# Nordic Summerschool of Cancer Epidemiology

Bendix Carstensen Steno Diabetes Center

Gentofte, Denmark

http://BendixCarstensen.com

Esa Läärä University of Oulu

Oulu, Finland

Danish Cancer Society / NCU, August 2022 / January 2023

http://BendixCarstensen.com/NSCE/2022

## Introduction

#### Bendix Carstensen & Esa Läärä

Nordic Summerschool of Cancer Epidemiology Danish Cancer Society / NCU, August 2022 / January 2023

http://BendixCarstensen.com/NSCE/2022

IS: dos Santos Silva, I. (1999).

Cancer Epidemiology: Principles and Methods. IARC, Lyon.

IS: dos Santos Silva, I. (1999).

Cancer Epidemiology: Principles and Methods. IARC, Lyon.

B&D: Breslow, N.E., Day, N.E. (1987).

Statistical Methods in Cancer Research Volume II – The Design and Analysis of Cohort Studies.

IARC Scientific Publications No. 82, IARC, Lyon.

- IS: dos Santos Silva, I. (1999).

  Cancer Epidemiology: Principles and Methods. IARC, Lyon.
- B&D: Breslow, N.E., Day, N.E. (1987).

  Statistical Methods in Cancer Research Volume II The Design and Analysis of Cohort Studies.

  IARC Scientific Publications No. 82, IARC, Lyon.
- C&H: Clayton, D., Hills, M. (1993).

  Statistical Models in Epidemiology. OUP, Oxford.

- IS: dos Santos Silva, I. (1999).

  Cancer Epidemiology: Principles and Methods. IARC, Lyon.
- B&D: Breslow, N.E., Day, N.E. (1987).

  Statistical Methods in Cancer Research Volume II The Design and Analysis of Cohort Studies.

  IARC Scientific Publications No. 82, IARC, Lyon.
- C&H: Clayton, D., Hills, M. (1993).

  Statistical Models in Epidemiology. OUP, Oxford.
- BxC: Carstensen, B (2021).

  Epidemiology with R. OUP, Oxford.

  http://bendixcarstensen.com/EwR

#### Internet resources on cancer statistics

NORDCAN: Cancer Incidence and Mortality in the Nordic Countries, Version 4.0. Association of Nordic Cancer Registries, Danish Cancer Society, 2002. http://www-dep.iarc.fr/nordcan.htm

NORDCAN is a graphical package providing data on the incidence of, and mortality from 40 major cancers for 80 regions of the Nordic countries (Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden). Using NORDCAN, these data can be presented as a variety of tables and graphs that can be easily exported or printed. NORDCAN allows countries and cancer sites to be grouped and compared as desired.

#### Internet resources on cancer statistics

NORDCAN: Cancer Incidence and Mortality in the Nordic Countries, Version 4.0. Association of Nordic Cancer Registries, Danish Cancer Society, 2002. http://www-dep.iarc.fr/nordcan.htm

NORDCAN is a graphical package providing data on the incidence of, and mortality from 40 major cancers for 80 regions of the Nordic countries (Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden). Using NORDCAN, these data can be presented as a variety of tables and graphs that can be easily exported or printed. NORDCAN allows countries and cancer sites to be grouped and compared as desired.

GLOBOCAN 2008: Cancer Incidence and Mortality Worldwide in 2008 http://globocan.iarc.fr/

## **Basic Concepts**

Bendix Carstensen & Esa Läärä

Nordic Summerschool of Cancer Epidemiology Danish Cancer Society / NCU, August 2022 / January 2023

http://BendixCarstensen.com/NSCE/2022

#### What is Epidemiology?

Some textbook definitions of epidemiology: Greek: *epi* = upon, *demos* = people

"study of the distribution and determinants of disease frequency in man" (MacMahon and Pugh, 1970)

## What is Epidemiology?

Some textbook definitions of epidemiology: Greek: *epi* = upon, *demos* = people

- "study of the distribution and determinants of disease frequency in man" (MacMahon and Pugh, 1970)
- "study of the distribution and determinants of health related states and events in specified populations,..." (Last (ed.) Dictionary of Epidemiology, 2000)

## What is Epidemiology?

Some textbook definitions of epidemiology: Greek: *epi* = upon, *demos* = people

- "study of the distribution and determinants of disease frequency in man" (MacMahon and Pugh, 1970)
- "study of the distribution and determinants of health related states and events in specified populations,..." (Last (ed.) Dictionary of Epidemiology, 2000)
- "discipline on principles of occurrence research in medicine" (Miettinen, 1985)

descriptive epidemiology

- descriptive epidemiology
  - monitoring & surveillance of diseases for planning of health services

- descriptive epidemiology
  - monitoring & surveillance of diseases for planning of health services
  - ▶ a major activity of cancer registries, and other health data collectors

- descriptive epidemiology
  - monitoring & surveillance of diseases for planning of health services
  - ▶ a major activity of cancer registries, and other health data collectors
- **etiologic** or "analytic" epidemiology:

- descriptive epidemiology
  - monitoring & surveillance of diseases for planning of health services
  - ▶ a major activity of cancer registries, and other health data collectors
- etiologic or "analytic" epidemiology:
  - study of cause-effect relationships

▶ **disease** epidemiologies — *e.g.* of cancer, cardiovascular diseases, infectious diseases, musculoskeletal disorders, mental health, . . .

- ▶ **disease** epidemiologies *e.g.* of cancer, cardiovascular diseases, infectious diseases, musculoskeletal disorders, mental health, . . .
- determinant-based epidemiologies

- ▶ **disease** epidemiologies *e.g.* of cancer, cardiovascular diseases, infectious diseases, musculoskeletal disorders, mental health, . . .
- determinant-based epidemiologies
  - occupational epidemiology

- ▶ **disease** epidemiologies *e.g.* of cancer, cardiovascular diseases, infectious diseases, musculoskeletal disorders, mental health, . . .
- determinant-based epidemiologies
  - occupational epidemiology
  - nutritional epidemiology

- ▶ **disease** epidemiologies *e.g.* of cancer, cardiovascular diseases, infectious diseases, musculoskeletal disorders, mental health, . . .
- determinant-based epidemiologies
  - occupational epidemiology
  - nutritional epidemiology

- ▶ **disease** epidemiologies *e.g.* of cancer, cardiovascular diseases, infectious diseases, musculoskeletal disorders, mental health, . . .
- ► determinant-based epidemiologies
  - occupational epidemiology
  - nutritional epidemiology
- clinical epidemiology

- ▶ **disease** epidemiologies *e.g.* of cancer, cardiovascular diseases, infectious diseases, musculoskeletal disorders, mental health, . . .
- determinant-based epidemiologies
  - occupational epidemiology
  - nutritional epidemiology
- clinical epidemiology
  - study of diagnosis, prognosis and effectiveness of therapies in patient populations

- ▶ **disease** epidemiologies *e.g.* of cancer, cardiovascular diseases, infectious diseases, musculoskeletal disorders, mental health, . . .
- determinant-based epidemiologies
  - occupational epidemiology
  - nutritional epidemiology
- clinical epidemiology
  - study of diagnosis, prognosis and effectiveness of therapies in patient populations
  - basis of evidence-based medicine

- ▶ **disease** epidemiologies *e.g.* of cancer, cardiovascular diseases, infectious diseases, musculoskeletal disorders, mental health, . . .
- determinant-based epidemiologies
  - occupational epidemiology
  - nutritional epidemiology
- clinical epidemiology
  - study of diagnosis, prognosis and effectiveness of therapies in patient populations
  - basis of evidence-based medicine
  - essential in health-services research

#### Cancer i Norden 1997 (NORDCAN)

Frequency of cancer (all sites excl. non-melanoma skin) in Nordic male populations expressed by different measures:

	New cases	Crude rate	ASR (World)	Cumul. risk	SIR
Denmark	11,787	452	281	27.8	104
Finland	10,058	<u>401</u>	269	26.5	101
Iceland	<u>633</u>	464	347	32.6	132
Norway	10,246	469	294	29.4	109
Sweden	19 908	455	<u>249</u>	<u>25.4</u>	<u>93</u>

#### Cancer i Norden 1997 (NORDCAN)

Frequency of cancer (all sites excl. non-melanoma skin) in Nordic male populations expressed by different measures:

	New cases	Crude rate	ASR (World)	Cumul. risk	SIR
 Denmark	11,787	452	281	27.8	104
Finland	10,058	<u>401</u>	269	26.5	101
Iceland	<u>633</u>	464	347	32.6	132
Norway	10,246	469	294	29.4	109
Sweden	19 908	455	<u>249</u>	<u>25.4</u>	<u>93</u>

▶ Where is the frequency truly **highest**, where **lowest**?

How many women in Denmark:

▶ are carriers of breast cancer today? — prevalence

- are carriers of breast cancer today? prevalence
- ▶ will contract a new breast ca. during 2007? incidence

- are carriers of breast cancer today? prevalence
- ▶ will contract a new breast ca. during 2007? incidence
- ▶ die from breast ca. in 2007? mortality

- are carriers of breast cancer today? prevalence
- ▶ will contract a new breast ca. during 2007? incidence
- ▶ die from breast ca. in 2007? mortality
- will be alive after 5 years since diagnosis among those getting breast ca. in 2007? — survival

- are carriers of breast cancer today? prevalence
- ▶ will contract a new breast ca. during 2007? incidence
- ▶ die from breast ca. in 2007? mortality
- will be alive after 5 years since diagnosis among those getting breast ca. in 2007? — survival
- ▶ are cured from breast cancer during 2007? cure

- are carriers of breast cancer today? prevalence
- ▶ will contract a new breast ca. during 2007? incidence
- ▶ die from breast ca. in 2007? mortality
- will be alive after 5 years since diagnosis among those getting breast ca. in 2007? — survival
- ▶ are cured from breast cancer during 2007? cure

How many women in Denmark:

- are carriers of breast cancer today? prevalence
- ▶ will contract a new breast ca. during 2007? incidence
- ▶ die from breast ca. in 2007? mortality
- will be alive after 5 years since diagnosis among those getting breast ca. in 2007? — survival
- ▶ are cured from breast cancer during 2007? cure

What are the proportions / rates of these? What is the **dimension** (units) of these measures?

#### What is risk?

What do we mean by "risk of disease S"?

- (a) probability of getting S during a given risk period
  - → incidence probability, (cumulative risk over the period)

- (a) probability of getting S during a given risk period
   → incidence probability, (cumulative risk over the period)
- (b) rate of that probability (relative to risk period)
  - $\rightarrow \textbf{hazard} \ \text{or intensity},$

- (a) probability of getting S during a given risk period  $\rightarrow$  incidence probability, (cumulative risk over the period)
- (b) rate of that probability (relative to risk period)
   → hazard or intensity,
- (c) **probability** of *carrying* S at a given *time point*

- (a) probability of getting S during a given risk period  $\rightarrow$  incidence probability, (cumulative risk over the period)
- (b) rate of that probability (relative to risk period)
   → hazard or intensity,
- (c) **probability** of *carrying* S at a given *time point*

- (a) probability of getting S during a given risk period  $\rightarrow$  incidence probability, (cumulative risk over the period)
- (b) rate of that probability (relative to risk period)
   → hazard or intensity,
- (c) **probability** of *carrying* S at a given *time point*  $\rightarrow$  **prevalence** probability.

What do we mean by "risk of disease S"?

- (a) probability of getting S during a given risk period  $\rightarrow$  incidence probability, (cumulative risk over the period)
- (b) rate of that probability (relative to risk period)
   → hazard or intensity,
- (c) **probability** of *carrying* S at a given *time point*  $\rightarrow$  **prevalence** probability.

Most common use of "risk" is (a)

What do we mean by "risk of disease S"?

- (a) probability of getting S during a given risk period  $\rightarrow$  incidence probability, (cumulative risk over the period)
- (b) rate of that probability (relative to risk period)
   → hazard or intensity,
- (c) **probability** of *carrying* S at a given *time point* → **prevalence** probability.

Most common use of "risk" is (a)

**NB**: "Risk" should not be used in the meaning of **risk factor** In statistics, "hazard" mostly refers to notion probability per unit time.

▶ All risks are conditional on a multitude of factors, like:

- ▶ All risks are conditional on a multitude of factors, like:
  - length of risk period (e.g. next week or lifetime),

- ▶ All risks are conditional on a multitude of factors, like:
  - length of risk period (e.g. next week or lifetime),
  - ► age and sex,

- ▶ All risks are conditional on a multitude of factors, like:
  - length of risk period (e.g. next week or lifetime),
  - age and sex,
  - genetic constitution,

- ► All risks are conditional on a multitude of factors, like:
  - length of risk period (e.g. next week or lifetime),
  - age and sex,
  - genetic constitution,
  - health behaviour & environmental exposures.

- ▶ All risks are conditional on a multitude of factors, like:
  - length of risk period (e.g. next week or lifetime),
  - age and sex,
  - genetic constitution,
  - ► health behaviour & environmental exposures.
- ▶ In principle each individual has a "personal" value for the risk of given disease in any defined risk period, depending on his/her own risk factor profile—not estimable from data

- ▶ All risks are conditional on a multitude of factors, like:
  - length of risk period (e.g. next week or lifetime),
  - age and sex,
  - genetic constitution,
  - ▶ health behaviour & environmental exposures.
- ▶ In principle each individual has a "personal" value for the risk of given disease in any defined risk period, depending on his/her own risk factor profile—not estimable from data
- ➤ Average risks of disease in large groups sharing common characteristics (like gender, age, smoking status) are estimable through measures of occurrence.

# Matematical reminder

Bendix Carstensen & Esa Läärä

Nordic Summerschool of Cancer Epidemiology Danish Cancer Society / NCU, August 2022 / January 2023

http://BendixCarstensen.com/NSCE/2022

# Logarithms and exponentials

$$10^{2} = 10 \times 10$$

$$10^{3} = 10 \times 10 \times 10$$

$$10^{2} \times 10^{3} = 10^{5}$$

$$10^{3}/10^{2} = 10^{1}$$

$$(10^{3})^{2} = 10^{6}$$

$$10^{2}/10^{2} = 10^{0} = 1$$

$$10^{2}/10^{3} = 10^{-1} = 1/10$$

$$10^{1/2} \times 10^{1/2} = 10^{1}$$

$$10^{1/3} \times 10^{1/3} \times 10^{1/3} = 10^{1}$$

$$10^{0.3010} = 2$$

$$\log_{10}(2) = 0.3010$$

# Multiplication and division

$$2 \times 3 = 6$$

$$10^{0.3010} \times 10^{0.4771} = 10^{0.7781}$$

$$10^{0.7781} = 6$$

$$\log_{10}(2) = 0.3010$$

$$\log_{10}(3) = 0.4771$$

$$0.3010 + 0.4771 = 0.7781$$

$$10^{0.7781} = 6$$

$$\ln \text{ general: } \log(xy) = \log(x) + \log(y)$$

$$\log(x/y) = \log(x) - \log(y)$$

$$\log(x^a) = a\log(x)$$

# Natural logarithms e = 2.7183

$$\log_e(e) = 1$$

$$e^{0.6931} = 2$$

$$\log_e(2) = 0.6931$$

$$e^{1.0986} = 3$$

$$\log_e(3) = 1.0986$$

$$2 \times 3 = 6$$

$$e^{0.6931} \times e^{1.0986} = e^{1.7918}$$

$$e^{1.7918} = 6$$
In general:  $e^x \times e^y = e^{x+y}$ 

$$e^x/e^y = e^{x-y}$$

$$(e^x)^y = e^{x \times y}$$

# Names for the logartithms

### **Engineers and calculators:**

 $\log$  is the logarithm to base 10.

 $\ln$  is the logarithm to base e, the natural  $\log$ 

#### Matematicians:

 $\log$  is the logarithm to base e, the natural  $\log_{10}$  is the logarithm to base 10.

We use  $\log$  for the natural logarithm, and explicitly  $\log_{10}$  when this is needed.

# Why natural logarithms?

For small values of 
$$x$$
:  $e^x \approx 1 + x$  
$$e^{-x} \approx 1 - x$$
 
$$\ln(1+x) \approx x$$
 
$$\ln(1-x) \approx -x$$

For example: 
$$\ln(1.01) = 0.01$$
  
  $\ln(0.99) = -0.01$ 

But: 
$$\log_{10}(1.01) = 0.4343 \times 0.01$$
  
 $\log_{10}(0.99) = 0.4343 \times -0.01$ 

In general:  $\log_{10}(x) = 0.4343 \times \ln(x)$ 

# Frequency measures

Bendix Carstensen & Esa Läärä

Nordic Summerschool of Cancer Epidemiology Danish Cancer Society / NCU, August 2022 / January 2023

http://BendixCarstensen.com/NSCE/2022

# Basic measures of frequency or occurrence

Quantification of the occurrence of disease (or any other health-related state or event) requires specification of:

- 1. what is meant by a case, *i.e.*, an individual in a population who has or gets the disease
  - more generally: possesses the state or undergoes the event of interest.
  - ⇒ challenge to accurate diagnosis and classification!

# Basic measures of frequency or occurrence

Quantification of the occurrence of disease (or any other health-related state or event) requires specification of:

- 1. what is meant by a case, *i.e.*, an individual in a population who has or gets the disease
  - more generally: possesses the state or undergoes the event of interest.
  - $\Rightarrow$  challenge to accurate diagnosis and classification!
- 2. the **population** from which the cases originate.

# Basic measures of frequency or occurrence

Quantification of the occurence of disease (or any other health-related state or event) requires specification of:

- 1. what is meant by a case, *i.e.*, an individual in a population who has or gets the disease
  - more generally: possesses the state or undergoes the event of interest.
  - $\Rightarrow$  challenge to accurate diagnosis and classification!
- 2. the **population** from which the cases originate.
- 3. the **time point** or **period** of observation.

► Longitudinal – incidence measures: incidence rate & incidence proportion

- ► Longitudinal incidence measures: incidence rate & incidence proportion
- ► Cross-sectional **prevalence** measures.

- ► Longitudinal incidence measures: incidence rate & incidence proportion
- ► Cross-sectional **prevalence** measures.

- ► Longitudinal incidence measures: incidence rate & incidence proportion
- Cross-sectional prevalence measures.

General form of frequency or occurrence measures

 $\frac{\text{numerator}}{\text{denominator}}$ 

Numerator: number of cases observed in the population.

- ► Longitudinal incidence measures: incidence rate & incidence proportion
- Cross-sectional prevalence measures.

General form of frequency or occurrence measures

 $\frac{\text{numerator}}{\text{denominator}}$ 

Numerator: number of cases observed in the population.

**Denominator**: generally proportional to the size of the population from which the cases emerge.

- ► Longitudinal incidence measures: incidence rate & incidence proportion
- Cross-sectional prevalence measures.

General form of frequency or occurrence measures

 $\frac{numerator}{denominator}$ 

Numerator: number of cases observed in the population.

**Denominator**: generally proportional to the size of the population from which the cases emerge.

Numerator and denominator must cover the same **population**, and the same **period** or same **time point**.

▶ Incidence proportion (cumulative risk) (Q) over a fixed risk period:

$$Q = \frac{\text{number of incident (new) cases during period}}{\text{size of pop'n at risk at start of the period}}$$

Also called **cumulative incidence** (even "risk"; *e.g.* in **IS**). **NB**. "Cumulative incidence" has other meanings, too.

▶ Incidence proportion (cumulative risk) (Q) over a fixed risk period:

$$Q = \frac{\text{number of incident (new) cases during period}}{\text{size of pop'n at risk at start of the period}}$$

Also called **cumulative incidence** (even "risk"; *e.g.* in **IS**). **NB**. "Cumulative incidence" has other meanings, too.

▶ Indidence rate (I) over a defined observation period:

▶ Incidence proportion (cumulative risk) (Q) over a fixed risk period:

$$Q = \frac{\text{number of incident (new) cases during period}}{\text{size of pop'n at risk at start of the period}}$$

Also called **cumulative incidence** (even "risk"; *e.g.* in **IS**). **NB**. "Cumulative incidence" has other meanings, too.

▶ Indidence rate (I) over a defined observation period:

▶ Incidence proportion (cumulative risk) (Q) over a fixed risk period:

$$Q = \frac{\text{number of incident (new) cases during period}}{\text{size of pop'n at risk at start of the period}}$$

Also called **cumulative incidence** (even "risk"; *e.g.* in **IS**). **NB.** "Cumulative incidence" has other meanings, too.

▶ Indidence rate (I) over a defined observation period:

 $I = \frac{\text{number of incident (new) cases during period}}{\text{sum of follow-up times of pop'n at risk}}$ 

▶ Incidence proportion (cumulative risk) (Q) over a fixed risk period:

$$Q = \frac{\text{number of incident (new) cases during period}}{\text{size of pop'n at risk at start of the period}}$$

Also called **cumulative incidence** (even "risk"; *e.g.* in **IS**). **NB.** "Cumulative incidence" has other meanings, too.

▶ Indidence rate (I) over a defined observation period:

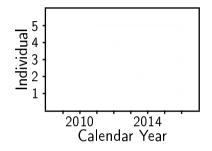
$$I = \frac{\text{number of incident (new) cases during period}}{\text{sum of follow-up times of pop'n at risk}}$$

Also called incidence density or hazard.

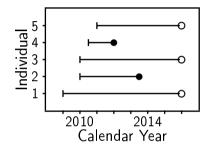
# Example: Follow-up of a small cohort

- = entry,  $\circ =$  exit with censoring; outcome not observed,
- = exit with outcome event (disease onset) observed

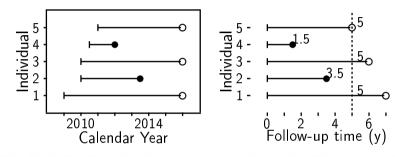
- = entry,  $\circ =$  exit with censoring; outcome not observed,
- = exit with outcome event (disease onset) observed



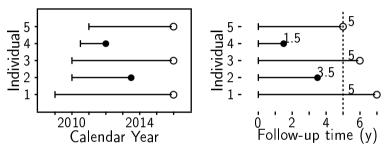
- = entry,  $\circ =$  exit with censoring; outcome not observed,
- = exit with outcome event (disease onset) observed



- |= entry,  $\circ=$  exit with censoring; outcome not observed,
- = exit with outcome event (disease onset) observed

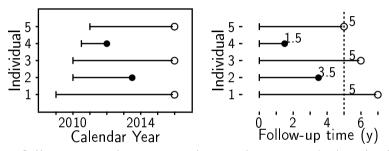


- = entry,  $\circ =$  exit with censoring; outcome not observed,
- = exit with outcome event (disease onset) observed



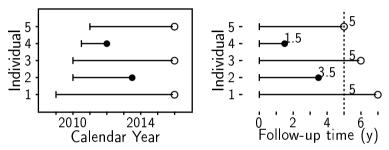
Complete follow-up in the 5-year risk period

- = entry,  $\circ =$  exit with censoring; outcome not observed,
- = exit with outcome event (disease onset) observed



**Complete follow-up** in the 5-year risk period  $\Rightarrow$  can calculate both:

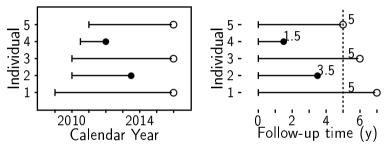
- = entry,  $\circ =$  exit with censoring; outcome not observed,
- = exit with outcome event (disease onset) observed



**Complete follow-up** in the 5-year risk period  $\Rightarrow$  can calculate both:

Inc. rate 
$$= \frac{2 \text{ cases}}{5 + 3.5 + 5 + 1.5 + 5 \text{ years}} = 10 \text{ per } 100 \text{ years},$$

- = entry,  $\circ =$  exit with censoring; outcome not observed,
- = exit with outcome event (disease onset) observed



**Complete follow-up** in the 5-year risk period  $\Rightarrow$  can calculate both:

lnc. rate 
$$=\frac{2 \text{ cases}}{5+3.5+5+1.5+5 \text{ years}}=10 \text{ per } 100 \text{ years},$$
 lnc. prop.  $=2/5=0.4 \text{ or } 40 \text{ per cent.}$ 

Dimensionless quantity ranging from 0 to 1 (0% to 100%) = relative frequency,

- Dimensionless quantity ranging from 0 to 1 (0% to 100%) = relative frequency,
- Estimates the average theoretical **risk**, *i.e.* the probability of the outcome occurring during the risk period, in the **population at risk**

- Dimensionless quantity ranging from 0 to 1 (0% to 100%) = relative frequency,
- Estimates the average theoretical **risk**, *i.e.* the probability of the outcome occurring during the risk period, in the **population at risk**

- Dimensionless quantity ranging from 0 to 1 (0% to 100%) = relative frequency,
- ► Estimates the average theoretical **risk**, *i.e.* the probability of the outcome occurring during the risk period, in the **population at risk** *i.e.* among those who are still free from the outcome at the start of the period.
- ➤ Simple formula valid when the follow-up time is fixed & equals the risk period, and when there are no **competing events** or **censoring**.

- Dimensionless quantity ranging from 0 to 1 (0% to 100%) = relative frequency,
- ► Estimates the average theoretical **risk**, *i.e.* the probability of the outcome occurring during the risk period, in the **population at risk** − *i.e.* among those who are still free from the outcome at the start of the period.
- ➤ Simple formula valid when the follow-up time is fixed & equals the risk period, and when there are no **competing events** or **censoring**.
- ► Competing events & censoring  $\Rightarrow$  Calculations need to be corrected using special methods of survival analysis.

► Like a frequency quantity in physics; measurement scale is time<sup>-1</sup>: e.g. Hz = 1/second, 1/year, or 1/1000 y.

- Like a frequency quantity in physics; measurement scale is time<sup>-1</sup>: e.g. Hz = 1/second, 1/year, or 1/1000 y.
- ► Estimates the average underlying **intensity** or **hazard rate** of the outcome in a population,

- ▶ Like a frequency quantity in physics; measurement scale is time<sup>-1</sup>: e.g. Hz = 1/second, 1/year, or 1/1000 y.
- ► Estimates the average underlying **intensity** or **hazard rate** of the outcome in a population,
- Estimation accurate in the constant hazard model,

- ▶ Like a frequency quantity in physics; measurement scale is time<sup>-1</sup>: e.g. Hz = 1/second, 1/year, or 1/1000 y.
- ► Estimates the average underlying **intensity** or **hazard rate** of the outcome in a population,
- Estimation accurate in the constant hazard model,
- Calculation straightforward also with competing events and censored observations.

- ▶ Like a frequency quantity in physics; measurement scale is time<sup>-1</sup>: e.g. Hz = 1/second, 1/year, or 1/1000 y.
- ► Estimates the average underlying **intensity** or **hazard rate** of the outcome in a population,
- Estimation accurate in the constant hazard model,
- Calculation straightforward also with competing events and censored observations.
- ► Hazard usually depends on age ⇒ age-specific rates needed.

- ▶ Like a frequency quantity in physics; measurement scale is time<sup>-1</sup>: e.g. Hz = 1/second, 1/year, or 1/1000 y.
- ► Estimates the average underlying **intensity** or **hazard rate** of the outcome in a population,
- Estimation accurate in the constant hazard model,
- Calculation straightforward also with competing events and censored observations.
- ► Hazard usually depends on age ⇒ age-specific rates needed.

- ▶ Like a frequency quantity in physics; measurement scale is time<sup>-1</sup>: e.g. Hz = 1/second, 1/year, or 1/1000 y.
- ► Estimates the average underlying **intensity** or **hazard rate** of the outcome in a population,
- Estimation accurate in the constant hazard model,
- Calculation straightforward also with competing events and censored observations.
- ► Hazard usually depends on age ⇒ age-specific rates needed.
- ► Incidence proportions can be estimated from rates.

- ▶ Like a frequency quantity in physics; measurement scale is time<sup>-1</sup>: e.g. Hz = 1/second, 1/year, or 1/1000 y.
- ► Estimates the average underlying **intensity** or **hazard rate** of the outcome in a population,
- Estimation accurate in the constant hazard model,
- Calculation straightforward also with competing events and censored observations.
- ► Hazard usually depends on age ⇒ age-specific rates needed.
- ► Incidence proportions can be estimated from rates.

- ► Like a frequency quantity in physics; measurement scale is time<sup>-1</sup>: e.g. Hz = 1/second, 1/year, or 1/1000 y.
- ► Estimates the average underlying **intensity** or **hazard rate** of the outcome in a population,
- Estimation accurate in the constant hazard model,
- Calculation straightforward also with competing events and censored observations.
- ► Hazard usually depends on age ⇒ age-specific rates needed.
- ▶ Incidence proportions can be estimated from rates.
  In the constant hazard model with no competing risks:

$$Q = 1 - \exp(-I \times \Delta) \approx I \times \Delta$$

The outcome event of interest (e.g. onset of disease) is not always observed for all subjects during the chosen risk period.

► Some subjects die (from other causes) before the event.

- Some subjects die (from other causes) before the event.
  - **Competing event**, after which the outcome can no more occur.

- Some subjects die (from other causes) before the event.
  - ▶ Competing event, after which the outcome can no more occur.
- ➤ Others emigrate and escape national disease registration, or the whole study is closed "now", prematurely interrupting the follow-up of them.

- Some subjects die (from other causes) before the event.
  - **Competing event**, after which the outcome can no more occur.
- ➤ Others emigrate and escape national disease registration, or the whole study is closed "now", prematurely interrupting the follow-up of them.
  - Censoring, withdrawal, or loss to follow-up

- Some subjects die (from other causes) before the event.
  - **Competing event**, after which the outcome can no more occur.
- ➤ Others emigrate and escape national disease registration, or the whole study is closed "now", prematurely interrupting the follow-up of them.
  - Censoring, withdrawal, or loss to follow-up

The outcome event of interest (e.g. onset of disease) is not always observed for all subjects during the chosen risk period.

- ► Some subjects die (from other causes) before the event.
  - **Competing event**, after which the outcome can no more occur.
- ➤ Others emigrate and escape national disease registration, or the whole study is closed "now", prematurely interrupting the follow-up of them.
  - Censoring, withdrawal, or loss to follow-up

In both cases persons are removed from the risk population

With a **dynamic** study population, individual follow-up times are always variable and impossible to measure accurately.

With a **dynamic** study population, individual follow-up times are always variable and impossible to measure accurately.

With a **dynamic** study population, individual follow-up times are always variable and impossible to measure accurately.

Common approximation – mid-population principle:

1. Let the population size be  $N_b$  at beginning  $(t_b)$  and  $N_e$  at the end  $(t_e)$  of the observation period of length  $t_e - t_b = u_t$ 

With a **dynamic** study population, individual follow-up times are always variable and impossible to measure accurately.

- 1. Let the population size be  $N_b$  at beginning  $(t_b)$  and  $N_e$  at the end  $(t_e)$  of the observation period of length  $t_e t_b = u_t$
- 2. Mid-population for the period around  $t=(t_b+t_e)/2$ :  $\bar{N}_t=\frac{1}{2}\times(N_b+N_e)$ .

With a **dynamic** study population, individual follow-up times are always variable and impossible to measure accurately.

- 1. Let the population size be  $N_b$  at beginning  $(t_b)$  and  $N_e$  at the end  $(t_e)$  of the observation period of length  $t_e t_b = u_t$
- 2. Mid-population for the period around  $t=(t_b+t_e)/2$ :  $\bar{N}_t=\frac{1}{2}\times(N_b+N_e)$ .
- 3. Approximate person-years:  $\widetilde{Y}_t = \bar{N}_t \times u_t$ .

With a **dynamic** study population, individual follow-up times are always variable and impossible to measure accurately.

- 1. Let the population size be  $N_b$  at beginning  $(t_b)$  and  $N_e$  at the end  $(t_e)$  of the observation period of length  $t_e t_b = u_t$
- 2. Mid-population for the period around  $t=(t_b+t_e)/2$ :  $\bar{N}_t=\frac{1}{2}\times(N_b+N_e)$ .
- 3. Approximate person-years:  $\widetilde{Y}_t = \bar{N}_t \times u_t$ .

With a **dynamic** study population, individual follow-up times are always variable and impossible to measure accurately.

Common approximation – mid-population principle:

- 1. Let the population size be  $N_b$  at beginning  $(t_b)$  and  $N_e$  at the end  $(t_e)$  of the observation period of length  $t_e t_b = u_t$
- 2. Mid-population for the period around  $t=(t_b+t_e)/2$ :  $\bar{N}_t=\frac{1}{2}\times(N_b+N_e)$ .
- 3. Approximate person-years:  $\widetilde{Y}_t = \bar{N}_t \times u_t$ .

**NB**: The actual study population often contains some already affected, thus not belonging to the population at risk. With rare outcomes their influence is small.

#### Male person-years in Finland 1991-95

Total male population (1000s) on 31 December by year:

1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
2,431	2,443	2,457	2,470	2,482	2,492

Total male population (1000s) on 31 December by year:

1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
2,431	2,443	2,457	2,470	2,482	2,492

Approximate person-years (1000s) in various periods:

$$\frac{1}{2} \times (2,443+2,457) \times 1 =$$

2450

Total male population (1000s) on 31 December by year:

1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
2,431	2,443	2,457	2,470	2,482	2,492

Approximate person-years (1000s) in various periods:

1992: 
$$\frac{1}{2} \times (2,443+2,457) \times 1 =$$
 2450  
1993-94:  $\frac{1}{2} \times (2,457+2,482) \times 2 =$  4937

Total male population (1000s) on 31 December by year:

199	0	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
2,43	31	2,443	2,457	2,470	2,482	2,492

Approximate person-years (1000s) in various periods:

1992:
$$\frac{1}{2} \times (2,443+2,457) \times 1 =$$
24501993-94: $\frac{1}{2} \times (2,457+2,482) \times 2 =$ 49371991-95: $\frac{1}{2} \times (2,431+2,492) \times 5 =$ 12307.5

Total male population (1000s) on 31 December by year:

1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
2,431	2,443	2,457	2,470	2,482	2,492

Approximate person-years (1000s) in various periods:

1992:
$$\frac{1}{2} \times (2,443+2,457) \times 1 =$$
24501993-94: $\frac{1}{2} \times (2,457+2,482) \times 2 =$ 49371991-95: $\frac{1}{2} \times (2,431+2,492) \times 5 =$ 12307.51991-95: $(2,431/2+2,443+2,457+2,470+2,482+2,492/2) =$ 12313.5

Cause-specific mortality from cause C is described by mortality rates defined like incidence rates, but

Cause-specific mortality from cause C is described by mortality rates defined like incidence rates, but

cases are deaths from cause C, and

Cause-specific mortality from cause C is described by mortality rates defined like incidence rates, but

- cases are deaths from cause C, and
- follow-up is extended until death or censoring.

Cause-specific mortality from cause C is described by mortality rates defined like incidence rates, but

- cases are deaths from cause C, and
- follow-up is extended until death or censoring.

Cause-specific mortality from cause C is described by mortality rates defined like incidence rates, but

- cases are deaths from cause C, and
- follow-up is extended until death or censoring.

Cause-specific mortality proportion (cumulative risk) from cause depends on all cause-specific rates, not only on the *C*-specific mortality rate.

Cause-specific mortality from cause C is described by mortality rates defined like incidence rates, but

- cases are deaths from cause C, and
- ► follow-up is extended until death or censoring.

Cause-specific mortality proportion (cumulative risk) from cause depends on all cause-specific rates, not only on the *C*-specific mortality rate.

### Total mortality:

cases are deaths from any cause.

Cause-specific mortality from cause C is described by mortality rates defined like incidence rates, but

- cases are deaths from cause C, and
- ► follow-up is extended until death or censoring.

Cause-specific mortality proportion (cumulative risk) from cause depends on all cause-specific rates, not only on the *C*-specific mortality rate.

### Total mortality:

cases are deaths from any cause.

Cause-specific mortality from cause C is described by mortality rates defined like incidence rates, but

- cases are deaths from cause C, and
- ► follow-up is extended until death or censoring.

Cause-specific mortality proportion (cumulative risk) from cause depends on all cause-specific rates, not only on the *C*-specific mortality rate.

### Total mortality:

cases are deaths from any cause.

Mortality depends on the incidence and the **prognosis** or **case fatality** of the disease, *i.e.* the **survival** of those affected by it.

$$P = \frac{\text{number of existing or prevalent cases of } C}{\text{size of the whole population}}$$

▶ Point prevalence or simply prevalence P of a health state C in a population at a given time point t is defined as:

$$P = \frac{\text{number of existing or prevalent cases of } C}{\text{size of the whole population}}$$

Can be computed from a cross-sectional study base.

$$P = \frac{\text{number of existing or prevalent cases of } C}{\text{size of the whole population}}$$

- Can be computed from a cross-sectional study base.
- ightharpoonup Empirical counterpart of  $P\{\text{random person has disease }C\}$

$$P = \frac{\text{number of existing or prevalent cases of } C}{\text{size of the whole population}}$$

- ► Can be computed from a cross-sectional study base.
- lacktriangle Empirical counterpart of  $P\{ {
  m random\ person\ has\ disease\ } C\}$
- **Period prevalence** for period from  $t_1$  to  $t_2$  is like P but

$$P = \frac{\text{number of existing or prevalent cases of } C}{\text{size of the whole population}}$$

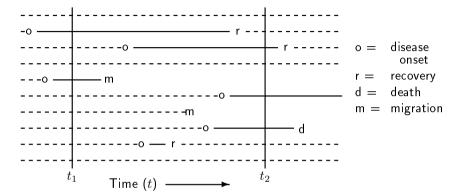
- Can be computed from a cross-sectional study base.
- lacktriangle Empirical counterpart of  $P\{ {
  m random\ person\ has\ disease\ } C\}$
- **Period prevalence** for period from  $t_1$  to  $t_2$  is like P but
  - ightharpoonup numerator refers to all cases prevalent already at  $t_1$  plus new cases occurring during the period, and

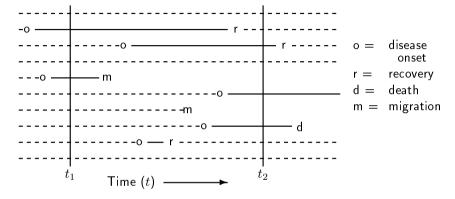
$$P = \frac{\text{number of existing or prevalent cases of } C}{\text{size of the whole population}}$$

- Can be computed from a cross-sectional study base.
- lacktriangle Empirical counterpart of  $P\{ {\sf random\ person\ has\ disease\ } C\}$
- **Period prevalence** for period from  $t_1$  to  $t_2$  is like P but
  - ightharpoonup numerator refers to all cases prevalent already at  $t_1$  plus new cases occurring during the period, and
  - lacktriangle denominator is the population size at  $t_2$

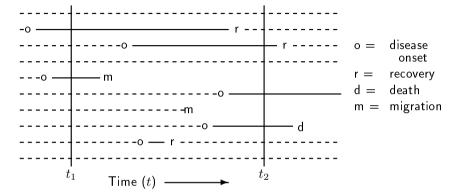
$$P = \frac{\text{number of existing or prevalent cases of } C}{\text{size of the whole population}}$$

- ► Can be computed from a cross-sectional study base.
- lacktriangle Empirical counterpart of  $P\{ {
  m random\ person\ has\ disease\ } C\}$
- **Period prevalence** for period from  $t_1$  to  $t_2$  is like P but
  - ightharpoonup numerator refers to all cases prevalent already at  $t_1$  plus new cases occurring during the period, and
  - lacktriangle denominator is the population size at  $t_2$
  - ► Has no simple probability counterpart

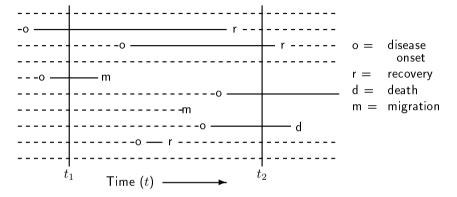




Prevalence at time  $t_1: \quad 2/10=0.2=20\%$ 



Prevalence at time  $t_1$ : 2/10 = 0.2 = 20%Prevalence at time  $t_2$ : 3/8 = 0.38 = 38%



Prevalence at time  $t_1$ : 2/10 = 0.2 = 20%Prevalence at time  $t_2$ : 3/8 = 0.38 = 38%Period prevalence: 6/8 = 0.75 = 75%

Point prevalence of C at given time point t depends on the

▶ incidence of new cases of C before t, and the

- ▶ incidence of new cases of C before t, and the
- duration of C, depending in turn on the probability of

- ightharpoonup incidence of new cases of C before t, and the
- duration of C, depending in turn on the probability of
  - ightharpoonup cure or recovery from C, or

- ▶ incidence of new cases of C before t, and the
- duration of C, depending in turn on the probability of
  - ightharpoonup cure or recovery from C, or
  - survival of those affected

- ▶ incidence of new cases of C before t, and the
- duration of C, depending in turn on the probability of
  - ightharpoonup cure or recovery from C, or
  - survival of those affected

Point prevalence of C at given time point t depends on the

- ▶ incidence of new cases of C before t, and the
- duration of C, depending in turn on the probability of
  - $\triangleright$  cure or recovery from C, or
  - survival of those affected

Simple case: In a stationary ("stable") population, the

prevalence (P), incidence (I), and average duration  $(\bar{d})$  of S

are related as

$$P = I \times \bar{d}$$

 $prevalence = incidence \times duration$ 

The approximation works well, when P < 0.1 (10%).

▶ How do we know, whether and when cancer is cured?

- ▶ How do we know, whether and when cancer is cured?
- ► ⇒ Existing or prevalent case problematic to define.

- ▶ How do we know, whether and when cancer is cured?
- ► ⇒ Existing or prevalent case problematic to define.
- ▶ NORDCAN: Prevalence of cancer C at time point t in the target population refers to the number & proportion of population members who

- ▶ How do we know, whether and when cancer is cured?
- ► ⇒ Existing or prevalent case problematic to define.
- NORDCAN: Prevalence of cancer C at time point t in the target population refers to the  $\bullet$  number & proportion of population members who
  - ightharpoonup are alive and resident in the population at t, and

- ▶ How do we know, whether and when cancer is cured?
- ► ⇒ Existing or prevalent case problematic to define.
- NORDCAN: Prevalence of cancer C at time point t in the target population refers to the  $\bullet$  number & proportion of population members who
  - ightharpoonup are alive and resident in the population at t, and
  - lacktriangle have a record of an incident cancer C diagnosed before t.

- ▶ How do we know, whether and when cancer is cured?
- ightharpoonup  $\Rightarrow$  Existing or prevalent case problematic to define.
- NORDCAN: Prevalence of cancer C at time point t in the target population refers to the  $\bullet$  number & proportion of population members who
  - ightharpoonup are alive and resident in the population at t, and
  - lacktriangle have a record of an incident cancer C diagnosed before t.
- ▶ Partial prevalence: Cases limited to those diagnosed during a fixed time in the past; e.g. within last

#### Prevalence of cancer?

- ▶ How do we know, whether and when cancer is cured?
- ► ⇒ Existing or prevalent case problematic to define.
- NORDCAN: Prevalence of cancer C at time point t in the target population refers to the  $\bullet$  number & proportion of population members who
  - ightharpoonup are alive and resident in the population at t, and
  - lacktriangle have a record of an incident cancer C diagnosed before t.
- ▶ Partial prevalence: Cases limited to those diagnosed during a fixed time in the past; e.g. within last
  - ▶ 1 y (initial treatment period),

#### Prevalence of cancer?

- ▶ How do we know, whether and when cancer is cured?
- ► ⇒ Existing or prevalent case problematic to define.
- NORDCAN: Prevalence of cancer C at time point t in the target population refers to the  $\bullet$  number & proportion of population members who
  - ightharpoonup are alive and resident in the population at t, and
  - lacktriangle have a record of an incident cancer C diagnosed before t.
- ▶ Partial prevalence: Cases limited to those diagnosed during a fixed time in the past; e.g. within last
  - 1 y (initial treatment period),
  - ▶ 3 y (clinical follow-up),

#### Prevalence of cancer?

- ▶ How do we know, whether and when cancer is cured?
- ► ⇒ Existing or prevalent case problematic to define.
- NORDCAN: Prevalence of cancer C at time point t in the target population refers to the ullet number & proportion of population members who
  - ightharpoonup are alive and resident in the population at t, and
  - lacktriangle have a record of an incident cancer C diagnosed before t.
- ▶ Partial prevalence: Cases limited to those diagnosed during a fixed time in the past; e.g. within last
  - 1 y (initial treatment period),
  - 3 y (clinical follow-up),
  - ► 5 y (cure?)

	Kidney	Thyroid
Incidence rate in 2011 (per 10 <sup>5</sup> y)	12	11

	Kidney	Thyroid
Incidence rate in 2011 (per 10 <sup>5</sup> y)	12	11
Mortality rate in 2011 (per $10^5$ y)	5	1

	Kidney	Thyroid
Incidence rate in 2011 (per $10^5$ y)	12	11
Mortality rate in 2011 (per $10^5$ y)	5	1
Prevalence on $31.12.2011$ (per $10^5$ )	92	198

	Kidney	Thyroid
Incidence rate in 2011 (per $10^5$ y)	12	11
Mortality rate in 2011 (per $10^5$ y)	5	1
Prevalence on $31.12.2011$ (per $10^5$ )	92	198
- diagnosed $< 1$ y ago	9	10
- diagnosed $<$ 3 y ago	24	29
- diagnosed $<$ 5 y ago	35	47
- diagnosed $>$ 5 y ago	57	151

	Kidney	Thyroid
Incidence rate in 2011 (per $10^5$ y)	12	11
Mortality rate in 2011 (per $10^5$ y)	5	1
Prevalence on $31.12.2011$ (per $10^5$ )	92	198
- diagnosed $< 1$ y ago	9	10
- diagnosed $<$ 3 y ago	24	29
- diagnosed $<$ 5 y ago	35	47
- diagnosed $>$ 5 y ago	57	151
5-y relative survival; cases 2004–8 (%)	64	90

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Standard: Nordic population in 2000

# Comparative measures

Bendix Carstensen & Esa Läärä

Nordic Summerschool of Cancer Epidemiology Danish Cancer Society / NCU, August 2022 / January 2023

http://BendixCarstensen.com/NSCE/2022

 Quantification of the association between a determinant (risk factor) and an outcome (disease) is based on

 Quantification of the association between a determinant (risk factor) and an outcome (disease) is based on

- Quantification of the association between a determinant (risk factor) and an outcome (disease) is based on
- comparison of occurrence between the index ("exposed") and the reference ("unexposed") groups by

- Quantification of the association between a determinant (risk factor) and an outcome (disease) is based on
- comparison of occurrence between the index ("exposed") and the reference ("unexposed") groups by
  - relative comparative measures (ratio)

- Quantification of the association between a determinant (risk factor) and an outcome (disease) is based on
- comparison of occurrence between the index ("exposed") and the reference ("unexposed") groups by
  - relative comparative measures (ratio)
  - absolute comparative measures (difference)

- Quantification of the association between a determinant (risk factor) and an outcome (disease) is based on
- comparison of occurrence between the index ("exposed") and the reference ("unexposed") groups by
  - ► relative comparative measures (ratio)
  - absolute comparative measures (difference)
- ► Interpreted as the **effect** of exposure
  - —using the **assumption** that the direction of causality is from exposure to outcome.

- Quantification of the association between a determinant (risk factor) and an outcome (disease) is based on
- comparison of occurrence between the index ("exposed") and the reference ("unexposed") groups by
  - ► relative comparative measures (ratio)
  - absolute comparative measures (difference)
- Interpreted as the effect of exposure
   —using the assumption that the direction of causality is from exposure to outcome.
- Causality is assumed; effect is measured (estimated from data)

- Quantification of the association between a determinant (risk factor) and an outcome (disease) is based on
- comparison of occurrence between the index ("exposed") and the reference ("unexposed") groups by
  - ► relative comparative measures (ratio)
  - ▶ absolute comparative measures (difference)
- Interpreted as the effect of exposure
   —using the assumption that the direction of causality is from exposure to outcome.
- ► Causality is assumed; effect is measured (estimated from data)
- ➤ Yet, caution is needed in inferences on causal effects, as often the groups to be compared suffer from **poor comparability** ⇔ **Confounding**.

Generic name "relative risk" (RR) comparing occurrences between exposed (1) and unexposed (0) groups can refer to:

ightharpoonup incidence rate ratio IR =  $I_1/I_0$ ,

- ightharpoonup incidence rate ratio IR =  $I_1/I_0$ ,
- incidence proportion ratio IPR =  $Q_1/Q_0$ ,

- ightharpoonup incidence rate ratio IR =  $I_1/I_0$ ,
- incidence proportion ratio IPR =  $Q_1/Q_0$ ,
- incidence odds ratio IOR =  $[Q_1/(1-Q_1)]/[Q_0/(1-Q_0)]$ ,

- ightharpoonup incidence rate ratio IR =  $I_1/I_0$ ,
- ightharpoonup incidence proportion ratio IPR =  $Q_1/Q_0$ ,
- incidence odds ratio IOR =  $[Q_1/(1-Q_1)]/[Q_0/(1-Q_0)]$ ,
- ightharpoonup prevalence ratio PR =  $P_1/P_0$ , or

- ightharpoonup incidence rate ratio IR =  $I_1/I_0$ ,
- ightharpoonup incidence proportion ratio IPR =  $Q_1/Q_0$ ,
- incidence odds ratio IOR =  $[Q_1/(1-Q_1)]/[Q_0/(1-Q_0)]$ ,
- prevalence ratio  $PR = P_1/P_0$ , or
- prevalence odds ratio POR =  $[P_1/(1-P_1)]/[P_0/(1-P_0)]$ ,

- ightharpoonup incidence rate ratio IR =  $I_1/I_0$ ,
- ightharpoonup incidence proportion ratio IPR =  $Q_1/Q_0$ ,
- incidence odds ratio IOR =  $[Q_1/(1-Q_1)]/[Q_0/(1-Q_0)]$ ,
- prevalence ratio  $PR = P_1/P_0$ , or
- prevalence odds ratio POR =  $[P_1/(1-P_1)]/[P_0/(1-P_0)]$ ,

Generic name "relative risk" (RR) comparing occurrences between exposed (1) and unexposed (0) groups can refer to:

- ightharpoonup incidence rate ratio IR =  $I_1/I_0$ ,
- incidence proportion ratio IPR =  $Q_1/Q_0$ ,
- incidence odds ratio IOR =  $[Q_1/(1-Q_1)]/[Q_0/(1-Q_0)]$ ,
- prevalence ratio  $PR = P_1/P_0$ , or
- prevalence odds ratio POR =  $[P_1/(1-P_1)]/[P_0/(1-P_0)]$ ,

depending on study base and details of its design.

Generic name "relative risk" (RR) comparing occurrences between exposed (1) and unexposed (0) groups can refer to:

- ightharpoonup incidence rate ratio IR =  $I_1/I_0$ ,
- incidence proportion ratio IPR =  $Q_1/Q_0$ ,
- incidence odds ratio IOR =  $[Q_1/(1-Q_1)]/[Q_0/(1-Q_0)]$ ,
- prevalence ratio  $PR = P_1/P_0$ , or
- prevalence odds ratio POR =  $[P_1/(1-P_1)]/[P_0/(1-P_0)]$ ,

depending on study base and details of its design.

Incidence rate ratio IR  $=I_1/I_0$  is the most commonly used comparative measure in cancer epidemiology.

Generic term "excess risk" or "risk difference" (RD) btw exposed and unexposed can refer to

ightharpoonup incidence rate difference ID =  $I_1 - I_0$ ,

- ightharpoonup incidence rate difference ID =  $I_1 I_0$ ,
- ightharpoonup incidence proportion difference IPD =  $Q_1-Q_0$ , or

- ightharpoonup incidence rate difference ID =  $I_1 I_0$ ,
- ightharpoonup incidence proportion difference IPD =  $Q_1 Q_0$ , or
- ▶ prevalence difference  $PD = P_1 P_0$ .

- ightharpoonup incidence rate difference ID =  $I_1 I_0$ ,
- ightharpoonup incidence proportion difference IPD =  $Q_1 Q_0$ , or
- ▶ prevalence difference  $PD = P_1 P_0$ .

Generic term "excess risk" or "risk difference" (RD) btw exposed and unexposed can refer to

- ightharpoonup incidence rate difference ID =  $I_1 I_0$ ,
- ightharpoonup incidence proportion difference IPD =  $Q_1 Q_0$ , or
- ▶ prevalence difference  $PD = P_1 P_0$ .

Use of relative and absolute comparisons

Ratios — describe the beginitemizeological strength of the exposure

Generic term "excess risk" or "risk difference" (RD) btw exposed and unexposed can refer to

- ightharpoonup incidence rate difference ID =  $I_1 I_0$ ,
- ▶ incidence proportion difference IPD =  $Q_1 Q_0$ , or
- ▶ prevalence difference  $PD = P_1 P_0$ .

Use of relative and absolute comparisons

- ▶ Ratios describe the **beginitemizeological strength** of the exposure
- Differences inform about its public health importance.

### **Example** (IS, Table 5.2, p.97)

Relative and absolute comparisons between the exposed and the unexposed to risk factor X in two diseases.

# Example (IS, Table 5.2, p.97)

Relative and absolute comparisons between the exposed and the unexposed to risk factor X in two diseases.

Disease A	Disease B
20	80
5	40
4.0	2.0
15	40
	20 5 4.0

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Rates per 100 000 pyrs.

### **Example** (IS, Table 5.2, p.97)

Relative and absolute comparisons between the exposed and the unexposed to risk factor X in two diseases.

	Disease A	Disease B
Incidence rate among exposed $^a$	20	80
Incidence rate among unexposed $^a$	5	40
Rate ratio	4.0	2.0
Rate difference $^a$	15	40
Rate difference	15	40

 $<sup>^</sup>a$  Rates per 100 000 pyrs.

Factor X has a stronger biological potency for disease A, but it has a greater public health importance for disease B.

# Attributable fraction (excess fraction)

Measures of potential impact: Combination of absolute and relative comparisons.

# Attributable fraction (excess fraction)

- Measures of potential impact: Combination of absolute and relative comparisons.
- This measure estimates the fraction out of all new cases of disease <u>among those exposed</u>, which are attributable to (or "caused" by) the exposure itself, and which thus could be avoided if the exposure were absent.

# Attributable fraction (excess fraction)

- Measures of potential impact: Combination of absolute and relative comparisons.
- This measure estimates the fraction out of all new cases of disease <u>among those exposed</u>, which are attributable to (or "caused" by) the exposure itself, and which thus could be avoided if the exposure were absent.
- ▶ When the incidence is higher in the exposed, the attributable fraction (AF) for the exposure or risk factor is defined as:

$$\mathsf{AF} = \frac{I_1 - I_0}{I_1} = \frac{\mathsf{RR} - 1}{\mathsf{RR}}.$$

Also called excess fraction (or even "attributable risk" in old texts).

► Suppose we ask instead:

- ► Suppose we ask instead:
- "How large a fraction of all cases in the population would be prevented, if the exposure were eliminated?"

- ► Suppose we ask instead:
- "How large a fraction of all cases in the population would be prevented, if the exposure were eliminated?"
- ► The answer to this question depends in addition on

 $p_{\mathsf{E}} = \mathsf{proportion}$  of exposed in the population.

- Suppose we ask instead:
- "How large a fraction of all cases in the population would be prevented, if the exposure were eliminated?"
- ► The answer to this question depends in addition on

 $p_{\mathsf{E}} = \mathsf{proportion}$  of exposed in the population.

▶ Population attributable (excess) fraction (PAF) is defined:

$$\mathsf{PAF} = \frac{I - I_0}{I} = \frac{p_{\mathsf{E}}(\mathsf{RR} - 1)}{1 + p_{\mathsf{E}}(\mathsf{RR} - 1)}$$

- Suppose we ask instead:
- "How large a fraction of all cases in the population would be prevented, if the exposure were eliminated?"
- ► The answer to this question depends in addition on

 $p_{\mathsf{E}} = \mathsf{proportion}$  of exposed in the population.

▶ Population attributable (excess) fraction (PAF) is defined:

$$\mathsf{PAF} = \frac{I - I_0}{I} = \frac{p_{\mathsf{E}}(\mathsf{RR} - 1)}{1 + p_{\mathsf{E}}(\mathsf{RR} - 1)}$$

► AF: biological impact of exposure,

- Suppose we ask instead:
- "How large a fraction of all cases in the population would be prevented, if the exposure were eliminated?"
- ► The answer to this question depends in addition on

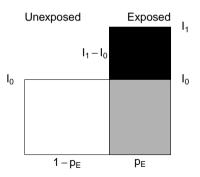
 $p_{\mathsf{E}} = \mathsf{proportion}$  of exposed in the population.

▶ Population attributable (excess) fraction (PAF) is defined:

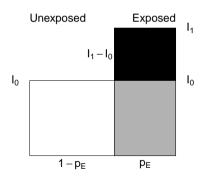
$$\mathsf{PAF} = \frac{I - I_0}{I} = \frac{p_{\mathsf{E}}(\mathsf{RR} - 1)}{1 + p_{\mathsf{E}}(\mathsf{RR} - 1)}$$

- ► AF: biological impact of exposure,
- ▶ PAF: impact of exposure on the population level.

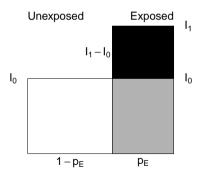
▶ The population is divided into exposed and unexposed.



- ▶ The population is divided into exposed and unexposed.
- ▶ The rate  $I_1$  among the exposed would be  $I_0$ , *i.e.* the same as in the unexposed, if the exposure had no effect.

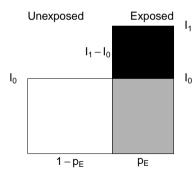


- ▶ The population is divided into exposed and unexposed.
- ▶ The rate  $I_1$  among the exposed would be  $I_0$ , *i.e.* the same as in the unexposed, if the exposure had no effect.
- ▶ The excess incidence  $I_1 I_0$  is caused by the exposure.

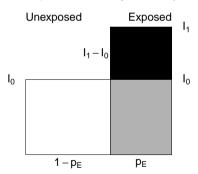


- ▶ The population is divided into exposed and unexposed.
- ▶ The rate  $I_1$  among the exposed would be  $I_0$ , *i.e.* the same as in the unexposed, if the exposure had no effect.
- ▶ The excess incidence  $I_1 I_0$  is caused by the exposure.

$$\blacktriangleright \mathsf{AF} = \frac{I_1 - I_0}{I_1},$$



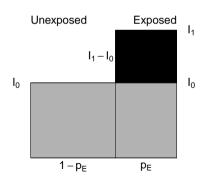
- ▶ The population is divided into exposed and unexposed.
- ▶ The rate  $I_1$  among the exposed would be  $I_0$ , *i.e.* the same as in the unexposed, if the exposure had no effect.
- ▶ The excess incidence  $I_1 I_0$  is caused by the exposure.
- $\blacktriangleright \mathsf{AF} = \frac{I_1 I_0}{I_1},$
- fraction of black area out of total black + gray area.



► Total incidence *I* in the population – a wenditemizeghted average:

$$I = p_{\mathsf{E}} \times I_1 + (1 - p_{\mathsf{E}}) \times I_0$$
 (total area)

would equal  $I_0$ , if exposure had no effect

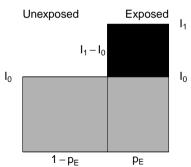


► Total incidence *I* in the population – a wenditemizeghted average:

$$I = p_{\mathsf{E}} \times I_1 + (1 - p_{\mathsf{E}}) \times I_0$$
 (total area)

would equal  $I_0$ , if exposure had no effect

lacktriangle Excess incidence caused by exposure:  $I-I_0=p_{\mathsf{E}}\times (I_1-I_0)$  (black area).



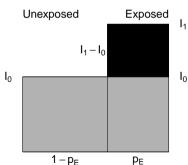
► Total incidence *I* in the population – a wenditemizeghted average:

$$I = p_{\mathsf{E}} \times I_1 + (1 - p_{\mathsf{E}}) \times I_0$$
 (total area)

would equal  $I_0$ , if exposure had no effect

Excess incidence caused by exposure:  $I-I_0=p_{\mathsf{E}} imes (I_1-I_0)$  (black area).

 $\blacktriangleright \mathsf{PAF} = \frac{I - I_0}{I},$ 

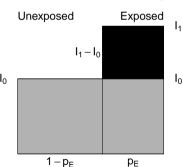


► Total incidence *I* in the population – a wenditemizeghted average:

$$I = p_{\mathsf{E}} \times I_1 + (1 - p_{\mathsf{E}}) \times I_0$$
 (total area)

would equal  $I_0$ , if exposure had no effect

- lacktriangle Excess incidence caused by exposure:  $I-I_0=p_{\mathsf{E}}\times (I_1-I_0)$  (black area).
- ightharpoonup PAF =  $\frac{I-I_0}{I}$ ,
- = fraction of
   black area
   out of total
   black + gray area.



▶ When the incidence in exposed is lower, we define the **prevented fraction**:

$$PF = \frac{I_0 - I_1}{I_0} = 1 - RR$$

▶ When the incidence in exposed is lower, we define the **prevented fraction**:

$$PF = \frac{I_0 - I_1}{I_0} = 1 - RR$$

▶ When the incidence in exposed is lower, we define the **prevented fraction**:

$$\mathsf{PF} = \frac{I_0 - I_1}{I_0} = 1 - \mathsf{RR}$$

also called relative risk reduction

- = percentage of cases prevented among the exposed due to the exposure.
- ► Used to evaluate the relative effect of a preventive intervention ("exposure") vs. no intervention.

▶ When the incidence in exposed is lower, we define the **prevented fraction**:

$$\mathsf{PF} = \frac{I_0 - I_1}{I_0} = 1 - \mathsf{RR}$$

also called relative risk reduction

- = percentage of cases prevented among the exposed due to the exposure.
- ► Used to evaluate the relative effect of a preventive intervention ("exposure") vs. no intervention.

▶ When the incidence in exposed is lower, we define the **prevented fraction**:

$$\mathsf{PF} = \frac{I_0 - I_1}{I_0} = 1 - \mathsf{RR}$$

also called relative risk reduction

- = percentage of cases prevented among the exposed due to the exposure.
- ► Used to evaluate the relative effect of a preventive intervention ("exposure") vs. no intervention.
- ▶ Population prevented fraction (PPF) combines this with the prevalence of exposure in the population:

$$\mathsf{PPF} = \frac{I_0 - I}{I_0} = p_{\mathsf{E}} \times (1 - \mathsf{RR}),$$

measuring the relative reduction in caseload attributable to the presence of preventive factor in the population.

# Smoking on mortality by cause (IS: Ex 5.14, p. 98)

Underlying cause of death	Never smoked regularly Rate <sup>b</sup>	Current cigarette smoker Rate <sup>b</sup>	Rate ratio	Rate differ- ence <sup>b</sup>	Attributable fraction (%)
	(1)	(2)	(2)/(1)	(2) - (1)	$\frac{(2) - (1)}{(2)} \times 100$
Cancer type					
All sites	305	656	2.2	351	54
Lung	14	209	14.9	195	93
Oesophagus	4	30	7.5	26	87
Bladder	13	30	2.3	17	57
Respiratory diseases	107	313	2.9	206	66
Vascular diseases	1037	1643	1.6	606	37
All causes	1706	3038	1.8	1332	44

a Data from Doll *et al.*, 1994a.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup> Age-adjusted rates per 100 000 pyrs.

# Time scales

#### Bendix Carstensen & Esa Läärä

Nordic Summerschool of Cancer Epidemiology Danish Cancer Society / NCU, August 2022 / January 2023

http://BendixCarstensen.com/NSCE/2022

#### Rates on several time scales

can be studied on various distinct time scales, e.g.

Time scale	Origin: date of
age	birth
calendar time	1900-1-1
exposure time	•
follow-up time	entry to study
duration of disease	diagnosis

► Age is usully the strongest time-dependent determinant of health outcomes.

#### Rates on several time scales

can be studied on various distinct time scales, e.g.

Time scale	Origin: date of
age	birth
calendar time	1900-1-1
exposure time	first exposure
follow-up time	entry to study
duration of disease	diagnosis

► Age is usully the strongest time-dependent determinant of health outcomes.

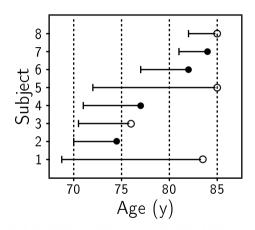
#### Rates on several time scales

can be studied on various distinct time scales, e.g.

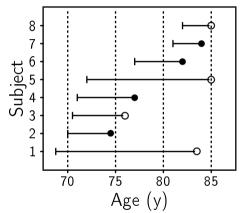
Time scale	Origin: date of	
age	birth	
calendar time	1900-1-1	
exposure time	first exposure	
follow-up time	entry to study	
duration of disease	diagnosis	

- ▶ Age is usully the strongest time-dependent determinant of health outcomes.
- Age is also often correlated with cumulative exposure (e.g. years of smoking).

# Follow-up of a small geriatric cohort

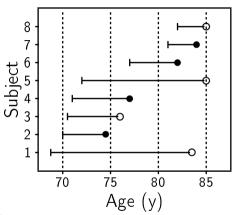


# Follow-up of a small geriatric cohort



Overall rate: 4 cases/53.5 person-years = 7.5 per 100 y.

## Follow-up of a small geriatric cohort



Overall rate: 4 cases/53.5 person-years = 7.5 per 100 y. But the "true" rate varies by age, it is higher among the old.

➤ To describe, how incidence varies by age, individual person-years from age of entry to age of exit must first be split or divided into narrower agebands.

➤ To describe, how incidence varies by age, individual person-years from age of entry to age of exit must first be split or divided into narrower agebands.

- ➤ To describe, how incidence varies by age, individual person-years from age of entry to age of exit must first be split or divided into narrower agebands.
- Usually these are based on common 5-year age grouping.

- ➤ To describe, how incidence varies by age, individual person-years from age of entry to age of exit must first be split or divided into narrower agebands.
- Usually these are based on common 5-year age grouping.

- ➤ To describe, how incidence varies by age, individual person-years from age of entry to age of exit must first be split or divided into narrower agebands.
- Usually these are based on common 5-year age grouping.
- Numbers of cases are equally divided into same agebands.

- ➤ To describe, how incidence varies by age, individual person-years from age of entry to age of exit must first be split or divided into narrower agebands.
- Usually these are based on common 5-year age grouping.
- Numbers of cases are equally divided into same agebands.

- ➤ To describe, how incidence varies by age, individual person-years from age of entry to age of exit must first be split or divided into narrower agebands.
- Usually these are based on common 5-year age grouping.
- Numbers of cases are equally divided into same agebands.
- ightharpoonup Age-specific incidence rate for age group k is

- ➤ To describe, how incidence varies by age, individual person-years from age of entry to age of exit must first be split or divided into narrower agebands.
- Usually these are based on common 5-year age grouping.
- Numbers of cases are equally divided into same agebands.
- ightharpoonup Age-specific incidence rate for age group k is

- ➤ To describe, how incidence varies by age, individual person-years from age of entry to age of exit must first be split or divided into narrower agebands.
- Usually these are based on common 5-year age grouping.
- Numbers of cases are equally divided into same agebands.
- ightharpoonup Age-specific incidence rate for age group k is

$$I_k = rac{ ext{number of cases observed in ageband}}{ ext{person-years contained in ageband}}$$

Underlying assumption: piecewise constant rates (in each age band)

		Ageband		
Subject	70-74	75-79	80-84	Total

		Ageband		_
Subject	70-74	75-79	80-84	Total
1	5.0	5.0	3.5	13.5

Subject	70-74	75-79	80-84	Total
1	5.0	5.0	3.5	13.5
2	4.5	-	-	4.5

	Ageband						
Subject	70-74	75-79	80-84	Total			
1	5.0	5.0	3.5	13.5			
2	4.5	-	-	4.5			
3	4.5	1.0	_	5.5			

Subject	70-74	75-79	80-84	Total
1	5.0	5.0	3.5	13.5
2	4.5	-	-	4.5
3	4.5	1.0	-	5.5
4	4.0	2.0	-	6.0
5	3.0	5.0	5.0	13.0
6	-	3.0	2.0	5.0
7	-	-	3.0	3.0
8	-	-	3.0	3.0

		Ageband		
Subject	70-74	75-79	80-84	Total
1	5.0	5.0	3.5	13.5
2	4.5	_	-	4.5
3	4.5	1.0	-	5.5
4	4.0	2.0	-	6.0
5	3.0	5.0	5.0	13.0
6	_	3.0	2.0	5.0
7	-	_	3.0	3.0
8	-	-	3.0	3.0
Sum of person-years	21.0	16.0	16.5	53.5

		Ageband		
Subject	70-74	75-79	80-84	Total
1	5.0	5.0	3.5	13.5
2	4.5	_	-	4.5
3	4.5	1.0	-	5.5
4	4.0	2.0	-	6.0
5	3.0	5.0	5.0	13.0
6	-	3.0	2.0	5.0
7	-	_	3.0	3.0
8	-	-	3.0	3.0
Sum of person-years	21.0	16.0	16.5	53.5
Cases	1	1	2	4

		Ageband		
Subject	70-74	75-79	80-84	Total
1	5.0	5.0	3.5	13.5
2	4.5	_	-	4.5
3	4.5	1.0	-	5.5
4	4.0	2.0	_	6.0
5	3.0	5.0	5.0	13.0
6	_	3.0	2.0	5.0
7	_	_	3.0	3.0
8	-	-	3.0	3.0
Sum of person-years	21.0	16.0	16.5	53.5
Cases	1	1	2	4
Rate $(/100 y)$	4.8	6.2	12.1	7.5
	Age-	specific	rates	overall

Calendar					Age gro	oup (y)				
period	40-44	45-49	50-54	55-59	60-64	65-69	70-74	75-79	80-84	85+
1953-57	21	61	119	209	276	340	295	279	193	93
1958-62	22	65	135	243	360	405	429	368	265	224
1963-67	24	61	143	258	395	487	509	479	430	280
1968-72	21	61	134	278	424	529	614	563	471	358
1973-77	16	50	134	251	413	541	629	580	490	392
1978-82	13	36	115	234	369	514	621	653	593	442
1983-87	11	31	74	186	347	450	566	635	592	447
1988-92	9	25	57	128	262	411	506	507	471	441
1993-97	7	22	48	106	188	329	467	533	487	367
1998-02	5	14	46	77	150	239	358	445	396	346

Calendar					Age gro	oup (y)				
period	40-44	45-49	50-54	55-59	60-64	65-69	70-74	75-79	80-84	85+
1953-57	21	61	119	209	276	340	295	279	193	93
1958-62	22	65	135	243	360	405	429	368	265	224
1963-67	24	61	143	258	395	487	509	479	430	280
1968-72	21	61	134	278	424	529	614	563	471	358
1973-77	16	50	134	251	413	541	629	580	490	392
1978-82	13	36	115	234	369	514	621	653	593	442
1983-87	11	31	74	186	347	450	566	635	592	447
1988-92	9	25	57	128	262	411	506	507	471	441
1993-97	7	22	48	106	188	329	467	533	487	367
1998-02	5	14	46	77	150	239	358	445	396	346

▶ Rows: age-incidence pattern in different calendar periods.

Calendar					Age gro	oup (y)				
period	40-44	45-49	50-54	55-59	60-64	65-69	70-74	75-79	80-84	85+
1953-57	21	61	119	209	276	340	295	279	193	93
1958-62	22	65	135	243	360	405	429	368	265	224
1963-67	24	61	143	258	395	487	509	479	430	280
1968-72	21	61	134	278	424	529	614	563	471	358
1973-77	16	50	134	251	413	541	629	580	490	392
1978-82	13	36	115	234	369	514	621	653	593	442
1983-87	11	31	74	186	347	450	566	635	592	447
1988-92	9	25	57	128	262	411	506	507	471	441
1993-97	7	22	48	106	188	329	467	533	487	367
1998-02	5	14	46	77	150	239	358	445	396	346

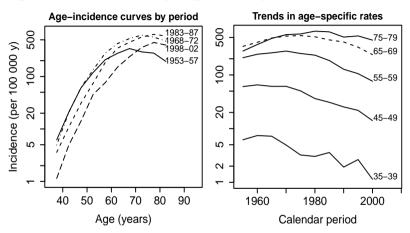
▶ Rows: age-incidence pattern in different calendar periods.

Calendar					Age gro	oup (y)				
period	40-44	45-49	50-54	55-59	60-64	65-69	70-74	75-79	80-84	85+
1953-57	21	61	119	209	276	340	295	279	193	93
1958-62	22	65	135	243	360	405	429	368	265	224
1963-67	24	61	143	258	395	487	509	479	430	280
1968-72	21	61	134	278	424	529	614	563	471	358
1973-77	16	50	134	251	413	541	629	580	490	392
1978-82	13	36	115	234	369	514	621	653	593	442
1983-87	11	31	74	186	347	450	566	635	592	447
1988-92	9	25	57	128	262	411	506	507	471	441
1993-97	7	22	48	106	188	329	467	533	487	367
1998-02	5	14	46	77	150	239	358	445	396	346

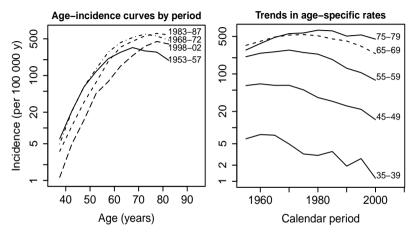
▶ Rows: age-incidence pattern in different calendar periods.

Columns: Trends of age-specific rates over calendar time.

#### Lung cancer rates by age and period

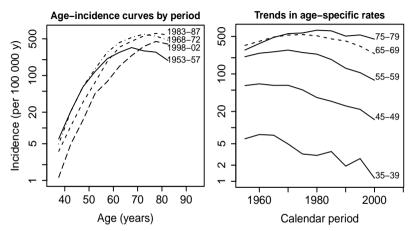


## Lung cancer rates by age and period



► Age-incidence curves: overall level and peak age variable across periods.

# Lung cancer rates by age and period



- ► Age-incidence curves: overall level and peak age variable across periods.
- ▶ Time trends inconsistent across age groups: decline onset at different dates.

➤ Secular trends of specific and adjusted rates show, how the "cancer burden" has developed over periods of calendar time.

➤ Secular trends of specific and adjusted rates show, how the "cancer burden" has developed over periods of calendar time.

➤ Secular trends of specific and adjusted rates show, how the "cancer burden" has developed over periods of calendar time.

**Birth cohort** = people born during the same limited time interval, *e.g.* single calendar year, or 5 years period.

➤ Secular trends of specific and adjusted rates show, how the "cancer burden" has developed over periods of calendar time.

**Birth cohort** = people born during the same limited time interval, *e.g.* single calendar year, or 5 years period.

- Analysis of rates by birth cohort reveals, how the level of incidence (or mortality) differs between successive generations.
  - May reflect differences in risk factor levels across birth cohorts.

Secular trends of specific and adjusted rates show, how the "cancer burden" has developed over periods of calendar time.

**Birth cohort** = people born during the same limited time interval, *e.g.* single calendar year, or 5 years period.

- Analysis of rates by birth cohort reveals, how the level of incidence (or mortality) differs between successive generations.
  - May reflect differences in risk factor levels across birth cohorts.
- ➤ Often more informative about "true" age-incidence pattern than age-specific incidences of single calendar period.

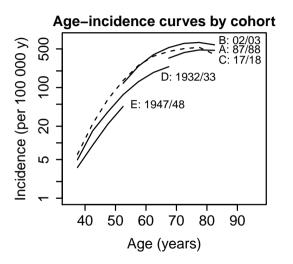
# Age-specific rates by birth cohort

Calendar	Age group (y)								
period	40-44	45-49	50-54	55-59	60-64	65-69	70-74	75-79	
1953-57	21	61	119	209	276	340	295	279	
1958-62	22	65	135	243	360	405	429	368	
1963-67	24	61	143	258	395	487	509	479	Α
1968-72	21	61	134	278	424	529	614	563	
1973-77	16	50	134	251	413	541	629	580	
1978-82	13	36	115	234	369	514	621	653	В
1983-87	11	31	74	186	347	450	566	635	
1988-92	9	25	57	128	262	411	506	507	
1993-97	7	22	48	106	188	329	467	533	C
1998-02	5	14	46	77	150	239	358	445	
			E: 19	47/48	D: 1932/33				

 $A = synthetic \ cohort \ born \ around \ 1887/88, \ B: \ 1902/03, \ C: \ 1917/18$ 

Diagonals reflect age-incidence patterns in various birth cohorts.

#### Age-incidence curves in 5 birth cohorts



Variable overall rates but fairly consistent form and similar peak age across

Time sdifferent birth cohorts.

► Incidence of (or mortality from) disease C in special cohort of exposed (e.g. occupational group, patients on certain treatment)

► Incidence of (or mortality from) disease C in special cohort of exposed (e.g. occupational group, patients on certain treatment)

- ▶ Incidence of (or mortality from) disease C in special cohort of exposed (e.g. occupational group, patients on certain treatment)
  - → often compared to incidence in an external **reference** or "general" population.

- ▶ Incidence of (or mortality from) disease C in special cohort of exposed (e.g. occupational group, patients on certain treatment)
  - $\rightarrow$  often compared to incidence in an external **reference** or "general" population.
- ► Adjustment for age and calendar time needed, e.g. by comparing observed to expected cases with SIR (see p. 70-74).

- ▶ Incidence of (or mortality from) disease C in special cohort of exposed (e.g. occupational group, patients on certain treatment)
  - $\rightarrow$  often compared to incidence in an external **reference** or "general" population.
- ► Adjustment for age and calendar time needed, e.g. by comparing observed to expected cases with SIR (see p. 70-74).

- ▶ Incidence of (or mortality from) disease C in special cohort of exposed (e.g. occupational group, patients on certain treatment)
  - → often compared to incidence in an external **reference** or "general" population.
- ► Adjustment for age and calendar time needed, e.g. by comparing observed to expected cases with SIR (see p. 70-74).
  - ⇒ Cases and person-years in the study cohort must be split by more than one time scale (age).

## **Example** (adapted from C&H, Tables 6.2 & 6.3, p. 54)

Entry and exit dates for a small cohort of four subjects

Subject	Born	Entry	Exit	Age at entry	Outcome
1	1954	1993	2002	39	Migrated
2	1974	1998	2005	24	Disease ${\cal C}$
3	1964	1995	2011	31	Study ends
4	1970	1998	2006	28	Unrelated death

Time scales (ELrates) 51/105

## **Example** (adapted from C&H, Tables 6.2 & 6.3, p. 54)

Entry and exit dates for a small cohort of four subjects

Subject	Born	Entry	Exit	Age at entry	Outcome
1	1954	1993	2002	39	Migrated
2	1974	1998	2005	24	Disease ${\cal C}$
3	1964	1995	2011	31	Study ends
4	1970	1998	2006	28	Unrelated death

Subject 1: Follow-up time spent in each ageband

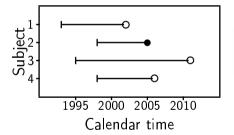
Age band	Date in	Date out	Time (years)
35-39	1993	1994	1
40-44	1994	1999	5
45–49	1999	2002	3

Time scales (ELrates) 51/105

## **Example:** (*cf.* C&H, Figures 6.1 & 6.2, p. 55)

Follow-up of cohort members by calendar time and age: entry

exit because of disease onset (outcome of interest)exit due to other reason (censoring)

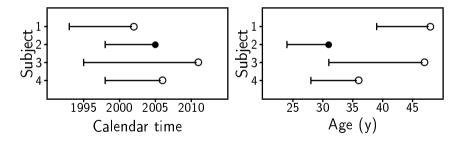


Time scales (ELrates) 52/ 105

## **Example:** (*cf.* C&H, Figures 6.1 & 6.2, p. 55)

Follow-up of cohort members by calendar time and age: entry

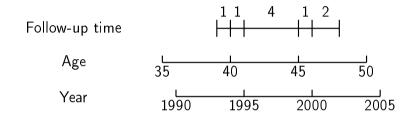
- exit because of disease onset (outcome of interest)
- o exit due to other reason (censoring)



Time scales (ELrates) 52/105

### **Person-years by age and period** (cf. C&H, Figure 6.4)

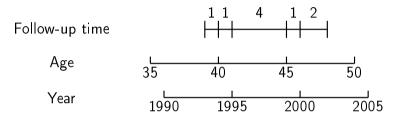
Subject 1: Follow-up jointly split by age and calendar time:



Time scales (ELrates) 53/ 105

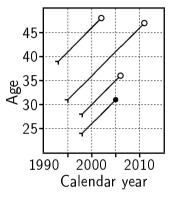
### **Person-years by age and period** (cf. C&H, Figure 6.4)

Subject 1: Follow-up jointly split by age and calendar time:

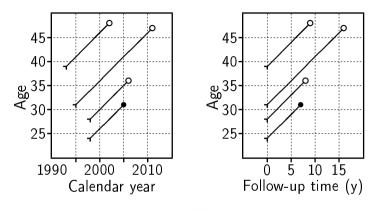


This person contributes person-time into 5 different cells defined by ageband & calendar period

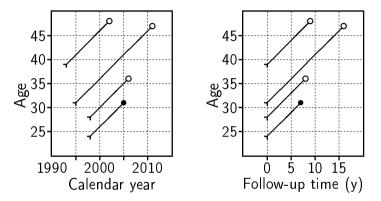
Time scales (ELrates) 53/105



Time scales (ELrates) 54/ 105

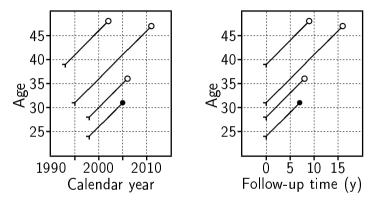


Time scales (Etrates) 54/105



Follow-up lines run diagonally through different ages and calendar periods.

Time scales (ELrates) 54/105



Follow-up lines run diagonally through different ages and calendar periods. Incidence rates can depend **both** on age and calendar time:

See the Lexis functions in the Epi package.

Time scales (ELrates) 54/ 105

## Standardization

Bendix Carstensen & Esa Läärä

Nordic Summerschool of Cancer Epidemiology Danish Cancer Society / NCU, August 2022 / January 2023

http://BendixCarstensen.com/NSCE/2022

► Incidence of most cancers (and many other diseases) increases strongly by age in all populations.

► Incidence of most cancers (and many other diseases) increases strongly by age in all populations.

► Incidence of most cancers (and many other diseases) increases strongly by age in all populations.

 $\Rightarrow$  Most of the caseload comes from older age groups.

- ► Incidence of most cancers (and many other diseases) increases strongly by age in all populations.
  - $\Rightarrow$  Most of the caseload comes from older age groups.
- $\begin{tabular}{ll} \begin{tabular}{ll} \be$

- ▶ Incidence of most cancers (and many other diseases) increases strongly by age in all populations.
  - $\Rightarrow$  Most of the caseload comes from older age groups.
- $\begin{tabular}{ll} \begin{tabular}{ll} \be$ 
  - numerator = sum of age-specific numbers of cases,

- ▶ Incidence of most cancers (and many other diseases) increases strongly by age in all populations.
  - $\Rightarrow$  Most of the caseload comes from older age groups.
- $\begin{tabular}{ll} \begin{tabular}{ll} \be$ 
  - numerator = sum of age-specific numbers of cases,
  - denominator = sum of age-specific person-years.

- ▶ Incidence of most cancers (and many other diseases) increases strongly by age in all populations.
  - $\Rightarrow$  Most of the caseload comes from older age groups.
- $\begin{tabular}{ll} \begin{tabular}{ll} \be$ 
  - numerator = sum of age-specific numbers of cases,
  - denominator = sum of age-specific person-years.
- This is generally a poor summary measure.

- ▶ Incidence of most cancers (and many other diseases) increases strongly by age in all populations.
  - $\Rightarrow$  Most of the caseload comes from older age groups.
- $\begin{tabular}{ll} \begin{tabular}{ll} \be$ 
  - numerator = sum of age-specific numbers of cases,
  - denominator = sum of age-specific person-years.
- This is generally a poor summary measure.
- Comparisons of crude incidences between populations can be very misleading, when the age structures differ.

- ▶ Incidence of most cancers (and many other diseases) increases strongly by age in all populations.
  - $\Rightarrow$  Most of the caseload comes from older age groups.
- $\begin{tabular}{ll} \begin{tabular}{ll} \be$ 
  - numerator = sum of age-specific numbers of cases,
  - denominator = sum of age-specific person-years.
- This is generally a poor summary measure.
- Comparisons of crude incidences between populations can be very misleading, when the age structures differ.

- ▶ Incidence of most cancers (and many other diseases) increases strongly by age in all populations.
  - ⇒ Most of the caseload comes from older age groups.
- $\begin{tabular}{ll} \begin{tabular}{ll} \be$ 
  - numerator = sum of age-specific numbers of cases,
  - denominator = sum of age-specific person-years.
- This is generally a poor summary measure.
- ► Comparisons of crude incidences between populations can be very misleading, when the age structures differ.

Adjustment or standardization for age needed!

		Cali			Birmingham			
		Male	Incid.		Male	Incid.		
	Male	Popu-	Rate	Male	Popu-	Rate		
	cases	lation	$(/10^{5} { m y})$	cases	lation	$(/10^{5} { m y})$		
Age	1982	1984	1982	1983	1985	1983	Rate	
(y)	-86	$(\times 10^3)$	-86	-86	$(\times 10^3)$	-86	ratio	

		Cali			Birmingha	m	
		Male	Incid.		Male	Incid.	
	Male	Popu-	Rate	Male	Popu-	Rate	
	cases	lation	$(/10^{5} { m y})$	cases	lation	$(/10^{5} { m y})$	
Age	1982	1984	1982	1983	1985	1983	Rate
(y)	-86	$(\times 10^3)$	-86	-86	$(\times 10^3)$	-86	ratio
0–44	39	524.2	1.5	79	1 683.6	1.2	1.25

Ex. Male stomach cancer in Cali and Birmingham (IS, Table 4.2, p. 71)

		Cali			Birmingha	ım	
		Male	Incid.	N.4. I	Male	Incid.	
	Male	Popu-	Rate	Male	Popu-	Rate	
	cases	lation	$(/10^{5} { m y})$	cases	lation	$(/10^{5} { m y})$	
Age	1982	1984	1982	1983	1985	1983	Rate
(y)	-86	$(\times 10^3)$	-86	-86	$(\times 10^3)$	-86	ratio
0–44	39	524.2	1.5	79	1 683.6	1.2	1.25
45-64	266	76.3	69.7	1037	581.5	44.6	1.56

		Cali			Birmingha	ım	
Age (y)	Male cases 1982 -86	Male Population $1984 \ (\times 10^3)$	Incid . Rate (/10 <sup>5</sup> y) 1982 -86	Male cases 1983 -86	Male Popu- lation 1985 $(\times 10^3)$	Incid . Rate (/10 <sup>5</sup> y) 1983 -86	Rate ratio
0–44 45-64 65+	39 266 315	524.2 76.3 22.4	1.5 69.7 281.3	79 1037 2352	1 683.6 581.5 291.1	1.2 44.6 202.0	1.25 1.56 1.39

Ex. Male stomach cancer in Cali and Birmingham (IS, Table 4.2, p. 71)

		Cali			Birmingham		
Age (y)	Male cases 1982 -86	Male Popu- lation 1984 $(\times 10^3)$	Incid. Rate (/10 <sup>5</sup> y) 1982 -86	Male cases 1983 -86	Male Popu- lation 1985 $(\times 10^3)$	Incid. Rate (/10 <sup>5</sup> y) 1983 -86	Rate ratio
0–44 45-64 65+	39 266 315	524.2 76.3 22.4	1.5 69.7 281.3	79 1037 2352	1 683.6 581.5 291.1	1.2 44.6 202.0	1.25 1.56 1.39
Total	620	622.9	19.9	3468	2 556.2	33.9	0.59

		Cali			Birmingha	ım	
	Male cases	Male Popu- lation	Incid. Rate $(/10^5 y)$	Male cases	Male Popu- lation	Incid. Rate $(/10^5 y)$	
Age (y)	1982 -86	$1984 \ (\times 10^3)$	1982 -86	1983 -86	$1985 \ (\times 10^3)$	1983 -86	Rate ratio
0–44 45-64 65+	39 266 315	524.2 76.3 22.4	1.5 69.7 281.3	79 1037 2352	1 683.6 581.5 291.1	1.2 44.6 202.0	1.25 1.56 1.39
Total	620	622.9	19.9	3468	2 556.2	33.9	0.59

- ► In each age group Cali has a higher incidence
  - but the crude incidence is higher in Birmingham.

		Cali			Birmingha	ım	
	Male cases	Male Popu- lation	Incid. Rate $(/10^5 y)$	Male cases	Male Popu- lation	Incid. Rate $(/10^5 y)$	
Age (y)	1982 -86	$1984 \ (\times 10^3)$	1982 -86	1983 -86	$1985 \ (\times 10^3)$	1983 -86	Rate ratio
0–44 45-64 65+	39 266 315	524.2 76.3 22.4	1.5 69.7 281.3	79 1037 2352	1 683.6 581.5 291.1	1.2 44.6 202.0	1.25 1.56 1.39
Total	620	622.9	19.9	3468	2 556.2	33.9	0.59

- ► In each age group Cali has a higher incidence
  - but the crude incidence is higher in Birmingham.

		Cali			Birmingha	ım	
	Male cases	Male Popu- lation	Incid. Rate $(/10^5 y)$	Male cases	Male Popu- lation	Incid. Rate $(/10^5 y)$	
Age (y)	1982 -86	$1984 \ (\times 10^3)$	1982 -86	1983 -86	$1985 \ (\times 10^3)$	1983 -86	Rate ratio
0–44 45-64 65+	39 266 315	524.2 76.3 22.4	1.5 69.7 281.3	79 1037 2352	1 683.6 581.5 291.1	1.2 44.6 202.0	1.25 1.56 1.39
Total	620	622.9	19.9	3468	2 556.2	33.9	0.59

- In each age group Cali has a higher incidence
  - but the crude incidence is higher in Birmingham.

► Is there a paradox?

## Comparison of age structures (IS, Tables 4.3, 4.4)

	% of male population							
Age	Cali	B'ham	Finland	World				
(years)	1984	1985	2011	Stand.				
0-44	84	66	56	74				
45-64	12	23	29	19				
65+	4	11	15	7				
All ages	100	100	100	100				

Comparison of age structures (IS, Tables 4.3, 4.4)

	% of male population				
Age	Cali	B'ham	Finland	World	
(years)	1984	1985	2011	Stand.	
0-44	84	66	56	74	
45-64	12	23	29	19	
65 +	4	11	15	7	
All ages	100	100	100	100	

The fraction of old men greater in Birmingham than in Cali.

⇒ Crude rates are **confounded** by age.

## Comparison of age structures (IS, Tables 4.3, 4.4)

	% of male population				
Age	——— Cali	B'ham	Finland	World	
(years)	1984	1985	2011	${\sf Stand}.$	
0-44	84	66	56	74	
45-64	12	23	29	19	
65+	4	11	15	7	
All ages	100	100	100	100	

The fraction of old men greater in Birmingham than in Cali.

- ⇒ Crude rates are **confounded** by age.
- ⇒ Any summary rate must be adjusted for age.

Age-standardised incidence rate (ASR):

$$\mathrm{ASR} = \sum_{k=1}^K \mathrm{weight}_k \times \mathrm{rate}_k \; / \; \mathrm{sum \; of \; weights} = \sum_{k=1}^K w_k \times \mathrm{rate}_k, \quad (\sum_{k=1}^K w_k = 1)$$

A weighted average of age-specific rates over the age-groups  $k=1,\ldots,K$ 

Age-standardised incidence rate (ASR):

$$\mathrm{ASR} = \sum_{k=1}^K \mathsf{weight}_k \times \mathsf{rate}_k \; / \; \mathsf{sum} \; \; \mathsf{of} \; \; \mathsf{weights} = \sum_{k=1}^K w_k \times \mathsf{rate}_k, \quad (\sum_{k=1}^K w_k = 1)$$

- A weighted average of age-specific rates over the age-groups  $k = 1, \dots, K$ .
- ▶ Weights describe the age distribution of some standard population.

Age-standardised incidence rate (ASR):

$$\mathrm{ASR} = \sum_{k=1}^K \mathrm{weight}_k \times \mathrm{rate}_k \ / \ \mathrm{sum \ of \ weights} = \sum_{k=1}^K w_k \times \mathrm{rate}_k, \quad (\sum_{k=1}^K w_k = 1)$$

- A weighted average of age-specific rates over the age-groups  $k = 1, \dots, K$ .
- ▶ Weights describe the age distribution of some standard population.
- Standard population can be

Age-standardised incidence rate (ASR):

$$\mathrm{ASR} = \sum_{k=1}^K \mathrm{weight}_k \times \mathrm{rate}_k \; / \; \mathrm{sum \; of \; weights} = \sum_{k=1}^K w_k \times \mathrm{rate}_k, \quad (\sum_{k=1}^K w_k = 1)$$

- A weighted average of age-specific rates over the age-groups  $k = 1, \dots, K$ .
- ▶ Weights describe the age distribution of some standard population.
- ► Standard population can be
  - real (e.g. one of the populations compared, or their total), or

### Adjustment by direct standardisation

Age-standardised incidence rate (ASR):

$$\mathrm{ASR} = \sum_{k=1}^K \mathrm{weight}_k \times \mathrm{rate}_k \; / \; \mathrm{sum \; of \; weights} = \sum_{k=1}^K w_k \times \mathrm{rate}_k, \quad (\sum_{k=1}^K w_k = 1)$$

- A weighted average of age-specific rates over the age-groups  $k = 1, \dots, K$ .
- ▶ Weights describe the age distribution of some standard population.
- ► Standard population can be
  - real (e.g. one of the populations compared, or their total), or
  - ▶ fictitious (e.g. World Standard Population, WSP)

### Adjustment by direct standardisation

Age-standardised incidence rate (ASR):

$$\mathrm{ASR} = \sum_{k=1}^K \mathrm{weight}_k \times \mathrm{rate}_k \; / \; \mathrm{sum \; of \; weights} = \sum_{k=1}^K w_k \times \mathrm{rate}_k, \quad (\sum_{k=1}^K w_k = 1)$$

- A weighted average of age-specific rates over the age-groups  $k = 1, \dots, K$ .
- ▶ Weights describe the age distribution of some standard population.
- ► Standard population can be
  - real (e.g. one of the populations compared, or their total), or
  - ▶ fictitious (e.g. World Standard Population, WSP)
- Choice of standard population always more or less arbitrary.

### Some standard populations:

Age group (years)	African	World	European	NORDCAN (2000)
0-4	10 000	12 000	8 000	5 900
5-9	10 000	10 000	7 000	6 600
10-14	10 000	9 000	7 000	6 200
15-19	10 000	9 000	7 000	5 800
20-24	10 000	8 000	7 000	6 100
25-29	10 000	8 000	7 000	6 800
30-34	10 000	6 000	7 000	7 300
35-39	10 000	6 000	7 000	7 300
40-44	5 000	6 000	7 000	7 000
45-49	5 000	6 000	7 000	6 900
50-54	3 000	5 000	7 000	7 400
55-59	2 000	4 000	6 000	6 100
60-64	2 000	4 000	5 000	4 800
65-69	1 000	3 000	4 000	4 100
70-74	1 000	2 000	3 000	3 900
75–79	500	1 000	2 000	3 500
80-84	300	500	1 000	2 400
85+	200	500	1 000	1 900
Total	100 000	100 000	100 000	100 000

Age-standardized rates by the World Standard Population:

	Cali		Birmingham	
Age	$Rate^a$ Weig	ht	$Rate^a$	Weight
0–44 45–64		74 = 1.11 9 = 13.24	1.2 × 44.6 ×	0.74 = 0.89 $0.19 = 8.47$
45–64 65+	_	.9 = 13.24 .97 = 19.69	44.6 × 202.0 ×	0.19 = 8.47 0.07 = 14.14
Age-standardised rate 34.04				23.50

Age-standardized rates by the World Standard Population:

	Cali		Bi	rmingham
Age	$Rate^a$	Weight	$Rate^a$	Weight
0–44	1.5×	0.74 = 1.11	1.2×	0.74 = 0.89
45–64	$69.7 \times$	0.19 = 13.24	44.6 ×	0.19 = 8.47
65+	$281.3 \times$	0.07 = 19.69	$202.0 \times$	0.07 = 14.14
Age-st	Age-standardised rate 34.04			23.50

► ASR in Cali higher – coherent with the age-specific rates.

Age-standardized rates by the World Standard Population:

	Cali		Bi	rmingham
Age	$Rate^a$	Weight	$Rate^a$	Weight
0–44	1.5 ×	0.74 = 1.11	1.2×	0.74 = 0.89
45-64	$69.7 \times$	0.19 = 13.24	44.6 ×	0.19 = 8.47
65+	$281.3\times$	0.07 = 19.69	$202.0 \times$	0.07 = 14.14
Age-st	Age-standardised rate 34.04 23.50			23.50

- ► ASR in Cali higher coherent with the age-specific rates.
- Summary rate ratio estimate: standardized rate ratio SRR = 34.0/23.5 = 1.44.

Age-standardized rates by the World Standard Population:

	Cali		Bi	rmingham
Age	$Rate^a$	Weight	$Rate^a$	Weight
0–44	1.5 ×	0.74 = 1.11	1.2×	0.74 = 0.89
45-64	$69.7 \times$	0.19 = 13.24	44.6 ×	0.19 = 8.47
65+	$281.3\times$	0.07 = 19.69	$202.0 \times$	0.07 = 14.14
Age-st	Age-standardised rate 34.04 23.50			23.50

- ► ASR in Cali higher coherent with the age-specific rates.
- Summary rate ratio estimate: standardized rate ratio SRR = 34.0/23.5 = 1.44.

Age-standardized rates by the World Standard Population:

	Cali		Bi	rmingham
Age	$Rate^a$	Weight	$Rate^a$	Weight
0–44	1.5 ×	0.74 = 1.11	1.2×	0.74 = 0.89
45–64	$69.7 \times$	0.19 = 13.24	$44.6 \times$	0.19 = 8.47
65+	281.3×	0.07 = 19.69	202.0 ×	0.07 = 14.14
Age-standardised rate 34.04				23.50

- ► ASR in Cali higher coherent with the age-specific rates.
- Summary rate ratio estimate: standardized rate ratio SRR = 34.0/23.5 = 1.44.

► This is also called as **comparative mortality figure (CMF)**, when the outcome is death (from cause *C* or from all causes).

► A neutral alternative to arbitrary standard population for age-adjustment is provided by **cumulative rate**:

$$\mathsf{CumRate} = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \mathsf{width}_k \times \mathsf{rate}_k,$$

► A neutral alternative to arbitrary standard population for age-adjustment is provided by **cumulative rate**:

$$\mathsf{CumRate} = \sum_{k=1}^K \mathsf{width}_k \times \mathsf{rate}_k,$$

▶ Weights are now widths of the agebands to be included, usually up to 75 y.

► A neutral alternative to arbitrary standard population for age-adjustment is provided by **cumulative rate**:

$$\mathsf{CumRate} = \sum_{k=1}^K \mathsf{width}_k \times \mathsf{rate}_k,$$

- ▶ Weights are now widths of the agebands to be included, usually up to 75 y.
- ► NORDCAN & GLOBOCAN use the transformation:

$$CumRisk = 1 - exp(-CumRate),$$

calling it as the **cumulative risk** of getting the disease by given age, in the absence of competing causes.

► A neutral alternative to arbitrary standard population for age-adjustment is provided by **cumulative rate**:

$$\mathsf{CumRate} = \sum_{k=1}^K \mathsf{width}_k \times \mathsf{rate}_k,$$

- ▶ Weights are now widths of the agebands to be included, usually up to 75 y.
- ► NORDCAN & GLOBOCAN use the transformation:

$$\mathsf{CumRisk} = 1 - \mathsf{exp}(-\mathsf{CumRate}),$$

calling it as the cumulative risk of getting the disease by given age, in the absence of competing causes.

➤ Since competing events are present, the probability interpretation of CumRisk is somewhat problematic.

From age-specific rates of Table 4.2, the cumulative rates up to 65 years and their ratio are

Cali: 
$$45 \ y \times \frac{1.5}{10^5 y} + 20 \ y \times \frac{69.7}{10^5 y} = 0.0146 = \textbf{1.46} \ \text{per} \ 100$$

From age-specific rates of Table 4.2, the cumulative rates up to 65 years and their ratio are

Cali: 
$$45 \ y \times \frac{1.5}{10^5 y} + 20 \ y \times \frac{69.7}{10^5 y} = 0.0146 = 1.46 \ \text{per} \ 100$$

B'ham: 
$$45 \ y \times \frac{1.2}{10^5 y} + 20 \ y \times \frac{44.6}{10^5 y} = 0.0095 = \mathbf{0.95} \ \text{per} \ 100$$

From age-specific rates of Table 4.2, the cumulative rates up to 65 years and their ratio are

Cali: 
$$45 \ y \times \frac{1.5}{10^5 y} + 20 \ y \times \frac{69.7}{10^5 y} = 0.0146 = 1.46 \ \text{per} \ 100$$

B'ham: 
$$45 \ y \times \frac{1.2}{10^5 y} + 20 \ y \times \frac{44.6}{10^5 y} = 0.0095 = \textbf{0.95} \ \text{per} \ 100$$

ratio: 
$$1.46/0.95 = 1.54$$

From age-specific rates of Table 4.2, the cumulative rates up to 65 years and their ratio are

Cali: 
$$45 \ y \times \frac{1.5}{10^5 y} + 20 \ y \times \frac{69.7}{10^5 y} = 0.0146 = \textbf{1.46} \ \text{per} \ 100$$
 B'ham:  $45 \ y \times \frac{1.2}{10^5 y} + 20 \ y \times \frac{44.6}{10^5 y} = 0.0095 = \textbf{0.95} \ \text{per} \ 100$  ratio:  $\textbf{1.46/0.95} = \textbf{1.54}$ 

"Cumulative risks" & their ratio up to 65 y:

From age-specific rates of Table 4.2, the cumulative rates up to 65 years and their ratio are

Cali: 
$$45 \ y \times \frac{1.5}{10^5 y} + 20 \ y \times \frac{69.7}{10^5 y} = 0.0146 = \mathbf{1.46} \ \text{per} \ 100$$

B'ham: 
$$45 \ y \times \frac{1.2}{10^5 y} + 20 \ y \times \frac{44.6}{10^5 y} = 0.0095 = \textbf{0.95} \ \text{per} \ 100$$

ratio:

$$1.46/0.95 = 1.54$$

"Cumulative risks" & their ratio up to 65 y:

Cali: 
$$1 - \exp(-0.0146) = 0.0145 = 1.45\%$$

From age-specific rates of Table 4.2, the cumulative rates up to 65 years and their ratio are

Cali: 
$$45 \ y \times \frac{1.5}{10^5 y} + 20 \ y \times \frac{69.7}{10^5 y} = 0.0146 = \textbf{1.46} \ \text{per} \ 100$$
 B'ham:  $45 \ y \times \frac{1.2}{10^5 y} + 20 \ y \times \frac{44.6}{10^5 y} = 0.0095 = \textbf{0.95} \ \text{per} \ 100$ 

ratio:

$$1.46/0.95 = 1.54$$

"Cumulative risks" & their ratio up to 65 y:

Cali: 
$$1 - \exp(-0.0146) = 0.0145 = 1.45\%$$

B'ham: 
$$1 - \exp(-0.0095) = 0.0094 = \mathbf{0.94}\%$$

From age-specific rates of Table 4.2, the cumulative rates up to 65 years and their ratio are

Cali: 
$$45 \ y \times \frac{1.5}{10^5 y} + 20 \ y \times \frac{69.7}{10^5 y} = 0.0146 = \textbf{1.46} \ \text{per} \ 100$$
 B'ham:  $45 \ y \times \frac{1.2}{10^5 y} + 20 \ y \times \frac{44.6}{10^5 y} = 0.0095 = \textbf{0.95} \ \text{per} \ 100$ 

ratio:

1.46/0.95 = 1.54

"Cumulative risks" & their ratio up to 65 y:

Cali: 
$$1 - \exp(-0.0146) = 0.0145 = 1.45\%$$

B'ham: 
$$1 - \exp(-0.0095) = 0.0094 = \mathbf{0.94}\%$$

ratio: 
$$1.45/0.94 = 1.54$$

From age-specific rates of Table 4.2, the cumulative rates up to 65 years and their ratio are

Cali: 
$$45 \ y \times \frac{1.5}{10^5 y} + 20 \ y \times \frac{69.7}{10^5 y} = 0.0146 = \textbf{1.46} \ \text{per} \ 100$$
 B'ham:  $45 \ y \times \frac{1.2}{10^5 y} + 20 \ y \times \frac{44.6}{10^5 y} = 0.0095 = \textbf{0.95} \ \text{per} \ 100$  ratio: 
$$\textbf{1.46/0.95} = \textbf{1.54}$$

"Cumulative risks" & their ratio up to 65 y:

Standardization (ELstd)

Cali: 
$$1 - \exp(-0.0146) = 0.0145 = \mathbf{1.45}\%$$
  
B'ham:  $1 - \exp(-0.0095) = 0.0094 = \mathbf{0.94}\%$   
ratio:  $\mathbf{1.45}/\mathbf{0.94} = \mathbf{1.54}$ 

Cumulative rate and cumulative risk are roughly the same of < 0.05.

**NB**: For more appropriate estimates of cumulative risks, correction for total mortality (competing event) needed.

62/105

# Cum. measures in B'ham with 5-y groups (IS, Fig 4.11)

Age-group (years)	Incidence rate (per 100 000 pyrs)
0-4,, 15-19	0.0
20-24, 25-29	0.1
30-34	0.9
35-39	3.5
40-44	6.7
45-49	14.5
50-54	26.8
55-59	52.6
60-64	87.2
65-69	141.7
70-74	190.8
Sum	524.9

# Cum. measures in B'ham with 5-y groups (IS, Fig 4.11)

Age-group (years)	Incidence rate (per 100 000 pyrs)
0-4,, 15-19	0.0
20-24, 25-29	0.1
30-34	0.9
35-39	3.5
40-44	6.7
45-49	14.5
50-54	26.8
55-59	52.6
60-64	87.2
65-69	141.7
70-74	190.8
Sum	524.9

Cumulative rate 0-75 y = 
$$5 \text{ y} \times \frac{524.9}{10^5 \text{ y}} = 0.0262 = \textbf{2.6} \text{ per } 100$$

# Cum. measures in B'ham with 5-y groups (IS, Fig 4.11)

Age-group (years)	Incidence rate (per 100 000 pyrs)
0-4,, 15-19	0.0
20-24, 25-29	0.1
30-34	0.9
35–39	3.5
40-44	6.7
45-49	14.5
50-54	26.8
55-59	52.6
60-64	87.2
65-69	141.7
70-74	190.8
Sum	524.9

Cumulative rate 0-75 y = 
$$5 \text{ y} \times \frac{524.9}{10^5 \text{ y}} = 0.0262 = \textbf{2.6} \text{ per } 100$$
 "Cumulative risk" 0-75 y =  $1 - \exp(-0.0262) = 0.0259 = \textbf{2.6}\%$ .

It is, of course, an interesting and relevant question to ask:

"What are my chances of getting cancer C, say, in the next 10 years, between ages 50 to 75 years, or during the whole lifetime?"

It is, of course, an interesting and relevant question to ask: "What are my chances of getting cancer C, say, in the next 10 years, between ages 50 to 75 years, or during the whole lifetime?"

This is not easy to answer.

Fully individualized risks are unidentifiable.

It is, of course, an interesting and relevant question to ask:

"What are my chances of getting cancer C, say, in the next 10 years, between ages 50 to 75 years, or during the whole lifetime?"

This is not easy to answer.

- Fully individualized risks are unidentifiable.
- ► Age-specific and standardized rates are not very informative as such.

It is, of course, an interesting and relevant question to ask:

"What are my chances of getting cancer C, say, in the next 10 years, between ages 50 to 75 years, or during the whole lifetime?"

This is not easy to answer.

- Fully individualized risks are unidentifiable.
- ► Age-specific and standardized rates are not very informative as such.
- Average cumulative risks are often estimated from cumulative rates using the simple formula above.

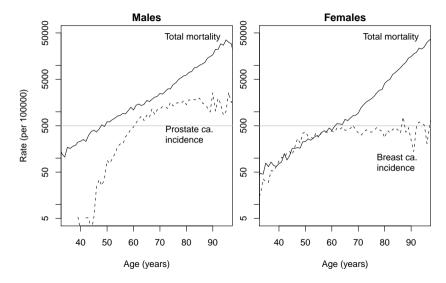
It is, of course, an interesting and relevant question to ask:

"What are my chances of getting cancer C, say, in the next 10 years, between ages 50 to 75 years, or during the whole lifetime?"

This is not easy to answer.

- Fully individualized risks are unidentifiable.
- ► Age-specific and standardized rates are not very informative as such.
- Average cumulative risks are often estimated from cumulative rates using the simple formula above.
- ➤ Yet, these naive estimates fictitiously presume that a person would not die from any cause before cancer hits him/her, but could even survive forever!

#### Total mortality and incidence of two cancers, Finland 2005



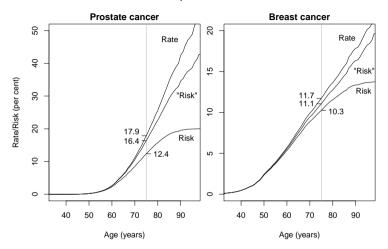
➤ The probability of contracting cancer during realistic lifespan or in any age range depends not only on age-specific hazard rates of cancer itself but also of probabilities of overall survival up to relevant ages,

- ➤ The probability of contracting cancer during realistic lifespan or in any age range depends not only on age-specific hazard rates of cancer itself but also of probabilities of overall survival up to relevant ages,
- ► Hence, the dependence of total mortality by age in the population at risk must be incorporated in the estimation of cumulative risks of cancer.

- ➤ The probability of contracting cancer during realistic lifespan or in any age range depends not only on age-specific hazard rates of cancer itself but also of probabilities of overall survival up to relevant ages,
- ► Hence, the dependence of total mortality by age in the population at risk must be incorporated in the estimation of cumulative risks of cancer.
- ▶ When this is properly done, the corrected estimates of cumulative risk will always be lower than the uncorrected "risks".

- ➤ The probability of contracting cancer during realistic lifespan or in any age range depends not only on age-specific hazard rates of cancer itself but also of probabilities of overall survival up to relevant ages,
- ► Hence, the dependence of total mortality by age in the population at risk must be incorporated in the estimation of cumulative risks of cancer.
- ▶ When this is properly done, the corrected estimates of cumulative risk will always be lower than the uncorrected "risks".
- ➤ The magnitude of bias in the latter grows by age, but is reduced with increased life expectancy.

#### Cumulative measures, Finland 2005



Greater differences in males reflect shorter life expectancy and relatively high rates of prostate ca. in old ages.

#### Special cohorts of exposed subjects

Occupational cohorts, exposed to potentially hazardous agents, e.g.
 asbestos workers, uranium miners (see Johanna's lecture on cohort studies)

#### Special cohorts of exposed subjects

- Occupational cohorts, exposed to potentially hazardous agents, e.g.
   asbestos workers, uranium miners (see Johanna's lecture on cohort studies)
- Cohorts of patients on intensive treatment, which may have harmful long-term side-effects, e.g. people with a history of childhood cancer.

- Occupational cohorts, exposed to potentially hazardous agents, e.g.
   asbestos workers, uranium miners (see Johanna's lecture on cohort studies)
- Cohorts of patients on intensive treatment, which may have harmful long-term side-effects, e.g. people with a history of childhood cancer.
- ▶ Often no internal comparison group of unexposed subjects available.

- Occupational cohorts, exposed to potentially hazardous agents, e.g.
   asbestos workers, uranium miners (see Johanna's lecture on cohort studies)
- Cohorts of patients on intensive treatment, which may have harmful long-term side-effects, e.g. people with a history of childhood cancer.
- ▶ Often no internal comparison group of unexposed subjects available.

- Occupational cohorts, exposed to potentially hazardous agents, e.g.
  asbestos workers, uranium miners (see Johanna's lecture on cohort studies)
- Cohorts of patients on intensive treatment, which may have harmful long-term side-effects, e.g. people with a history of childhood cancer.
- Often no internal comparison group of unexposed subjects available.

**Question**: Do incidence or mortality rates in the **exposed** target cohort differ from those of a roughly comparable **reference** population?

Reference rates obtained from:

population statistics (mortality rates)

- Occupational cohorts, exposed to potentially hazardous agents, e.g.
   asbestos workers, uranium miners (see Johanna's lecture on cohort studies)
- Cohorts of patients on intensive treatment, which may have harmful long-term side-effects, e.g. people with a history of childhood cancer.
- Often no internal comparison group of unexposed subjects available.

**Question**: Do incidence or mortality rates in the **exposed** target cohort differ from those of a roughly comparable **reference** population?

Reference rates obtained from:

- population statistics (mortality rates)
- disease & hospital discharge registers (incidence)

► Compare rates in a study cohort with a standard set of age—specific rates from the reference population.

- ► Compare rates in a study cohort with a standard set of age—specific rates from the reference population.
- ► Reference rates normally based on large numbers of cases, so they are assumed to be "known" without error.

- ► Compare rates in a study cohort with a standard set of age—specific rates from the reference population.
- ► Reference rates normally based on large numbers of cases, so they are assumed to be "known" without error.
- ightharpoonup Calculate **expected** number of cases, E, if the standard age-specific rates had applied in our study cohort.

- ► Compare rates in a study cohort with a standard set of age—specific rates from the reference population.
- ► Reference rates normally based on large numbers of cases, so they are assumed to be "known" without error.
- ightharpoonup Calculate **expected** number of cases, E, if the standard age-specific rates had applied in our study cohort.
- Compare this with the observed number of cases, D, by the standardized incidence ratio (SIR)

$$SIR = D/E, \qquad SE(\log[SIR]) = 1/\sqrt{D}$$

- ► Compare rates in a study cohort with a standard set of age—specific rates from the reference population.
- ► Reference rates normally based on large numbers of cases, so they are assumed to be "known" without error.
- ightharpoonup Calculate **expected** number of cases, E, if the standard age-specific rates had applied in our study cohort.
- Compare this with the observed number of cases, D, by the standardized incidence ratio (SIR)

$$SIR = D/E, \qquad SE(\log[SIR]) = 1/\sqrt{D}$$

Analogously, standardized mortality ratio (SMR) with death as outcome.

#### Example: Hormone therapy and breast cancer

► A cohort of 974 women treated with hormone (replacement) therapy (HT) were followed up.

Age	Y	$\lambda_a^*$	E
40-44	975	113	1.10
45-49	1079	162	1.75
50-54	2161	151	3.26
55–59	2793	183	5.11
60-64	3096	179	5.54
Σ			16.77

#### Example: Hormone therapy and breast cancer

- ► A cohort of 974 women treated with hormone (replacement) therapy (HT) were followed up.
- $\triangleright$  D = 15 incident cases of breast cancer were observed.

Age	Y	$\lambda_a^*$	E
40-44	975	113	1.10
45-49	1079	162	1.75
50-54	2161	151	3.26
55-59	2793	183	5.11
60–64	3096	179	5.54
$\sum$			16.77

#### Example: Hormone therapy and breast cancer

- ► A cohort of 974 women treated with hormone (replacement) therapy (HT) were followed up.
- ightharpoonup D = 15 incident cases of breast cancer were observed.
- ▶ Person-years (Y) and reference rates  $(\lambda_a^*, \text{ per } 100000 \text{ y})$  by age group:

Age	Y	$\lambda_a^*$	E
40-44	975	113	1.10
45-49	1079	162	1.75
50-54	2161	151	3.26
55-59	2793	183	5.11
60–64	3096	179	5.54
$\sum$			16.77

► "Expected" cases at ages 40–44:

$$975 \times \frac{113}{100\,000} = 1.10$$

► "Expected" cases at ages 40–44:

$$975 \times \frac{113}{100\,000} = 1.10$$

▶ Total "expected" cases is E = 16.77

► "Expected" cases at ages 40–44:

$$975 \times \frac{113}{100\,000} = 1.10$$

- ▶ Total "expected" cases is E = 16.77
- ightharpoonup SIR =  $15/16.77 = \mathbf{0.89}$ .

► "Expected" cases at ages 40–44:

$$975 \times \frac{113}{100\,000} = 1.10$$

- ▶ Total "expected" cases is E = 16.77
- ightharpoonup SIR = 15/16.77 = 0.89.
- ► Error-factor:  $\exp(1.96 \times \sqrt{1/15}) = 1.66$

► "Expected" cases at ages 40–44:

$$975 \times \frac{113}{100\,000} = 1.10$$

- ▶ Total "expected" cases is E = 16.77
- ightharpoonup SIR = 15/16.77 = 0.89.
- ► Error-factor:  $\exp(1.96 \times \sqrt{1/15}) = 1.66$
- ▶ 95% confidence interval is:

$$0.89 \stackrel{\times}{\div} 1.66 = (0.54, 1.48)$$

### SIR for Cali with Birmingham as reference (IS: Fig. 4.9)

Total person-years at risk and expected number of cases in Cali 1982-86 based on age-specific rates in Birmingham

Age	Person-years Expected cases in Cali		
0-44	$524\ 220 \times 5 = 2\ 621\ 100$	$0.000012 \times 2\ 621\ 100 = 31.45$	
45-64	$76\ 304 \times 5 = 381\ 520$	$0.000446 \times 381520 = 170.15$	
65 <b>+</b>	$22\ 398 \times 5 = 111\ 990$	$0.002020 \times 111990 = 226.00$	
All ages	= 3 114 610	Total expected (E) 427.82	

### SIR for Cali with Birmingham as reference (IS: Fig. 4.9)

Total person-years at risk and expected number of cases in Cali 1982-86 based on age-specific rates in Birmingham

Age	Person-years Expected cases in Cali	
0-44	$524\ 220 \times 5 = 2\ 621\ 100$	$0.000012 \times 2\ 621\ 100 = 31.45$
45-64	$76\ 304 \times 5 = 381\ 520$	$0.000446 \times 381520 = 170.15$
65 <b>+</b>	$22\ 398 \times 5 = 111\ 990$	$0.002020 \times 111990 = 226.00$
All ages	= 3 114 610	Total expected (E) 427.82

Total observed number O = 620.

### SIR for Cali with Birmingham as reference (IS: Fig. 4.9)

Total person-years at risk and expected number of cases in Cali 1982-86 based on age-specific rates in Birmingham

Age	Person-years	Person-years Expected cases in Cali	
0-44	$524\ 220 \times 5 = 2\ 621\ 100$	$0.000012 \times 2 621 100 = 31.45$	
45-64	$76\ 304 \times 5 = 381\ 520$	$0.000446 \times 381520 = 170.15$	
65 <b>+</b>	$22\ 398 \times 5 = 111\ 990$	$0.002020 \times 111990 = 226.00$	
All ages	= 3 114 610	Total expected (E) 427.82	

Total observed number O = 620.

Standardised incidence ratio:

$$SIR = \frac{O}{E} = \frac{620}{427.8} = 1.45$$
 (or  $145$  per  $100$ )

	'	B'ham, 1983-86	
Crude rates $(/10^5 \text{ y})$	19.9	33.9	0.59

	Cali, 1982-86	B'ham, 1983-86	Rate ratio
Crude rates $(/10^5 \text{ y})$	19.9	33.9	0.59
ASR $(/10^5 { m y})^B$ with 3 broad age groups	48.0	33.9	1.42
ASR $(/10^5 \text{ y})^C$ –"–	19.9	14.4	1.38
ASR $(/10^5 \text{ y})^W$ –"–	34.0	23.5	1.44

	Cali, 1982-86	B'ham, 1983-86	Rate ratio
Crude rates $(/10^5 \text{ y})$	19.9	33.9	0.59
ASR $(/10^5 { m y})^B$ with 3 broad age groups	48.0	33.9	1.42
ASR $(/10^5 \text{ y})^C$ –"–	19.9	14.4	1.38
ASR $(/10^5 \text{ y})^W$ -"-	34.0	23.5	1.44
Cum. rate $<$ 65 y (per 1000) $$ –" $$	14.6	9.5	1.54

	Cali, 1982-86	B'ham, 1983-86	Rate ratio
Crude rates $(/10^5 \text{ y})$	19.9	33.9	0.59
ASR $(/10^5 \text{ y})^B$ with 3 broad age groups	48.0	33.9	1.42
ASR $(/10^5 \text{ y})^C$ -"-	19.9	14.4	1.38
ASR $(/10^5 \text{ y})^W$ -"-	34.0	23.5	1.44
Cum. rate $<$ 65 y (per 1000) $$ –" $$	14.6	9.5	1.54
ASR $(/10^5 \text{ y})^W$ with 18 5-year age groups	36.3	21.2	1.71
Cum. rate < 75 y (per 1000) -"-	46.0	26.0	1.77

Standard population:  $^B$  Birmingham 1985,  $^C$  Cali 1985,  $^W$  World SP

	Cali, 1982-86	B'ham, 1983-86	Rate ratio
Crude rates $(/10^5 \text{ y})$	19.9	33.9	0.59
ASR $(/10^5 \text{ y})^B$ with 3 broad age groups	48.0	33.9	1.42
ASR $(/10^5 \text{ y})^C$ -"-	19.9	14.4	1.38
ASR $(/10^5 \text{ y})^W$ -"-	34.0	23.5	1.44
Cum. rate $<$ 65 y (per 1000) $$ –" $$	14.6	9.5	1.54
ASR $(/10^5 \text{ y})^W$ with 18 5-year age groups	36.3	21.2	1.71
Cum. rate < 75 y (per 1000) -"-	46.0	26.0	1.77

Standard population:  $^B$  Birmingham 1985,  $^C$  Cali 1985,  $^W$  World SP

**NB**: The ratios of age-adjusted rates appear less dependent on the choice of standard weights than on the coarseness of age grouping.

Narrow age groups are preferred, we do have computers...

# Survival

#### Bendix Carstensen & Esa Läärä

Nordic Summerschool of Cancer Epidemiology Danish Cancer Society / NCU, August 2022 / January 2023

http://BendixCarstensen.com/NSCE/2022

Questions of interest on the **prognosis** of cancer:

what are the patients' chances to **survive** at least 1 year, or 5 years *etc.*, since diagnosis?

Questions of interest on the **prognosis** of cancer:

what are the patients' chances to **survive** at least 1 year, or 5 years *etc.*, since diagnosis?

Questions of interest on the **prognosis** of cancer:

what are the patients' chances to **survive** at least 1 year, or 5 years *etc.*, since diagnosis?

Survival analysis: In principle like incidence analysis but

Questions of interest on the **prognosis** of cancer:

what are the patients' chances to **survive** at least 1 year, or 5 years *etc.*, since diagnosis?

Survival analysis: In principle like incidence analysis but

population at risk = patients with cancer,

Questions of interest on the **prognosis** of cancer:

what are the patients' chances to **survive** at least 1 year, or 5 years *etc.*, since diagnosis?

Survival analysis: In principle like incidence analysis but

population at risk = patients with cancer,

Questions of interest on the **prognosis** of cancer:

▶ what are the patients' chances to **survive** at least 1 year, or 5 years *etc.*, since diagnosis?

Survival analysis: In principle like incidence analysis but

- population at risk = patients with cancer,
- basic time variable = time since the date of diagnosis, on which the follow-up starts,

Questions of interest on the **prognosis** of cancer:

▶ what are the patients' chances to **survive** at least 1 year, or 5 years *etc.*, since diagnosis?

Survival analysis: In principle like incidence analysis but

- population at risk = patients with cancer,
- basic time variable = time since the date of diagnosis, on which the follow-up starts,

Questions of interest on the **prognosis** of cancer:

▶ what are the patients' chances to **survive** at least 1 year, or 5 years *etc.*, since diagnosis?

Survival analysis: In principle like incidence analysis but

- population at risk = patients with cancer,
- basic time variable = time since the date of diagnosis, on which the follow-up starts,
- outcome event of interest = death,

Questions of interest on the **prognosis** of cancer:

▶ what are the patients' chances to **survive** at least 1 year, or 5 years *etc.*, since diagnosis?

Survival analysis: In principle like incidence analysis but

- population at risk = patients with cancer,
- basic time variable = time since the date of diagnosis, on which the follow-up starts,
- outcome event of interest = death,

#### SURVIVAL ANALYSIS

Questions of interest on the **prognosis** of cancer:

▶ what are the patients' chances to survive at least 1 year, or 5 years etc., since diagnosis?

Survival analysis: In principle like incidence analysis but

- population at risk = patients with cancer,
- basic time variable = time since the date of diagnosis, on which the follow-up starts,
- outcome event of interest = death,
- measures and methods used somewhat different from those used in incidence analysis.

### Follow-up of 8 out of 40 breast cancer patients

(from IS, table 12.1., p. 264)

No.	Age (y)	Sta- ge <sup>a</sup>	Date of diag- nosis	Date at end of follow-up	Vital status at end of follow-up	Cause of death <sup>c</sup>	Full years from diagn's up to end of follow-up	Days from diagn's up to end of follow-up
-----	------------	-------------------------	---------------------------	--------------------------------	---	-----------------------------------	--	---

### Follow-up of 8 out of 40 breast cancer patients

(from IS, table 12.1., p. 264)

No.	Age (y)	Sta- ge <sup>a</sup>	Date of diag- nosis	Date at end of follow-up	Vital status at end of follow-up	Cause of death <sup>c</sup>	Full years from diagn's up to end of follow-up	Days from diagn's up to end of follow-up
1	39	1	01/02/89	23/10/92	А	_	3	1360
3	56	2	16/04/89	05/09/89	D	ВC	0	142
5	62	2	12/06/89	28/12/95	Α	_	6	2390
15	60	2	03/08/90	27/11/94	Α	-	4	1577
22	64	2	17/02/91	06/09/94	D	0	3	1297
25	42	2	20/06/91	15/03/92	D	вС	0	269
30	77	1	05/05/92	10/05/95	Α	_	3	1100
37	45	1	11/05/93	07/02/94	D	вС	0	272

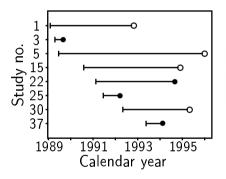
 $<sup>^{</sup>a}$  1 = absence of regional lymph node involment and metastases

<sup>2 =</sup> involvement of regional lymph node and/or presence of metastases

 $<sup>^{</sup>b}$  A = alive; D = dead;  $^{c}$  BC = breast cancer; O = other causes

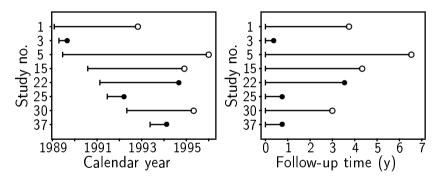
### Follow-up of breast ca. patients (cont'd)

entry = diagnosis; • exit = death; ∘ exit = censoring



### Follow-up of breast ca. patients (cont'd)

entry = diagnosis; • exit = death; ∘ exit = censoring



(**IS**: Figure 12.1, p. 265)

Commonly used in population-based survival analysis by cancer registries. (In clinical applications the **Kaplan-Meier** method is more popular.)

(1) Divide the follow-up time into subintervals k = 1, ... K; most of these having width of 1 year.

Often the first year is divided into monthly intervals, or at two intervals with widths of 3 mo and 9 mo, respectively.

Commonly used in population-based survival analysis by cancer registries. (In clinical applications the **Kaplan-Meier** method is more popular.)

(1) Divide the follow-up time into subintervals k = 1, ... K; most of these having width of 1 year.

Often the first year is divided into monthly intervals, or at two intervals with widths of 3 mo and 9 mo, respectively.

Commonly used in population-based survival analysis by cancer registries. (In clinical applications the **Kaplan-Meier** method is more popular.)

- (1) Divide the follow-up time into subintervals  $k=1,\ldots K$ ; most of these having width of 1 year.
  - Often the first year is divided into monthly intervals, or at two intervals with widths of 3 mo and 9 mo, respectively.
- (2) Tabulate from original data for each interval

Commonly used in population-based survival analysis by cancer registries. (In clinical applications the **Kaplan-Meier** method is more popular.)

- (1) Divide the follow-up time into subintervals  $k=1,\ldots K$ ; most of these having width of 1 year.
  - Often the first year is divided into monthly intervals, or at two intervals with widths of 3 mo and 9 mo, respectively.
- (2) Tabulate from original data for each interval

Commonly used in population-based survival analysis by cancer registries. (In clinical applications the **Kaplan-Meier** method is more popular.)

- (1) Divide the follow-up time into subintervals  $k=1,\ldots K$ ; most of these having width of 1 year.
  - Often the first year is divided into monthly intervals, or at two intervals with widths of 3 mo and 9 mo, respectively.
- (2) Tabulate from original data for each interval

 $N_k =$  size of the **risk set**, *i.e.* the no. of subjects still alive and under follow-up at the start of interval,

Commonly used in population-based survival analysis by cancer registries. (In clinical applications the **Kaplan-Meier** method is more popular.)

- (1) Divide the follow-up time into subintervals  $k=1,\ldots K$ ; most of these having width of 1 year.
  - Often the first year is divided into monthly intervals, or at two intervals with widths of 3 mo and 9 mo, respectively.
- (2) Tabulate from original data for each interval

 $N_k =$  size of the **risk set**, *i.e.* the no. of subjects still alive and under follow-up at the start of interval,

Commonly used in population-based survival analysis by cancer registries. (In clinical applications the **Kaplan-Meier** method is more popular.)

- (1) Divide the follow-up time into subintervals k = 1, ... K; most of these having width of 1 year.
  - Often the first year is divided into monthly intervals, or at two intervals with widths of 3 mo and 9 mo, respectively.
- (2) Tabulate from original data for each interval
  - $N_k =$ size of the **risk set**, *i.e.* the no. of subjects still alive and under follow-up at the start of interval,

 $D_k = \text{no. of cases}$ , i.e. deaths observed in the interval,

Commonly used in population-based survival analysis by cancer registries. (In clinical applications the **Kaplan-Meier** method is more popular.)

- (1) Divide the follow-up time into subintervals k = 1, ... K; most of these having width of 1 year.
  - Often the first year is divided into monthly intervals, or at two intervals with widths of 3 mo and 9 mo, respectively.
- (2) Tabulate from original data for each interval
  - $N_k =$ size of the **risk set**, *i.e.* the no. of subjects still alive and under follow-up at the start of interval,

 $D_k = \text{no. of cases}$ , i.e. deaths observed in the interval,

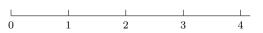
Commonly used in population-based survival analysis by cancer registries. (In clinical applications the **Kaplan-Meier** method is more popular.)

- (1) Divide the follow-up time into subintervals  $k=1,\ldots K$ ; most of these having width of 1 year.
  - Often the first year is divided into monthly intervals, or at two intervals with widths of 3 mo and 9 mo, respectively.
- (2) Tabulate from original data for each interval
  - $N_k$  = size of the **risk set**, *i.e.* the no. of subjects still alive and under follow-up at the start of interval,
  - $D_k = \text{no. of cases}$ , i.e. deaths observed in the interval,
  - $L_k = \text{ no. of losses}$ , *i.e.* individuals **censored** during the interval before being observed to die.





Follow-up time (years), divided into 1-y subintervals



Follow-up time (years), divided into 1-y subintervals

 $N_k = \text{population at risk at the start of the } k \text{th subinterval}$ 



Follow-up time (years), divided into 1-y subintervals

 $N_k = {\it population}$  at risk at the start of the  $k{\it th}$  subinterval

 $D_k = {\sf no.}$  of deaths,  $L_k = {\sf no.}$  of losses or censorings in interval k

at risk  $\stackrel{\square}{N_1}$ 



Follow-up time (years), divided into 1-y subintervals

 $N_k = \mathsf{population}$  at risk at the start of the kth subinterval

at risk



Follow-up time (years), divided into 1-y subintervals

 $N_k = \mbox{population}$  at risk at the start of the  $k \mbox{th}$  subinterval

at risk  $N_L$  lost  $L_1$ 



Follow-up time (years), divided into 1-y subintervals

 $N_k = \text{population at risk at the start of the } k \text{th subinterval}$ 

 $D_k = {\sf no.}$  of deaths,  $L_k = {\sf no.}$  of losses or censorings in interval k





Follow-up time (years), divided into 1-y subintervals

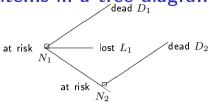
 $N_k$  = population at risk at the start of the kth subinterval





Follow-up time (years), divided into 1-y subintervals

 $N_k = \text{population at risk at the start of the }k\text{th subinterval}$ 

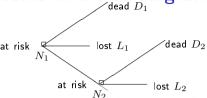




Follow-up time (years), divided into 1-y subintervals

 $N_k = \text{population at risk at the start of the } k \text{th subinterval}$ 

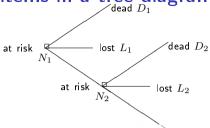
 $D_k = {\sf no.}$  of deaths,  $L_k = {\sf no.}$  of losses or censorings in interval k





Follow-up time (years), divided into 1-y subintervals

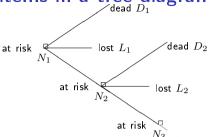
 $N_k = \text{population at risk at the start of the } k \text{th subinterval}$ 





Follow-up time (years), divided into 1-y subintervals

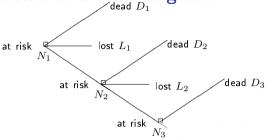
 $N_k = \text{population at risk at the start of the } k \text{th subinterval}$ 





Follow-up time (years), divided into 1-y subintervals

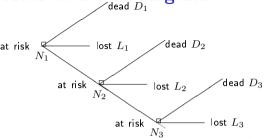
 $N_k = \text{population at risk at the start of the } k \text{th subinterval}$ 





Follow-up time (years), divided into 1-y subintervals

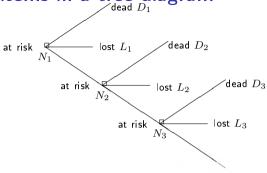
 $N_k = \text{population at risk at the start of the } k \text{th subinterval}$ 





Follow-up time (years), divided into 1-y subintervals

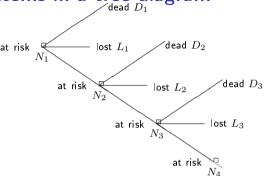
 $N_k$  = population at risk at the start of the kth subinterval





Follow-up time (years), divided into 1-y subintervals

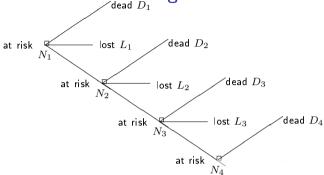
 $N_k = \text{population at risk at the start of the } k \text{th subinterval}$ 





Follow-up time (years), divided into 1-y subintervals

 $N_k = \text{population at risk at the start of the } k \text{th subinterval}$ 

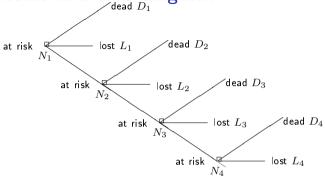




Follow-up time (years), divided into 1-y subintervals

 $N_k = \text{population at risk at the start of the }k\text{th subinterval}$ 

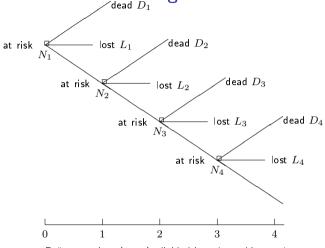
 $D_k = {\sf no.}$  of deaths,  $L_k = {\sf no.}$  of losses or censorings in interval k





Follow-up time (years), divided into 1-y subintervals

 $N_k = \text{population at risk at the start of the } k \text{th subinterval}$ 



Follow-up time (years), divided into 1-y subintervals

 $N_k=$  population at risk at the start of the  $k{\rm th}$  subinterval  $D_k=$  no. of deaths,  $L_k=$  no. of losses or censorings in interval k

# Life table items for breast ca. patients

(IS: Table 12.2., p. 273, first 4 columns)

Inter- val	Years since	No. at start of	No. of deaths	No. of losses
(1)	diagnosis	interval	(D)	(T.)
(k)		$(N_k)$	$(D_k)$	$(L_k)$
1	0-<1	40	7	0
2	1 - < 2	33	3	6
3	2 - < 3	24	4	3
4	3 - < 4	17	4	4
5	4 - < 5	9	2	3
6	5 - < 6	4	1	2
7	6-< 7	1	0	1
Total			21	19

(3) Calculate and tabulate for each interval

(3) Calculate and tabulate for each interval

(3) Calculate and tabulate for each interval

 $N_k' = N_k - L_k/2 =$  corrected size of the risk set, or "effective denominator" at start of the interval,

(3) Calculate and tabulate for each interval

 $N_k' = N_k - L_k/2 =$  corrected size of the risk set, or "effective denominator" at start of the interval,

(3) Calculate and tabulate for each interval

 $N_k' = N_k - L_k/2 =$ corrected size of the risk set, or "effective denominator" at start of the interval,

 $q_k = D_k/N_k' =$ estimated conditional probability of dying during the interval given survival up to its start,

(3) Calculate and tabulate for each interval

 $N_k' = N_k - L_k/2 =$ corrected size of the risk set, or "effective denominator" at start of the interval,

 $q_k = D_k/N_k' =$ estimated conditional probability of dying during the interval given survival up to its start,

(3) Calculate and tabulate for each interval

 $N_k' = N_k - L_k/2 =$ corrected size of the risk set, or "effective denominator" at start of the interval,

 $q_k = D_k/N_k' = {
m estimated conditional probability of dying} \ {
m during the interval given survival up to its start,}$ 

 $p_k = 1 - q_k = ext{conditional survival proportion over the int'l,}$ 

(3) Calculate and tabulate for each interval

 $N_k' = N_k - L_k/2 =$ corrected size of the risk set, or "effective denominator" at start of the interval,

 $q_k = D_k/N_k' = {
m estimated conditional probability of dying} \ {
m during the interval given survival up to its start,}$ 

 $p_k = 1 - q_k = ext{conditional survival proportion over the int'l,}$ 

(3) Calculate and tabulate for each interval

 $N_k' = N_k - L_k/2 =$ corrected size of the risk set, or "effective denominator" at start of the interval,

 $q_k = D_k/N_k' = {
m estimated conditional probability of dying} \ {
m during the interval given survival up to its start,}$ 

 $p_k = 1 - q_k = ext{conditional survival proportion over the int'l,}$ 

 $S_k = p_1 \times \cdots \times p_k =$ cumulative survival proportion from date of diagnosis until the end of the kth interval

(3) Calculate and tabulate for each interval

 $N_k' = N_k - L_k/2 =$ corrected size of the risk set, or "effective denominator" at start of the interval,

 $q_k = D_k/N_k' = {
m estimated conditional probability of dying} \ {
m during the interval given survival up to its start,}$ 

 $p_k = 1 - q_k = ext{conditional survival proportion over the int'l,}$ 

 $S_k = p_1 \times \cdots \times p_k =$ cumulative survival proportion from date of diagnosis until the end of the kth interval

(3) Calculate and tabulate for each interval

- $N_k' = N_k L_k/2 =$ corrected size of the risk set, or "effective denominator" at start of the interval,
- $q_k=D_k/N_k^\prime={
  m estimated}$  conditional probability of dying during the interval given survival up to its start,
- $p_k = 1 q_k = ext{conditional survival proportion over the int'l,}$
- $S_k = p_1 \times \cdots \times p_k =$ cumulative survival proportion from date of diagnosis until the end of the kth interval
  - = estimate of survival probability up to this time point.

# Follow-up of breast ca. patients (cont'd)

Actuarial life table completed (IS, table 12.2, p. 273)

Inter- val	Years since dia- gnosis	No. at start of in- terval	No. of deaths	No. of losses	Effec- tive deno- minator	Cond'l prop'n of deaths during int'l	Survival prop'n over int'l	Cumul. survival; est'd survival prob'ty
(k)		$(N_k)$	$(D_k)$	$(L_k)$	$(N'_k)$	$(q_k)$	$(p_k)$	$(S_k)$
1	0- < 1	40	7	0	40.0	0.175	0.825	0.825
2	1 - < 2	33	3	6	30.0	0.100	0.900	0.743
3	2 <b>-</b> < 3	24	4	3	22.5	0.178	0.822	0.610
4	3 - < 4	17	4	4	15.0	0.267	0.733	0.447
5	4 - < 5	9	2	3	7.5	0.267	0.733	0.328
6	5 <b>-</b> < 6	4	1	2	3.0	0.333	0.667	0.219
7	6-<7	1	0	1	0.5	0.0	1.0	0.219

### Follow-up of breast ca. patients (cont'd)

Actuarial life table completed (IS, table 12.2, p. 273)

Inter- val	Years since dia- gnosis	No. at start of in- terval	No. of deaths	No. of losses	Effec- tive deno- minator	Cond'l prop'n of deaths during int'l	Survival prop'n over int'l	Cumul. survival; est'd survival prob'ty
(k)		$(N_k)$	$(D_k)$	$(L_k)$	$(N'_k)$	$(q_k)$	$(p_k)$	$(S_k)$
1	0-<1	40	7	0	40.0	0.175	0.825	0.825
2	1 - < 2	33	3	6	30.0	0.100	0.900	0.743
3	2-<3	24	4	3	22.5	0.178	0.822	0.610
4	3 - < 4	17	4	4	15.0	0.267	0.733	0.447
5	4 - < 5	9	2	3	7.5	0.267	0.733	0.328
6	5 <b>-</b> < 6	4	1	2	3.0	0.333	0.667	0.219
7	6-<7	1	0	1	0.5	0.0	1.0	0.219

1-year survival probability is thus estimated 82.5% and 5-year probability 32.8%.

Complement of survival proportion  $Q_k = 1 - S_k$  = incidence proportion of deaths.

Complement of survival proportion  $Q_k = 1 - S_k$  = incidence proportion of deaths.

- Complement of survival proportion  $Q_k = 1 S_k$ = incidence proportion of deaths.
  - Estimates the cumulative risk of death from the start of follow-up till the end of kth interval.

Complement of survival proportion  $Q_k = 1 - S_k$  = incidence proportion of deaths.

Estimates the cumulative risk of death from the start of follow-up till the end of kth interval.

▶ Indidence rate in the kth interval is computed as:

$$I_k = \frac{\text{number of cases } (D_k)}{\text{approximate person-time } (\widetilde{Y}_k)}$$

Complement of survival proportion  $Q_k = 1 - S_k$  = incidence proportion of deaths.

Estimates the cumulative risk of death from the start of follow-up till the end of kth interval.

▶ Indidence rate in the kth interval is computed as:

$$I_k = \frac{\text{number of cases } (D_k)}{\text{approximate person-time } (\widetilde{Y}_k)}$$

► Complement of survival proportion  $Q_k = 1 - S_k$  = incidence proportion of deaths.

Estimates the cumulative risk of death from the start of follow-up till the end of kth interval.

ightharpoonup Indidence rate in the kth interval is computed as:

$$I_k = \frac{\text{number of cases } (D_k)}{\text{approximate person-time } (\widetilde{Y}_k)}$$

where the approximate person-time is given by

$$\widetilde{Y}_k = \left\lceil N_k - rac{1}{2}(D_k + L_k) 
ight
ceil imes$$
 width of interval

The dead and censored thus contribute half of the interval width.

Line diagram of survival proportions through interval endpoints

Line diagram of survival proportions through interval endpoints provides graphical estimates of interesting parameters of the survival time distribution, *e.g.*:

Line diagram of survival proportions through interval endpoints provides graphical estimates of interesting parameters of the survival time distribution, *e.g.*:

▶ median and quartiles: time points at which the curve crosses the 50%, 75%, and 25% levels

Line diagram of survival proportions through interval endpoints provides graphical estimates of interesting parameters of the survival time distribution, *e.g.*:

▶ median and quartiles: time points at which the curve crosses the 50%, 75%, and 25% levels

Line diagram of survival proportions through interval endpoints provides graphical estimates of interesting parameters of the survival time distribution, *e.g.*:

- ▶ median and quartiles: time points at which the curve crosses the 50%, 75%, and 25% levels
- ▶ mean residual lifetime: area under the curve, given that it decreases all the way down to the 0% level.

Line diagram of survival proportions through interval endpoints provides graphical estimates of interesting parameters of the survival time distribution, *e.g.*:

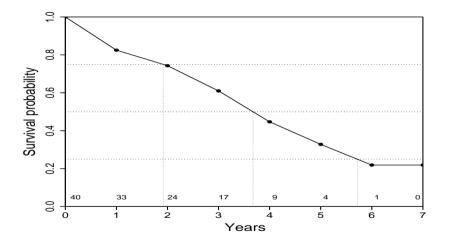
- ▶ median and quartiles: time points at which the curve crosses the 50%, 75%, and 25% levels
- ▶ mean residual lifetime: area under the curve, given that it decreases all the way down to the 0% level.

Line diagram of survival proportions through interval endpoints provides graphical estimates of interesting parameters of the survival time distribution, *e.g.*:

- ▶ median and quartiles: time points at which the curve crosses the 50%, 75%, and 25% levels
- ▶ mean residual lifetime: area under the curve, given that it decreases all the way down to the 0% level.

**NB.** Often the curve ends at higher level than 0%, in which case some measures cannot be calculated.

# Survical curve of breast ca. patients (IS: Fig 12.8)



Numbers above x-axis show the size of population at risk.

► Another interesting and relevant question:

► Another interesting and relevant question:

"How much worse are the chances of a cancer patient to survive, say, 5 years, as compared with a comparable person without the disease?"

► Another interesting and relevant question:

"How much worse are the chances of a cancer patient to survive, say, 5 years, as compared with a comparable person without the disease?"

► Another interesting and relevant question:

"How much worse are the chances of a cancer patient to survive, say, 5 years, as compared with a comparable person without the disease?"

An answer is provided by relative survival proportions:

$$R_k = S_k^{\text{obs}}/S_k^{\text{exp}}, \qquad \text{where}$$

► Another interesting and relevant question:

"How much worse are the chances of a cancer patient to survive, say, 5 years, as compared with a comparable person without the disease?"

An answer is provided by relative survival proportions:

$$R_k = S_k^{\text{obs}}/S_k^{\text{exp}}, \quad \text{where}$$

•  $S_k^{\text{obs}} = \text{observed}$  survival proportion in cancer patient group k by age, gender and year of diagnosis,

► Another interesting and relevant question:

"How much worse are the chances of a cancer patient to survive, say, 5 years, as compared with a comparable person without the disease?"

An answer is provided by relative survival proportions:

$$R_k = S_k^{\text{obs}}/S_k^{\text{exp}}, \quad \text{where}$$

•  $S_k^{\text{obs}} = \text{observed}$  survival proportion in cancer patient group k by age, gender and year of diagnosis,

► Another interesting and relevant question:

"How much worse are the chances of a cancer patient to survive, say, 5 years, as compared with a comparable person without the disease?"

An answer is provided by relative survival proportions:

$$R_k = S_k^{\text{obs}}/S_k^{\text{exp}}, \quad \text{where}$$

- $S_k^{\text{obs}} = \text{observed}$  survival proportion in cancer patient group k by age, gender and year of diagnosis,
- $S_k^{\text{exp}} =$ expected survival proportion

► Another interesting and relevant question:

"How much worse are the chances of a cancer patient to survive, say, 5 years, as compared with a comparable person without the disease?"

An answer is provided by relative survival proportions:

$$R_k = S_k^{\text{obs}}/S_k^{\text{exp}}, \quad \text{where}$$

- $S_k^{\text{obs}} = \text{observed}$  survival proportion in cancer patient group k by age, gender and year of diagnosis,
- $S_k^{\text{exp}} =$ expected survival proportion

► Another interesting and relevant question:

"How much worse are the chances of a cancer patient to survive, say, 5 years, as compared with a comparable person without the disease?"

An answer is provided by relative survival proportions:

$$R_k = S_k^{\text{obs}} / S_k^{\text{exp}}, \quad \text{where}$$

- $S_k^{\text{obs}} = \text{observed}$  survival proportion in cancer patient group k by age, gender and year of diagnosis,
- $S_k^{\text{exp}} = \text{expected}$  survival proportion based on the age-specific mortality rates of the same gender and calendar time in a reference population (compare with calculations of SIR!)

► Another interesting and relevant question:

"How much worse are the chances of a cancer patient to survive, say, 5 years, as compared with a comparable person without the disease?"

An answer is provided by relative survival proportions:

$$R_k = S_k^{\text{obs}}/S_k^{\text{exp}}, \quad \text{where}$$

- $S_k^{\text{obs}} = \text{observed}$  survival proportion in cancer patient group k by age, gender and year of diagnosis,
- $S_k^{\text{exp}} = \text{expected}$  survival proportion based on the age-specific mortality rates of the same gender and calendar time in a reference population (compare with calculations of SIR!)
- + No information on causes of death needed.

# Conclusion

#### Bendix Carstensen & Esa Läärä

Nordic Summerschool of Cancer Epidemiology Danish Cancer Society / NCU, August 2022 / January 2023

http://BendixCarstensen.com/NSCE/2022

Measuring and comparing disease frequencies

Measuring and comparing disease frequencies

► not a trivial task but

Measuring and comparing disease frequencies

► not a trivial task but

Measuring and comparing disease frequencies

- not a trivial task but
- demands expert skills in epidemiologic methods.

Measuring and comparing disease frequencies

- not a trivial task but
- demands expert skills in epidemiologic methods.

Measuring and comparing disease frequencies

- not a trivial task but
- demands expert skills in epidemiologic methods.

Major challenges:

Measuring and comparing disease frequencies

- not a trivial task but
- demands expert skills in epidemiologic methods.

## Major challenges:

obtain the right denominator for each numerator,

Measuring and comparing disease frequencies

- not a trivial task but
- demands expert skills in epidemiologic methods.

## Major challenges:

obtain the right denominator for each numerator,

Measuring and comparing disease frequencies

- not a trivial task but
- demands expert skills in epidemiologic methods.

## Major challenges:

- obtain the right denominator for each numerator,
- valid calculation of person-years,

Measuring and comparing disease frequencies

- not a trivial task but
- demands expert skills in epidemiologic methods.

## Major challenges:

- obtain the right denominator for each numerator,
- valid calculation of person-years,

Measuring and comparing disease frequencies

- not a trivial task but
- demands expert skills in epidemiologic methods.

## Major challenges:

- obtain the right denominator for each numerator,
- valid calculation of person-years,
- appropriate treatment of time and its various aspects,

Measuring and comparing disease frequencies

- not a trivial task but
- demands expert skills in epidemiologic methods.

## Major challenges:

- obtain the right denominator for each numerator,
- valid calculation of person-years,
- appropriate treatment of time and its various aspects,

Measuring and comparing disease frequencies

- not a trivial task but
- demands expert skills in epidemiologic methods.

### Major challenges:

- obtain the right denominator for each numerator,
- valid calculation of person-years,
- appropriate treatment of time and its various aspects,
- removal of confounding from comparisons.

# R and how we use it

Bendix Carstensen & Esa Läärä

Nordic Summerschool of Cancer Epidemiology Danish Cancer Society / NCU, August 2022 / January 2023

http://BendixCarstensen.com/NSCE/2022

What is **R**?

► A practical calculator:

- ► A practical calculator:
  - You can see what you compute

- ► A practical calculator:
  - You can see what you compute
  - ...and change easily to do similar calculations.

- ► A practical calculator:
  - You can see what you compute
  - ...and change easily to do similar calculations.
- A statistical program.

- ► A practical calculator:
  - You can see what you compute
  - ...and change easily to do similar calculations.
- A statistical program.
- An environment for data analysis and graphics.

- ► A practical calculator:
  - You can see what you compute
  - ...and change easily to do similar calculations.
- ► A statistical program.
- ► An environment for data analysis and graphics.
- ► A programming language

- ► A practical calculator:
  - You can see what you compute
  - ...and change easily to do similar calculations.
- A statistical program.
- An environment for data analysis and graphics.
- ► A programming language
- Developed by international community of volunteers.

- ► A practical calculator:
  - You can see what you compute
  - ...and change easily to do similar calculations.
- A statistical program.
- An environment for data analysis and graphics.
- ► A programming language
- Developed by international community of volunteers.
- Free.

- ► A practical calculator:
  - You can see what you compute
  - ...and change easily to do similar calculations.
- A statistical program.
- An environment for data analysis and graphics.
- ► A programming language
- Developed by international community of volunteers.
- Free.
- Runs on any computer.

- A practical calculator:
  - You can see what you compute
  - ...and change easily to do similar calculations.
- A statistical program.
- An environment for data analysis and graphics.
- ► A programming language
- Developed by international community of volunteers.
- ► Free.
- Runs on any computer.
- Updated every 6 months.

Descriptive tools

R and how we use it (R-start)

- Descriptive tools
  - Versatile tabulation

- ► Descriptive tools
  - ► Versatile tabulation
  - High-quality graphics

- ► Descriptive tools
  - ► Versatile tabulation
  - High-quality graphics
- ► Analytic methods

- Descriptive tools
  - Versatile tabulation
  - High-quality graphics
- ► Analytic methods
  - Basic epidemiologic statistics

- Descriptive tools
  - Versatile tabulation
  - High-quality graphics
- ► Analytic methods
  - ► Basic epidemiologic statistics
  - Survival analysis methods

- Descriptive tools
  - Versatile tabulation
  - High-quality graphics
- ► Analytic methods
  - Basic epidemiologic statistics
  - Survival analysis methods
  - ► Common regression models and their extensions

- Descriptive tools
  - Versatile tabulation
  - High-quality graphics
- ► Analytic methods
  - Basic epidemiologic statistics
  - Survival analysis methods
  - ► Common regression models and their extensions
  - Other...

- Descriptive tools
  - Versatile tabulation
  - High-quality graphics
- ► Analytic methods
  - Basic epidemiologic statistics
  - Survival analysis methods
  - ► Common regression models and their extensions
  - Other...

- Descriptive tools
  - ► Versatile tabulation
  - High-quality graphics
- ► Analytic methods
  - Basic epidemiologic statistics
  - Survival analysis methods
  - Common regression models and their extensions
  - Other...

But these are provided by e.g. SPSS, SAS and Stata too, so . . . ?

- Descriptive tools
  - ► Versatile tabulation
  - High-quality graphics
- ► Analytic methods
  - Basic epidemiologic statistics
  - Survival analysis methods
  - ► Common regression models and their extensions
  - Other...

But these are provided by e.g. SPSS, SAS and Stata too, so . . . ?

Many features of R are more appealing in the long run.

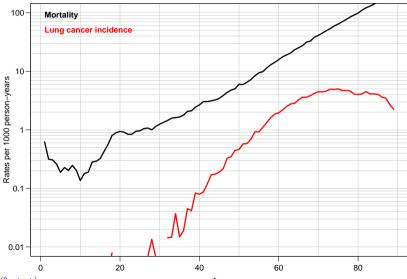
► Versatile, flexible, high quality, . . .

- ► Versatile, flexible, high quality, . . .
- ► Various high-level graphic functions available.

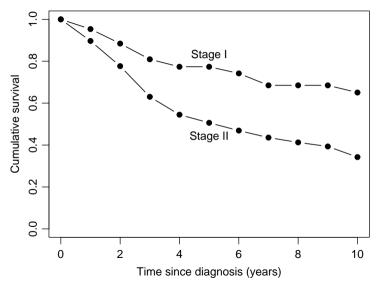
- ► Versatile, flexible, high quality, . . .
- Various high-level graphic functions available.
- Easy to add items (points, lines, text, legends . . .) to an existing graph.

- Versatile, flexible, high quality, . . .
- ► Various high-level graphic functions available.
- Easy to add items (points, lines, text, legends . . . ) to an existing graph.
- ➤ Fine tuning of symbols, lines, axes, colours, etc. by graphical parameters (> 67 of them!)

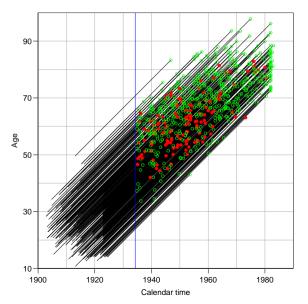
# Total mortality and lung ca incidence in DK



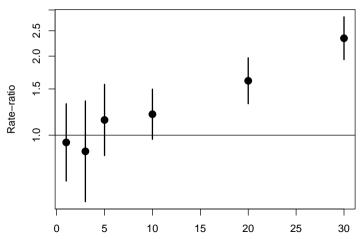
# Survival of cervix ca patients (C&H, 34)



# Lexis diagram of Welsh nickel cohort



#### Rate ratios with confidence intervals



► Graphs can be saved to disk in almost any format

- ► Graphs can be saved to disk in almost any format
- ▶ .eps, .pdf, .bmp, .jpg, .png, ...

- ► Graphs can be saved to disk in almost any format
- .eps, .pdf, .bmp, .jpg, .png, ...
- Save graphs from the screen or write directly to a file.

- Graphs can be saved to disk in almost any format
- .eps, .pdf, .bmp, .jpg, .png, ...
- Save graphs from the screen or write directly to a file.
- You can also directly transport an R graph as a metafile into a Word document

► Thousands of add-on packages.

- ► Thousands of add-on packages.
- ► Several packages for epidemiological analyses:

- ► Thousands of add-on packages.
- ► Several packages for epidemiological analyses:
  - ► Epi: focus on chronic disease epidemiology:

- ► Thousands of add-on packages.
- ► Several packages for epidemiological analyses:
  - ► Epi: focus on chronic disease epidemiology:
    - ► Cohort studies, splitting follow-up time

- ► Thousands of add-on packages.
- Several packages for epidemiological analyses:
  - ► Epi: focus on chronic disease epidemiology:
    - ► Cohort studies, splitting follow-up time
    - Lexis diagram, several timescales

- ► Thousands of add-on packages.
- ► Several packages for epidemiological analyses:
  - ► Epi: focus on chronic disease epidemiology:
    - Cohort studies, splitting follow-up time
    - Lexis diagram, several timescales
    - Multistate model support

- Thousands of add-on packages.
- Several packages for epidemiological analyses:
  - ► Epi: focus on chronic disease epidemiology:
    - Cohort studies, splitting follow-up time
    - Lexis diagram, several timescales
    - Multistate model support
    - Advanced tabulation

- Thousands of add-on packages.
- Several packages for epidemiological analyses:
  - ► Epi: focus on chronic disease epidemiology:
    - Cohort studies, splitting follow-up time
    - Lexis diagram, several timescales
    - Multistate model support
    - Advanced tabulation
    - Informative reporting of estimation results

- Thousands of add-on packages.
- Several packages for epidemiological analyses:
  - ► Epi: focus on chronic disease epidemiology:
    - Cohort studies, splitting follow-up time
    - Lexis diagram, several timescales
    - Multistate model support
    - Advanced tabulation
    - Informative reporting of estimation results
    - "Epidemiology with R"

- Thousands of add-on packages.
- ► Several packages for epidemiological analyses:
  - ► Epi: focus on chronic disease epidemiology:
    - Cohort studies, splitting follow-up time
    - Lexis diagram, several timescales
    - Multistate model support
    - Advanced tabulation
    - ► Informative reporting of estimation results
    - "Epidemiology with R"
  - epicalc:

- Thousands of add-on packages.
- Several packages for epidemiological analyses:
  - ► Epi: focus on chronic disease epidemiology:
    - Cohort studies, splitting follow-up time
    - Lexis diagram, several timescales
    - Multistate model support
    - Advanced tabulation
    - ► Informative reporting of estimation results
    - "Epidemiology with R"
  - epicalc:
  - epitools: Mostly infectious diseases.

- Thousands of add-on packages.
- Several packages for epidemiological analyses:
  - ► Epi: focus on chronic disease epidemiology:
    - Cohort studies, splitting follow-up time
    - Lexis diagram, several timescales
    - Multistate model support
    - Advanced tabulation
    - ► Informative reporting of estimation results
    - "Epidemiology with R"
  - epicalc:
  - epitools: Mostly infectious diseases.
  - epiR: Leaning towards veterinary epidemiology.

- Thousands of add-on packages.
- Several packages for epidemiological analyses:
  - ► Epi: focus on chronic disease epidemiology:
    - Cohort studies, splitting follow-up time
    - Lexis diagram, several timescales
    - Multistate model support
    - Advanced tabulation
    - ► Informative reporting of estimation results
    - "Epidemiology with R"
  - epicalc:
  - epitools: Mostly infectious diseases.
  - epiR: Leaning towards veterinary epidemiology.
- Packages can be installed and updated from within R.

► Interactive but not mouse-driven!

- ► Interactive but not mouse-driven!
- ► Commands typed from keyboard.

- Interactive but not mouse-driven!
- Commands typed from keyboard.
- More practical: commands written and saved in a script file from which they are run.

- Interactive but not mouse-driven!
- Commands typed from keyboard.
- More practical: commands written and saved in a script file from which they are run.
- Execution of tasks:

- Interactive but not mouse-driven!
- Commands typed from keyboard.
- More practical: commands written and saved in a script file from which they are run.
- Execution of tasks:
  - evaluation of expressions contained in commands,

Difficult to learn & slow to use?

- Interactive but not mouse-driven!
- Commands typed from keyboard.
- More practical: commands written and saved in a script file from which they are run.
- Execution of tasks:
  - evaluation of expressions contained in commands,
  - based on calls of functions.

Difficult to learn & slow to use?

- Interactive but not mouse-driven!
- Commands typed from keyboard.
- More practical: commands written and saved in a script file from which they are run.
- Execution of tasks:
  - evaluation of expressions contained in commands,
  - based on calls of functions.

#### Difficult to learn & slow to use?

Maybe in the beginning.

- Interactive but not mouse-driven!
- Commands typed from keyboard.
- More practical: commands written and saved in a script file from which they are run.
- Execution of tasks:
  - evaluation of expressions contained in commands,
  - based on calls of functions.

#### Difficult to learn & slow to use?

- Maybe in the beginning.
- Versatility and flexibility rewarding in the long run.

# R as a simple calculator

Write the arithmetic expression on the empty line after the prompt and press Enter. The result is displayed immediately:

```
> 2+2
Γ17 4
> 3*5 - 6/2
Γ1] 12
> (2+3)^2
Γ1 ] 25
> sgrt( 1/12 + 1/17 )
[1] 0.377037
> exp( 1.96 * sqrt( 1/12 + 1/17 ) )
[1] 2.093825
```

#### R as a smart calculator

Simple summary of results from a cohort study:

	Exposed	Unexposed
No. of cases/Person-years	20/2000	25/5000

#### R as a smart calculator

Numbers of cases and person-years are first assigned & saved into vectors D and Y;

```
> D <- c(20, 25); Y <- c(2000, 5000)
> rate <- 1000*D/Y; rate
[1] 10 5
> ratio <- rate[1]/rate[2]; diff <- rate[1]-rate[2]
> c(ratio, diff)
[1] 2 5
```

#### R as a smart calculator

- Numbers of cases and person-years are first assigned & saved into vectors D and Y;
- ► Incidence rates in the two groups as well as their ratio and difference are then calculated and printed:

```
> D <- c(20, 25); Y <- c(2000, 5000)
> rate <- 1000*D/Y; rate
[1] 10 5
> ratio <- rate[1]/rate[2]; diff <- rate[1]-rate[2]
> c(ratio, diff)
[1] 2 5
```

► Names of variables (or any other objects)

- ► Names of variables (or any other objects)
  - Start with a letter from A,..., Z or a,..., z; lower case separated from upper case, e.g. 'x' ≠ 'X'

- ► Names of variables (or any other objects)
  - Start with a letter from A,...,Z or a,..., z; lower case separated from upper case, e.g. 'x' ≠ 'X'
  - ► Letters, integers 0, ..., 9, dots '.', and underlines '\_' allowed after 1st letter.

- ► Names of variables (or any other objects)
  - Start with a letter from A,...,Z or a,..., z; lower case separated from upper case, e.g. 'x' ≠ 'X'
  - Letters, integers 0, ..., 9, dots '.', and underlines '\_' allowed after 1st letter.
- Assignment operator '<-' (consists of '<' and '-')</p>

- Names of variables (or any other objects)
  - Start with a letter from A,...,Z or a,..., z; lower case separated from upper case, e.g. 'x' ≠ 'X'
  - Letters, integers 0, ..., 9, dots '.', and underlines '\_' allowed after 1st letter.
- ► Assignment operator '<-' (consists of '<' and '-')
  - assigns a value to an object, for example
    > A <- 5+2; A
    [1] 7</pre>

means that a numeric variable  $\mathbb{A}$  is given 5+2=7 as its value, and is then printed

- Names of variables (or any other objects)
  - Start with a letter from A,...,Z or a,..., z; lower case separated from upper case, e.g. 'x' ≠ 'X'
  - Letters, integers 0, ..., 9, dots '.', and underlines '\_' allowed after 1st letter.
- ► Assignment operator '<-' (consists of '<' and '-')
  - assigns a value to an object, for example
    > A <- 5+2; A
    [1] 7</pre>

means that a numeric variable A is given 5+2=7 as its value, and is then printed

▶ the equal sign = is also allowed as assignment operator.

A vector is ordered set of numbers (or other elements of the same type)

► Can be assigned values elementwise by function c()

- ► Can be assigned values elementwise by function c()
- ▶ Vector x with 4 elements 1, 2, 4, 7 assigned and printed:

```
> x <- c(1,2,4,7)
> x
[1] 1 2 4 7
```

A vector is ordered set of numbers (or other elements of the same type)

- Can be assigned values elementwise by function c()
- ▶ Vector x with 4 elements 1, 2, 4, 7 assigned and printed:

```
> x <- c(1,2,4,7)
> x
[1] 1 2 4 7
```

➤ Arithmetic operations +, -, \*, /, ^ (power) for vectors of same length i.e. same number of

- ► Can be assigned values elementwise by function c()
- ▶ Vector x with 4 elements 1, 2, 4, 7 assigned and printed:

```
> x <- c(1,2,4,7)
> x
[1] 1 2 4 7
```

- ➤ Arithmetic operations +, -, \*, /, ^ (power) for vectors of same length i.e. same number of
- ▶ Outcome: a new vector whose elements are results of the operation on the corresponding elements in original vectors.

- ► Can be assigned values elementwise by function c()
- ▶ Vector x with 4 elements 1, 2, 4, 7 assigned and printed:

```
> x <- c(1,2,4,7)
> x
[1] 1 2 4 7
```

- ➤ Arithmetic operations +, -, \*, /, ^ (power) for vectors of same length i.e. same number of
- ▶ Outcome: a new vector whose elements are results of the operation on the corresponding elements in original vectors.
- Function seq( ) generates regular sequences.

- Can be assigned values elementwise by function c()
- ▶ Vector x with 4 elements 1, 2, 4, 7 assigned and printed:

```
> x <- c(1,2,4,7)
> x
[1] 1 2 4 7
```

- ► Arithmetic operations +, -, \*, /, ^ (power) for vectors of same length i.e. same number of
- ▶ Outcome: a new vector whose elements are results of the operation on the corresponding elements in original vectors.
- ► Function seq( ) generates regular sequences.
- ► Function rep( ) replicates same element(s).

- ► Can be assigned values elementwise by function c()
- ▶ Vector x with 4 elements 1, 2, 4, 7 assigned and printed:

```
> x <- c(1,2,4,7)
> x
[1] 1 2 4 7
```

- ➤ Arithmetic operations +, -, \*, /, ^ (power) for vectors of same length i.e. same number of
- ▶ Outcome: a new vector whose elements are results of the operation on the corresponding elements in original vectors.
- ► Function seq( ) generates regular sequences.
- ► Function rep( ) replicates same element(s).
- ► Common mathematical functions, like sqrt(), log(), exp() work in the same way for numeric vectors.

#### R script – commands in a file

R script file is an ASCII file containing a sequence of R commands to be executed.

The **script editor** of R works as follows:

1. In RGui open the script editor window: File - New script, or when editing an existing script file: File - Open script,

### R script - commands in a file

R script file is an ASCII file containing a sequence of R commands to be executed.

The script editor of R works as follows:

- 1. In RGui open the script editor window: File New script, or when editing an existing script file: File Open script,
- 2. Write the command lines without prompt > or +.

### R script - commands in a file

R script file is an ASCII file containing a sequence of R commands to be executed.

The **script editor** of R works as follows:

- 1. In RGui open the script editor window: File New script, or when editing an existing script file: File Open script,
- 2. Write the command lines without prompt > or +.
- 3. Save the script file: File Save e.g. as c:\...\mycmds.R or with some other file name having extension .R

4. Paint the lines to be excecuted and paste them on the console window using the third icon on the toolbar.

- 4. Paint the lines to be excecuted and paste them on the console window using the third icon on the toolbar.
- 5. Edit the file using *Edit* menu, save & continue.

- 4. Paint the lines to be excecuted and paste them on the console window using the third icon on the toolbar.
- 5. Edit the file using *Edit* menu, save & continue.
- ➤ To run an entire script file, write in console window: source("c:/.../mycmds.R", echo=TRUE)

- 4. Paint the lines to be excecuted and paste them on the console window using the third icon on the toolbar.
- 5. Edit the file using *Edit* menu, save & continue.
- ➤ To run an entire script file, write in console window: source("c:/.../mycmds.R", echo=TRUE)
- The script can also be written and edited by any external editor programs (like Notepad).

- 4. Paint the lines to be excecuted and paste them on the console window using the third icon on the toolbar.
- 5. Edit the file using *Edit* menu, save & continue.
- ➤ To run an entire script file, write in console window: source("c:/.../mycmds.R", echo=TRUE)
- ► The script can also be written and edited by any external editor programs (like Notepad).
- ▶ R Studio very versatile interface; see https://www.rstudio.com/. This may be what most of you have been introduced to.

► The main purpose is to inform you about the existence and potential of R, which you might find useful in any future work involving serious epidemiologic data analysis.

- ► The main purpose is to inform you about the existence and potential of R, which you might find useful in any future work involving serious epidemiologic data analysis.
- ► Here, R will be used only as a simple calculator.

- ► The main purpose is to inform you about the existence and potential of R, which you might find useful in any future work involving serious epidemiologic data analysis.
- ► Here, R will be used only as a simple calculator.
- No need for a lot of the more fancy stuff.

- ► The main purpose is to inform you about the existence and potential of R, which you might find useful in any future work involving serious epidemiologic data analysis.
- ► Here, R will be used only as a simple calculator.
- No need for a lot of the more fancy stuff.
- ▶ The script editor will help you keep your solutions for future reference.

- ► The main purpose is to inform you about the existence and potential of R, which you might find useful in any future work involving serious epidemiologic data analysis.
- Here, R will be used only as a simple calculator.
- No need for a lot of the more fancy stuff.
- ▶ The script editor will help you keep your solutions for future reference.
- ► After the course, solutions to all exercises will be provided.

- ► The main purpose is to inform you about the existence and potential of R, which you might find useful in any future work involving serious epidemiologic data analysis.
- ► Here, R will be used only as a simple calculator.
- No need for a lot of the more fancy stuff.
- ▶ The script editor will help you keep your solutions for future reference.
- After the course, solutions to all exercises will be provided.
- ► A good workbook introduction to R: http://bendixcarstensen.com/Epi/R-intro.pdf

# **Practicals**

#### Bendix Carstensen & Esa Läärä

Nordic Summerschool of Cancer Epidemiology Danish Cancer Society / NCU, August 2022 / January 2023

http://BendixCarstensen.com/NSCE/2022

► Read the text

- ► Read the text
- Find out what you want to do

- ► Read the text
- Find out what you want to do
- ► Then start using **R**

- ► Read the text
- Find out what you want to do
- ► Then start using **R**
- ► Sequence of practicals:

- ► Read the text
- Find out what you want to do
- Then start using R
- Sequence of practicals:
  - 1. Tuesday: 0, 1, 3, 4, 5, 7, 11, 12, 13

- ► Read the text
- Find out what you want to do
- Then start using R
- Sequence of practicals:
  - 1. Tuesday: 0, 1, 3, 4, 5, 7, 11, 12, 13
  - 2. Monday: 7, 8, 2, 9, 10