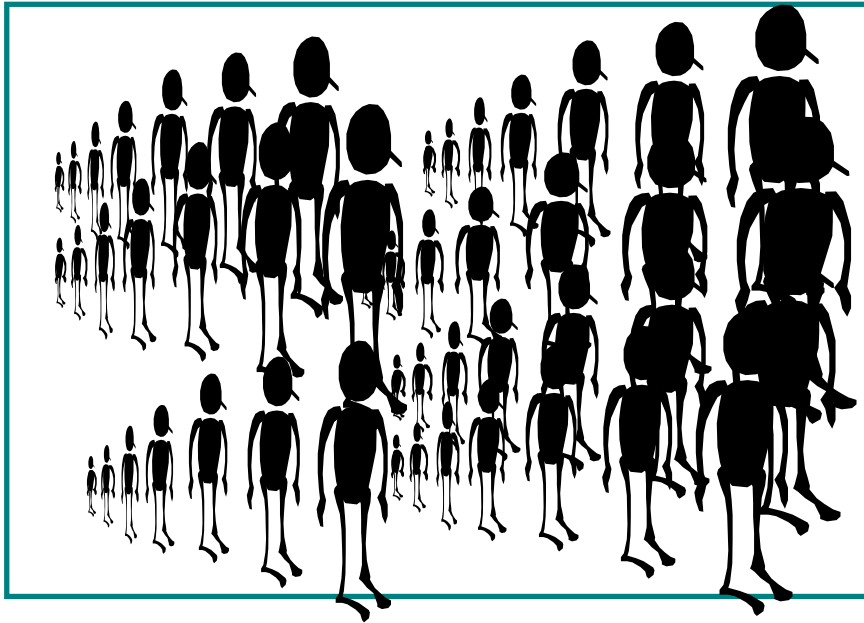

Epidemiological methods - strengths and limitations as applied to health effects of electromagnetic fields

Maria Feychting

Institute of Environmental Medicine,
Karolinska Institutet, SWEDEN.



Follow over time



Cohort studies

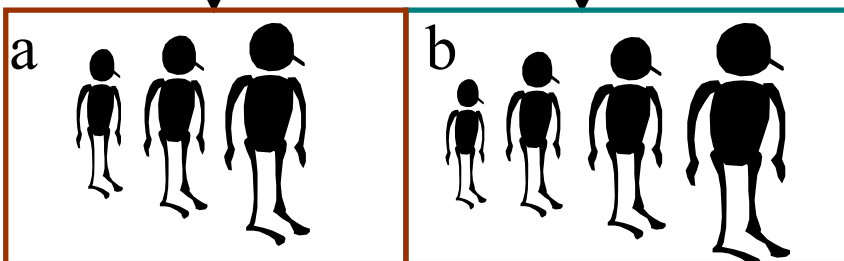
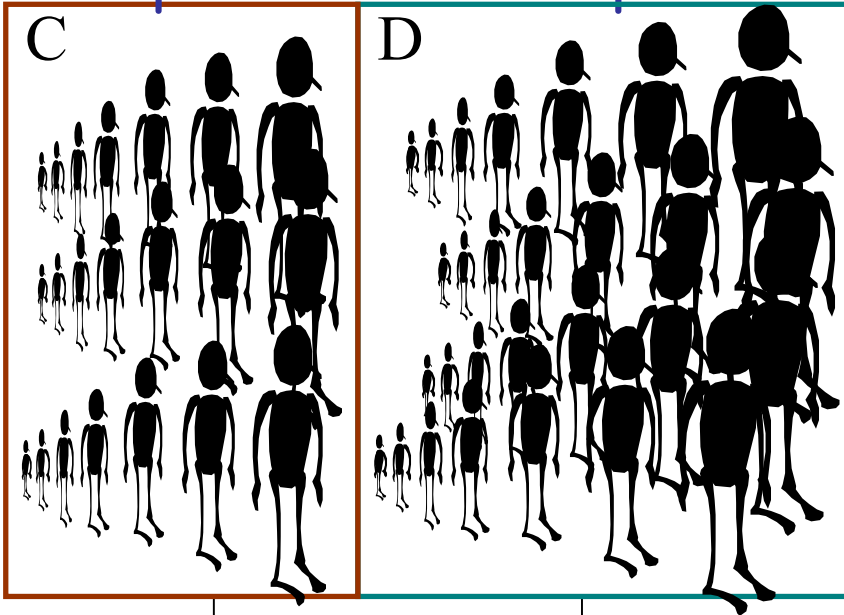
- ◆ A defined population is followed over time with regard to disease occurrence.

Cohort studies

- ◆ Exposure must be determined for *all* persons included in the cohort

Exposed

Unexposed



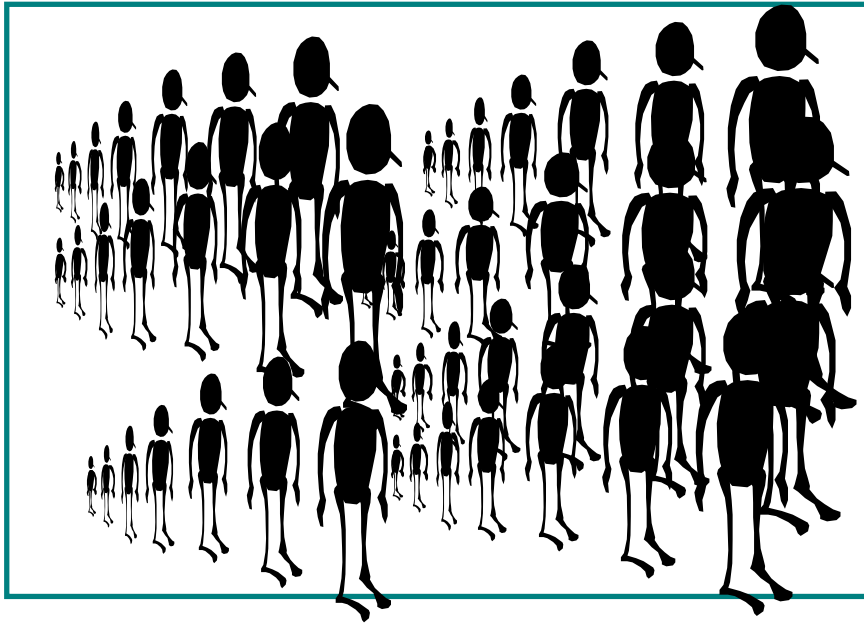
Follow over time



Cases must be identified independently of the exposure

◆ Disease occurrence among exposed are compared to that among unexposed

$$RR = \frac{a/C}{b/D}$$

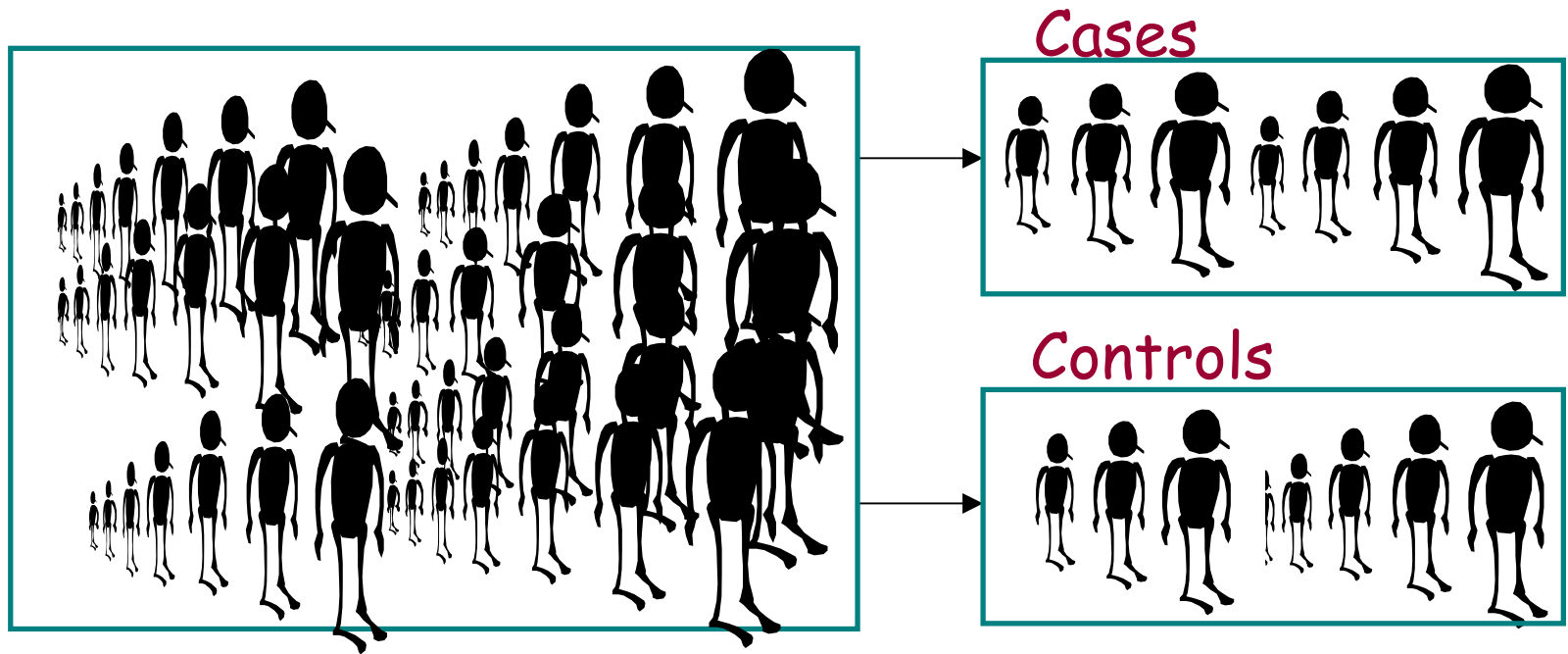


Follow over time

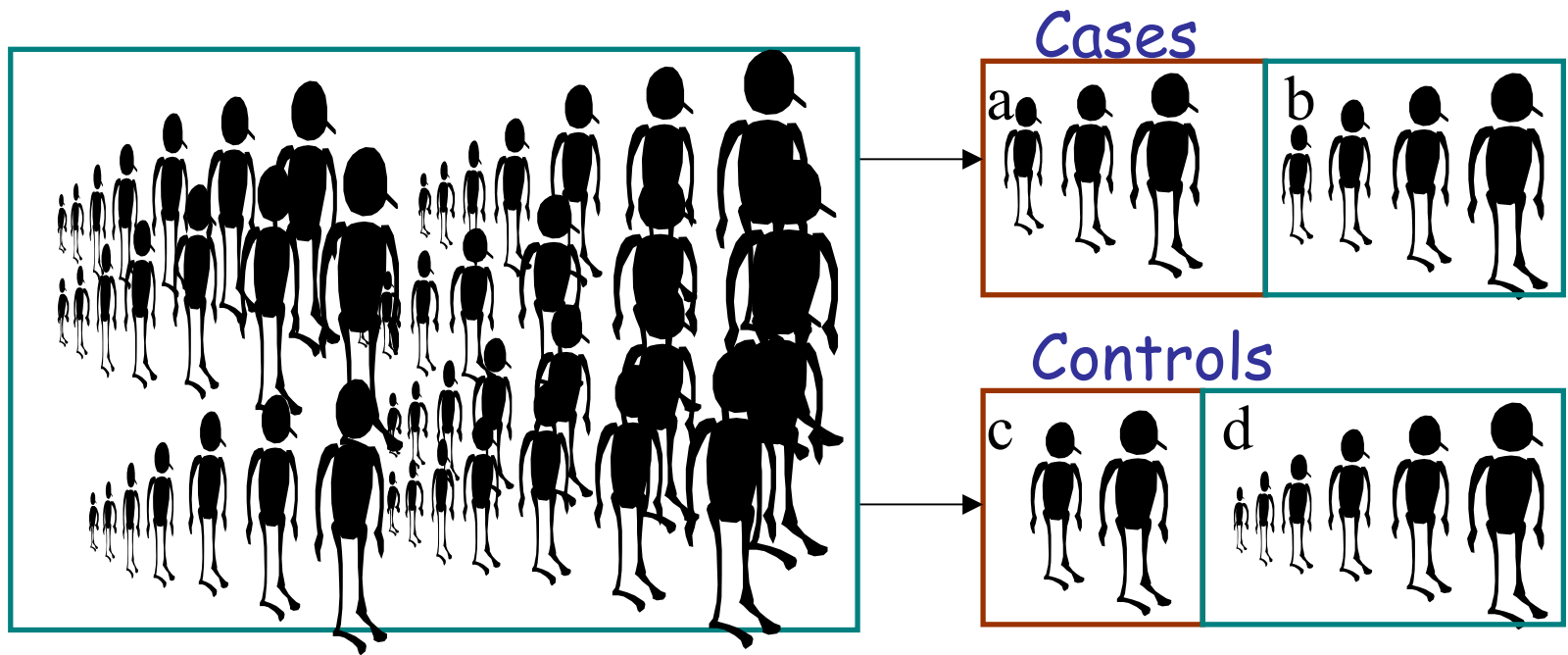


Case-control studies

- ◆ A defined population is followed over time with regard to disease occurrence.



- ◆ *All cases* in the studied population must be identified
- ◆ Controls are selected randomly from the same population



◆ Exposure is determined for cases and controls

Exposure must be determined independently of case/control status

$$RR = \frac{a/c}{b/d} = \frac{a/d}{b/c}$$

Sources of bias

◆ Selection bias

- when the probability of being included in the study is related to both exposure and disease

◆ Misclassification

- of exposure or disease

◆ Confounding

Selection bias

- ◆ Usually not a problem in cohort studies
 - Can be a problem in retrospective cohort studies
- ◆ Control selection in case-control studies
 - controls must be a representative sample of the population that have generated the cases

Control selection

◆ Hospital based

- + Higher participation rates

- Patients in a hospital not a random sample of the population

◆ Population based

- + Representative sample of the population

- Lower participation rates

- non-participants are not a random sample of the population

Misclassification of exposure

- ◆ Non-differential: independent of the disease
 - leads to diluted effect estimates: $RR \rightarrow 1$
 - exception: intermediate categories when polychotomous exposure, distort dose-response pattern
 - magnitude of bias depends on:
 - prevalence of the exposure & sensitivity and specificity of exposure assessment method

When exposure is rare

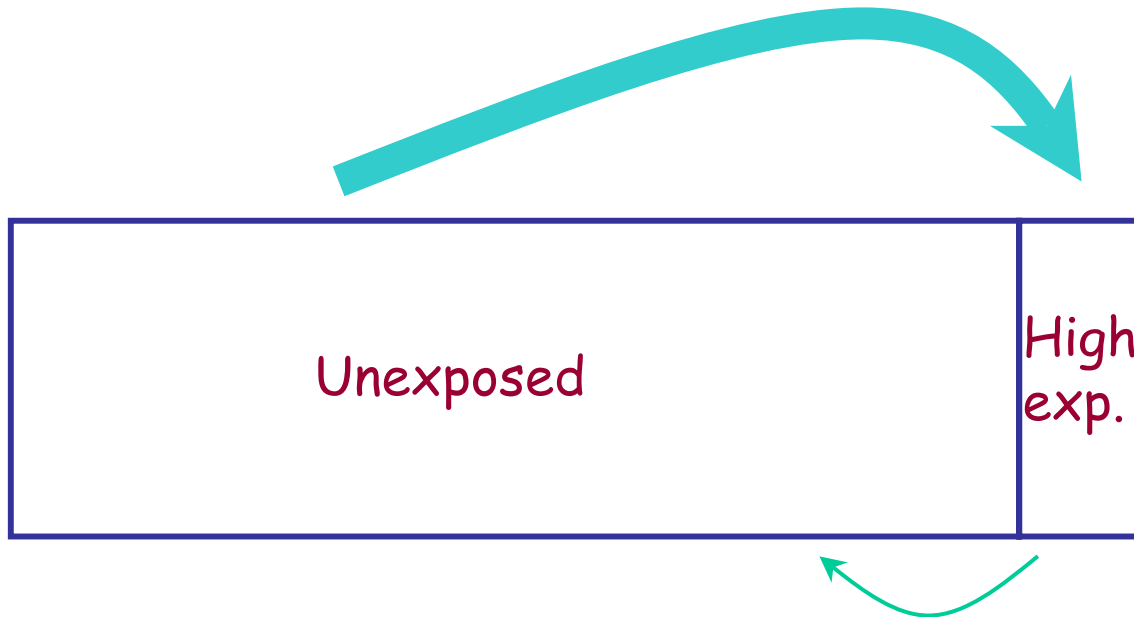
- ◆ High *specificity* of exposure estimate important
Specificity = probability that unexposed individual is classified as unexposed
- ◆ Even a slight reduction in specificity may dilute risk estimate *considerably*
- ◆ Not important to find everyone that is exposed
 - misclassification of exposed subjects as unexposed does not affect results much

Non-differential exposure misclassification

Example: 2% exposure prevalence, true RR=2

		<i>Sensitivity</i>				
		1.0	0.8	0.6	0.4	0.2
<i>Specificity</i>	1.0	2.00	1.99	1.98	1.98	1.97
	0.8	1.09	1.07	1.05	1.02	1.00
	0.6	1.05	1.03	1.02	1.00	
	0.4	1.03	1.02	1.00		
	0.2	1.02	1.00			

Non-differential exposure misclassification



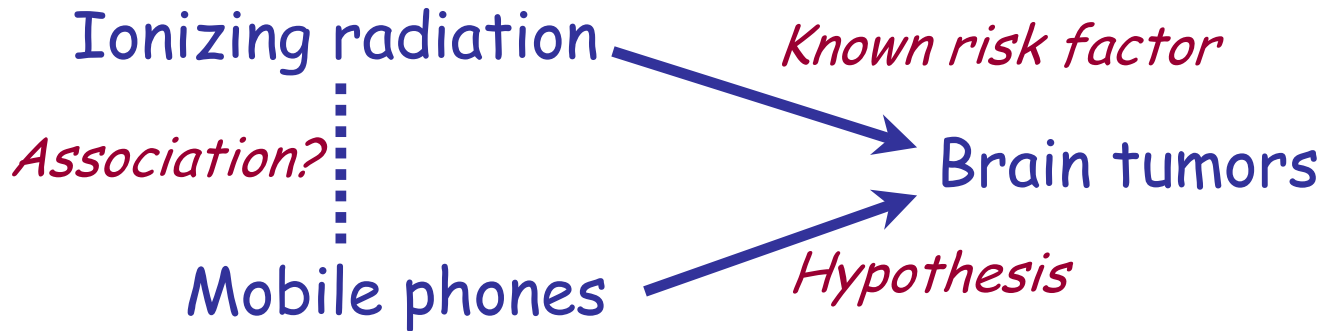
Differential exposure misclassification

- ◆ Can affect risk estimate in any direction
- ◆ Exposure information must be collected in a similar way for both cases and controls
- ◆ "Recall bias" may lead to differential exposure misclassification
 - "objective" source of information better, i.e. registry

Confounding

- ◆ A confounder must be related **both** to the exposure and to the disease
- ◆ A known risk factor for the disease is not necessarily a confounder

Confounding?



To fully explain an observed association:

- Stronger association between disease and confounder
- Strong association between confounder and exposure

Statistical power

- ◆ Number of *exposed cases* determines power:

Childhood leukemia and ELF-EMF

UK study: 1100 cases

$\geq 0.4 \mu\text{T}$: 5 cases

Swedish study: 38 cases

$\geq 0.4 \mu\text{T}$: 5 cases

Mobile phones and brain tumors

Danish cohort: >400,000

154 cases

Exposed ≥ 5 years 24 cases

Finnish case control: 398 cases

5 controls/case

≥ 2 years 18 cases