

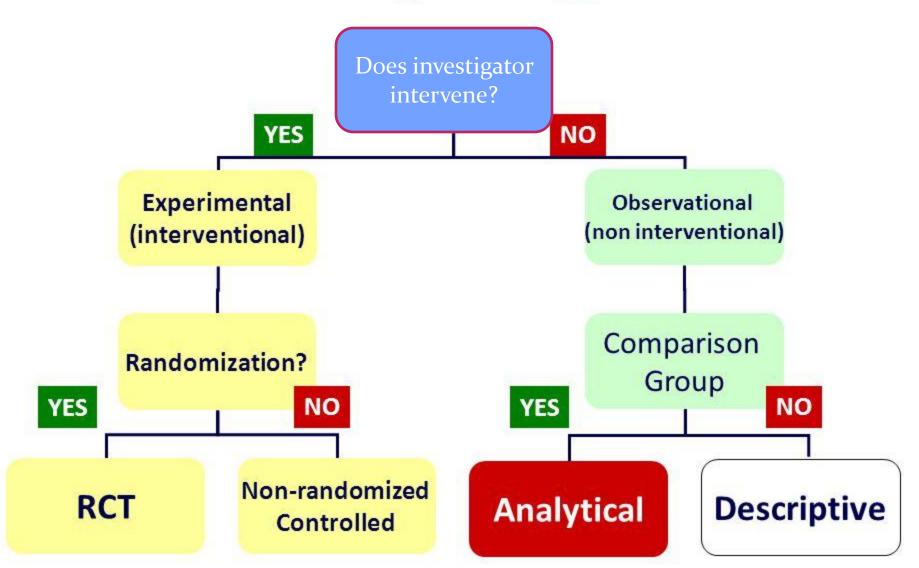


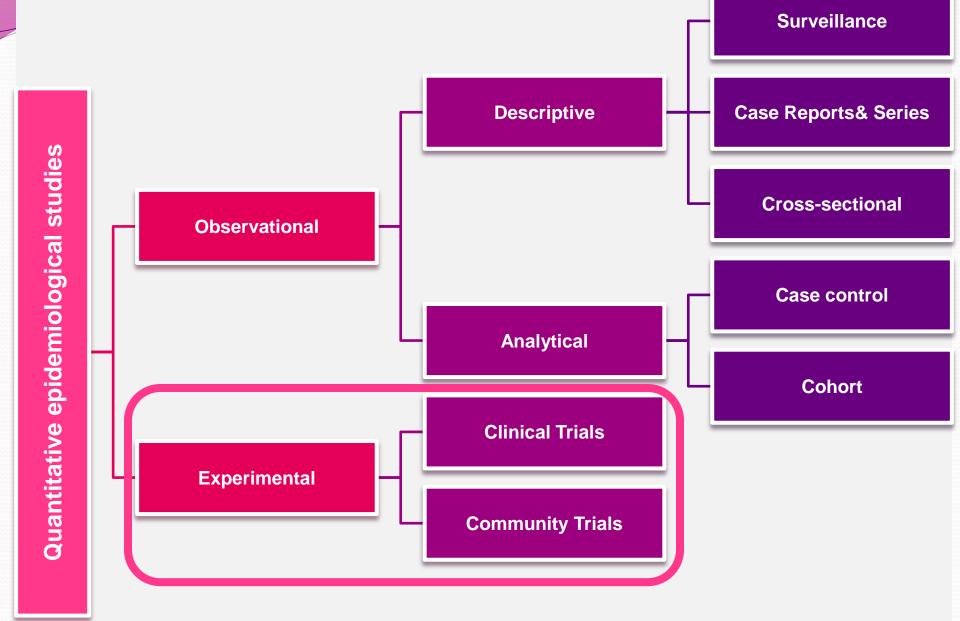
EXPERIMENTAL (INTERVENTION)





Study Designs





Experimental (Intervention) studies: (Proving cause-effect relationship)

It involves an <u>active attempt to change</u> a variable in one or more group of people.

They can be considered as <u>a type of prospective</u> <u>cohort study</u>, because participant are identified on the basis of their <u>exposure status</u> & followed to determine whether they develop the <u>outcome</u> or not but the scientists in experimental study <u>controls the exposure</u> not to be left for chance like cohort study.



Ethical points must be considered





It should have beneficial effect to patients, not to harm anyone by intervention



Participants should know what the experiment is and have the right to refuse



If any unplanned complications occur to any participant he should be excluded from the trial and treated.

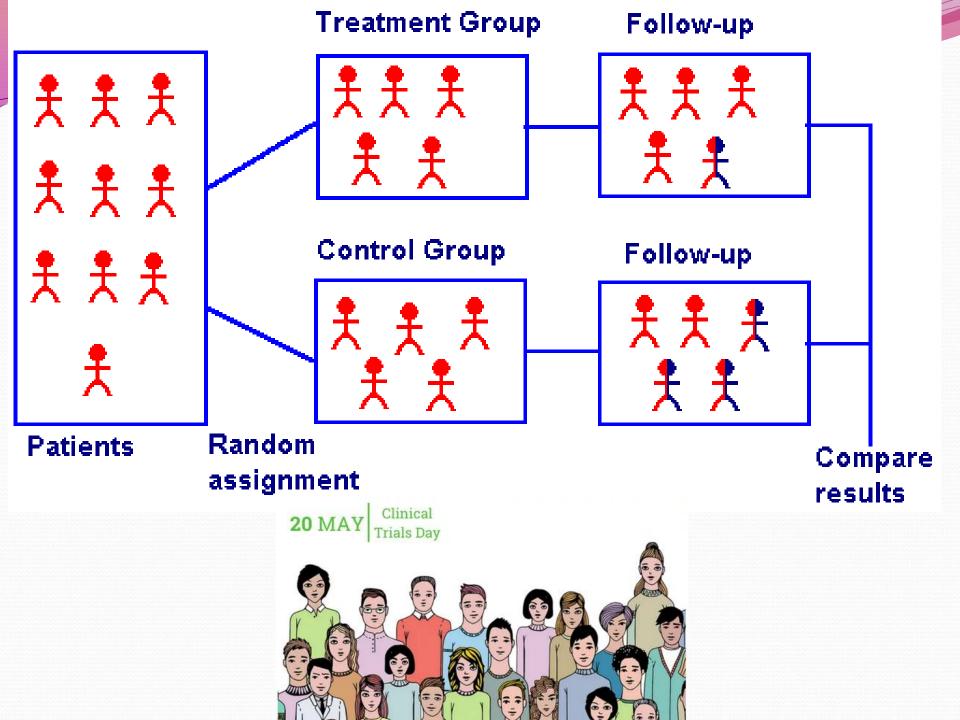


1) Clinical Trials

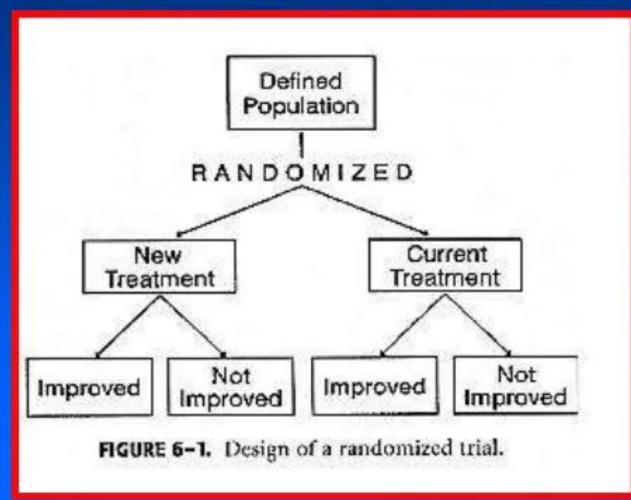
It is usually used to assess the efficacy of a new line of treatment (a new drug for example) or to compare 2 types of treatments (surgical or medical).

The diseased subjects are randomly allocated into 2 groups, <u>"treatment" group</u> (who are given the new drug) & <u>"control group"</u> (who are given the usual treatment or no treatment as placebo).

The results are assessed by comparing the health improvement of the 2 groups at the end.



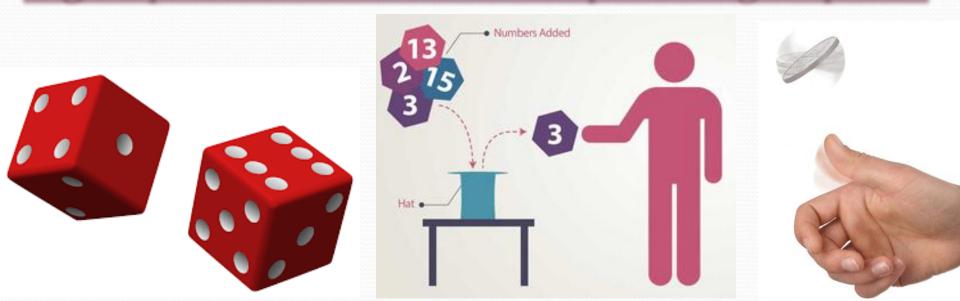
Design of a Randomized Clinical Trial



Randomization

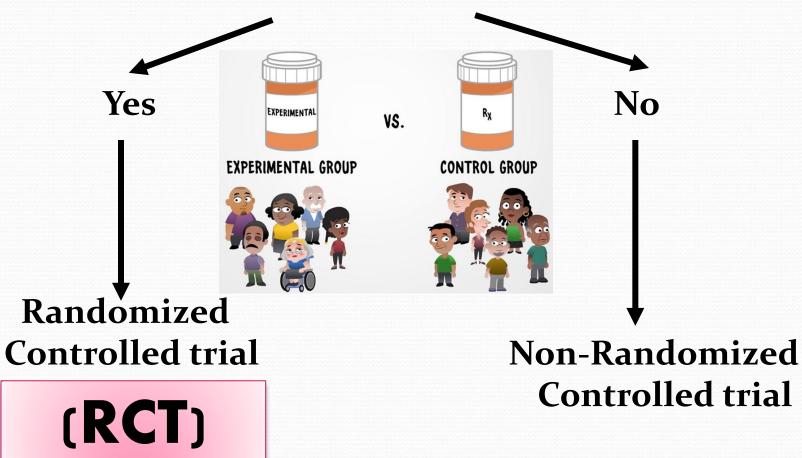
• By use of **random table**. It is the most convenient way.

• e.g. odds number assigned to the treatment group & even number to the placebo group.



RANDOMIZATION

Random Allocation ?



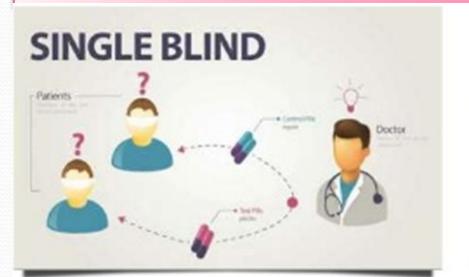
Matching

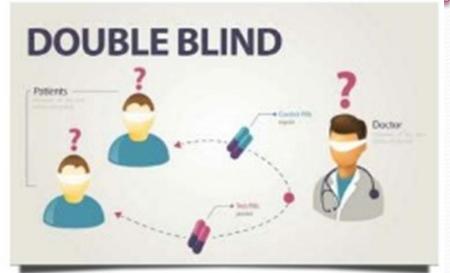
- A matched pair design used to arrange explicitly that the treatment & control groups are similar for the main variables such as age, sex.
- Participants are paired and one from each pair is allocated randomly to either group this matching should be preserved till the level of data analysis.



Single – Double Blind Designs

- A single blind design is when the investigator knows the preparation but not the participants.
- In double blind method, both the investigator & the participants do not know the intervention. A 3rd person (designer) only knows. It assures fair unbiased selection.





Basic types of RCT

1. Preventive trials

2. Intervention trials

3. Therapeutic trials

1.PREVENTIVE TRIALS

Also known as prophylactic trials

- Focus on individuals without the study disease (i.e, those in the stage of susceptibility).
- Purpose: to determine if a particular intervention reduces the risk of some adverse outcome.

Ex:

A preventive trial was conducted at the Stanford University school of Medicine to see if reducing the use of television, video tape and video games among a sample of elementary school students reduces obesity. Result showed significant reduction in BMI triceps skin fold thickness, waist circumference and waist to hip ratio among the experimental studies compared to the controls

2.INTERVENTION TRIALS

- These RCT's focus on high risk individuals (i.e., those in the stage of presymptomatic disease)
- Purpose: to test intervention to see if they can forestall disease development.

► Ex:

A trial to determine the efficacy of treating HTN individuals with ascorbic acid to lower BP might be considered an intervention trail to forestall the development of heart disease and stroke.

3.THERAPEUTIC TRIALS

Focus on patients with existing disease or disability (i.e., those in the stages of clinical disease are diminished capacity)

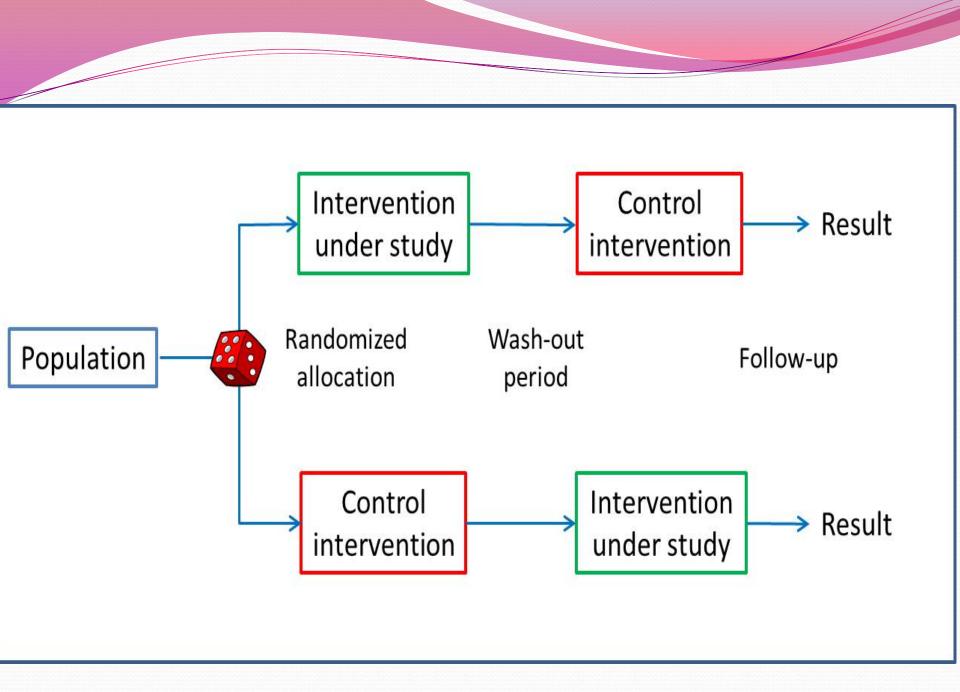
- Purpose: to test interventions that might cure disease or improve a patients quality of life.
- Commonly used in testing the new drugs and medical procedures.

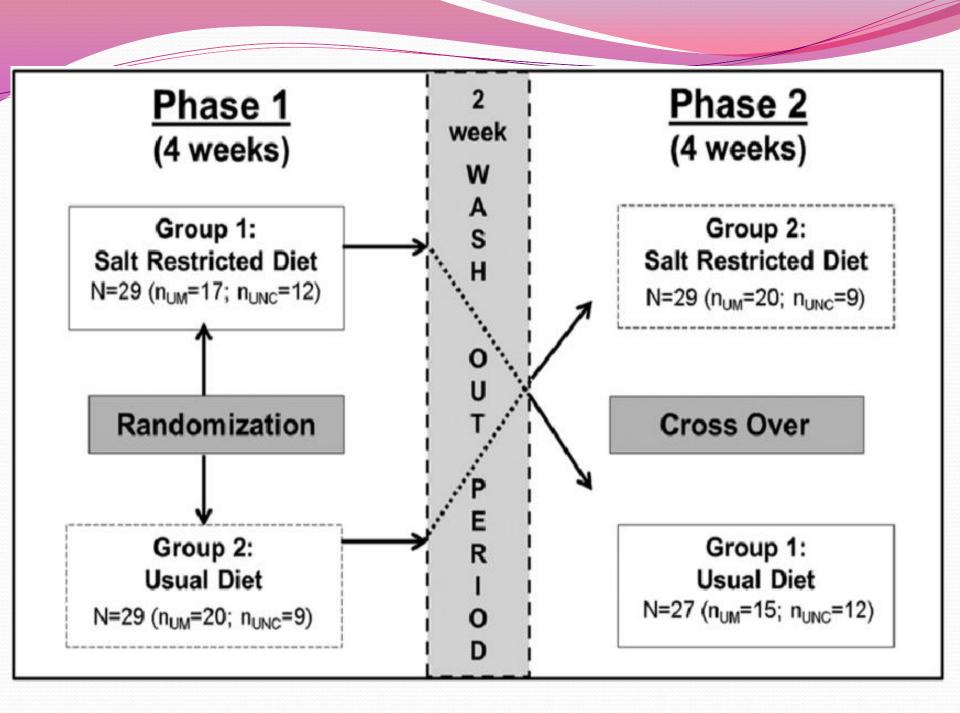
► Ex:

Effectiveness of manual physical therapy and exercise in osteo-arthritis of the knee

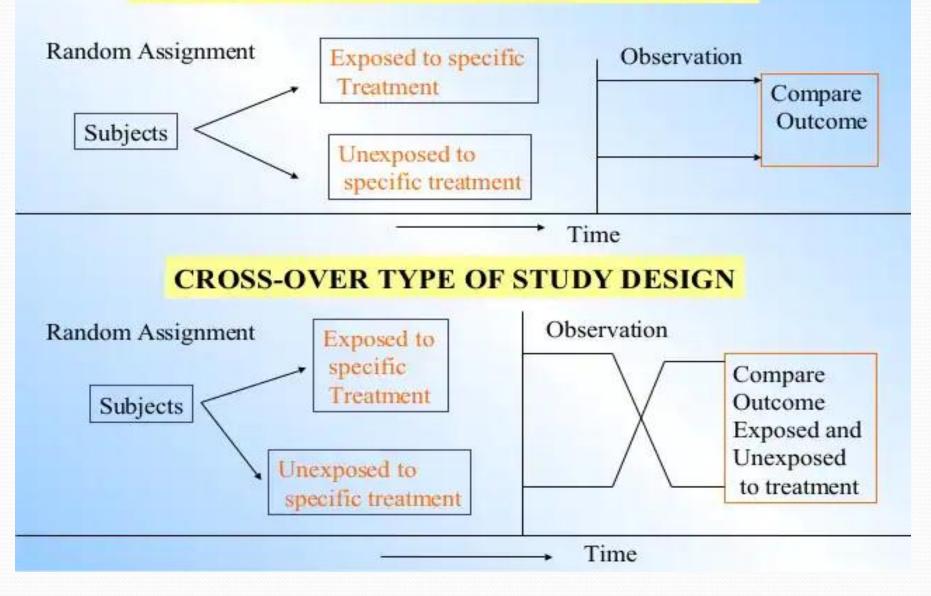
Cross-over design:

- In a clinical trial of short term benefits it may be appropriate to use participants as their selfcontrols.
- For example: the same participant shares in the first drug experiment then shares in the second drug experiment.
- This method will match the difference between participants.





CONCURRENT PARALLEL STUDY DESIGN



STRENGTHS

- They can demonstrate causal relationships with a high level of confidence due to tightly controlled conditions not possible in observational studies.
- They allow investigators to control the exposure levels as needed.

WEAKNESS

- They have limited applicability due to ethical considerations, It may be difficult to achieve adequate sample size requirements due to reliance on volunteers and strict eligibility criteria.
- They are usually costly and time consuming to implement.
- An ecological fallacy can occur if inferences based on the group data are made about individuals in the communities.



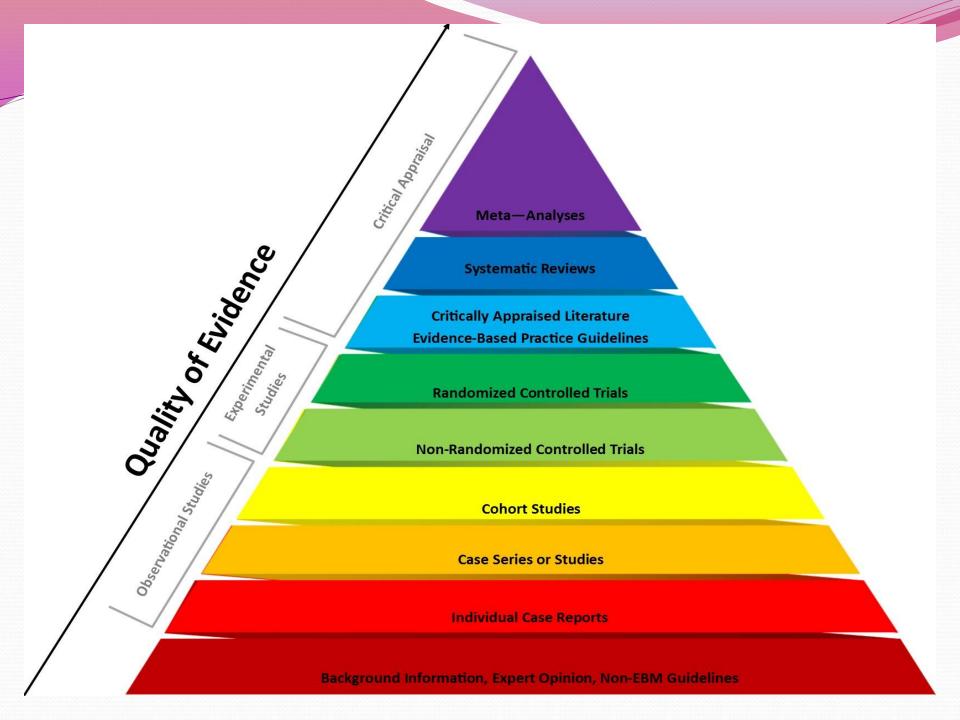
They involve <u>people who are not diseased</u> (but presumed likely to be at risk) & the <u>sample is</u> <u>drawn from the community.</u>

Data collection takes place in the field. For example: in studies carried out to <u>assess the</u> <u>efficacy of new vaccines.</u> The participants are divided into <u>2 groups</u>: 1st who is the <u>experimental group</u> (will take the new vaccine) and the 2nd is the <u>control group</u> (will not take the vaccine).

The participant will be followed to compare the level of occurrence of the disease in both groups. Therefore, these groups should be alike as much as possible in all aspects other than the treatment /intervention received.

CONCLUSION

One important advantage of experiments over observational studies is that well designed experiments can provide good evidence for causation.



RISK ASSESSMENT



Aim of risk assessment

- To measure the degree of **association** between certain risk factor and the occurrence of a disease
- To **quantify** this risk in order to provide preventive measures.



In cohort study

A group of individuals, some are exposed to certain risk factor and others are **not exposed**, are followed over time and the rate of occurrence of the disease among the two groups are compared. Therefore, we can calculate the incidence of occurrence of the disease among both groups. The ratio between the two incidences is called the **Relative Risk (RR).**

1- The relative risk (RR):

- Ratio of the incidence of the disease among exposed to the incidence of disease among non exposed.
- Measure of the strength of association between the suspected cause & the effects.

Interpretation of RR

< 1

 Risk in exposed less than nonexposed "-ve association; possible protective"

1

 Risk in exposed equal to nonexposed "no association"

>1

 Risk in exposed greater than nonexposed "+ve association; possible casual"

2- Attributable Risk (AR)

- AR is the portion of disease incidence in the exposed that is due to the exposure "the excess risk due to specific factor".
- Therefore = the incidence of a disease in the exposed that would be eliminated if the exposure were eliminated.
- AR = risk(incidence) in exposed risk(incidence) in non-exposed which provides the risk difference
 AR = Ie - I0

Example: to study the association between smoking & cancer lung, a cohort of 200 workers was followed for one year and the following was found:

Cigarette smoking	+ve	-ve	Total
	lung cancer	lung cancer	
Yes	35	65	100
No	5	95	100

The incidence of cancer among smokers=35/100 The incidence of cancer among non-smokers=5/100

RR=0.35/0.05=7

meaning that smokers are at risk of cancer lung 7 times more than nonsmokers.

AR=0.35-0.05=0.3

meaning that smoking increase risk of cancer lung by 0.3 (30%).

Case-control study

The sampling is carried according to **disease** rather than exposure status. A group of individuals are identified as having the disease (the **cases**) is compared with a group of individuals not having the disease (the **control**) and their status of prior exposure to a certain factor is assessed. Information about incidence among exposure and nonexposure cannot be calculated.

No. of diseased among exposed/ No. of not diseased and exposed

OR=

No. of diseased among non-exposed/ No. of not diseased and non-

exposed

Exposure	Di	Disease	
	Cases	Control	
Exposed	a	b	
Not Exposed	c	d	
Total	a+c	b+d	

ad

bc

OR =

How to calculate the odds ratio?

What is the odds that a case is being exposed?

a	÷	C	=	a
a +c		a+c		C

What is the odds that a control is being exposed?

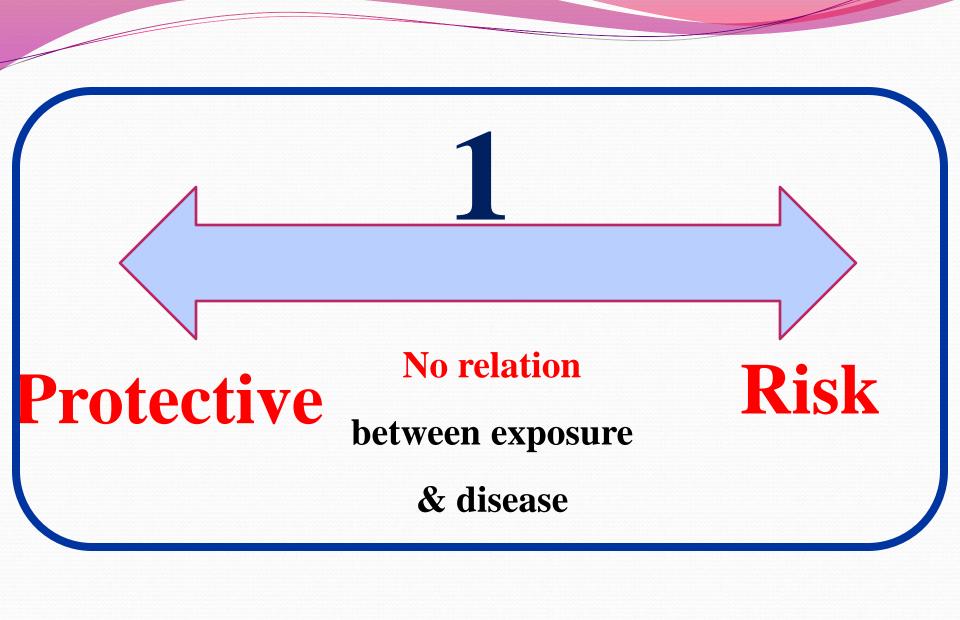
$$\frac{\mathbf{b}}{\mathbf{b}+\mathbf{d}} \stackrel{\div}{=} \frac{\mathbf{d}}{\mathbf{b}+\mathbf{d}} = \frac{\mathbf{b}}{\mathbf{d}}$$

What is the estimated risk (odds ratio)?

- $\underline{\mathbf{a}} \div \underline{\mathbf{b}} = \underline{\mathbf{a}} \mathbf{d}$
- c d b c

An odds ratio of

1.0 or (≈ 1.0)	 Means that the odds of exposure among cases is the same as the odds of exposure among controls 	 The exposure is <u>not</u> <u>associated</u> with the disease.
> 1.0	 Means that the odds of exposure among cases is greater than the odds of exposure among controls. 	 The exposure may be <u>a risk factor</u> for the disease
< 1.0	 Means that the odds of exposure among cases is lower than the odds of exposure among controls 	 The exposure may be protective against the disease.



Example: to study the association between smoking & cancer lung, a cohort of 200 workers was followed for one year and the following was found:

Cigarette smoking	+ve lung cancer	-ve lung cancer	Total
Yes	35	65	100
No	5	95	100

 $OR = 35/65 \div 5/95 = 10.23$ which is different from the **relative risk**. Therefore **OR** should be used cautiously

