Cohort Studies

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Outline

- Basic Concepts
- 2 Design
 - Classification
 - The choice of study design
 - Advantages and Disadvantages of Cohort studies
 - Special types of Cohort Studies
- Issues in Cohort studies
- 4 Analysis
- Issues in interpretation



Introduction

Cohort \equiv group of people sharing a common condition.

A cohort study: cohort(s) being free from the disease under investigation:

- followed-up to assess the incidence of the outcome(s) of interest.
 - The required length to follow up is about the length of the latent period of the outcome of interest.
- group(s) are selected by different levels of selected exposure (>2 groups).
 - More often, the presence or absence of a suspected risk factor for a disease (2 groups).

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The choice of study design Advantages and Disadvantages of Cohort studies Special types of Cohort Studies

Descriptive - Analytic

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- Analytic study: analyzing the relationships among ≥ 2 variables → to predict outcomes, to draw inferences about cause-effect.

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Prospective - Retrospective

Classified as either Prospective or Retrospective \in the initiation time of the study, $t_{initiation} \sim$ the occurrence of outcome(s):

```
\begin{array}{lll} \textit{Retrospective}: & \textit{outcome}(s) \rightarrow & t_{\textit{initiation}} \\ \textit{Prospective}: & & t_{\textit{initiation}} \rightarrow & \textit{outcome}(s) \\ \textit{Retro} - \textit{Prospective}: & \textit{outcome}(s) \rightarrow & t_{\textit{initiation}} \rightarrow & \textit{outcome}(s) \\ \end{array}
```

The choice of **Descriptive** or Analytic

∈ The study objective

The study can be designed:

Descriptive

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The choice of Retrospective or Prospective

∈ Scientific ~ Logistic considerations

- Prospective:
 - minimizing bias in the ascertainment of exposure.
 - time consuming, expensive.
- Retrospective:
 - more quickly & cheaply.
 - the availability of adequate records.

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Example 1 - An descriptive prospective cohort study

A Cohort of

Outcome

 $Nulliparous\ women
ightarrow Incidence\ of\ Pregnancy\ Induced\ Hypertension$ $Pregnant\ women
ightarrow Incidence\ of\ Pregnancy\ Induced\ Diabetes$



Classification
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Example 2 - An analytic prospective cohort study

Predictor

Pregnancy Intention
Unintended

Intended

Outcome

 \rightarrow Maternal Confidence in child rearing

No or not sure Yes



Example 3 - An analytic cohort study

Prospective or Retrospective

$\begin{array}{ccc} \textbf{Predictors} & \textbf{Outcome} \\ \textbf{\textit{Medicine University Entrance Scores}} & \rightarrow & \textbf{\textit{Doctor Graduation}} \\ \textbf{\textit{Mathematics}} & \textbf{\textit{Passed}} \\ \textbf{\textit{Chemistry}} & \textbf{\textit{Failed}} \\ \textbf{\textit{Biology}} \end{array}$

- If prospective:
 - can control for other factors...
 - costly in terms of time, money, personels,...
- If retrospective:
 - quickly & no cost added.
 - completely depend on available records.



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Advantages of Cohort studies

- Measure incidence of disease in group(s)
- $E \sim O$ temporal sequence is more clearly established
- Well suited for:
 - Assessing multiple effects of a single exposure
 - Assessing the effects of rare exposure

Disadvantages of Cohort studies

- Issues of failure to follow-up.
- Inefficient for studying rare diseases, unless the %AR is high.

Efficient designs for rare outcome(s) and/or expensive predictor(s)

- Nested Case-Control studies
 - sample is from the cohort when cases occur (incidence density sampling)
- Case-Cohort studies
 - sample is from the cohort at baseline (a subcohort)

Selection of the exposed

- For common exposure: smoking, coffee drinking, alcohol, . . .
 → general population cohort(s).
- For rare exposure: occupational, environmental/geographical locations: dioxin, ionizing radiation, stress (after earthquakes, terrorism), ...
 - \rightarrow special exposure cohort \equiv more efficient (with a caution that's special exposure people are, on average, healthier than usual ones).

How to select good comparison group(s)

- The major principle: comparable
 = as similar as possible,
 except the determinant under investigation.
- Confounder(s): social-economic, demographic, geographic... characteristics.
- Other co-risk factors: alcohol, foods...
- (\pm) Multiple comparison groups.

Variety of sources of data

- Interviews, or questionnaires
- Medical examination, or testing
- Measuring the environment where cohort members have lived, or worked
- Records: medical charts, computerized database
- ...

The importance of follow-up rate

- Failure to follow-up: the major issue leading to bias in cohort studies → un-interpretable results.
- The longer the required observation period, the more difficult to achieve satisfactory follow-up rate.

Analysis
$$E^+$$
 a b E^- c d

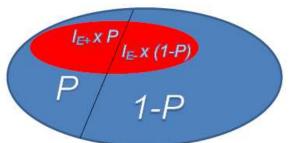
- Incidence $E^+ = \frac{a}{a+b}$
- Incidence $E^- = \frac{c}{c+d}$
- Incidence $T = \frac{a+c}{a+b+c+d}$
- Relative Risk (RR) = $\frac{\frac{a}{a+b}}{\frac{c}{c+d}} = \frac{I_{E^+}}{I_{E^-}}$
- Excess Risk $(ER) = \frac{a}{a+b} \frac{c}{c+d} = I_{E^+} I_{E^-}$
- Attributable Risk (AR) = $\frac{\frac{a}{a+b} \frac{c}{c+d}}{\frac{a}{a+b}} = \frac{I_{E^+} I_{E^-}}{I_{E^+}} = \frac{RR 1}{RR}$

Analysis

 Levin's Population Attributable Risk - the risk of the disease in a population:

Levin's
$$ARp = [I_{E^+} \times P] + [I_{E^-} \times (1 - P)]$$

($P = prevalence of exposure in a population)$



Analysis

• Population Attributable Risk - the difference risk (between E^+ and E^-) of the disease in a population: $ARp = Excess Risk \times P = (I_{E^+} - I_{E^-}) \times P^1$

• Population Attributable Fraction - the fraction of the disease occurrence associated with the risk factor in a population: $AFp = \frac{ARp}{I_T}$



 $^{^{1}}ARp = Levin's ARp - I_{F-}$

Analysis

Population Attributable Risk - the difference risk (between E⁺ and E⁻) of the disease in a population:
 ARp = Excess Risk × P = (I₋, -I₋) × P¹

$$ARp = Excess Risk \times P = (I_{E^+} - I_{E^-}) \times P^1$$

 Population Attributable Fraction - the fraction of the disease occurrence associated with the risk factor in a population:

$$AFp = \frac{ARp}{I_T}$$

($I_T = Total incidence of disease in a population)$



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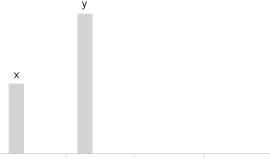
Other terms

- Relative Risk = Risk Ratio (RR) = $\frac{I_{E^+}}{I_{E^-}}$
- Excess Risk (ER) = Risk Difference (RD) = Attributable Risk (AR) = $I_{E^+} I_{E^-}$
- Attributable Risk (AR) = Attributable Risk Percent (%AR) = $\frac{I_{E^+} I_{E^-}}{I_{E^+}}$

$RR \sim ER$

•
$$RR = \frac{y}{x}$$

•
$$ER = y - x$$



Incidence E- Incidence E+

The use of Odds Ratio in Cohort studies

- Odds Ratio can approximate Relative Risk²
- Odds Ratio can be used to control simultaneously potential confounders

 $^{^{2}}OR$ is a good estimation for RR

ullet only when the probability of the event of interest < 10%.

above this boundary, OR will overestimate RR.

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Chance

Biases

- assessment of the outcome
- information, due to:
 - the extent and quality of obtaining E^+ or E^- , is different in D^+ and D^- groups (especially, in retrospective)
 - non-differential misclassification
- nonrespondense & losses to follow-up
- analytic, due to "strong preconception" investigator



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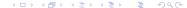
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Summary

- Cohort is the only design to establish incidence of disease in group(s)
- The $E \sim O$ temporal precedence is clear
- Issues of failure to follow-up

For Further Reading

- Stephen B. Hulley, MD, MPH; Steven R. Cummings, MD; Warren S. Browner, MD, MPH; Deborah Grady MD, MPH; Norman Hearst, MD, MPH; Thomas B. Newman, MD, MPH. Designing Clinical Research An Epidemiologic Approach, Second Edition. Lippincott Williams & Wilkins, 2001.
- Robert H. Fletcher, MD, MSc; Suzane W. Fletcher, MD, MSc. Clinical Epidemiology - The Essentials, Fourth Edition. Lippincott Williams & Wilkins, 2005.
- Leon Gordis, MD, MPH, DrPH. Epidemiology, Fourth Edition. Saunders, Elsevier, 2009.

Basic Concepts
Design
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Issues in interpretation
Summary

Exercise

Do a brainstorm for topic(s) in your field, which can be designed as cohort studies.