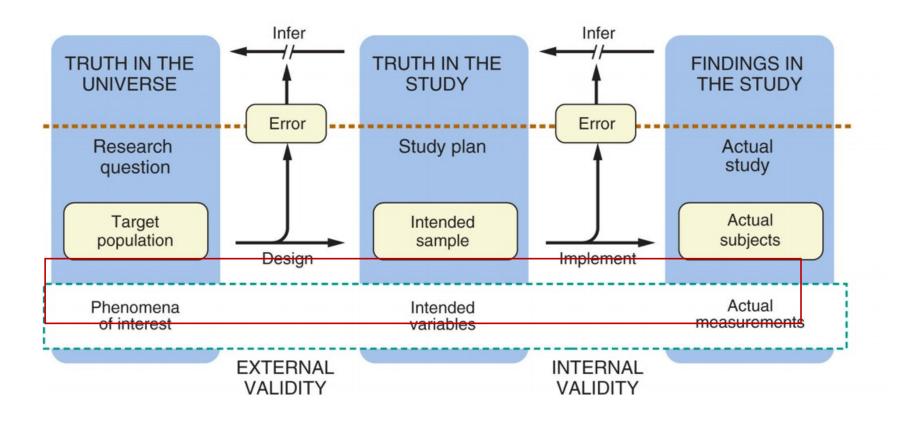
Grant Writing Seminar Series SESSION 4:

Observational Studies

Feng Liu-Smith, PhD Slides modified from Simonne Nouer, MD, PhD

General Idea: know your goals and weakness of studies

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Source: Hulley, Stephen B.. Designing Clinical Research. LWW. Kindle Edition

Study Design I – Cross Sectional Studies

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Outline

Overview of Epidemiological Study Designs

Descriptive Studies

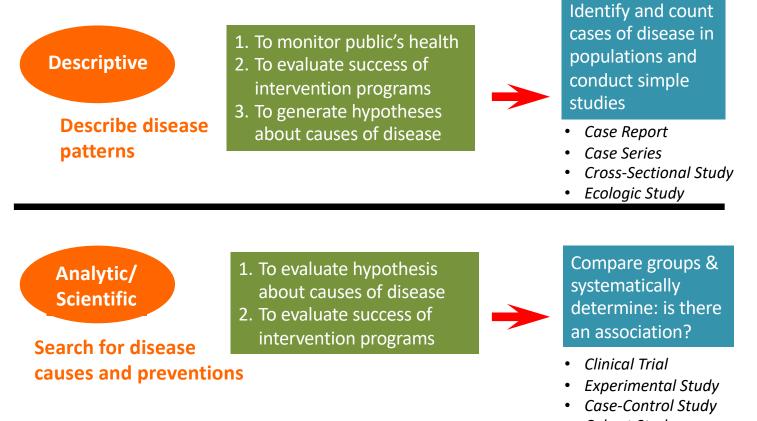
- Cross-Sectional
 - Design; Analytical approach; Strengths; Weakness
 - Random error, Systematic error, and Confounding

Observational Studies

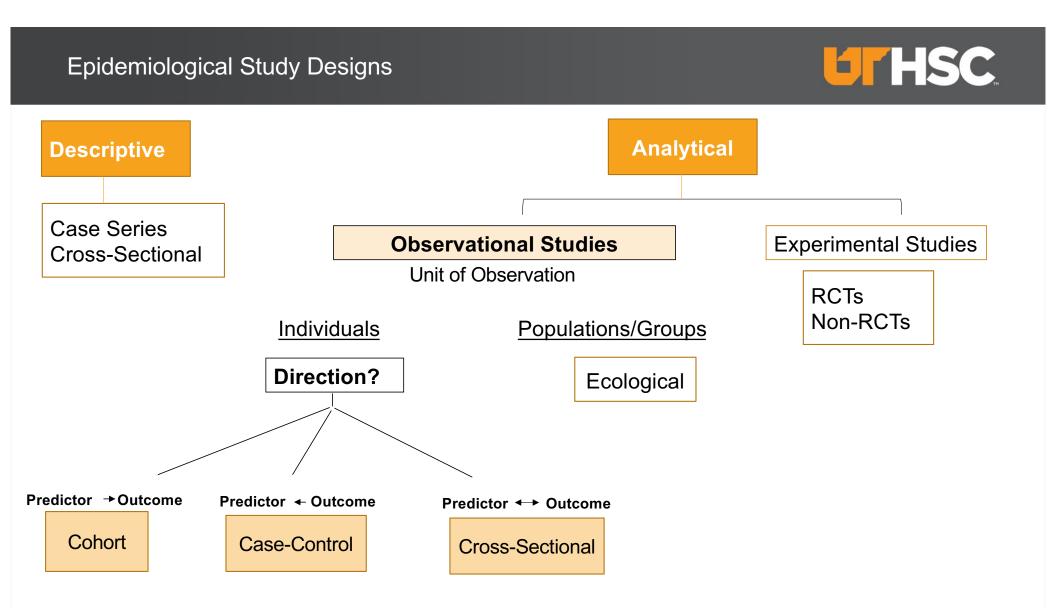
- Cohort Study
 - Design; Analytical
- Case-Control Study (Dr. Zhao)

Two Types of Epidemiology

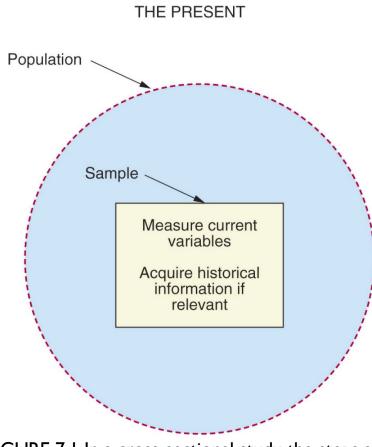
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• Cohort Study





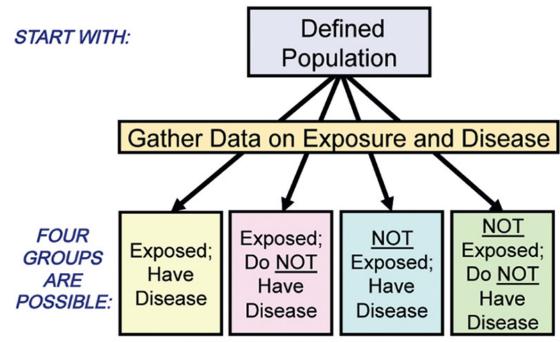


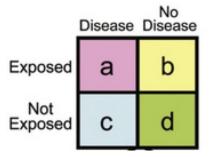
- FIGURE 7.1 In a cross-sectional study, the steps are to:
- Define selection criteria and recruit a sample from the population.
- Measure current values of predictor and outcome variables, often supplemented by historical information.

Source: Hulley et. All,. Designing Clinical Research. LWW. Kindle Edition.



Cross-Sectional Studies





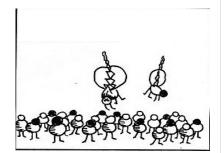
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Source: Celentano & Szklo. Gordis Epidemiology. Elsevier Health Sciences.

Cross-Sectional Studies

Sample Size – needs to be calculated

Sampling Methods



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- Random sampling: purest form of probability sampling. Each member of the population has an equal chance of being selected.
- Systematic sampling: use of pre-established sequences to select from a source of participants (e.g. medical records)
- Stratified sampling: sample based on certain demographic characteristics, (systematic or random sampling)
- Convenience sampling: the sample is selected because they are convenient (college students, patients, person on the street)



Cross-Sectional Studies – When to use

- Goal is to describe variables and their distribution pattern
 - Example: National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES study)
 - Sample designed to represent the US population -- interviewed and examined
 - Each cross-sectional study -- major source of information on health and habits of the US population (e.g., prevalence of smoking in various demographic groups)
- Can be used to examine associations
 - Which variables to label as predictors and outcome depends on the investigator hypothesis
 - Temporal relationship usually cannot be established

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Cross-Sectional Studies Analytical Approach

	Outco	ome	Total
Exposure	Present	Absent	
Yes	а	b	a + b
Νο	С	d	c + d
Total	a + c	b + d	a + b + c + d

Prevalence $_{total}$ = ((a+c) / (a+b+c+d)) x 10ⁿ

Prevalence _{exposed} = (a / (a+b)) x 10ⁿ

Prevalence $_{non-exposed} = (c / (c+d)) \times 10^{n}$

Measure of association

Prevalence Ratio = P_{exposed} /P _{non-exposed}

Example of a cross-sectional study

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Cross-Sectional Studies: Example 7.1 Analytical Approach

Sargent et al. (2) sought to determine whether exposure to movies in which the actors smoke is associated with smoking initiation. The steps in performing the study were to:

I. Define selection criteria and recruit the population sample. The investigators did a random-digit-dial survey of 6,522 U.S. children aged 10 to 14 years.

2. Measure the predictor and outcome variables. They quantified smoking in 532 popular movies and for each subject asked which of a randomly selected subset of 50 movies they had seen (predictor variable). Subjects were also asked about a variety of covariates such as age, race, gender, parent smoking and education, sensation-seeking (e.g., "I like to do dangerous things"), and self-esteem (e.g., "I wish I were someone else"). The outcome variable was whether the child had ever tried smoking a cigarette.

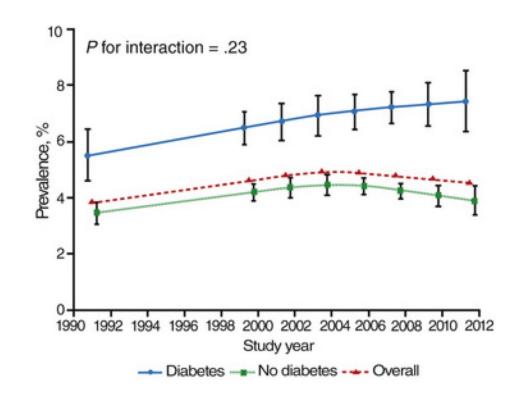
3. Results and conclusion: 1) Overall, 10% of the population had tried smoking. Quartile (Q) of movie smoking exposure was significantly associated with the prevalence of smoking initiation; 2) This association did not differ significantly by race/ethnicity or census region. 3) After controlling for sociodemographics, friend/sibling/parent smoking, school performance, personality characteristics, and parenting style, the adjusted odds ratio for having tried smoking were 1.7 (95% confidence interval [CI]: 1.1, 2.7) for Q2, 1.8 (95% CI: 1.2, 2.9) for Q3, and 2.6 (95% CI: 1.7, 4.1) for Q4 compared with adolescents in Q1. 4) The covariate-adjusted attributable fraction was 0.38 (95% CI: 0.20, 0.56), suggesting that exposure to movie smoking is the primary independent risk factor for smoking initiation in US adolescents in this age group.

Serial Survey: a special type of cross-sectional study



Serial Surveys

A cross-sectional following time



Adjusted prevalence of chronic kidney disease in US adults - NHANES - 1988-1994 thorough 2011-2012.

Source: Murphy et All., Ann Intern Med. 2016;165:473–481. in: Celentano & Szklo. Gordis Epidemiology . Elsevier Health Sciences. Kindle Edition.

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Cross-Sectional Studies – Random and Systematic Error

Random error – by chance – may affect precision in both outcome and exposure measures (frequencies or relationship) – solution: increase the sample size

Systematic error (bias) -- can happen in design, conduct, analysis or reporting of a study

Selection bias:

Sampling Bias – Not using representative sample of the source population Incidence-Prevalence Bias – Inclusion of prevalent cases in a study (overrepresentation of those who have lived the longest)

Information bias:

Recall bias – use of self-reporting – differences in accuracy or completeness of recall of past events/experiences

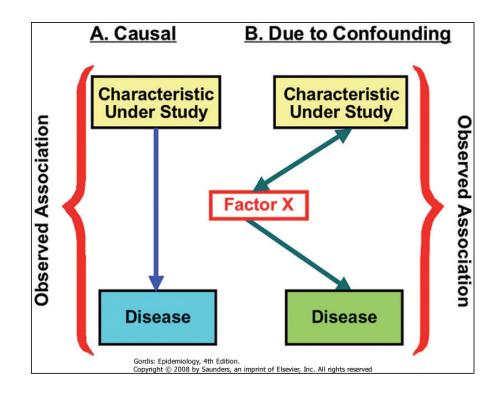
More error details refer to :https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC7318122/

Observational Studies and Cross Sectional Studies



Cross-Sectional Studies - Confounding

A distortion in the association between an exposure and disease brought about by extraneous factors (confounders)







Cross-Sectional Studies

Strengths

- No waiting for the outcome to occur
 - Fast; Inexpensive; No loss of follow-up
- Can be a first step in a cohort or a clinical trial

Weakness

- Impractical for studies of rare diseases (if collecting data from the general population)
- Not suited for diseases of short-duration
- Difficult to establish causal relationship

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Cohort Studies

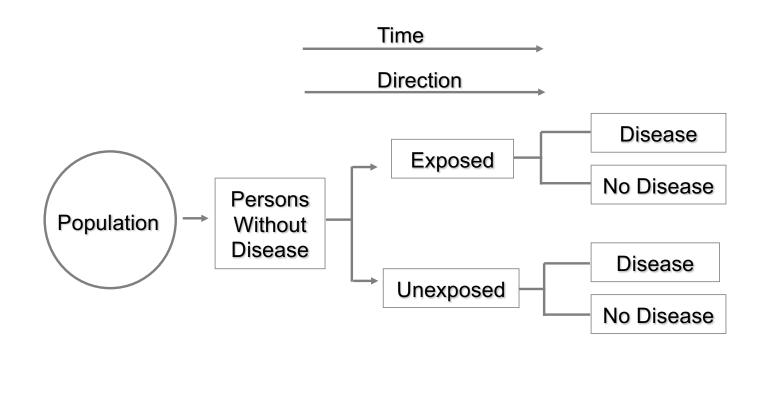
<u>Cohort</u>

an epidemiological term to identify a group of persons that share a given experience EXAMPLES: Students Patients Employees Migrants Pregnant women Infants ...etc.



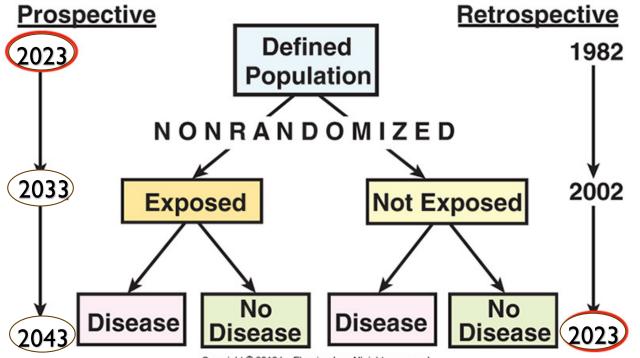
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Cohort Studies





Types of Cohort Studies



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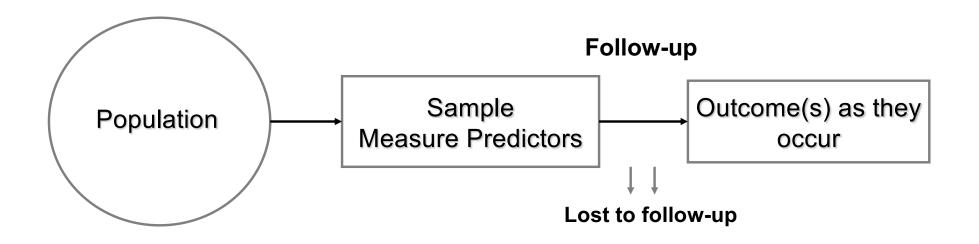
Source: Celentano & Szklo. Gordis Epidemiology. Elsevier Health Sciences.

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Prospective Cohort Study

The Present

The Future



Observational Studies – Cohort Study – Cohort Study

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Prospective Cohort Studies

Strengths

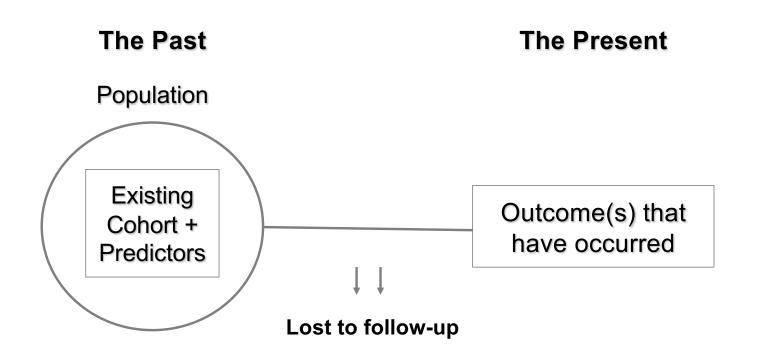
- Allows calculation of incidence, hence estimation of risk
- Temporal relationship between predictors and outcome can be established
- Less possibilities of introducing bias if good criteria and procedures for conducting the study are established in advance
- Information can be obtained on participants whose exposure to risk factors have changed

Weakness

- Potential for influences of confounding variables
- High cost and long duration
- Inefficient for rare outcomes

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Retrospective Cohort Study





Retrospective Cohort Studies

Strengths

- Same as Prospective Cohort
- And...
 - Less costly
 - Less time consuming

Weakness

 Investigator has limited control over sampling, follow-up of population, quality of baseline measurements

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Cohort Studies – Analytical Approach

Exposure or	Developed disease		Total
characteristic	Yes	No	
Present (exposed)	а	b	a+b
Absent (not exposed)	С	d	c + d

Incidence $_{total} = ((a+c) / (a+b+c+d)) \times 10^{n}$

Incidence _{exposed} = (a / (a+b)) x 10ⁿ

Incidence _{non-exposed} = (c / (c+d)) x 10ⁿ

Measure of association

Relative Risk= I exposed /I non-exposed

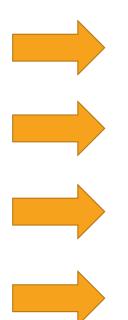
When denominator is total time of follow-up for each participant – Rate Ratio

Cox Proportional Hazards --Hazard Ratio

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Cohort Studies – Issues Reviewers Evaluate and Why

- Is there a well-characterized cohort defined at the beginning of follow-up?
- Will the sample size be large enough?
- Are cohort members readily available to follow-up?
- Do the measures of predictors/outcomes have good reliability and validity?



Selection bias (inclusion and exclusion criteria)

Random error (a must-have component)

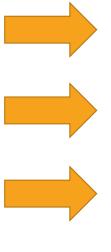
Selection bias (your proposal's feasibility)

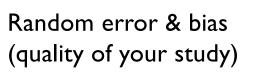
Random error & bias (quality of your study)

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Cohort Studies – Issues Reviewers Evaluate and Why

- Does the protocol include standardized assessment criteria? (e.g., blinding)
- Have potential confounders and effect modifiers been included?
- What steps will be taken to maximize retention?
- How will the longitudinal data be analyzed appropriately?





Confounding (ensuring correct conclusion)

Selection bias from loss to follow-up (feasibility)



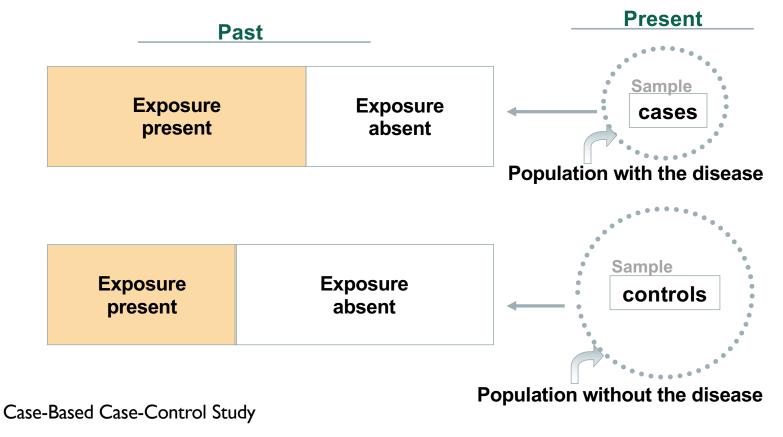
Statistical inference bias (quality of study)



Case-Control Study

Qi Zhao, MD, PhD Associate Professor of Epidemiology Department of Preventive Medicine 10.27.2023







Selection of Cases

The source of cases depends on the disease of interest

Hypertension, stroke ----- hospital, clinics HIV infected individuals ----- STD clinics, community Cancer ----- Cancer registration

Incident (new case/newly diagnosed) or Prevalent (old case/previously diagnosed) Cases?



Selection of Controls

- One of the major challenges in a case-control studies
- Controls should be similar to the cases in all respects other than having the disease (event) in question
- Controls should be representative of all persons without the disease in the population from which the cases are selected



Multiple Controls

- Controls from the same source -- two or three controls for each case are used to increase the statistical power of the study
- Controls from different sources e.g., hospital controls and neighbourhood controls.



Case-Control Studies – Analytical Approach

Exposure or	Disease/Event		
characteristic	Cases	Controls	
Present (exposed)	а	b	
Absent (not exposed)	C	d	

Odds Ratio = (a/b) / (c/d) = (a*d) / (b*c)

Logistic Regression --

- Multivariable approach



Case-Control Studies – Strengths

- Efficient for rare outcomes
- Require fewer participants than cohort studies, which means that more expensive and rigorous tests can be used
- There is no problem with losses to follow-up



Case-Control Studies – Weakness

- Cannot estimate the incidence or prevalence of the diseases
- Information on the exposure or risk factor is obtained <u>after</u> the occurrence of disease, so there is not a clear way to estimate the time between exposure and start of disease
- Only one outcome can be studied
- Susceptibility to bias



Case-Control Studies – Weakness

- Bias sources
 - Selection bias
 - Control selection
 - Information bias
 - Recall bias: e.g., patients with disease may overreport a certain exposure
 - Interviewer bias: e.g., observer may tend to ask cases and controls differently about their exposure



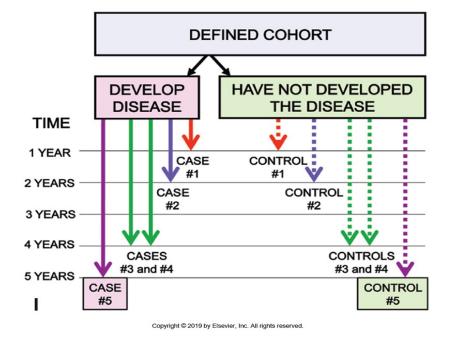
Confounding

Matching

- To increase the comparability of cases and controls by controlling a confounding variable in the study design: controls are matched to cases based on having the same value of the confounder (e.g. age)
- $\circ~$ More than one control may be matched to each case



Nested Case-Control Studies

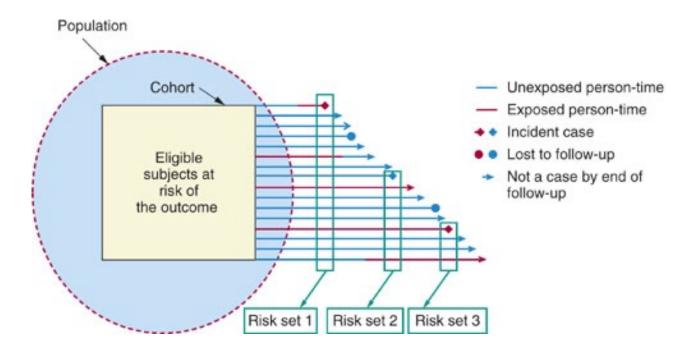


Nested Case-Control Study

Source: Celentano & Szklo. Gordis Epidemiology. Elsevier Health Sciences.



Cohort-based Case-Control Studies

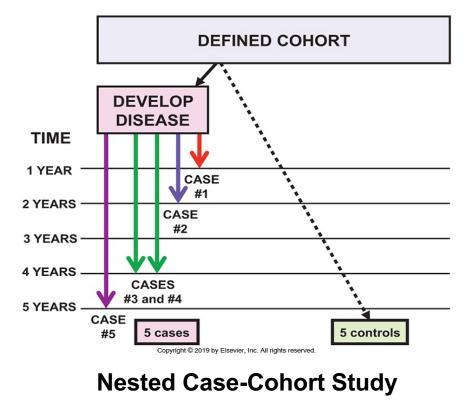


Incidence-Density Nested Case-Control Study

Source: Hulley SB, et al. Designing clinical research. 4th edition.



Cohort-based Case-Control Studies



Source: Celentano & Szklo. Gordis Epidemiology. Elsevier Health Sciences.

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Nested Case-Control Studies

- Strengths
 - Useful for costly measurements on specimens that have been archived at the beginning of the study
 - Avoids the potential biases of conventional case-control studies that cannot make measurements on fatal cases and that draw cases and controls from different populations
 - Retains the advantages of cohort studies -- collect predictor variables before the outcomes have happened

• Weakness

• Same as other observational studies including potential for confounding



Considerations in Grant Application

Bias

- 1) Study design: e.g., nested case-control study; case or control selection; inclusion and exclusion criteria; multiple control groups
- 2) Data collection: e.g., staff training, blinded to case and control status; additional data collection for evaluating potential bias
- 3) Data analysis plan: e.g., analyze additional data

Confounding

- 1) Study design (study population): e.g., matched study design
- 2) Data collection: e.g., collect potential confounding factors
- 3) Data analysis plan: e.g., stratification analysis; multivariable modeling

Questions?

