

Source: Waning B, Montagne M: *Pharmacoepidemiology: Principles and Practice*: <http://www.accesspharmacy.com>
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	Study design	Method	Advantages	Limitations	notes
According to time	Prospective	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -we follow people with a certain risk factor to see whether they develop a specific outcome or not. -measures of association between factor & outcome must be high enough to conclude a meaningful relationship. -fixed=factor Wide range = outcome 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -fewer potential of bias and confounding factors than in retrospective. -higher reliability of data. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -expensive. -time consuming. -difficult to access subjects. -loss of subjects from the study over time may be substantial. (drop out bias). 	
	Retrospective	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -we study the history of people with an outcome to see whether a specific factor could have caused their outcome. -fixed=outcome Wide range= factor 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -inexpensive -quick -easy to access a large number of subjects in interest. -useful to study exposure that no longer occur. -useful to study rare outcomes. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -confounding factors and bias more common. -subjects may not remember past information. (recall bias) 	
Descriptive	Case report	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -a detailed report by a clinician on a single patient with unusual features that could lead to a hypothesis. -the most common descriptive study. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -starting point of many researches by raising a research question. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -clinical investigators can use challenge-rechallenge data to help establish causality or relationship between the unusual feature and a specific factor.

Descriptive

<p>Case series</p>	<p>-a detailed report by a clinician on a group of patients with unusual features that could lead to a hypothesis.</p>	<p>-recognizing a clustering of similar cases could emergence a new disease or epidemic. -helps learning more about a disease symptoms, signs. -helps creating case definitions. -useful for clinical education.</p>	<p>-cant provide a relationship between factor/outcome. (more concerned with the symptoms) -can't provide prevalence / incidence rates (no pop. / not all cases registered). -no control group for comparison.</p>	<p>-population case series: An extension of case series study + including additional cases that died without being seen by a clinician. Adv: Understanding the spectrum & natural history of the disease.</p>
<p>Ecological studies (AKA correlational ... because the relationship is described as a positive or negative or no correlation)</p>	<p>-existing statistics about populations –usually from different geographic areas or time periods- are used to compare mortality & morbidity taking in consideration the average risk factor in the population (not individuals).</p>	<p>-provide strong relationship between disease and behavior. -quick & cheap. -generates new hypothesis. -can identify new risk factors (as a hypothesis)</p>	<p>-unable to control for confounding factors (ecological fallacy). - it doesn't reflect association at individual level. (a case in a population with high average of an exposure may not be exposed.) -don't provide incidence/prevalence .</p>	<p>-measure of association used = correlation coefficient r ... which describes how linear the relationship between the exposure & outcome is.</p>
<p>Cross sectional (AKA prevalence)</p>	<p>-studies in which a population is surveyed and their disease & exposure are determined at the same point of time. -provides a one-time glimpse at the population, Showing relative distribution of conditions, diseases...</p>	<p>- inexpensive. -quick. -sample size depends on the question. -provides prevalence. -effective in identifying chronic diseases. -provide useful information for the planning of health services and medical programs.</p>	<p>-not suitable for rare diseases. -not suitable for short duration diseases (not realistic prevalence). -often difficult to show cause_effect relationships as they are measured at one point of time. (ما بنعرف مين السبب و مين النتيجة). -bias chance (not representative sample /low response /misclassification) -unable to measure incidence. -results may be difficult to interpret.</p>	<p>-often used as initial exploration / generation of a hypothesis that is followed by another analytical study (e.g. case control)</p>

<p>Case control</p>	<p>-a comparison between a group of cases (with one specific disease) and controls (from the same population/as similar as possible) to determine the factors that could be responsible for the development/prevention of the disease. -most common among analytical studies. -selection of subjects based on disease status.</p>	<p>-quick -inexpensive -able to study a wide range of exposures. -able to study diseases with long latency period. -can study rare diseases. -small sample size is required (compared with cohort)</p>	<p>-not suitable to study rare exposure (cohort is better). -cant provide incidence/prevalence. -susceptible to bias (selection and recall). -we cant be certain that the exposure came before the disease. (factor _ outcome relationship) -choice of controls may be difficult or not representative. -no absolute risk estimates.</p>	<p>-suitable measure of association = odds ratio -methods of data collection : 1.case_ note review (ملفات المرضى) 2.postal questionnaire 3.interview (for detailed information)</p>
<p>Cohort</p>	<p>-a comparison between a group of exposed & nonexposed people to a specific factor (for a long period) to determine whether an outcome incidence of is greater in any of the groups. =selection of subjects based on exposure.</p>	<p>-best study to establish cause_ effect relationships. -takes into account seasonal variation/ fluctuations & other changes over a long period of time. -provides incidence and prevalence. -provides a time related sequence between exposure & outcome. -suitable to study rare exposures. -able to study a wide range of outcomes for a single exposure. -less bias potential.</p>	<p>-expensive. -time consuming. -not efficient for rare diseases. -needs large samples. -bias potentials: -drop_ out bias (seriously affects validity) -changes among diagnostic methods, exposures or study population. -difficult (locating subjects, tracking and testing them over a long period).</p>	<p>-examples: -life expectancy of cerebral palsy children. -aspirin intake and colorectal cancer. -purpose (2 dimensions): 1.descriptive (measures frequency). e.g. incidence rates / natural history of the disease. 2.analytic (measures association) e.g. relative risk. Suitable measure of association= relative risk.</p>

Retrospective cohort	-we use information about already exposed and diseased people ... without having a control group. -all the process is in the past.	-inexpensive. -quick. -feasible for studying effects for exposures that no longer occur (e.g. banned drug)	-relies on existing records (which might not be enough). -relies on subject recall (recall bias).	Key difference between retrospective cohort & case control is that we don't have a control group in the cohort.
Ambidirectional cohort	Data collected both retrospectively and prospectively on the same cohort to study short and long term effect of exposure.			
Experimental	-what is it? Studies of the effect of a specific treatment (drug/surgery/new service/type of management) on patients with a specific disease to evaluate its efficacy.	-why do we need it? -Theory is not enough and have caused previous disasters. -Observational studies show the correlation between factors and outcome, but do not ensure causation . (evidence: many false positive observational studies e.g. relationship between red meat and breast cancer) + they might not overcome bias and confounding. SO WE NEED EXPERIMENTAL TRIALS TO ENSURE CAUSALITY, SAFETY & EFFICIENCY.	-depends on the study type.	-could be clinical/preventive. -clinical trials could be: Randomized, nonrandomized, single center, multi center, 4 phases trials. -choice of the clinical study design depends on: 1.research question. 2.research goals. 3.researcher beliefs, values & skills. -time & funding. -types of study outcomes: 1.death. 2.clinical measurement. 3.symptoms. 4.quality of life. 5.psychological wellbeing.

<p>Randomized clinical trial (RCT)</p>	<p>-differences from observational: 1.exposure = manipulated. 2.subjects= chosen by random allocation (whether to be in the experiment or control group). -mechanism? Experiment group are given the agent being tested ... control group are either given a current drug or a placebo (if there is no current drug). Both patients and investigator are blind to the treatment given to reduce bias (double blinded).</p>	<p>WE NEED EXPERIMENTAL TRIALS TO ENSURE CAUSALITY, SAFETY & EFFICIENCY.</p>	<p>-expensive -large trials (may affect statistical power). -long term follow up (drop out bias). -compliance. -possible ethical questions. -patients may make some sacrifice (because it requires scientific treatment rather than medical).</p>	<p>-could be single /double/ triple blinded.</p>
<p>Preventive</p>	<p>-studies of the effect of a possible preventive measure on people who don't have a disease. -we have an experiment group vs. a control group.</p>	<p>-suitable to find a prevention of extremely common/ extremely severe diseases. -suitable to study people who are at high risk of a disease but haven't developed it yet.(e.g. hepatitis B)</p>	<p>-more expensive. (the risk of developing diseases is small... which allows a greater number of subjects than clinical trials do = more expensive)</p>	<p>-some studies have to be applied on communities rather than individuals e.g. water fluoridation to prevent dental caries.</p>

Preventive medicine

what is it?
 - Actions aimed to
 - eradicate
 - eliminate
 - minimize the impact of disease or disability
 - If none of the above is feasible ... retard the progress of it.

Medical screening

What is it?
 the systematic application of a test for people who haven't sought medical attention on account of symptoms of disorder, to identify who are at risk of developing that disorder

→ further investigation
 → direct preventive action

Aims

- ↳ for individuals:
 - Better prognosis / outcomes
 - e.g. Medical screening of breast cancer - decreased mortality in England & Wales
- ↳ for community
 - Protection from communicable diseases
 - Rational allocation of resources
 - Mortality ↓
 - quality of life ↑
- ↳ for medical field
 - Research (understanding natural history of disease.)

Types of medical screening according to subject

- ↳ Random Screening (e.g. pink october)
- ↳ Opportunistic Screening (Case finding)
 - ↳ Subjects = people who seek health care for another reason
 - ↳ check lipid profile for overweight patients
 - ↳ Refer women > 40 years to breast cancer screening

Screening vs Diagnosis

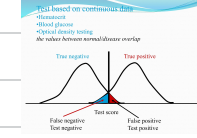
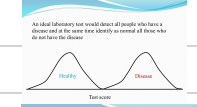
- screening assists in early diagnosis of signs / symptoms
 - At GPs & selected specialists
 - general population awareness.

Screening criteria

- ↳ Disease should be an important health problem
 - ↳ well defined, known epidemiology, natural history, prevalence
 - ↳ common / serious - even if not highly prevalent.
 - Neonatal screening for inborn metabolism errors.
 - Phenylketonuria ~ early detection prevents severe impact only by dietary restriction.
 - Hypothyroidism
- ↳ Presence of pre-symptomatic or early stage of the disease
 - ↳ to ensure - we do RCT to see if there is a difference between early detected patients (by screening) and people who seek health care after symptoms
- ↳ Screen for the disease not the risk factor

Screening test

- Should be:
 - safe
 - inexpensive
 - acceptable
 - valid & reliable
 - considering convenience & test duration



- Predictive values =
 - Positive predictive = $\frac{TP}{TP+FP}$
 ↳ how likely it is to have the disease when the test is positive
 - Negative predictive = $\frac{TN}{TN+FN}$
 ↳ how likely it is to be healthy when the test is negative
 - Prevalence = $\frac{TP+FN}{N}$

No. minimal adverse effects (e.g. pain)

Sensitivity (Detection rate) = $\frac{TP}{TP+FN}$

Specificity = $\frac{TN}{TN+FP}$

False positive rate = $\frac{FP}{FP+TN} = 1 - \text{Spec}$

Why important?
 - we need to make it as low as possible ... to avoid:
 1) Affecting the economic by further investigations.
 2) Psychological distress.

Reliability means that the same results should be obtained by different observer or the same observer at different occasions

Post - screening process

Agreed plan on further investigation, diagnosis & treatment

Agreed plan on further investigation, diagnosis and treatment:

- Where to refer your positive subjects
- What is the diagnostic tests
- Who will pay for the investigations and treatments
- Diagnostic tools, screening intervals and treatment
- Facilities required for such steps should also be available or easily installed and equally accessed by the screened population

How to make screening project more efficient?

- 1) Do it systematic - instead of scattered campaigns & activities.
 - ↳ How? obtain data about residents in a specific area - Arrange GP visits for them
- 2) Make it simple
 - ↳ cut it down so it will be simple
- 3) test it before you generalize it

Test it before you generalize it

- Start with **pilot program**
- Assess response rate
- Is my program cost-effective
- What is my cost-effective screening criteria
- Quality of all involved steps (single versus double reader mammography screening, FIT versus Haemoccult test)
- Compare respondents with non-respondents
- Assess success rates
- Look for determinants of success and failure
- Is there a specific group who needs different intervention?

Importance of Pilot Projects

why do we need a pilot project?

1. Health economics evaluation
2. Setting age cut-off based on local data
3. Improve performance at national level by learning from experience at pilot phase
4. Comprehensive assessment of the screening program: helpline, waiting time, film quality, guidelines such as double readers, false positive rate, false negative rate, diagnosis process, psychological counselling, treatment, prognosis, economic evaluation, how can we make it better at the national level.
5. Assessment of barriers to screening
6. Quality assessment of staff

Economic evaluation:

- Implementing screening programme should be more economically effective than the existing system.
- Cost of all steps related to the screening programme should be assessed and compared with outcomes of the screening and with other services.
- Each country should has its own studies and data
- Why is one effective in the UK might not be cost-effective in Jordan or India
- In breast cancer screening, age range for screening plays a key role in the cost effectiveness of the program.
- UK Screening age 50-70 every three years, then in low years age aged 40-49 (10%)
- Sweden age 40-70 annually

Acceptability to the public & health care staff.
 ↳ Screening, Diagnosis
 ↳ therapy should be ethically accepted

Economic evaluation
 - Screening test must save money of disease treatment.
 ↳ to ensure that:
 - Choose the correct disease to screen
 - Choose the correct group at risk to screen

Bias related to medical screening

- 1) Lead time Bias ~ detecting the disease earlier appears to prolong the survival time, but it doesn't because early treatment is actually not better. e.g. prostate cancer
- 2) Length time Bias ~ the cases more likely to be detected by routine screening are usually slowly progressive & might not harm the patient in lifetime. ↳ this is a form of selection bias
- 3) Selection Bias ~ Responders are different from decliners.
- 4) Volunteer Bias ~ Related to point 3 & more common among nonsystematic screening

Volunteer bias:

- The extent of volunteer bias depends on the characteristics of the screened population.
- People who volunteer for screening are usually healthier and more health conscious than those who do not.
- This bias is especially a problem in case-control studies where the screened population is selected on the basis of their response to the screening test.

Quality Assurance

- Quality assurance means that the assessment of the service provided and applying modifications when necessary.
- This includes various steps such as recruitment, registration, waiting time, test procedures, results handling and follow up or referral for treatment procedures.
- Clinical audit

- After all steps of pilot studies & Quality Assurance your program will be in place.

- Now you need to continue monitoring and regular evaluation

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