

School of Optometry

Follow-up (Cohort) Studies

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Of the *observational* epidemiologic study designs, by far the most common are the *Follow-Up Study* (or, *Cohort Study*) and the *Case-Control Study*.

Note that *neither design is superior to the other*. They each have their *strengths* and *weaknesses*, but either can be done very well or very poorly.

The Common Closing Date

The *Common Closing Date (CCD)* (or, time “*t*”) is the date established by the investigator, on which the collection of outcome data (*incident cases* or *deaths*) *stops*. Outcomes occurring *after* the *CCD* “don’t count” because the “books are closed” on the *CCD*.

But . . . not all subjects are followed to the CCD.

Follow-up ends *earlier* than the *CCD* for a subject as soon as he or she is *no longer at risk* for disease *D* or is *lost to follow-up*.

Outline

- General Description
- Common Closing Date; Ending Follow-Up On A Subject
- Validity and Precision Considerations
- 3 Varieties of Follow-Up Studies
- Limitations of this design
- Choice of comparison group
- Basic Data Analysis (using Incidence Rate, I)
- Basic Data Analysis (using Cumulative Incidence, CI)
- Logistics of Evaluating “Dose-response”
- Interpretation of “Dose-response”
- Categorization of Data and the “ile” Approach
- Mantel Extension Test of \mathbb{P} For Linear Trend

General Description of a Follow-up Study

- 1) Individuals whose *exposure status* to *E* is known (*E+* vs. *E-*, or level of *E*), *and* whose *disease D status is known to be negative* (i.e., they are *free of disease D*), are followed from “*time zero*” to “*time t*” for occurrence (*incidence*) of *D* or for death (*mortality*) from that *D*.
- 2) For each *exposure group* (*E+* vs. *E-*, or level of *E*) the *I*, *CI* or *M* is calculated.
- 3) The measures of disease frequency are then compared via the appropriate *Relative Risk (RR)* measure.
- 4) Note that the incidence of (or mortality from) *more than one* disease (*D₁, D₂, D₃, . . .*) can be measured in a given study.

End Follow-up on any Subject the Moment that He or She . . .

- 1) *Gets the disease* of interest (or, in a *mortality* study, *dies* from the disease) – a person is not “at risk” for a disease that he or she already has
- 2) *Dies* (from any cause) - dead people cannot be “followed” because they are no longer at risk of becoming an incident case!
- 3) *Becomes “lost to follow-up”* for any reason (refused, moved away, etc.) making his or her disease status *D+* or *D- unascertainable* from that time forward so that he or she is effectively no longer “at risk” (in our data set)
- 4) *Biologically* leaves the at-risk pool (e.g., a woman who receives a hysterectomy cannot get uterine cancer)

Differences of a Follow-up Study from an Experimental Study

- The investigator **does not** control *E status* in a follow-up study as he or she does in an **experiment**.
- There is **no randomization** of people to one study group or the other (*E+* or *E-*) in a follow-up study . . . so that **bias** and **confounding** are generally more of a problem than they are in an experiment.

How to Do a Valid Follow-up Study

- 1) Avoid or minimize **selection bias**
- 2) Avoid or minimize **information bias**
- 3) Avoid or minimize **confounding** by means of:
 - a) Subject characteristic restriction** in the **design** phase (a **limitation** being that the results may not be **generalizable** to people dissimilar from your subjects)
 - b) Standardization** (or, **adjustment**) in the **analysis** phase (a **limitation** being that adjustment will not work if there are **extreme differences** in the distribution of the confounding variable in the two populations compared)
 - c) Both a) and b)** are necessary in most studies

Varieties of Follow-up Studies

- a) Prospective follow-up studies:** Follow-up begins “today” and continues into the future
- b) Retrospective follow-up studies:** Follow-up begins in the past and ends in past
- c) Ambidirectional follow-up studies:** Follow-up begins in the past and continues into the future (i.e., a combination of **both** varieties above)

Note that for all varieties, follow-up is **forward** in time, from *E+* or *E-* to *D+* or *D-*.

Validity of an Epidemiologic Study

The **validity** of an epidemiologic study is the extent to which the **associations** found in the study of **samples** reflect the “**unknowable**” **associations** that are true in the **populations**.

If a study is **valid** this means that the **RR** point estimate (**sample statistic**) reflects “**the truth**” about the *E – D* relationship in the **population** (**population parameter**).

We will discuss validity issues in detail later. For now . . . how do we **maximize validity** in a follow-up study?

How to do a Precise Follow-up Study

This one is a little easier . . . **study “enough” people** (*E+* and *E-*, or a range of *E*’s) so that the **95% confidence interval** around the **RR point estimate** is narrow enough that it does **not** include the **null value 1**.

Having a **95% CI that excludes 1** means that our study was “worth doing” in a statistical sense, because our study was big enough to effectively **exclude** the possibility (with 95% certainty!) of **the null** (“**no association**”).

Limitations of Follow-Up Studies

- 1) **Not** an ideal design for studying a **rare** disease, because in order to observe **any** incident cases you must observe a **great many** people and/or follow them for a **long** period of time for generation of **lots of person-years** . . . otherwise you will find **very few or perhaps no cases!**
- 2) **Prospective follow-up** studies require the investigator to wait a **long time** (perhaps, an **induction period!**) for the disease to occur – for chronic diseases this could be years or decades – so that **results are not readily available**.
- 3) **Retrospective follow-up** studies require “historical” documentation (or circumstantial evidence, or inferences, or guesses?) about **exposure level at time-zero, time-zero** being sometime in the past, perhaps the distant past.

Uncertainty in Choosing the Most Appropriate “Unexposed” Group

When exposure is measured *dichotomously* (E+ vs. E-) it is usually easy to identify the *exposed* group (e.g., heavy smokers) because this is the group of people that have come to our attention to study.

Often more *problematic* is choice of the so-called “*unexposed*” group, ideally people like the exposed people in all relevant ways *other than for the exposure*.

In some situations the “unexposed” group we desire must be *totally unexposed (exposure-free)* whereas in other situations people with *minimal* but non-zero exposure make acceptable members of the “unexposed” group.

Limitations of an External Comparison Group

A *limitation* of choosing an *external* “unexposed” comparison group is that too many of them may actually be *exposed!*

Would you choose the *U.S. population* to serve as your “unexposed” comparison group in a study of the health effects of cigarette smoking when you know that the *prevalence* of cigarette smoking in the U.S. population is *high*, about 23%? *NO!* Bad choice.

When your so-called *unexposed* group is truly *partially exposed*, does this drive your *RR* point estimate *toward 1* (“*bias toward the null*”) or *away from 1* (“*bias away from the null*”)?

Another *limitation* of the external comparison group is the possible lack of *comparability* of the *unexposed* to the *exposed* with respect to other important factors (*confounders*) that we need to control for.

Example of Data Layout for an Incidence Rate–Type (or, Incidence Density–Type) Follow-up Study

The following data were gathered over a 3-year follow-up period:

	E+	E-
cases	24	8
p-yrs	1152	811

Using an External Comparison Group for the “Unexposed” Group

An *external* comparison group such as the U.S. population can be used if we can *reasonably assume* that the vast majority of the population is *unexposed* or *minimally exposed*.

Having a very *large* comparison group, as one might find externally, is good for statistical reasons.

The external comparison group may be acceptable or even preferable for studies of *uncommon* exposures such as most industrial chemicals.

Using an Internal Comparison Group for the Unexposed Group

An *internal* comparison group (people “internal” to the study) is usually preferred to an *external* comparison group.

Choose people who live in the same community or who work in the same factory as do the *exposed* people, but who we *know* are *unexposed* or who we *believe* are *unexposed*, often based on circumstantial evidence.

A *limitation* of the internal comparison group is that the people chosen may not *truly* be unexposed if they live, work, or otherwise associate with people in the *exposed* group.

If the so-called *unexposed* group was truly *partially exposed*, would this drive our *RR* point estimate *toward* or *away* from the null?

Calculation of the Incidence Rate Ratio, IR

- $IR = I_{E+} / I_{E-} = (24 / 1152) / (8 / 811) = 2.1$

- Interpretation: the incidence rate of this disease is **2.1 times higher** among the *exposed* than among the *unexposed*

Example of Data Layout for a Cumulative Incidence – Type Follow-up Study

Example: These are the same subjects followed for 3 years, but here is a different analysis, using a 2 x 2 or *fourfold* table:

	E+	E-	
D+	24	8	32
D-	<u>376</u>	<u>292</u>	<u>668</u>
	400	300	700

Comparison of Two Analyses of the Same Data Set

Although the same data set was analyzed twice, we did *not* get exactly the same result:

$$IR = 2.1 \quad \text{and} \quad CIR = 2.25$$

In both calculations the *numerators* “24” and “8” were the same but the *denominators* were different.

Person-years of follow-up time (the sum of the *each individual’s* “exposure opportunity”) are the *denominators* of each *I* calculation

Populations at risk at time-zero are the *denominators* of each *CI* calculation. Each *CI* does *not* take into account anyone leaving or entering the population as follow-up proceeds.

Calculation of Dose & Grouping of Subjects into Exposure Categories

“*Dose*” is based on *duration* of exposure (months, years, etc.) and also on *intensity* of exposure (concentration or amount of exposure on a typical day in a typical year).

For example, the “*dose*” of *cigarette smoking* would be based on *number of years smoked*, and the *average number of cigarettes smoked* per day during that time.

Once each subject’s *dose* has been measured or estimated, subjects are *grouped* into *exposure categories* so that *I* or *CI* can be measured in each category. How should the *exposure categories* be formed?

Calculation of the Cumulative Incidence Ratio, CIR

- $CIR = CI_{E+} / CI_{E-} = (24 / 400) / (8 / 300) = 2.25$

- Interpretation: the cumulative incidence of this disease is **2.25 times higher** among the *exposed* than among the *unexposed*

Evaluation of Dose-Response

It is better to measure *E* according to *level (dose)* rather than classifying *E* *dichotomously* as simply *E+* or *E-* (thereby *degrading* the data).

“*Dose-response*” can be evaluated if *E* is measured (or classified) on at least **3 levels**. As *dose* of *E* increases, does *incidence* of *D* increase, decrease, or stay the same? If *D* increases or decreases, we have evidence of “*dose-response*” . . . which may or not reach statistical significance.

The argument for *causation* is *enhanced* if *dose-response* (one of *Hill’s Criteria*) is present because the alternative explanation of *confounding* for the non-null *RR* that you found, is less likely.

But if *dose-response* is *absent*, causation is *still possible*. There could be a *threshold effect* whereby a certain dose raises the risk and causes disease, but a higher dose does not raise the risk any further.

Use of “Natural” Exposure Level to Form Exposure Categories

“*Natural*” exposure categories can be used if the *exposure data* fall into a dozen or fewer categories and the data set is sufficiently *large*.

For example, if in our data set the number of *cups of coffee* consumed per day ranges from **0 to 10 cups**, these “*natural*” 11 categories could be used for *dose-response* analysis if the data set is *large*.

Caution! for statistical reasons we should *avoid using so many categories that there are zero, or very few, subjects in some of them*, making some *I* or *CI* estimates **0** or very “*unstable*” (imprecise).

Inventing Categories When there are Too Many Natural Categories

In situations when the raw data on exposure are recorded on a virtually *continuous* scale (e.g., BP, cholesterol level, grams of food intake) the investigator must **group** the subjects into a small number of *E levels* (often, **3, 4 or 5**).

The “ile” method: divide your subjects into categories of approximately *uniform* size to form *tertiles* (**3 levels**), *quartiles* (**4 levels**) or *quintiles* (**5 levels**) so that there are 3, 4 or 5 levels on which to judge *dose-response*.

How Convincing is the Evidence of Dose-Response in this Data Set?

E level (cigs/day)	People	Cases	CI	CIR=CI _E /CI ₁
1. 0	50	1	.020	1.0 (Referent)
2. 1-9	80	2	.025	1.25
3. 10-19	70	3	.043	2.15
4. 20-29	90	5	.056	2.8
5. 30-39	40	4	.100	5.0
6. 40+	40	5	.125	6.25

In this table, the E levels, People, and Cases data are *given* to you.

The *CI*s are calculated as Cases / People and the *CIR*s are calculated by dividing each *CI* by the **common referent CI** corresponding to E level 1 (0 cigs/day).

Be sure that you understand how the *CI*'s and *CIR*'s are calculated!

Choosing the Number of Categories of Exposure Level to Invent

If your data set is *small*, use few categories (but you need **at least 3 to evaluate dose-response**).

Larger data sets will allow a finer assessment of *dose* (or, “*exposure gradient*”) so that 5 or more categories may be used.

Often, additional categories **beyond 5** do not help in the evaluation of *dose-response* because the biological effects of very similar doses are negligible.

Graphical and Statistical Evaluation of Dose-Response

Draw a *graph* of *CIR* versus exposure level 1-6.

Regression techniques can be used to establish the “*best*” line that runs through the 6 data points.

The *slope* of the best regression line is statistically compared to the *slope* of a horizontal line (zero). The horizontal line indicates **no association** between *dose* and incidence. If the regression line **significantly differs** from the horizontal line, there is evidence of a **positive association** (*I* or *CI* rises with increasing *E*) or an **inverse association** (*I* or *CI* falls with increasing *E*).

Mantel Extension Test, \hat{R} for Linear Trend

For *stratified* data (incidence according to *dose*), the “**Mantel Extension Test of \hat{R} for a Linear Trend**” (covered in lab) is used to assess whether an observed trend (*dose-response* relationship) as seen graphically is **statistically significant**.

A **limitation** of this statistical test is that it comes out “**significant**” for **any** scatter of points that looks non-random (non-null). A significant result does not necessarily mean that the dose-response is **linear**; it simply means there is some sort of relationship (linear, curvilinear, other) between *RR* and dose, **not independence**.

--JW (follow08)