

STATISTICS



MORPHINE ACADEMY

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What is Epidemiology?

Epidemiology

• Epidemiology is the study of the determinants, distribution, and frequency of disease

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

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Important Issues that Epidemiology can Address

Disease

Mortality

Hospitalization

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Disability

Quality of Life

Health Status

Epidemiology

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Numerator

-the <u>number of people</u> to whom something happened (i.e. they got sick, died, etc.)

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Denominator

-the population at risk -- all the people at risk for the event # lad very lity vego lip cto 18 eito

What is Epidemiology?

- Some describe it as the study of epidemics
- What is an epidemic?

An epidemic occurs when there are significantly more cases of the same disease than past experience would have predicted.

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Uses of Epidemiology

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- To study the cause (or etiology) of disease(s), or conditions, disorders, disabilities, etc.
 - determine the primary agent responsible or ascertain causative factors
 - determine the characteristics of the agent or causative factors
 - define the mode of transmission
 - determine contributing factors
 - identify and determine geographic patterns

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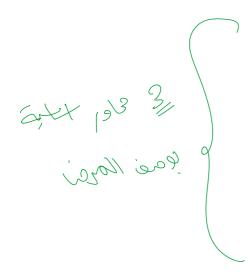


Uses of Epidemiology

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- To determine, describe, and report on the natural course of disease, disability, injury, and death.
- To aid in the planning and development of health services and programs
 - To provide administrative and planning data

Three essential characteristics of disease that we look for in descriptive studies are...



Person

Place

Time

Person

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- Age, gender, ethnicity
- Genetic predisposition
- Concurrent disease
 - Diet, exercise, smoking
 - Risk taking behavior
 - Education, occupation

Place

- Geographic place
- ্র জিপ presence or agents or vectors
 - climate
 - geology
 - population density
 - economic development
 - nutritional practices
 - medical practices

Time

- Calendar Time
- Time since an event
- Physiologic cycles
- Age (time since birth)
- Seasonality
- Temporal trends

Example

- You have been asked to investigate an event in which 2,220 people were exposed and 1,520 of them died.
- Your role as an epidemiologist is to ask questions about person, place and time.

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How do we ask questions?

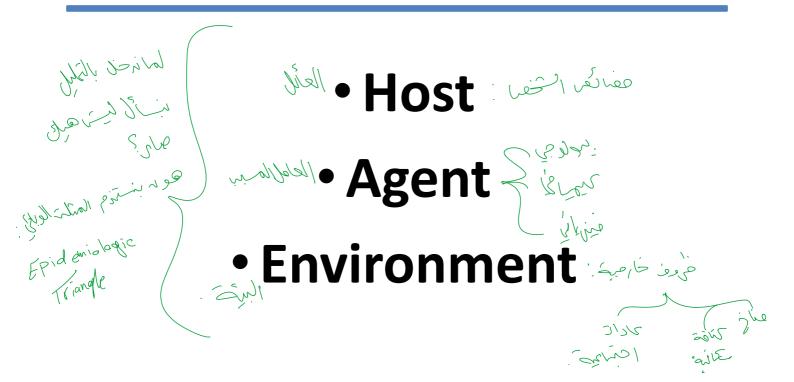
Surveys
-of survivors
-of next-of-kin
-of other related persons

with questions you learn that ...

- Person: Men, women and children were all exposed and at risk. The majority of people who died were wealthy and young men between 18-50 years (when compared to survivors).
- Place: All those exposed were within 1 block of one another, the climate was cold.
- Time: Mid April, people died within hours of the precipitating exposure.

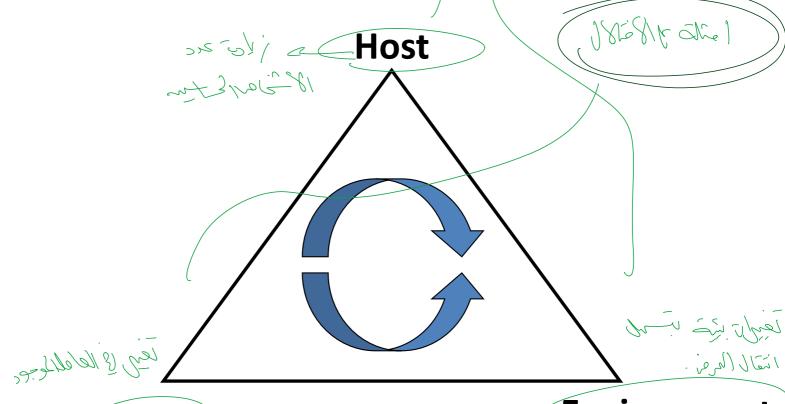
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Three essential characteristics that are examined to study the cause(s) for disease in analytic epidemiology are...



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Epidemiologic Homeostasis



Agent

Environment

Epidemics arise when host, agent, and environmental factors are not in balance

- Due to new agent
- Due to change in existing agent (infectivity, pathogenicity, virulence)
- Due to change in number of susceptibles in the population
- Due to environmental changes that affect transmission of the agent or growth of the agent

Epidemiologic Activities

...are often framed under the mantle of <u>descriptive</u> and <u>analytic</u> epidemiology

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- Descriptive epidemiology person, place & time
 - Demographic distribution
 - Geographic distribution
 - Seasonal patterns etc.
 - Frequency of disease patterns
- Useful for:
 - Allocating resources
 - Planning programs
 - Hypotheses development 🚧 🕹 🤋

Epidemiologic Activities

- Analytic epidemiology
 - -built around the analysis of the relationship between two items
- Exposures Effects (disease) is still carried to the control of the
 - looking for determinants or possible causes of disease Julie jel prince of in it al
 - useful for
 - hypothesis testing

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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 control health problems.

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- What is the incidence of Type II diabetes between 2010-2015 among overweight subjects born in 1970?
 - What are the possible causes of Type II diabetes in this ے عود الكال تملي بنا بني مه الا مان والعوامل الى تقود لا تمري عنه هاي الفيّة. population?
 - If we were to change population dietary habits, what improvement in the incidence could we affect?

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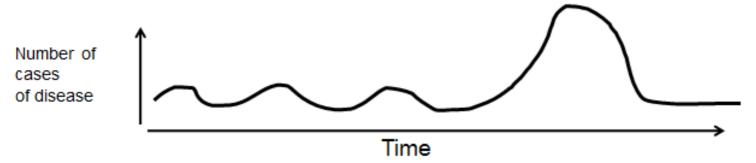
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Endemic - The habitual presence (or usual occurrence) of a disease within a given geographic area

Epidemic - The occurrence of an infectious disease clearly in excess of normal expectancy, and generated from a common or propagated source

Pandemic - A worldwide epidemic affecting an exceptionally high proportion of the global population



- Descriptive Epidemiology: يوصف حدوث المرض (Incidence, Prevalence).
- Analytic Epidemiology: يبحث عن الأسباب (Determinants).
- · Preventive Epidemiology: يشوف كيف نغيّر العوامل لنتحكم بالمرض.

Prevalence vs. Incidence

(English) present cases (ours)

 The easy way to remember the difference is that prevalence is the proportion of cases in the population at a given time rather than rate of occurrence of new cases. Thus, incidence conveys information about the risk of contracting the disease, whereas prevalence indicates how widespread the disease is.

Prevalence vs. Incidence

- Consider the following example. Say you are looking at a sample population of 225 people, and want to determine the incidence rate of developing HIV over a 10-year period:
- At the beginning of the study (t=0) you find 25 cases of existing HIV. These people are not counted as they cannot develop HIV a second time.
- A follow-up at 5 years (t=5 years) finds 20 new cases of HIV.
- A second follow-up at the end of the study (t=10 years) finds 30 new cases.

Prevalence <u>vs</u>. Incidence

- If you were to measure prevalence you would simply take the total number of cases (25 + 20 + 30 = 75) and divide by your sample population (225).
- So prevalence would be 75/225 = 0.33 or 33% (by the end of the study). This tells you **how widespread** HIV is in your sample population, but little about the actual risk of developing HIV for any person over a coming year.

Prevalence vs. Incidence

- To measure incidence you must take into account how many years each person contributed to the study, and when they developed HIV.
- When it is not known exactly when a person develops the disease in question, epidemiologists frequently use the actuarial method, and assume it was developed at a half-way point between follow-ups.
- In this calculation:
- ➤ At 5 yrs you found 20 new cases, so you assume they developed HIV at 2.5 years, thus contributing (20 * 2.5) =50 person-years of disease-free life.

Prevalence vs. Incidence

At 10 years you found 30 new cases. These people did not have HIV at 5 years, but did at 10, so you assume they were infected at 7.5 years, thus contributing (30 * 7.5)= 225 person-years of disease-free life.
 That is a total of (225 + 50) = 275 person years so far.

- You also want to account for the 150 people who never had or developed HIV over the 10-year period, (150 * 10) contributing 1500 person-years of disease-free life.
- That is a total of (1500 + 275) = 1775 person-years of life. Now take the 50 new cases of HIV, and divide by 1775 to get 0.028, or 28 cases of HIV per 1000 population, per year. In other words, if you were to follow 1000 people for one year, you would see 28 new cases of HIV.

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Retrospective study: looks backwards and examines exposures to suspected risk or protection factors in relation to an outcome that is established at the start of the study.

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Prospective study: watches for outcomes, such as the development of a disease, during the study period and relates this to other factors such as suspected risk or protection factor(s). The study usually involves taking a cohort (group) of subjects and watching them over a long period.

Basic Measures of Association: In the above studies, we often need to know the relationship between an outcome and certain factors (e.g., age, sex, race, smoking status, etc.). Relative risk & odds ratio (explained next slides) are used for this purpose.

P (case-control)

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A 2×2 table is constructed, displaying exposed cases (A), exposed controls (B), unexposed cases (C) and unexposed controls (D).

OR = (a/c) / (b/d)OR= (A/C) = AD (B/D) BC = (a*d) / (b*c)

(exposed) will divided bv occur

The **odds** are defined as the **probability** that the of 21 jels of the result event the probability that the event will not occur (unexposed). Odds = P/(1-P). For cases = (a/(a+c))/(c/a+c)) = a/cSimilarly for controls Odds = b/d

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The statistic generated to measure association is the **odds ratio** (OR), which is the ratio of the odds of exposure in the cases (A/C) to the odds of exposure in the controls (B/D), i.e. OR = (AD/BC).

Case-control studies: Example

Suppose that unusual number of patients (19) diagnosed with salmonella were admitted to a hospital on one day, and all patients were from confined geographic area. A sample of 38 non diseased people as a comparison group (the controls). In this case, the "controls" were non diseased people who were matched to the cases with respect to age, gender, and neighborhood of residence. The case and control groups answered a questioner listing several types of food that may be sources of infection. The results of two types of food are listed in next slide.

OR of 1 suggests that there is no difference between the groups; i.e. there would be no association between the suggested exposure (fish) and the outcome (being ill)

OR of > 1 suggests that the odds of exposure are positively associated with the adverse outcome compared to the odds of not being exposed

OR of < 1 suggests that the odds of exposure are negatively associated with the adverse outcomes compared to the odds of not being exposed. Potentially, there could be a protective effect

	Cases	Controls
Ate eggs	10	19
Did not eat		
eggs	9	19
Total	19	38

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Odds Ratio = (10/9) / (19/19) = 1.1 (close to one). This certainly
(close to one). This certainly
provides no compelling evidence to
suggest an association the cases and

egg consumption.

Cases	Cases	Controls
Drank milk	18	7
Did not drink milk	1	29
Total	19	38

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This suggests who drank milk had 75 times the risk of being a case compared to those who did not.

Calculation of Relative Risk

	Outcome		
Exposure	Case	Absent	TOTAL
Exposed	a	b	a+b
Unexposed	С	d	c+d
TOTAL	a+c	b+d	a+b+c+d

Relative Risk =
$$\frac{\left(\frac{a}{a+b}\right)}{\left(\frac{c}{c+d}\right)}$$

Calculation of Relative Risk

incidence or probability among exposed

RR =

incidence or probability among nonexposed

Relative Risk Case Study

Smoking and low birth weight

	Birth Weight			
Smoking status	<2500 g	≥2500 g	TOTAL	
Smoker	120	240	360	
Non-smoker 60		580	640	
TOTAL	180	820	1000	

Answers to Relative Risk Case Study

1. Incidence of LBW among smokers

$$=\frac{120}{360}=0.333$$

2. Incidence of LBW among non-smokers

$$=\frac{60}{640}=0.0938$$

3. <u>Relative risk</u> for having a LBW baby among smokers versus non-smokers

$$=\frac{0.333}{0.0938}\approx 3.6$$

The study <u>suggests</u>, the relative risk of having LBW baby among smoker women is 3.6 times that of non-smoker women.

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