

Personal notes - epidemiology

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Welcome

1 Intro

1.1 Longitudinal studies

Longitudinal studies are defined as studies in which the outcome variable is repeatedly measured; i.e. the outcome variable is measured in the same subject on several occasions. – Extracted from Twisk (2013)

Characteristics:

- Observations of one subject over time are not independent of each other.
- Statistics should consider that repeated observations of each subject are correlated.
- These studies bring the illusion that they are solving causality but only we can try temporality.

number of subjects | $i = 1 \text{ to } N$ |

number of covariates | $j = 1 \text{ to } J$ |

number of times a particular subject is measured | $t = 1 \text{ to } T$ |

outcome variable | Y |

covariates | X |

: Statistical notation

1.2 Cohort studies

1.2.1 Observational cohort studies

The question of probable causality remains unanswered.

can be divided into:

* **prospective.** * The only one that can be characterized as longitudinal.

* Analyze the longitudinal development of a certain characteristic over time (growth or deterioration).

* **tracking:** “stability” of a certain characteristic over time.

- **retrospective.**
- **cross-sectional.**

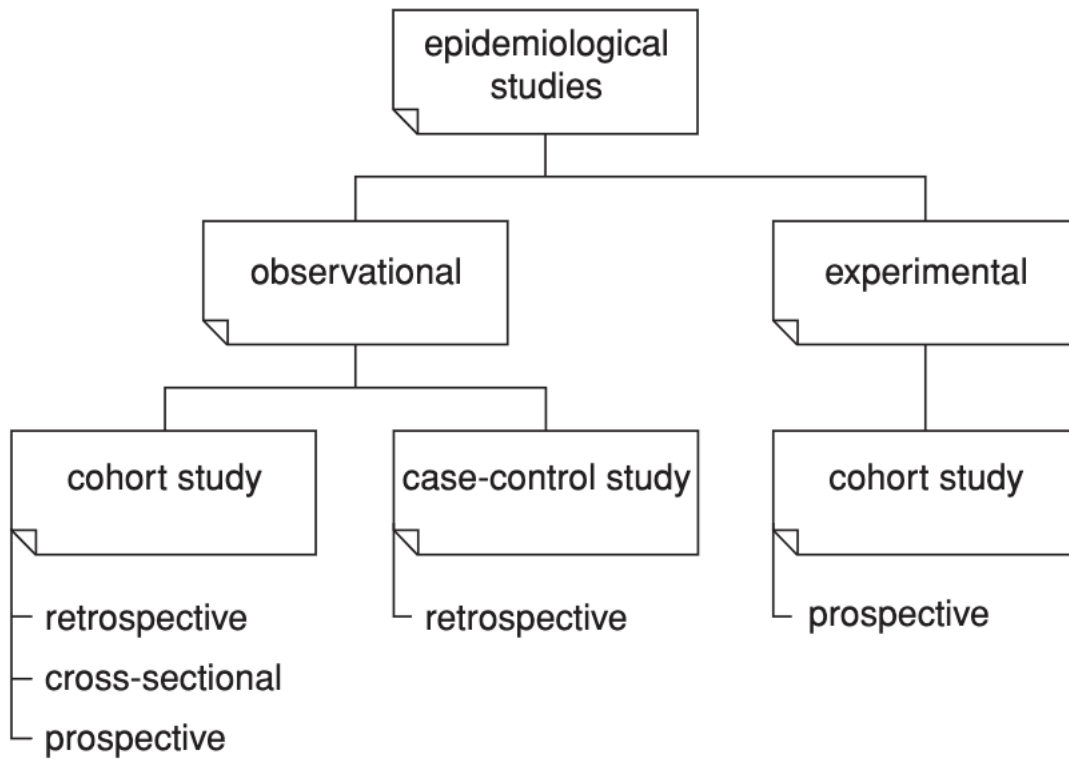


Figure 1.1: Image extracted from Twisk (2013)

| Term | Definition |
|--------------|--------------------------------------------------|
| age | time from date of birth to date of measurement |
| period | time or moment at which the measurement is taken |
| birth cohort | group of subjects born in the same year |

1.2.1.1 Confounding Effects

age, *period* and *cohort* effects could produce variations in the results.

- **period effect.**
If we measure physical activity during summers, it is likely that we can have more physical activity a hot summer than a rainy one. This can produce a bias in the age trend.
- **cohort effect.** If we want to unify results for the same age for cohorts that start at different ages, we will find that the trend is much flatter than the effects of the cohorts in isolation.

One way to avoid the bias is to use an approach called *multiple longitudinal design*. Basically, multiple longitudinal design is to work with more than one cohort at the same time. If all the cohorts show a defined pattern for a particular measure in time, we will be able to detect it with this approach.

- Test or learning effect. Individuals start performing better with exposure.
- Low reproducibility of the measurements. Inter-period correlation coefficients (IPCs) (van 't Hof and Kowalski, 1979)

1.2.2 Experimental cohort studies (clinical trials)

- There are prospective (ie longitudinal).
- The outcome variable Y is measured at least twice (the classical “pre-test,” “post-test” design).
- The issue of causality can be covered

1.3 Continuous outcome variables

1.3.1 Two measurements

Is there a difference in the outcome variable Y between $t = 1$ and $t = 2$

The **paired t-test** is used to test the hypothesis that the mean difference between Y_{t1} and Y_{t2} equals zero.

- Observations within one individual are dependent on each other.

stringhini, 2018

Premature mortality reduction from chronic diseases

Biological Risk factors - high blood pressure - obesity - tobacco use - excess salt intake - diabetes - insufficient physical activity - alcohol consumption

Socioeconomic status - occupational group - educational attainment - level of income and wealth - place of residence

1.4 General Additive Mixed Model (GAMM)

semi-parametric model

Let's start with an equation for a Gaussian linear model:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \epsilon, \quad \epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$$

What changes in a GAM is the presence of a smoothing term:

$$y = \beta_0 + f(x_1) + \epsilon, \quad \epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$$

This term could be many things.

1.4.1 Walking speed and age

Fixed Effects Predictors - age - height

Random Effect - study at the intercept and age slope

1.4.2 Number of years of functioning lost (primary outcome)

It is based on the predictions of the previous model

Fixed Effects - age - age² - height - year of birth - distances walked - risk factor under study (minimally adjusted model) - all risk factors (mutually adjusted models)

CI - Model based parametric 5000 bootstrap samples

1.4.3 Years of life lost (secondary outcome)

Difference between the areas of the survival curves. Survival curves Kaplan-Meier adjusted curves, conditional on survival to age 60 years. They run a shared frailty Cox model with age as time scale, stratified by the levels of the given risk factor and a year of birth as covariate (for minimally adjusted models) or year of birth and the remaining risk factors as covariates (mutually adjusted models)

schrempft 2022

1.5 Pace of aging

similar to Dunedin Study investigators

1 - Biomarkers were standardized for healthy men and women. Z-scores were reversed for HDL and creatinine clearance.

2 - Mixed-effects models with a random intercept and a random linear slope, were used to calculate participants' personal slopes (change in biomarkers per year) Each year included time, age a t baseline center in the samples mean, and a interaction term between the time and age at the baseline. For biomarkers that show a non linear trajectory, an additionally

3 - The individual slopes for each biomarker (annual change in biomarker Z-score) wee aggregated to create a total Pace of Aging score.

Covariates: - Alcohol > 14 units - hipertensive or diabetic medication - pysical inactivity - smoking status

carmeli, 2019

1.6 Terms

Table 1.2: Terms used in this analysis

| Term | Definition |
|----------------------------------------|------------|
| non-communicable diseases/risk factors | 12 |
| spline | |
| cross-sectional study | |
| longitudinal study | |

2 References

3 Summary

In summary, this book has no content whatsoever.

1 + **1**

[1] 2

References

Twisk, Jos W. R. 2013. *Applied Longitudinal Data Analysis for Epidemiology: A Practical Guide*. 2nd ed. Cambridge University Press.