

1

Short communication

2

EPIDEMIOLOGICAL INVESTIGATION, MONITORING AND SURVEILLANCE;

3

STRATEGIES IN ENVIRONMENTAL HEALTH SUSTENANCE

4

ABSTRACT

5 Monitoring, surveillance and investigation of health threats are vital capabilities for an effective
6 health system. The International Health Regulations require countries to maintain an integrated,
7 national system for public health surveillance and response, and set out the core capabilities that
8 countries are required to achieve. Public health laws typically establish a list of “notifiable
9 diseases” and other conditions that health care providers, hospitals and/or laboratories are
10 required to report to the relevant local or national public health authority. Notifiable diseases
11 generally include infectious diseases that can quickly spread throughout communities and
12 regions via water, food, contact with animals, mosquitoes, airborne droplets, or through sexual
13 contact and other forms of human interaction. Rare and new events may not be included in
14 regular, clinical and laboratory-based surveillance systems. In addition, outbreaks of serious or
15 contagious diseases require immediate investigation so that appropriate public health measures
16 including isolation and contact tracing can be implemented. A significant degree of stigma may
17 be attached to some diseases. Notifiable diseases legislation should require the protection of
18 personal information, and clearly define any exceptions. Concerns about discrimination and
19 breach of privacy may be addressed by requiring certain diseases to be reported on an
20 anonymous or de-identified basis.

21 **Key words: Monitoring, Surveillance, Investigation, Health, Public**

22

23

24 **INTRODUCTION**

25 From the words of Rudyard Kipling (1865-1936), -‘I keep six honest serving-men: they taught
26 me all I knew) their names are what and where and when and how and why and who.
27 Epidemiology, according to Rudyard Kipling, should; Define **what** will be studied, Find out
28 **where** the problem is, **who** gets it, **when** it is occurring, Try to explain **why** the problem has
29 such a distribution, Do specific studies to find out **how** the problem is occurring. The word
30 epidemiology is coined from ‘Epi-‘which means upon, among; ‘demos-‘for people; and ‘-ology’
31 meaning science or study of. One major threat to human existence is the onset and spread of
32 diseases ^[1]. The prevention of onset and spread of diseases should be prioritized in order to
33 assure sustenance of environmental health ^[2]. It is of immense importance that the distribution
34 and determinants of human health and disease conditions that define a population is studied and
35 analyzed. Epidemiology should be the main focus of public health. If humans lack the required

36 tools to determine the-‘who’, ‘when’ and ‘where’, in relation to a given health condition, it will
37 be a difficult task to develop mechanisms against such environmental challenges ^[3]. According
38 to the World Health Organization (WHO), epidemiology is the study of the distribution and
39 determinants of health-related states or events and the application of this study to the control of
40 diseases and other health problems. It is the use of scientific methods for disease investigation ^[4].
41 It combines both biostatistics and medicine ^[1]. It is the study of how often diseases occur in
42 different groups of people with aim of providing answers to questions like-‘why is a disease
43 more frequent amongst certain group of people?’ ^[5] From epidemiological investigations, an
44 epidemiological information is derived and this information is used to plan and evaluate possible
45 strategies that will serve as prevention mechanisms against illnesses and as a guide to the
46 management of patients in whom diseases has already developed ^[1]. Epidemiological
47 investigation includes all the procedures required to determine the relationship in terms of how
48 often and why is a particular disease so common within a given population ^[5].

49 **OBJECTIVES OF EPIDEMIOLOGICAL INVESTIGATIONS**

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

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

60 **FEATURES OF EPIDEMIOLOGICAL INVESTIGATION**

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

71 outbreak of the disease. Another feature of epidemiological investigation is an epidemiological
72 approach. Epidemiological approach, are strategic steps taken to investigate a problem or disease
73 etiology^[3]. They include;

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

81 They also include;

82 **Conduct field work which includes**

83 Perform initial observation of suspected condition, Establish the existence of an outbreak

84 Verify diagnosis of such disease, Collect data.

85 **Define disease;**

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

89 **Develop hypothesis;**

90 Hypothesis (Alternative and null): exposure to x is associated with disease y , Conduct analytic
91 studies.

92 **Use appropriate analytic studies;**

93 Calculate measures of risk

- 94 ✓ Refine hypothesis
- 95 ✓ Conduct additional studies if needed
- 96 ✓ Summarize findings
- 97 ✓ Recommend and communicate interventions or preventative programs

98

99 **STAGES OF EPIDEMIOLOGICAL INVESTIGATIONS**

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

- 104 ✓ A diagnostic phase, in which the presence of the disease is confirmed.
- 105 ✓ A descriptive phase, which describes the populations at risk and the distribution of the
106 disease, both in time and space, within these populations. This may then allow a series of
107 hypotheses to be formed about the likely determinants of the disease and the effects of
108 these on the frequency with which the disease occurs in the populations at risk.
- 109 ✓ An investigative phase, which normally involves the implementation of a series of field
110 studies designed to test these hypotheses.
- 111 ✓ An experimental phase, in which experiments are performed under controlled conditions
112 to test these hypotheses in more detail, should the results of phase 3 prove promising.
- 113 ✓ An analytical phase, in which the results produced by the above investigations are
114 analyzed. This is often combined with attempts to model the epidemiology of the disease
115 using the information generated. Such a process often enables the epidemiologist to
116 determine whether any vital bits of information about the disease process are missing.
- 117 ✓ An intervention phase, in which appropriate methods for the control of the disease are
118 examined either under experimental conditions or in the field. Interventions in the
119 disease process are affected by manipulating existing determinants or introducing new
120 ones.
- 121 ✓ A decision-making phase, in which knowledge of the epidemiology of the disease is
122 used to explore the various options available for its control ^[8]. This often involves the
123 modeling of the effects that these different options are likely to have on the incidence of
124 the disease. These models can be combined with other models that examine the costs of
125 the various control measures and compare them with the benefits, in terms of increased
126 productivity, that these measures are likely to produce. The optimum control strategy can
127 then be selected as a result of the expected decrease in disease incidence in the
128 populations of livestock at risk.
- 129 ✓ A monitoring phase, which takes place during the implementation of the control
130 measures to ensure that these measures are being properly applied, are having the desired

131 effect on reducing disease incidence, and that development that are likely to jeopardize
132 the success of the control programme are quickly detected.

133

134 **BASIC CONSIDERATIONS IN THE DESIGN OF EPIDEMIOLOGICAL** 135 **INVESTIGATIONS**

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

141

Is the problem worth investigating?

142

143

144

145

YES

NO

146

147

148

149

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

150

151

152

NO

YES

153

154

155

156

Are there sufficient resources available to do a specific study?

157



158

159

YES

NO

160



161

162

IMPLEMENT

163

164

165 The first step is to write out clearly the objectives of the study and the data that will need to be
166 generated in order to attain them ^[9] ^[10]. Throughout the entire planning process, constant
167 reference should be made to these objectives in order to ensure that the procedures being planned
168 are of relevance. If it is found that the resources available may not permit the achievement of the
169 original objectives, the objectives may have to be redefined or additional resources found.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

221 **EPIDEMIOLOGICAL MONITORING AND SURVEILLANCE**

222 One of the most important activities in epidemiology is the continuous observation of the
223 behavior of disease in populations^[14]. This is commonly known as monitoring or surveillance^[16]
224^[17]. The term *surveillance* refers to the continuous observation of disease in general in a number
225 of different livestock populations, while *monitoring* normally refers to the continuous
226 observation of a specific disease in a particular livestock population.

227 Epidemiological monitoring

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

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

238 Epidemiological surveillance

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

- 242 ✓ Provide a means of detecting significant developments in existing disease situations, with
243 particular reference to the introduction of new diseases, changes in the prevalence or
244 incidence of existing diseases, and the detection of causes likely to jeopardize existing
245 disease control activities, such as the introduction of new strains of disease agents,
246 chancres in systems of livestock management, changes in the extent and pattern of
247 livestock movements, the importation of livestock and their products, and the
248 introduction of new drugs, treatment regimens etc.
- 249 ✓ Trace the course of disease outbreaks with the objective of identifying their sources and
250 the populations of livestock likely to be at risk.
- 251 ✓ Provide a comprehensive and readily accessible data base on disease in livestock
252 populations for research and planning purposes.

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

258 The success of any surveillance or monitoring system depends largely on the speed and
259 efficiency with which the data gathered can be collated and analyzed, so that up-to-date
260 information can be rapidly disseminated to interested parties ^[21]. As a result of recent advances
261 in data processing techniques, particularly in the field of computing, the development of

262 comprehensive and efficient surveillance and monitoring systems at a reasonable cost is now
263 within the reach of most veterinary services.

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

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

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

282 **CONCLUSION**

283 Epidemiological investigation, surveillance and monitoring are critical components of a well-
284 functioning public health system. Public health professionals use these approaches to assist them
285 in performing many of their key functions. These include monitoring, vector control, responding
286 to outbreaks of infectious disease, identifying the source of foodborne illnesses, ensuring the
287 safety of drinking water and national blood supplies, and tracking modifiable risk factors for
288 non-communicable diseases in order to develop and evaluate preventive policies. The
289 investigation, surveillance and monitoring of noncommunicable diseases and their risk factors
290 tends to occur through community-based or voluntary clinical reporting systems, rather than
291 through formal, legislative notification systems. In appropriate circumstances, however, the
292 mandatory reporting of risk factors for noncommunicable diseases may assist in identifying cases
293 and ensuring that affected individuals are offered treatment to prevent the progression of disease.

294

295 **REFERENCES**

- 296 1 Arita I, Nakane M, Kojima K, Yoshihara N, Nakano T, El-Gohary A. Role of a sentinel
297 surveillance system in the
298 context of global surveillance of infectious disease. *Lancet Infectious Diseases*. 2004;4:171–7.
- 299 2 World Health Organization, Regional Office for the Western Pacific. A guide to establishing
300 event-based surveillance. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2008.
- 301 3 World Health Organization, Regional Office for the Western Pacific. A guide to establishing
302 event-based surveillance. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2008:6–12.
- 303 4 International Health Regulations 2005. 2nd ed. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2008
304 (<http://www.who.int/ihr/publications/9789241596664/en>).
- 305 5 Resolution No. 1715/2007 of the Ministry of Health of Argentina, on rules for the surveillance
306 and control of diseases or events subject to compulsory notification, their approval and
307 incorporation in the National Programme for the Quality of Health Care, and the repeal of
308 Resolution No. 349/94 of the Ministry of Health,
309 6 December 2007, published in the Official Gazette on 17 December 2007 ([http://test.e-legisar.
310 msar.gov.ar/leisref/public/showAct.php?id=7129&word=Reglamento%25](http://test.e-legisar.msar.gov.ar/leisref/public/showAct.php?id=7129&word=Reglamento%25) [in Spanish]).
- 311 7 International Health Regulations 2005. 2nd ed. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2008
312 (<http://www.who.int/ihr/publications/9789241596664/en>).
- 313 8 International Health Regulations 2005. 2nd ed. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2008:
314 Article 5, Annex 1, Part A (<http://www.who.int/ihr/publications/9789241596664/en>).
- 315 9 International Health Regulations 2005. 2nd ed. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2008:
316 Article 5, Annex 1, Part A) (<http://www.who.int/ihr/publications/9789241596664/en>).
- 317 10 International Health Regulations 2005. 2nd ed. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2008:
318 Article 9.2 (<http://www.who.int/ihr/publications/9789241596664/en>).
- 319 11 International Health Regulations 2005. 2nd ed. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2008:
320 Annex 1 (<http://www.who.int/ihr/publications/9789241596664/en>).
- 321 12 Wilson K, McDougall C, Fidler D, Lazar H. Strategies for implementing the new
322 International Health Regulations in federal countries. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*.
323 2008;86:215–20.
- 324 13 Ministry of Social Protection, Colombia. Decreto 3518, 10 Octubre 2006, por el cual se crea y
325 reglamenta el Sistema de Vigilancia en Salud Pública y se dictan otras disposiciones. *Diario*
326 *Oficial*. 10 October 2006. Vol. CXLII, no. 46417: Article 7(h) [Decree No. 3518 establishing and
327 regulating the public health surveillance system] *Diario Oficial* s. 15 (Colombia).

328 14 Ministry of Social Protection, Colombia. Decreto 3518, 10 Octubre 2006, por el cual se crea y
329 reglamenta el Sistema de Vigilancia en Salud Pública y se dictan otras disposiciones. Diario
330 Oficial. 10 October 2006. Vol. CXLII, no. 46417: Article 9 [Decree No. 3518 establishing and
331 regulating the public health surveillance system] Diario Oficial s. 15 (Colombia).

332 15 Ministry of Social Protection, Colombia. Decreto 3518, 10 Octubre 2006, por el cual se crea y
333 reglamenta el Sistema de Vigilancia en Salud Pública y se dictan otras disposiciones. Diario
334 Oficial. 10 October 2006. Vol. CXLII, no. 46417: Articles 35-36 [Decree No. 3518 establishing
335 and regulating the public health surveillance system] Diario Oficial s. 15 (Colombia).

336 16 Ministry of Social Protection, Colombia. Decreto 3518, 10 Octubre 2006, por el cual se crea y
337 reglamenta el Sistema de Vigilancia en Salud Pública y se dictan otras disposiciones. Diario
338 Oficial. 10 October 2006. Vol. CXLII, no. 46417: Articles 37-38 [Decree No. 3518 establishing
339 and regulating the public health surveillance system] Diario Oficial s. 15 (Colombia).

340 17 International Health Regulations (2017). Toolkit for implementation in national legislation.
341 Questions and answers, legislative reference and assessment tool and examples of national
342 legislation. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2009:25–115.

343 18 International Health Regulations (2005). Toolkit for implementation in national legislation.
344 Questions and answers, legislative reference and assessment tool and examples of national
345 legislation. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2009:11
346 (http://www.who.int/ihr/publications/WHO_HSE_IHR_2009.3/en/).

347 19 International Health Regulations (2005). Toolkit for implementation in national legislation.
348 Questions and answers, legislative reference and assessment tool and examples of national
349 legislation. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2009:15.

350 20 International Health Regulations (2005). Toolkit for implementation in national legislation.
351 Questions and answers, legislative reference and assessment tool and examples of national
352 legislation. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2009:15.

353 21 International Health Regulations 2005. 2nd ed. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2008,
354 Articles 19–46.

355 22 International Health Regulations (2005). Toolkit for implementation in national legislation.
356 Questions and answers, legislative reference and assessment tool and examples of national
357 legislation. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2009:25–115.

358

359