DESCRIPTIVE EPIDEMIOLOGY

How we view the world....



- Pessimist: The glass is half empty.
- *Optimist*: The glass is half full.
- Epidemiologist: As compared to what?

Epidemiology is...

- "The worst taught course in Medical school."
 - Medical Student

Epidemiology is...

- "The science of making the obvious obscure."
 - Clinical Professor

Epidemiology is...

"The science of long division....

I'=[(480)(log2)(10E6)]/[(9.1)(0.955po)+0.4 5n]"

Statistician

Definition of Epidemiology*

"The STUDY of the DISTRIBUTION and DETERMINANTS of HEALTH-RELATED STATES in specified POPULATIONS, and the application of this study to CONTROL of health problems."

*Last, J.M. 1988. A Dictionary of Epidemiology, 2nd ed.

Epidemiology: Definition

Dynamic study of the

Determinants

Occurrence

Distribution

Control

Pattern

Of health and disease in a population

Kinds of Epidemiology

Descriptive

Study of the occurrence and distribution of disease

Analytic

Further studies to determine the validity of a hypothesis concerning the occurrence of disease.

Experimental

Deliberate manipulation of the cause is predictably followed by an alteration in the effect not due to chance.



Descriptive vs. Analytic Epidemiology

Descriptive

- Used when little is known about the disease
- Rely on preexisting data
- Who, where, when
- Illustrates potential associations

Analytic

- Used when insight about various aspects of disease is available
- Rely on development of new data
- Why
- Evaluates the causality of associations

Both are important!

Descriptive Studies

 Relatively inexpensive and less time-consuming than analytic studies, they describe,

Patterns of disease occurrence, in terms of,

- Who gets sick and/or who does not
- Where rates are highest and lowest
- Temporal patterns of disease
- Data provided are useful for,
 - Public health administrators (for allocation of resources)
 - Epidemiologists (first step in risk factor determination)

Descriptive Epidemiology

Correlational studies

Case reports

Case series

Cross sectional studies

Correlational Studies (Ecological Studies)

- Uses measures that represent characteristics of entire populations
- It describes outcomes in relation to age, time, utilization of services, or exposures

ADVANTAGES

- We can generate hypotheses for case-control studies and environmental studies
- We can target high-risk populations, time-periods, or geographic regions for future studies

Correlational Studies

LIMITATIONS

- Because data are for groups, we cannot link disease and exposure in individual
- We cannot control for potential confounders
- Data represent average exposures rather than individual exposures, so we cannot determine a dose-response relationship
- Caution must be taken to avoid drawing inappropriate conclusions, or *ecological fallacy*

Patterns of disease Occurrence : Correlation of <u>Population</u> statistics

• Ecologic (*correlation*) studies

Used as first step in determining association plot : disease (population) burden [Y axis] vs. prevalence of "risk factor" [X axis] e.g. smoking vs. lung cancer

Case Reports (case series)

- Report of a single individual or a group of individuals with the same diagnosis
- Advantages

We can aggregate cases from disparate sources to generate hypotheses and describe new syndromes Example: hepatitis, AIDS

- Limitations
 - We cannot test for statistical association because there is no relevant comparison group
 - Based on individual exposure {may simply be coincidental}

Cross-Sectional Studies (prevalence studies)

- Measures disease and exposure simultaneously in a welldefined population
- Advantages
 - They cut across the general population, not simply those seeking medical care
 - Good for identifying prevalence of common outcomes, such as arthritis, blood pressure or allergies.

• Limitations

- Cannot determine whether exposure preceded disease
- It considers prevalent rather than incident cases, results will be influenced by survival factors
- Remember: P = I x D

Descriptive Epidemiology

- First phase of an epidemiological investigation.
- observing distribution of disease or health related characteristics in human populations.
- Identifying characteristics with which disease seems to be associated.

Questions asked

- When is the disease occurring?
- Time distribution.
- Where is the disease occuring?
 Place distribution.

Who is getting the disease??
 Person distribution.

Procedures in descriptive studies

- Steps
- 1. Define the population
- 2. Define the disease
- 3. Describe the disease
- 4. Measure the disease
- 5. Compare with known indices
- 6. Formulation of hypothesis

Defining the population

- Investigations of populations, not individuals.
- Defining population base- in terms of age, sex, occupation, etc.
- Can be whole population or representative sample.
- Defined population-large , stable.
- Concept of defined population-provides denominator for calculating rates.

Defining the disease

- Epidemiologist needs a definition of disease that is precise and valid.
- Diagnostic methods-acceptable to population and applicable to their use in large populations.
- Epidemiologist-operational definition- by which the disease or condition can be identified and measured.

Describing the disease

Characteristics frequently examined

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Year , Season Month, Week Day, Hour of onset Duration

Place

Climatic Zone Country Region Urban /Rural / Local community Towns, Cities , Institutions

Person

Age , Birth Order, Sex , Family Size Marital State , Height Weight Occupation , Social Status , Education, Blood Pressure , Blood cholesterol , Personal habits

TIME DISTRIBUTION

- Short term fluctuations
- Periodic fluctuations.
- Long term or secular trends.

Short Term Fluctuations

- Types of Epidemics
 - 1. Common source epidemics

a)Single exposure or "point source" epidemicsb) Continuous or multiple exposure epidemics

- 2. Propagated epidemics
 - a. Person to Person
 - b. Arthropod vector
 - c. Animal reservoir
- 3. Slow (Modern Epidemic)

Common Source Epidemics

- <u>Common source, single exposure epidemics</u>. (point source)E.g. Food poisoning, Bhopal gas tragedy.
- <u>Epidemic curve</u>: Rises and falls rapidly, Clustering of cases, All cases develop in one incubation period



POINT SOURCE EPIDEMICS



b) <u>Common source-continous or repeated</u>
 <u>exposure:</u> prolonged ,continous or intermittent
 exposure to a common source: e.g. contaminated
 vaccine.

B.PROPAGATED EPIDEMICS:

Infectious disease epidemic. Person to person transmission.

(Hepatitis A and Polio)

Epidemic rises gradually and tails off over a period of time.

• Seasonal trends: seasonal variation e.g. measles, malaria.



ii) Cyclic trend: influenza pandemics occur in intervals of 7-10 yrs.



Whooping Cough - Four-monthly admissions, 1954-1973



III. Long term or secular trends: changes in occurrence of diseases.e.g DM, CHD



Interpretation of time trends

- By surveillance and monitoring--epidemiologist seeks which diseases are:
- increasing,
- decreasing
- emerging health problems.

PLACE DISTRIBUTION (Geographical Comparisons)

- 1. International Variations: e.g. Difference in incidence of cancer
- 2. National Variations : e.g. Goitrecommon in north.
- 3. Rural / Urban Differences-
- 4. Local Distributions

- Spot Map – John Snow of England - Classic investigation of cholera epidemic in 1854 – Golden square district of London.



- Migration studies: movement of population from one country to another.
- Can be carried out in 2 ways:
- a)Comparison of disease and death rates for migrants with those of their kin back home

b) Comparison of migrants with local population of the host country.

Person Distribution

- 1. Age :
- 2. Sex
- 3. Ethnicity
- 4. Marital status
- 5. Occupation
- 6. Social Class
- 7. Behavior
- 8. Stress
- 9. Migration

- <u>Measurement of Disease</u> : Morbidity and mortality rates and ratios
- Morbidity Incidence from Longitudinal studies.
- Incidence is the number of <u>new</u> cases of disease that develop in the population during a defined period.
- Prevalence from: Cross sectional studies
- Prevalence is the number of <u>existing</u> cases of disease in the population during a defined period.

Cross- sectional studies

- Simplest form of observational studies.
- Known as Prevalence study.
- Single examination of population at one point in time.
- Results can be applied to the whole population- if sampling done correctly.
- More useful for chronic than acute diseases. e.g. Hypertension.

Longitudinal studies

- Observations are repeated in same population over prolonged period of time by means of follow up examinations.
- Useful to:
- 1)Study the natural history of disease and its future outcome.
- 2)For identifying risk factors of disease.
- 3)For finding out incidence rate.

5)Comparing with known indices:

by making comparisons between different subgroups it is possible to arrive at clues about disease etiology.

6)Formulation of hypotheses:

based on population, specific cause, expected outcome, dose-response relationship, time-response relationship.

Uses of Descriptive Epidemiology

- Provide data disease load, types , morbidity and mortality rates
- 2 . Provide clues to disease aetiology and helps in formulation of hypothesis
- 3. Provide data for planning organizing and evaluating services.
- 4. Contribute to research .

