميع العناصر الأساسية المطلوبة لإجراء بحث ناجح، وجميع المعلومات الضرورية التي تسمح بتقييم البحث

Element

Research question Significance (background) Design Hypothesis Time frame Methods Subjects Variables Predictor variables Confounding variables Outcome variables Statistical analysis Sample size calculation Data analysis method

Purpose

What questions will the study address? Why are these questions important? How you organize and carry out the study?

Who are the subjects and how will you selected them? What will you measure and what will your data look like?

What will you do with the data?

2/7/2022



- المعنوان
- الملخص والكلمات المفتاحية
 - أهمية البحث
- مقدمة تشمل مراجعة الأدب الطبي
 - سؤال البحث



- الهدف من البحث
- المواد والطرائق
 تصميم الدراسة
 الزمان-المكان
 جمهرة الدراسة- العينة –الاعتيان- حجم العينة
 التحليل الإحصائي



- خطة العمل
- الجوانب الأخلاقية
- مدة التنفيذ (الجدول الزمني للتنفيذ)
 - الميزانية والتمويل
 - المراجع



البحث العلمي وسيلة للحصول على معرفة جديدة



- فكرة مبتكرة؟؟
- توفر العوامل المختلفة الضرورية لتنفيذ هذه الفكرة
 الأفراد الزمن الأجهزة والمواد التمويل



- لاتتوفر دائما أفكاراً مبتكرة !!
- الأستفادة من خبرات باحثين آخرين لتطوير بعض جوانب أفكار موجودة مسبقا
- تصاميم وبينات اقوى إعادة بعض الدراسات مع
 تحسين شروط الدراسة كزيادة عينة الدراسة او إطالة
 فترة المتابعة
 - تكرار دراسة سابقة ولكن على عينة مختلفة. من المرضى 6 المرحدي 2008 من



- من الهام عند اختيار الموضوع التوجه للمواضيع
 التي تهم البلد/الوضع/المجتمع/التنمية
- يجب أخذ خصو صيات مجتمعنا و عاداتنا و الاهتمام بها عند اختيار المواضيع وطرائق البحث.
- مشاريع بحثية واسعة مقررة مسبقا وممولة ومنجز

بعض حلقاتها

المعلومات العامة - الباحث

 الصفحة الأولى بمثابة غلاف يشمل المعلومات التالية: عنوان البحث، اسم الباحث، المؤسسة التي يتم فيها البحث، عنوان الباحث الالكتروني ، ورقم الهاتف، ويكتب الغرض من البحث (ماجستير، بحث، دكتوراه...).





- مختصر واضح وغني بالمعلومات لمشكلة البحث وطريقة حلها.
 - فكرة واضحة للقارئ عن الهدف من البحث وطريقة إنجازه
 - عدد محدود من الكلمات
 - بكتب الملخص عادة بعد إنجاز كتابة مشروع البحث

الأساس المنطقى - التبرير

 مقدمة الخطة يبيّن فيها الباحث أهمية بحثه بالنسبة للبحوث والكتابات السابقة في ذات المجال، كما يوضح الدافع وراء اختياره لموضوع البحث

- السياق
- الدافع
- الأهمية



- الأبحاث المجراة
 - عددها
 - نوعها
 - البينة الحالية
 - تقبيم نقدي ...









• أخلاقي



- أكاديمي واستراتيجي...
 - عام وخاص
 - متسلسل





تصميم الدراسة 1. الرقابية 2. التجريبية 3. المراجعة المنهجية؟



تصميم الدراسة

- البينة الحالية
- طبيعة الأهداف الموضوعة في البحث
- الإمكانات المتاحة للحصول على المعلومات

الجانب الأخلاقي الذي قد لايسمح بإجراء تجربة







أفراد الدراسة

- الجمهرة
 - العينة
- حجم العينة
- الاعتبان معايير الادخال والاستبعاد ...



- سلامة الأفراد احترام الحقوق
 - الموافقة المستنيرة

- معلومات
- السرية واحترام الخصوصية
- التدريب الكافي للقيام بالإجراءات المعنية



العمل الميداني – الجهات المشاركة – التجهيزات - المخابر





المواد-الأداة-الاستبيان

- بالتفصيل
 - التبرير
- مصدوقية؟
- قابلية التطبيق











- مخطط واضح
- خطوات العمل


البرنامج الزمني

- بالتفصيل
- الالتزام بالمدة المسموح بها



الميزانية- التمويل

- المواد بالتفصيل
 - سعر الوحدة
 - الإجمالي...
 - أجور النقل
- أجور المساعدين الفنيين؟؟



- التوثيق
- السرقة؟؟؟؟
- Breen KJ . Misconduct in medical research: whose responsibility? Intern Med J 2003;33:186-91.

الفوائد من كتابة مشروع بحث علمي

- صياغة هدف البحث بدقة ووضوح
- وضع خطة غنية بالتفاصيل حول ما يتوجب عمله، وأخذ ملاحظات واقتراحات الآخرين على هذه الخطة.

• رؤية العملية البحثية بشكل متكامل.

الفوائد من كتابة مشروع بحث علمي

- دليل لمجموع العاملين في البحث وينسّق نشاطهم.
 - وسيلة للتذكير بخطوات يمكن أن ننساها.
 - مراقبة مقدار التقدم في إنجاز البحث .
- الحصول على التمويل-الدعم المادي لتنفيذ البحث.



 Research proposal guide, Developing and submitting a research proposal. University of the Western Cape: <u>http://www.uwc.ac.za/usrfiles/users/270084/R</u> <u>ESEARCH_PROPOSAL_2.pdf</u>.[Accessed 24 January 2011].

MEDICAL STATISTICS





http://www.gs.washington.edu/

DATA AND VARIABLES

DATA: the answers to questions or measurements from the experiment

VARIABLE = measurement which varies between subjects e.g. height or gender

				variable p column	ber	
1	1	A	В	C	D	
		Subject		Year of		
	1	ID	Gender	study	Height	
	2	1	Male	1	170	
	3	2	Female	2	160	
2	4	3	Female	A 3	165	
	5	4	Male	PG	175	
1	6	nis	Female	3	168	



Nominal Variable: A qualitative variable that categorizes (or describes, or names) an element of a population.

Ordinal Variable: A qualitative variable that incorporates an ordered position, or ranking.

Discrete Variable: A quantitative variable that can assume a countable number of values. Intuitively, a discrete variable can assume values corresponding to isolated points along a line interval. That is, there is a gap between any two values.

Continuous Variable: A quantitative variable that can assume an uncountable number of values. Intuitively, a continuous variable can assume any value along a line interval, including every possible value between any two values.

QI:What is your favourite subject?

Maths		English	Science	Art	French
••					
Q2: Gender:		Male	Female		

Q3: I consider myself to be good at mathematics:

Strongly	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly
Disagree	ンド	LAV.	1/1	Agree

> Q4: Score in a recent mock maths exam:

Score between 0% and 100%



Q3: I consider myself to be good at mathematics:

Strongly Disagree Not Sure Agree Strongly Agree

> Q4: Score in a recent mock maths exam:

Numerical

Ordinal

Score between 0% and 100%

- Example: Identify each of the following as examples of (1) nominal, (2) ordinal, (3) discrete, or (4) continuous variables:
- I. The length of time until a pain reliever begins to work.
- 2. The number of chocolate chips in a cookie.
- 3. The number of colors used in a statistics textbook.
- 4. The brand of refrigerator in a home.
- 5. The overall satisfaction rating of a new car.
- 6. The number of files on a computer's hard disk.
- 7. The pH level of the water in a swimming pool.
- 8. The number of staples in a stapler.

Variable: A characteristic about each individual element of a population or sample.

Data (singular): The value of the variable associated with one element of a population or sample. This value may be a number, a word, or a symbol.

Data (plural): The set of values collected for the variable from each of the elements belonging to the sample.

Experiment: A planned activity whose results yield a set of data.

Parameter: A numerical value summarizing all the data of an entire population.

Statistic: A numerical value summarizing the sample data.

WHAT IS STATISTICS?

Statistics: The science of collecting, describing, interpreting data.

Two areas of statistics:

Descriptive Statistics: collection, presentation, description of sample data.

Analytic(Inferential) Statistics: making decisions[®] and drawing conclusions about populations.

Descriptive Statistics

• collection, presentation, and description of sample data.



Descriptive Statistics: Quantitative Variables

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- Central Tendency Determinants
 - Mean
 - Median
 - Mode (most prevalent)
- Dispersion Determinants
 - Range
 - Variance
 - SD
 - SE

Location: Mean

- The average of a set of observations
- Add values and divide by the number of observations

$$\overline{x} = \frac{x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + \dots + x_n}{n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

How can exam score data be summarised?

Exam marks for 60 students (marked out of 65)

48	37	1	33	26	22	15	22	<mark>4</mark> 0	30	12	36
21	20	29	13	44	52	<mark>28</mark>	39	16	48	56	27
47	12	35	24	10	36	18	34	9	25	31	42
31	27	64	25	58	17	26	38	28	43	33	5
25	55	7	32	39	23	49	43	11	37	22	54

Mean = 30.3 SD = 14.46



Standard deviation (s) is a measure of how much the individuals differ from the mean $\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \overline{x})^2$

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Large SD = very spread out data

Small SD = there is little variation from the mean

For exam scores, mean = 30.5, SD = 14.46

Which Measure is Best?

- Mean
 - best for symmetric (or normal) distributions
- Median
 - Useful for skewed distributions or data with outliers





Assessing Normality

Charts can be used to informally assess whether data is:



The mean and median are very different for skewed data.

Scale: Variance

- Average of the squared deviations of values from the mean
- Example, sample variance



Scale: Standard Deviation

- Variance is somewhat arbitrary
- Standardizing helps to bring meaning to deviation from the mean
- Standard deviations are simply the square root of the variance
- Example, sample SD

Interpretation of standard deviation

• The larger the standard deviation, the more spread out the data is.



Normal distribution with mean = 100

Normal distribution



Scale: Quartiles and Inter Quartile Range (IQR)

- Quartiles or percentiles (order data first)
 - Q₁ (1st quartile) or 25th percentile is the value for which 25% of the observations are smaller and 75% are greater
 - Q₂ is the median or the value where 50% of the observations are smaller and 50% are greater
 - $-Q_3$ is the value where 75% of the observations are smaller and 25% are greater



Graphical Summaries of Data: Box Plots and Histograms

- Box plot (i.e. box-and-whisker plots)
 - Shows frequency or proportion of data in categories, i.e categorical data
 - Visual of frequency tables

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- Histogram
 - Shows the distribution (shape, center, range, variation) of continuous variables

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- Bin size is important

Introduction to Plots

- A **plot**(graphs) is a graphical technique for representing a data set.
- Graphs are a visual representation of the variables and relationship between variables.
- Plots are very useful for humans who can quickly derive an understanding which would not come from lists of values.

Dos and Do Nots of Graphing

- Goal of graphing
 - To portray data accurately and clearly

- Rules of graphing
 - Label and appropriately scale axis
 - Simplify, display only the necessary information
 - Stay away from pie charts

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Bar Chart



Clustered Bar Chart










Area Chart





Side-by-Side Box Plot





B B A Plot

ENDSMOKE

HYPOTHESIS TESTING



HYPOTHESIS TESTING

- An objective method of making decisions or inferences from sample data (evidence)
- Sample data used to choose between two choices i.e. hypotheses or statements about a population
- We typically do this by comparing what we have observed to what we expected if one of the statements (Null Hypothesis) was true

HYPOTHESIS TESTING FRAMEWORK WHAT THE TEXT BOOKS MIGHT SAY!

Always two hypotheses:

H_A: Research (Alternative) Hypothesis

- What we aim to gather evidence of
- Typically that there is a difference/effect/relationship etc.
- H₀: Null Hypothesis
 - What we assume is true to begin with
 - Typically that there is no difference/effect/relationship etc.

DISCUSSION

Understanding what hypothesis testing is and why they need to use it?

125



COULD TRY EXPLAINING THINGS IN THE CONTEXT OF "THE COURT CASE"?



Members of a jury have to decide whether a person is guilty of innocent based on evidence

Null: The person is innocent

Alternative: The person is not innocent (i.e. guilty)

- The null can only be rejected if there is enough evidence to doubt it
- i.e. the jury can only convict if there is beyond reasonable doubt for the null of innocence
- They do not know whether the person is really guilty or innocent so they may make a mistake

TYPES OF ERRORS





Elements of Testing hypothesis

- Null Hypothesis
- Alternative hypothesis
- Level of significance
- Test statistics
- P-value
- Conclusion



Case Control Study of Drinking and Lung Cancer

- Null Hypothesis There is no association between Drinking and Lung cancer
- Alternative Hypothesis There is some kind of association between Drinking and Lung cancer

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Z Test:

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Sample to Population

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T Student Test:

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Sample to Sample

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Chi SquareTest:

Categorial

Sample to Sample.....

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T-tests

Paired or Independent (Unpaired) Data?

T-tests are used to compare two population means

- Paired data: same individuals studied at two different times or under two conditions PAIRED T-TEST
- Independent: data collected from two separate groups INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST

CHI-SQUARED TEST STATISTIC

- The chi-squared test is used when we want to see if two categorical variables are related
- The test statistic for the Chi-squared test uses the sum of the squared differences between each pair of observed (O) and expected values (E)

$$\chi^{2} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{(O_{i} - E_{i})^{2}}{E_{i}}$$

Epidemiology

The STUDY OF 5Ws

•W hat •W ho WHAT // •W here **W** hen **W** hy

EPDEMOLOGY!!

EPI + DEMOS + LOGY

EPDEMOLOGY!!

Upon + People + Study

Epidemiology

The study of the distribution and determinants of health-related states or events in specified populations, and the application of this study to the prevention and control of health

problems

John Last, Dictionary of Epidemiology

The study of the distribution and determinants of health-related

states or events in specified populations, and the application of this study to the prevention and control of health problems

Surveillance
Observation
Hypothesis testing
Analytic research and experiments

The study of the *alstribution* and determinants of health-related

states or events in specified populations, and the application of this study to the prevention and control of health problems

Refers to analysis of: times, persons, places and classes of people affected

The study of the distribution and *determinants* of health-

related states or events in specified populations, and the application of this study to the prevention and control of health problems

Factors that influence health: biological, chemical, physical, social, cultural, economic, genetic and behavioural

BEINGS MODEL



The study of the distribution and determinants of *health-*

related states or events in specified

populations, and the application of this study to the prevention and control of health problems

diseases, causes of death, behaviours such as use of tobacco, positive health states, reactions to preventive regimes and provision and use of health services The study of the distribution and determinants of health-related states or events in specified populations, and the application of this study to

the prevention and

control of health problems

the aims of public health—to promote, protect, and restore health



EPIDEMIOLOGY IS: The study of the distribution and determinants of health-related states or events in specified populations, and the application of this study to the prevention and control of health problems

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EPDEMOLOGY!!

One of the tools for improving public health

Uses of Epidemiology in Public Health

Causation of disease
Natural history of disease
Health status of populations
Evaluating interventions



Determinants of Health



Uses of Epidemiology in Public Health

Causation of disease
Natural history of disease
Health status of populations
Evaluating interventions


So

Epidemiology is concerned with the course and outcome (natural history) of diseases in individuals and groups Uses of Epidemiology in Public Health

Causation of disease
Natural history of disease
Health status of populations
Evaluating interventions



Epidemiology is often used to describe the health status of population groups

What is Population??

Uses of Epidemiology in Public Health

Causation of disease
Natural history of disease
Health status of populations
Evaluating interventions



Epidemiology

John Snow

nasci

John Snow



What does epidemiology offer?

- Description of health status of populations
- Causation
- Evaluation of interventions
- Natural history and prognosis

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	People	who ate the food	People who	People who didn't eat the food		
Food	Total	Number ill	Total	Number ill		
Friday dinner:	7/		1 Ja			
Hot chicken	343	156	231	74		
Peas	390	175	184	55		
Potato fries	422	184	152	46		
Saturday lunch:						
Cold chicken	202	155	372	75		
Salad	385	171	189	59		
Saturday dinner:						
Fruit salad	324	Sculf Un	250	84		

$156 \div 343 = 0.45 = 45\%$

 45% of people who ate hot chicken became sick. This is known as the attack rate for hot chicken

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		Pe	People who ate the food			People who didn't eat the food			
Food		Total	Number ill	Attack rate	Total	Number ill	Attack rate		
Friday dinner:									
Hot ch	icken	343	156	45%	231	74	32%		
Peas		390	175	45%	184	55	30%		
Potato	fries	422	184	44%	152	46	30%		
Saturday lunch:									
Cold cl	nicken	202	155	77%	372	75	20%		
Salad		385	171	44%	189	59	31%		
Saturday dinner:									
Fruit sa	alad	324	146	\$45%	250	84	34%		

		People who ate the food			People who didn't eat the food		
Food	Tota	al Numbe	r ill Attack rate	Total	Number ill	Attack rate	Relative ris
Friday dir	nner:	4			12	²	
Hot chi	cken 343	156	45%	231	74	32%	1.4
Peas	390	175	45%	184	55	30%	1.5
Potato f	fries 422	184	44%	152	46	30%	1.4
Saturday	lunch:						
Cold ch	icken 202	155	77%	372	75	20%	3.8
Salad	385	171	44%	189	59	31%	1.4
Saturday	dinner:						
Fruit sa	lad 324	146	45% S	250	84	34%	1.3

Subdisciplines of epidemiology

- Public health epidemiology
- Infectious disease epidemiology
- Nutritional epidemiology
- Social epidemiology

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Environmental epidemiology

Subdisciplines of epidemiology

- Cancer epidemiology
- Injury epidemiology

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- Perinatal epidemiology
- Occupational epidemiology

Subdisciplines of epidemiology

- Molecular epidemiology
- Clinical epidemiology

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Molecular Epidemiology

Measures exposure to specific substances and early biological response, by: evaluating host characteristics mediating response to external agents, and using biochemical markers of a specific effect to refine disease categories.

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Genetic Epidemiology

 D eals with the etiology, distribution, and control of disease in groups of relatives, and with inherited causes of disease in populations.

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Clinical epidemiology

 Applying epidemiological principles and methods to problems encountered in the practice of medicine.

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"Determinants" is defined as a collective or individual risk factor (or set of factors) that is causally related to a health condition, outcome, or other defined characteristic."

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- Related to determinants are exposures, which pertain either to contact with a disease-causing factor or to the amount of the factor that impinges upon a group or individuals.
- Epidemiology searches for associations between exposures and health outcomes.

 The term *risk factor* (an exposure that increases the probability of a disease or adverse health outcome)



Outcomes is all the possible results that may stem from exposure to a causal factor..."

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Epidemiology

Who, what, where and when? Descriptive Epidemiology

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• The identification of a new or recurring health problem often begins with a case report or case series.

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• Detailed descriptions..... doctor or group of doctors..... of one or more cases of a disease that are unusual for some reason.

 Disease might has not been seen before or the cases may have occurred in unusual individuals or area where the disease had not previously been reported or was thought to have been controlled.

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 The classic description of a series of infants born with congenital cataracts, some with additional cardiac abnormalities in Sydney to postulate a causal link between a severe epidemic of rubella (German measles) that had occurred six to nine months before the children were born and the subsequent abnormalities (Gregg, 1941).

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 A case report published in the UK in 1961 described the development of a pulmonary embolism in a 40-year-old pre-menopausal woman, five weeks after she had started using an oral contraceptive (OC) to treat endometriosis (Jordan, 1961).

- Provide little evidence of causality
- Cannot say much about patterns of disease occurrence.
- Help identify potential health problems such as the acute outbreaks of severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS
- They may also stimulate interest in an area, leading on to more detailed studies, and in this regard some have been seminal in advancing knowledge

Figure 3.1 Prevalence of diagnosed diabetes (self-reported) in the United States, 2006, by age group and sex (dark bars, males; light bars, females). (*Source:* Centers for Disease Control http://www. cdc.gov/diabetes/statistics/ prev/national/fig2004.htm, accessed on 16 January 2010.)



Prevalence surveys

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 Surveys are conducted to measure the prevalence of a wide variety of aspects of health, including diseases that are not captured by other routine statistics; conditions such as obesity; healthrelated behaviors such as smoking, sunexposure and diet; and use of health services.

Prevalence surveys

 These spot checks on the health of a nation or region are crucial to expanding our understanding of health burdens, needs and services beyond the hospital sector. In recent decades they have become a feature of broad-based community diagnosis and health planning, using a wide range of sampling and data-capture designs.

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Prevalence surveys

 Telephone and face-to-face interviews, and sometimes very detailed physical examinations, as in the US National Health and Nutrition Examination Surveys (NHANES)

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Routine data collections

 Governments, healthcare providers and statistical agencies routinely collect vast amounts of information that we will collectively describe as 'routine' data.


Table 3.2 Some common health data collections and reporting systems.

Data collection or reporting	Summary data often	Individual level data	
system	published	available	Source of raw data
Vital statistics	Mortality rates	Date and cause of death, demographics ^a	Death certificates
Disease registries (e.g.	Incidence, mortality and	Diagnosis, date and	Pathology reports, testing
cancer registries, injury	survival rates, prevalence	demographics	laboratories, hospital
registers)			and medical records
Notifiable diseases (e.g.	Numbers of cases,	Diagnosis, date and	Laboratories, medical
AIDS, SARS, TB, other	incidence	demographics	practitioners and
infectious diseases)	marin	Ters'	hospitals

^a Basic demographic information such as age, sex and last known address.

Table 3.2 Some common health data collections and reporting systems.

Data collection or reporting	Summary data often	Individual level data	
system	published	available	Source of raw data
Hospital administrative systems	None	Diagnosis, date and demographics	Hospital discharge sheets, medical records
Health surveys (morbidity, risk factors, needs, service use etc.)	Special reports	Self-reported health states	Special surveys (often whole population)
Special surveillance systems	Varied	Varied	e.g. 'sentinel' primary care practices or disease registers (UK GP data base), MONICA (international CHD)
Rapid community assessments (health, nutrition)	Varied	Varied	Special surveys (sometimes of targeted groups)

^{*a*} Basic demographic information such as age, sex and last known address.

Routine data collections

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Mortality data

- Death certificates
- Verbal autopsy

hereby certily that			
iged years, date of birth		ked as	
	Postcode	ostcode was attended and last	
seen by me on (or by* Dr.		on _/_/_	
	ctitioner who last altended	r within 9 months prior to death, insert deceased and date)	
and I am informed that he/she died on/_/	8	100	
		(town, place etc of death)	
Cause of Death (prim clearly and do not abbreviate)		Duration of last liness	
This means the disease, injury or complication which	ia		
aured desh – MOTONDI, for example, he mode of (ring such as heart Bilare), tesply sis; etc)	due to, or as	a consequence of	
	1b		
		a consequence of	
Integration causes - matrix conditions, if any	ic lice of the second s	a consecterice of	
Iving rise to the above cause, stating the inderiving candilian last	due m or at	a consequence of	
	Id Id		
Contributing to the death, but not related to the	2		
lineares or condition causing it	-		
Date and type of operation in the last 4 weeks	1		
Was a Coroner consulted before issuing this certificate	n		
No, death not subject to the provisions of the Coron	ers Act	- CV	
Yes, issue of this certificate agreed to by		, Coroner	
Signature of Medical Practitioner	Th	Date _/_/	
nitials and Sumame (SLOCK Letters)		3-	

Figure 3.3 Age-adjusted mortality rates for diabetes by gender in the USA, 1938–1960, Whites only. Figure 3–2, p. 51, from *Methods in Observational Epidemiology*, 2nd edition, by Jennifer L. Kelsey, W. Douglas Thompson and Alfred S. Evans, copyright 1996 by Oxford University Press. Used by permission of Oxford University Press.



Routine data collections

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Morbidity data

- Disease registries
- Hospital records

Sources of summary data

- International sources
- National data sources
- Disease-based resources
- Some academic and other idiosyncratic sites

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Creative use of existing data

- Migrant studies
- Ecological or correlation studies





Figure 3.4 The prevalence of obesity (body-mass index \geq 30 kg/m²) by state in the USA in 1988 and 2008. (Data from the CDC Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System, BRFSS, accessed via http://www.cdc.gov/obesity/data/trends.html on 16 January 2010.)

Figure 3.5 Age-standardised annual death rates from lung cancer among men aged 40–69 years in Hungary (▲), the USA (○) and the UK (●). (*Data source*: WHO Mortality Database, accessed via http://www-depdb.iarc.fr/ on 16 January 2010.)



Figure 3.7 An ecological study comparing the prevalence of serum antibodies to H. pylori (a gastric infection) and gastric cancer mortality rates in 46 rural Chinese counties. (From Forman et al., Geographic association of Helicobacter pylori antibody prevalence and gastric cancer mortality in rural China. Int. J. Cancer, 1990; 46: 608-611, reprinted by permission of John Wiley & Sons.)



(% of individual samples that were positive)

Epidemiologic Study Designs





Basic Study Designs and their Hierarchy



Study Design in Epidemiology

- Depends on:
 - The research question and hypotheses
 - Resources and time available for the study
 - Type of outcome of interest
 - Type of exposure of interest

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Ethics

Study Design in Epidemiology

- Includes:
 - The research question and hypotheses
 - Measures and data quality
 - Time
 - Study population
 - Inclusion/exclusion criteria

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Internal/external validity

Epidemiologic Study Designs

- Descriptive studies
 - Seeks to measure the frequency of disease and/or collect descriptive data on risk factors
- Analytic studies
 - Tests a causal hypothesis about the etiology of disease
- Experimental studies
 - Compares, for example, treatments

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Epidemiology

Epidemiology as a Population Science Basic Epidemiology Measures Understanding epidemiology as a science focused on populations

- Samples of the population are taken to assess health issues
- Health outcomes data can be expressed through multiple measures
- These measures can be expressed as differing metrics



What is Epidemiology?

Epidemiology

Epidemiology is the study of the determinants, distribution, and frequency of health-related states or events in specified populations, and the application of this study to the control of health problems

Epidemiology

Epidemiology

 Who gets disease and why
 Epidemiologists study sick and well people to determine the crucial difference between those who get disease and those who are spared

Purpose of Epidemiology

To provide a basis for developing disease control and prevention measures for groups at risk. This translates into developing public health measures to prevent or control disease.

Population Focus

The focus of epidemiology is on the occurrence of health and disease in the population.
 What happens to many

The population approach contrasts with clinical medicine's primary concern with health and disease in the individual.
 What happens to one

What is a Population?

- The common definition of a population is "All the inhabitants of a given country or area considered together;..."
- A "population" can also be groups of individuals that share a common thread
 Clinical populations
 Subgroups of the population by age, race, etc...

Epidemiology is...

The study of disease and its treatment, control, and prevention in a population of individuals.

- Whole populations may be examined, but...
- More frequently, samples of the population may be examined. Samples that are studied must be representative of the population for the results to be generalized to the total population.

Background

Different types of activities and practices are undertaken in epidemiology to develop disease control and prevention measures for groups at risk. Population at risk
Incidence and Prevalence
Case Fatality

Who is at RISK?? Common Cold!! Smoking!! Cardiovascuslar disease!! Cancer of prostate!! Cancer of Cervix!! AIDS Brucellosis

Population AT RISK



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Population AT RISK

Demographic groups (Age, sex, ...)
Occupational groups
Genetic
Environmental
Geographical
All at risk

Broad Characterizations of **Epidemiology** Practices Descriptive Epidemiology Examining, identifying, and reporting on the frequency and distribution of disease in a population. Learning the basic features of its distribution. Analytic Epidemiology Identifying factors underlying disease or health events. Testing a hypothesis by studying how exposures relate to outcomes asci

Broad Characterizations of Epidemiology Practices
Developing interventions to reduce disease or improve health in the community

Using information from analytical studies, develop strategies centered around an important exposure factor. Test these strategies with clinical trials.

Program Evaluation

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Examining the effectiveness of programs for disease control in the community

There is a logical sequence to the practice of epidemiology in disease prevention

Descriptive → Analytical Interventions

Disease prevention

rograms

Basic Question in Research

Are exposure and disease/outcome linked?

Is there an association between them?



Disease / Health Outcome
Health Outcomes

Related to Prognosis or the Evaluation of Health Care Interventions

▶ Death ► Recovery Ongoing Disease Stable disease with treatment Progressive disease disability HRQOL; health related quality of life ▶ Re-infection, Recurrence

Health Outcomes

May be <u>intermediate</u> in the clinical course of a disease or treatment Short-term events May be the <u>end-result</u> of the clinical course of a disease or treatment ►Longer-term events

Health outcomes in research studies may be expressed through multiple types of measures

Basic Measurements of Disease or Health Outcome Frequency in Epidemiology Measurement of Mortality (death) Measurement of Morbidity (incidence, prevalence)

Outcome measures in research studies may be expressed in differing units, though most often as rates

Tools of Measurement

6.15%

- Counts
- Proportions
- Ratios

• Rates

Case Counts

Measuring disease or health or health care frequency starts with counting cases

Simplest and most frequently gathered measure in epidemiology



Counts

 Refers to the number of cases of a disease or other health phenomenon being studied
 i.e. Number of cases of influenza in Uhan in January 2021

- Can be useful for allocation of health resources
- Limited usefulness for epidemiologic purposes without knowing size of the source population

Counts – Limited Interpretation										
<u>Loca</u>		ew Cases of Disea	ase	Year Population						
City	A	20	2008	100						
City	B	100	2008	1000						
Annual Rate of OccurrenceCity A: $20/100 = 1/5$ City B: $100/1000 = 1/10$										

Proportions

Persons included in the numerator are <u>always included</u> in the denominator:

A

Proportion: -----

Indicates the magnitude of a part, related to the total. In epidemiology, tells us the fraction of the population that is affected.

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Proportions - Example

B

persons with
hypertension

A

persons
without
hypertension

Total(A + B)

Total study population

1,400 9,650 11,050

P = A / (A + B) = (1,400 / 11,050) = 0.127

Ratios

Like a proportion, is a fraction, BUT without a specified relationship between the numerator and denominator

Example: Occurrence of Major Depression

240

Female cases = 240

Male cases = 120 120

2:1 female to male



A ratio in which <u>TIME</u> forms part of the denominator

Epidemiologic rates contain the following elements:

health issue frequency (in the numerator)

- unit size of population
- time period during which an event occurs

Rate: a measure of the occurrence of a health event in a population group at a specified time period Number of events in time period numerator denominator Number at risk for the event in period

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Rates are the basic tool of epidemiologic practice

Why are rates important?

because they provide more complete information to describe or assess the impact of a health issue in a community or population

Incidence and Prevalence





represents the rate of occurrence of

new cases

arising in a given period in a specified population is the frequency of

existing cases in a defined population at a given point in time

New Cases/Specified population in a given period

Prevalence

Existing Cases/defined population in a given
 time

The development of <u>new cases</u> of a disease that occur during a specified period of time in previously disease-free or condition-free ("<u>at risk</u>") individuals.



Cumulative Incidence :

Incidence Rate*

100,000

of new cases in a specified time period

person time at risk ** during that time period

Cumulative Incidence

Cumulative Incidence (CI) = Incidence

No. of individuals who get the disease during a certain period

No. of individuals in the population at the beginning of the period

If we count all new cases of influenza occurring in MSU undergraduates from September 1, 1997 - August 31, 1998, and we take as the denominator all undergraduates enrolled in September 1, 1997, we would be describing the cumulative incidence rate of influenza.

The numerator does not differ between the two types of incidence

However, the denominator can differ in incidence density from cumulative incidence because it takes account of (in the example):

Students who left school during the year

Students who died

 Students who had influenza once and will not have it again the same season

Students who entered school later in the year

COMPARISON OF INCIDENCE DENSITY AND CUMULATIVE INCIDENCE ON A MONTHLY BASIS IN PROBLEM #3, EXERCISE 2.2

(NOTE - ALL INCIDENCES ARE PER MONTH, NOT PER YEAR)

MONTH	POPULATION AT RISK	CUMULATIVE CASES OF CHICKENPOX	INCIDENCE DENSITY		CUMULATIVE MONTHLY INCIDENCE	
			FOR THE MONTH	FROM THE START	FOR THE MONTH	FROM THE START
JANUARY	1000	25	.0253	.0253	.0250	.025
FEBRUARY	975	50	.0260	.0256	.0256	.025
MARCH	950	75	.0267	.0260	.0263	.025
APRIL	925	100	.0274	.0263	.0270	.025
MAY	900	125	.0282	.0267	.0278	.025
JUNE	875	150	.0290	.0270	.0286	.025
JULY	850	175	.0299	.0274	.0294	.025
AUGUST	825	200	.0308	.0278	.0303	.025
SEPTEMBER	800	225	.0317	.0282	.0312	.025
OCTOBER	775	250	.0328	.0286	.0323	.025
NOVEMBER	750	275	.0339	.0290	.0333	.025
DECEMBER	725	300	.0351	.0294	.0345	.025
TOTAL FOR YEAR	700	300 U.S. U	.0294	.0294	.025	.025

Investigators enrolled 2,100 women in a study and followed them annually for four years to determine the incidence rate of heart disease. After one year, none had a new diagnosis of heart disease, but 100 had been lost to follow-up. After two years, one had a new diagnosis of heart disease, and another 99 had been lost to follow-up. After three years, another seven had new diagnoses of heart disease, and 793 had been lost to follow-up. After four years, another 8 had new diagnoses with heart disease, and 392 more had been lost to follow-up.

Prevalence: is another major measure of disease in the population and it quantifies the "burden" of disease

Prevalence Rate Number of existing cases of disease in population in time period

Persons in population in same time period

Prevalence

Point Prevalence : At a certain point of time
 Period Prevalence : In a given period of time



Factors influencing prevalence

•Shorter duration of the disease

•High case fatality rate from disease

•Decrease in new cases (incidence)

•In-migration of healthy people

•Out-migration of cases

•Improved cure rate of cases

Factors influencing prevalence

Longer duration of disease
Prolongation of life of patients without cure
Increase in new cases
In-migration of cases
Out-migration of healthy people
In-migration of susceptible people

Improved diagnostic facilities

Relationship between prevalence + incidence

If incident cases are not resolved, but continue over time, then they become existing (prevalent) cases.

Relationship between prevalence & incidence

If incident cases are not resolved, but continue over time, then they become existing (prevalent) cases.

Prevalence = incidence × duration

Epidemiological Studies

Epidemiological Studies

Observational

Experimental

Cross-sectional studies

- Measure existing disease and current exposure levels at one point in time
- Sample without knowledge of exposure or disease
- Ex. Prevalence studies

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Cross-sectional studies

Advantages

- Often early study design in a line of investigation
- Good for hypothesis generation

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- Relatively easy, quick and inexpensive...depends on question
- Examine multiple exposures or outcomes
- Estimate prevalence of disease and exposures
Cross-sectional studies

- Disadvantages
 - Cannot infer causality
 - Prevalent vs. incident disease
 - May miss latent disease
 - May be subject to recall bias

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Research Question

 Determine whether there are differences in rates of stroke and myocardial infarction by gender and race among patients.

Hypothesis

- There will be differences in rates of stroke by gender and race.
- There will be differences in rates of myocardial infarction by gender and race.



General Fertility Rate, Baltimore City by Race and Maryland 1997-2007

Source: Maryland Department of Health and Mental Hygiene, Vital Statistics Annual Report (2007 data are preliminary and not yet available by race/ethnicity) *Includes all births to mothers of Hispanic origin of any race, data not available prior to 2003



Longitudinal Study

Also Known as Incidence Study



Longitudinal Studies

Long duration
Expensive
Good for changing variable
Good for frequent diseases
Follow Up is difficult (Long time!)

Case-Control studies

Identify individuals with existing disease/s and retrospectively measure exposure



Case-Control studies

- Advantages
 - Good design for rare, chronic and long latency diseases
 - Relatively inexpensive (population size and time)
 - Allows for the examination of multiple exposures
 - Estimate odds ratios
 - Hospital-based studies and outbreaks

Case-Control studies

- Disadvantages
 - Multiple outcomes cannot be studied
 - Recall bias
 - Sampling bias
 - Cannot calculate prevalence, incidence, population relative risk or attributable risk
 - Beware of reverse causation

Neonatal Abstinence Syndrome (NAS) and Drug Exposure

Research question

Hypothesis 1

?

Buprenorphine-exposed neonates will exhibit less NAS than methadone-exposed neonates.



Case-Control Study Example

 Hypothesis 1: Buprenorphine-exposed neonates will exhibit less NAS than methadone-exposed neonates.



Challenges in Case-Control Studies

- Selection of Controls
 - Sample size
 - Matching (group or individual)
- Selection of Cases
 - Incident or prevalent disease

Nested case-control study

Cohort Studies

 Identify exposed and unexposed individuals and follow them over time measuring outcome/s (Prospective)







Cohort Studies

Advantages

- Measure population-based incidence
- Relative risk and risk ratio estimations

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- Rare exposures
- Temporality
- Less likely to be subject to biases (recall and selection as compared to Case-control)
- Possible to assess multiple exposures and/or outcomes

Cohort Studies

- Disadvantages
 - Impractical for rare diseases and diseases with a long latency
 - Expensive
 - Often large study populations
 - Time of follow-up
 - Biases
 - Design sampling, ascertainment and observer
 - Study population non-response, migration and loss-to-follow-up

Research Question

Determine whether circulating biomarkers (i.e. Creactive protein; exhaled breath condensate - pH, hydrogen peroxide, 8-isoprostene, nitrite, nitrate levels; sputum - TNF- α , IL-6, IL-8, IL-1 β , neutrophil elastase; and fractional exhaled nitric oxide) predict individuals who will benefit from initiation of antibiotic therapy for the treatment of a mild decrease in FEV₁.

Hypothesis

Biomarkers at the time of presentation with a mild increase in pulmonary symptoms or small decline in FEV₁ can be used to identify which patients require antibiotics to recover.

Cohort Study



Important features

• How much selection bias was present?

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- Were only people at risk of the outcome included?
- Was the exposure clear, specific and measureable?
- Were the exposed and unexposed similar in all important respects except for the exposure?
- Were steps taken to minimize information bias?
 - Was the outcome clear, specific and measureable?
 - Was the outcome identified in the same way for both groups?
 - Was the determination of the outcome made by an observer blinded to treatment?

Important features

- How complete were the follow-up of both groups?
 - What efforts were made to limit loss to follow-up?
 - Was loss to follow-up similar in both groups?
- Were potential confounding factors sought and controlled for in the study design or analysis?
 - Did the investigators anticipate and gather information on potential confounding factors?
 - What methods were used to assess and control for confounding?



Applications Of Observational Studies

5	Ecological	Cross-Sectional	Case-Control	Cohort
Investigation of rare disease	++++		+++++	-
Investigation of rare cause	++		-	+++++
Testing multiple effects of cause	\mathcal{O}^+	++	-	+++++
Study of multiple exposures and determinants	++	2++/	1.++++	+++
Measurements of time relationship		15	1/2+	+++++
Direct measurement of incidence		30	ST +	+++++
Investigation of long latent Speriods	cus-	Unive	+++	-

Experimental studies (1)

The effects of an intervention are measured by comparing the outcome in the experimental group with that in a control group

Experimental studies (2)

involves attempting to change a variable in one or more groups of people.
 This could mean the elimination of a dietary factor thought to cause allergy,
 or testing a new treatment on a selected group of patients.





Experimental Studies

	RCT	Field Trial	Community Trial
Objective	Efficacy of a drug	Efficacy of a vaccine	Efficacy of intervention
Unit of study	Patient	Healthy Individual	Community
Setting	Hospital	Community/Field	Community
Sample Size	100-200	1000-10000	Few
Limitations	+42S	cus Univ	10/+++

Randomized Controlled Trials (RCTs)

- Experimental: exposure is assigned
- Randomization assignment
 - Random allocation of exposure or treatment
 - Results (or should result!) in two equivalent groups on all measured and unmeasured confounders
- Gold Standard for causal inference

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Randomized Controlled Trials

Advantages

 Least subject to biases of all study designs (IF designed and implemented well...!)



Randomized Controlled Trials

- Disadvantages
 - Intent-to-treat
 - Loss-to-follow-up
 - Randomization issues

- Not all exposures can be "treatments", i.e. are assignable
- Note: for reporting of RCTs see Altman DG, et al. CONSORT GROUP (Consolidated Standards of Reporting Trials). Ann Intern Med. 2001 Apr 17;134(8):663-94.

Research Question

- To determine whether resident's attitudes and skills in diabetes management and counseling change after a curricular intervention.
- To determine whether patient outcomes related to diabetes (i.e. weight, smoking status) change after a curricular intervention among residents.

Hypothesis

- Attitudes and skills related to diabetes management and counseling will improve among residents after a curricular intervention.
- Fewer patients with diabetes will smoke over time after a curricular intervention among residents.

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Randomization Strategies

- Randomly assigned
- Quasi-randomization
- Block randomization method of randomization that ensures that at any point in the trial, roughly equal numbers of participants have been allocated to the comparison groups

Ethical Consideration

Ethical Approval Consent Form Information Sheet



Study Design

- Must be defensible
- Drives conclusions:
 What do you want to be able to say at the end of the study?

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