Epidemiological Investigation, Monitoring and Surveillance; Strategies in Public Health Sustenance

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Authors’ contributions

This work was carried out in collaboration among all authors. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

ABSTRACT

Monitoring, surveillance and investigation of health threats are vital capabilities for an effective health system. The International Health Regulations require countries to maintain an integrated, national system for public health surveillance and response and set out the core capabilities that countries are required to achieve. Public health laws typically establish a list of “notifiable diseases” and other conditions that health care providers, hospitals and/or laboratories are required to report to the relevant local or national public health authority. Notifiable diseases generally include infectious diseases that can quickly spread throughout communities and regions via water, food, contact with animals, mosquitoes, airborne droplets or through sexual contact and other forms of human interaction. Rare and new events may not be included in regular, clinical and laboratory-based surveillance systems. Also, outbreaks of serious or contagious diseases require immediate investigation so that appropriate public health measures including isolation and contact tracing can be implemented. A significant degree of stigma may be attached to some diseases. Notifiable
Keywords: Monitoring; surveillance; investigation; health; public.

1. INTRODUCTION

From the words of Rudyard Kipling (1865-1936), “I keep six honest serving-men: They taught me all I knew) their names are what and where and when and how and why and who. Epidemiology, according to Rudyard Kipling, should; Define what will be studied, Find out where the problem is, who gets it, when it is occurring. Try to explain why the problem has such a distribution, Do specific studies to find out how the problem is occurring. The word epidemiology is coined from ‘Epi’-which means upon, among; ‘demos’-for people; and ‘-ology’ meaning science or study of. One major threat to human existence is the onset and spread of diseases [1]. The prevention of onset and spread of diseases should be prioritized in other to assure sustenance of environmental health [2]. It is of immense importance that the distribution and determinants of human health and disease conditions that define a population is studied and analyzed. Epidemiology should be the main focus of public health. If humans lack the required tools to determine the-‘who’, ‘when’ and ‘where’, in relation to a given health condition, it will be a difficult task to develop mechanisms against such environmental challenges [3]. According to the World Health Organization (WHO), epidemiology is the study of the distribution and determinants of health-related states or events and the application of this study to the control of diseases and other health problems. It is the use of scientific methods for disease investigation [4]. It combines both biostatistics and medicine [1]. It is the study of how often diseases occur in different groups of people with the aim of providing answers to questions like-‘why is a disease more frequent amongst a certain group of people?’ [5] From epidemiological investigations, epidemiological information is derived and this information is used to plan and evaluate possible strategies that will serve as prevention mechanisms against illnesses and as a guide to the management of patients in whom diseases have already developed [1]. The epidemiological investigation includes all the procedures required to determine the relationship regarding how often and why is a particular disease so common within a given population [5]. The goal of the Epidemiological investigation is to control an epidemic and to prevent future epidemics attributable to the same or related causes. The specific objectives of an investigation are to define the parameters of the epidemic (i.e., time of illness onset and conclusion of the epidemic, number of cases, and morbidity and mortality), to identify control or prevention measures, and possibly to identify new data relative to the epidemiology of the health problem. Epidemiological investigation is always performed collaboratively with partners domestically or internationally [6].

2. OBJECTIVES OF EPIDEMIOLOGICAL INVESTIGATIONS

The main aim of the epidemiological investigation is to derive information concerning the distribution and determinants of health [3], diseases and injury in human population and the application of this information to the control of health problems [5]. The objectives of investigation in epidemiology include;

- To investigate the etiology of disease and modes of transmission
- To determine the extent of disease problems in the community
- To study the natural history and prognosis of the disease
- To evaluate both existing and new preventive and therapeutic measures and modes of health care delivery.
- To provide a foundation for developing public policy and regulatory decisions.

3. FEATURES OF EPIDEMIOLOGICAL INVESTIGATION

A key feature of epidemiological investigation is that the measurement of the disease outcomes must be about a particular population at risk [6]. The population at risk, in this case, is the group of people, healthy or sick, who would be counted as cases if they had the disease investigated for. For instance, if a public health scientist were to determine or statistically evaluate how many patients visit a particular health centre with
complaints of gustatory defects, the population at risk would comprise those people on the list, and also, those who tend to see him if they had a similar problem. John snow (1813-1858), an English physician and modern-day father of epidemiology, used scientific methods to identify the cause of an epidemic of cholera in London in 1854. He believed that it was the water pump on Board street in London that was responsible for the disease. The removal of the pump handle ended the outbreak of the disease.

Another feature of epidemiological investigation is an epidemiological approach. The epidemiological approach, are strategic steps taken to investigate a problem or disease etiology [3]. They include;

- Perform an initial observation to confirm the outbreak
- Define the disease
- Describe the disease by time, place, and person
- Create a hypothesis as to the possible etiologic factors
- Conduct analytic studies
- Summarize the findings
- Recommend and communicate the interventions or preventative programs

They also include;

**Conduct field work which includes:** Perform initial observation of suspected condition, Establish the existence of an outbreak.

Verify the diagnosis of such disease, Collect data.

**Define disease:** Establish case definition, Identify all cases, Identify the population at risk, Describe disease by time, place, and person, Plot epidemic curve, Plot spot map, Tabulate data of exposure and other characteristics.

**Develop a hypothesis:** Hypothesis (Alternative and null): exposure to $x$ is associated with disease $y$, Conduct analytic studies.

**Use appropriate analytic studies:** Calculate measures of risk

- Refine hypothesis
- Conduct additional studies if needed
- Summarise findings
- Recommend and communicate interventions or preventative programs

4. STAGES OF EPIDEMIOLOGICAL INVESTIGATIONS

Epidemiological investigations usually have the basic objective of describing and quantifying disease problems and of examining associations between determinants and disease [6,7]. With these objectives in mind, epidemiological investigations are normally conducted in a series of stages, which can be broadly classified as follows:

- A diagnostic phase, in which the presence of the disease is confirmed.
- A descriptive phase, which describes the populations at risk and the distribution of the disease, both in time and space, within these populations. This may then allow a series of hypotheses to be formed about the likely determinants of the disease and the effects of these on the frequency with which the disease occurs in the populations at risk.
- An investigative phase, which normally involves the implementation of a series of field studies designed to test these hypotheses.
- An experimental phase, in which experiments are performed under controlled conditions to test these hypotheses in more detail, should the results of phase 3 prove promising.
- An analytical phase, in which the results produced by the above investigations are analyzed. This is often combined with attempts to model the epidemiology of the disease using the information generated. Such a process often enables the epidemiologist to determine whether any vital bits of information about the disease process are missing.
- An intervention phase, in which appropriate methods for the control of the disease are examined either under experimental conditions or in the field. Interventions in the disease process are affected by manipulating existing determinants or introducing new ones.
- A decision-making phase, in which knowledge of the epidemiology of the disease is used to explore the various options available for its control [8]. This often involves the modeling of the effects that these different options are likely to have on the incidence of the disease. These models can be combined with other
models that examine the costs of the various control measures and compare them with the benefits, regarding increased productivity, that these measures are likely to produce. The optimum control strategy can then be selected as a result of the expected decrease in disease incidence in the populations of livestock at risk.

A monitoring phase, which takes place during the implementation of the control measures to ensure that these measures are being properly applied, are having the desired effect on reducing disease incidence, and that development that is likely to jeopardize the success of the control programme is quickly detected.

5. BASIC CONSIDERATIONS IN THE DESIGN OF EPIDEMIOLOGICAL INVESTIGATIONS

A good way to approach the planning of a field study is to take the view that we are, in effect, buying information [9]. We must make sure, therefore, that the study produces the information required at the lowest possible cost. We should also ask ourselves if that information can be obtained from other, cheaper sources. The processes involved in such considerations could be schematized as follows:

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Is the problem worth investigating?

Yes

Are there already data which are capable of giving a reliable answer?

No

Are there sufficient resources available to do a specific study?

Yes

Implement

No

Yes
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No
The first step is to write out clearly the objectives of the study and the data that will need to be generated to attain them [9,10]. Throughout the entire planning process, constant reference should be made to these objectives to ensure that the procedures being planned are of relevance. If it is found that the resources available may not permit the achievement of the original objectives, the objectives may have to be redefined or additional resources found.

Objectives can often be defined by constructing a hypothesis [11,12]. An epidemiological hypothesis should:

Specify the population to which it refers i.e. the population about which one wishes to make inferences and therefore sample from. This is referred to as the target population. Sometimes, for practical reasons, the population actually sampled may be smaller than the target population. In such cases, the findings of the study will relate to the sampled population, and care must be exercised in extrapolating inferences from the sampled population to the target population.

Frequently, inferences may be required about different groups within the target population. For example, one may want to estimate not only the overall prevalence of a specific disease but also the prevalence or incidences of the disease in various groups or subsets of the population. To obtain estimates with the precision required, the samples taken from these groups must be large enough, and this will affect the design of the study [13,14].

A further problem may occur when defining the actual units to be sampled within a population. If, for example, the sample unit was a calf, at what age exactly does a calf cease being a calf? Alternatively, suppose the sample unit is a herd. What exactly is meant by the term "herd"? If a livestock owner has only one animal, does that constitute a herd? Obviously, the sample unit must be precisely defined and appropriate procedures designed to take care of borderline cases.

Specify the determinant or determinants being considered can such disease determinants as "stress", "climate" and management" be defined accurately? How are these determinants to be quantified and what measurements would be used in their quantification? What are the advantages and disadvantages of these methods of measurement? How accurate are they?

Specify the disease or diseases being considered. The criteria by which an animal is regarded as suffering from a particular disease must be carefully defined. Will the disease be diagnosed on clinical symptoms alone? If so, what clinical symptoms? Are there likely to be problems with differential diagnoses? Will laboratory confirmation be needed? If so, are there adequate laboratory facilities available? Will they be able to process all the samples submitted? Will diagnostic tests be used? How accurate are these tests? Remember that studies based solely on diagnostic tests may provide data about the rates of infection present in the population being sampled, but they may not indicate whether the infected animals are showing signs of disease or not. Additional data on mortalities and morbidities may have to be generated.

What rates are to be calculated? Remember that incidence and attack rates cannot normally be obtained by a cross-sectional study. If estimates on economic losses due to particular diseases are required, various production parameters may have to be recorded. How are these to be measured? How good and how accurate will these measurements be?

Specify the expected response induced by a determinant on the frequency of occurrence of a disease. In other words, what effect would an increase or decrease in the frequency of occurrence of the determinant have on the frequency of occurrence of the disease? Remember that the determinant must occur prior to the disease. This may be difficult to demonstrate in a retrospective study.

Make biological sense. In epidemiological studies, we are interested in exploring relationships between the frequency of occurrence of determinants and the frequency of occurrence of disease. We are particularly interested in determining whether the relationship is a causal one [15] i.e. whether the frequency of occurrence of the particular variable being studied determines the frequency of occurrence of the disease. We analyze such relationships by the use of statistical tests which tell us the probability of occurring by chance of the relative distributions of the determinant and the disease in the studied populations. If there is a good probability that the distributions occur by chance,
the result is not significant and the distributions of
the variable and the disease are independently
related. If there is a strong probability that the
distributions did not occur by chance, the result is
significant and the distributions of the variable
and the disease are related in some way.

Note that a statistically significant result does not
necessarily imply a causal relationship.

6. EPIDEMIOLOGICAL MONITORING AND
SURVEILLANCE

One of the most important activities in
epidemiology is the continuous observation of
the behavior of the disease in populations [14].
This is commonly known as monitoring or
surveillance [16,17]. The term surveillance refers
to the continuous observation of disease in
general in a number of different livestock
populations, while monitoring normally refers to
the continuous observation of a specific disease
in a particular livestock population.

6.1 Epidemiological Monitoring

This is the repeated standardized evaluation of
the health status of a population for the purpose
of protecting this population from environmental
health hazards [18,19]. It is compared with
environmental monitoring and epidemiologic
studies. This approach is relatively cost-effective.
Systematic monitoring of serious infectious
diseases and other conditions is typically
achieved through notifiable diseases legislation
based on clinical observation and laboratory
confirmation.

Clinical and laboratory-based surveillance also
provides the basis for the systematic collection of
vital statistics (births, deaths, causes of death),
and may extend to the reporting and analysis of
risk factors for non-communicable diseases
and injuries [20,21]. Systematic collection of
these data informs the allocation of resources
and facilitates the evaluation of community-
based and population-level prevention
strategies.

6.2 Epidemiological Surveillance

Surveillance activities involve the systematic
collection of data from a number of different
sources [21]. These may include already existing
data sources as well as new ones that have been
created for specific surveillance purposes. The
data are then analyzed to:

- Provide a means of detecting significant
developments in existing disease
situations, with particular reference to the
introduction of new diseases, changes in
the prevalence or incidence of existing
diseases, and the detection of causes
likely to jeopardize existing disease control
activities, such as the introduction of new
strains of disease agents, chances in
systems of livestock management,
changes in the extent and pattern of
livestock movements, the importation
of livestock and their products, and the
introduction of new drugs, treatment
regimens etc.

- Trace the course of disease outbreaks with
the objective of identifying their sources
and the populations of livestock likely to be
at risk.

- Provide a comprehensive and readily
accessible database on disease in
livestock populations for research and
planning purposes.

The prime objective of such activities is,
however, to provide up-to-date information to
disease control authorities to assist them in
formulating policy decisions and in the planning
and implementation of disease control
programmes. Although a detailed discussion on
the design and implementation of surveillance
systems is beyond the scope of this review, it
may be useful to review some of the
considerations involved.

The success of any surveillance or monitoring
system depends largely on the speed and
efficiency with which the data gathered can be
collated and analyzed, so that up-to-date
information can be rapidly disseminated to
interested parties [21]. As a result of recent
advances in data processing techniques,
particularly in the field of computing, the
development of comprehensive and efficient
surveillance and monitoring systems at a
reasonable cost is now within the reach of most
veterinary services.

The capacity of epidemiological units to employ
these modern techniques means that such units
may be able to offer data-processing services to
institutions and organizations in return for the use
of their data. This has removed one of the main
constraints on the development of such systems
in the past [22], which was the reluctance of
various data-generating sources to make their
data available to those responsible for
surveillance. Such cooperation depends on a
clear identification of the information needs of reporting organizations and fulfilling these rapidly and efficiently.

Modern computerized data processing allows complicated analytical procedures to be carried out on large volumes of data quickly and easily. However, they must be used with a great deal of caution and only on data which justify them. If used on incomplete or inaccurate data whose limitations are not understood, they may produce results which are at best confusing or misleading. For this reason, the analysis of surveillance or monitoring data should be kept simple, and the limitations of information produced should be clearly stated [23].

A further consideration is that of confidentiality. Any surveillance or monitoring system will contain a certain amount of confidential data. If such data get into the wrong hands and are used indiscriminately without due regard to their probable limitations, serious problems may result [24]. Appropriate safeguards need to be designed, therefore, to ensure that information is distributed to interested parties on a confidential and need-to-know basis.

In countries like Nigeria, the incident management system (IMS) model is used for outbreak coordination [25]. Cases and deaths are identified through routine epidemiological surveillance system using standard definitions for suspected and confirmed cases and deaths respectively [25,26]. Blood specimens collected from suspect cases are sent for confirmation at a WHO-accredited laboratory. Active case search is intensified and identified contacts of confirmed cases are followed up for the maximum incubation period of the disease. Other public health responses include infection prevention and control, communication and advocacy as well as case management [27].

Evolutionary changes have improved epidemiological investigation, monitoring and surveillance, in Nigeria [27,28], they include;

- Improve tools in science, technology, and communication;
- Broader scope both regarding geography and the nature of the public health problems under investigation;
- A better trained and equipped workforce that includes not only epidemiologists, public health advisors, microbiologists, and statisticians, but also behavioral and social scientists, economists, informaticians, toxicologists, and chemists; and
- New or changed roles for public health partners (e.g., Environmental Protection Agency, Department of Justice, Department of Housing and Urban Development, Department of Homeland Security and local law enforcement) and enhanced collaborations with the World Health Organization; the U.S. Department of Agriculture; the Food and Drug Administration; the National Institutes of Health; the World Health Organization; and the private sector, including the business community, academia, community-based organizations, health plans, professional societies, volunteer agencies, and international organizations.

7. CONCLUSION

Epidemiological investigation, surveillance and monitoring are critical components of a well-functioning public health system. Public health professionals use these approaches to assist them in performing many of their key functions. These include monitoring, vector control, responding to outbreaks of infectious disease, identifying the source of foodborne illnesses, ensuring the safety of drinking water and national blood supplies, and tracking modifiable risk factors for non-communicable diseases to develop and evaluate preventive policies. The investigation, surveillance and monitoring of noncommunicable diseases and their risk factors tend to occur through community-based or voluntary clinical reporting systems, rather than through formal, legislative notification systems. In appropriate circumstances, however, the mandatory reporting of risk factors for noncommunicable diseases may assist in identifying cases and ensuring that affected individuals are offered treatment to prevent the progression of the disease. Also, the identity of concerned individuals should be treated with confidentiality to encourage early report by the public. It is further advised that anonymity be maintained and there should be no attempt to breach the privacy of anyone involved in the process of epidemiological investigation, monitoring and surveillance.

COMPETING INTERESTS

Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.
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