Disaster Preparedness and Response Training™

Complete Course: Modules One, Two, & Three

Participant Workbook™

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Course Overview	1
About this Workbook	1
Target audience	1
Glossary of terms	2
MODULE ONE: EPIDEMIOLOGIC RESPONSE TO DISASTERS	
Overview of Module One	1-1
Learning Objectives	1-1
Estimated Completion Time	1-1
Prerequisites	1-1
Lesson 1: Public Health Implications of Disasters and Hazards	1-2
Introduction	1-2
Common Types of Disasters	1-2
Effects of Disasters	1-6
Disaster-Related Health Effects and Public Health Implications	1-9
Public Health Concerns Following a Disaster	1-11
Practice Exercise	1-13
Lesson 1 summary	1-17
Lesson 2: The Role of Disaster Epidemiology in Disaster Preparedness and Re	sponse .18
Introduction	1-18
Goals of Disaster Epidemiology	1-18
The Disaster Cycle	1-19
The Role of an Epidemiologist in Disaster Preparedness and Response	1-22
Special Considerations for Disaster Epidemiology	1-26
Practice Exercise	1-28
Lesson 2 Summary	1-30
References	1-31
MODULE TWO: DISASTER RESPONSE RAPID NEEDS ASSESSMENT	
Overview of Module Two	2-1
Learning Objectives	2-1
Estimated Completion Time	2-2
Prerequisites	2-2
Lesson 1: Planning a Disaster Response Rapid Needs Assessment (RNA)	2-3
Introduction	2-3
Overview of RNA Methodology	2-3

Four Phases of an RNA	2-4
RNA Purpose and Objectives	2-6
Challenges to Conducting an RNA	2-8
Planning for an RNA	2-11
Practice Exercise	2-15
Lesson 1 Summary	2-16
Lesson 2: Phase 1 – Preparing for an RNA	2-17
Introduction	2-17
Overview of RNA Sampling Method	2-17
Determine the Assessment Area	2-18
Two-Stage Cluster Sampling Method	2-20
Considerations Affecting Sample Selection and Size	2-24
Other Sampling Methods	2-24
Practice Exercise	2-27
Develop the RNA Questionnaire and Forms	2-28
Identify and Train Field Interview Teams	2-34
Conducting the Interview	2-36
Practice Exercise	2-39
Lesson 2 Summary	2-40
Lesson 3: Phase 2 – Conducting an RNA	2-41
Introduction	2-41
Administering the Questionnaire in the Field	2-41
Practice Exercise	2-44
Lesson 3 Summary	2-45
Lesson 4: Phase 3 and 4 – Data Entry, Analysis, and Writing the Report	2-46
Introduction	2-46
Data Entry and Analysis	2-46
Reporting the Results	2-56
Practice Exercise	2-60
Lesson 4 Summary	2-61
Skills Assessment	2-61
Rapid Needs Assessment (RNA) Case Study: Flooding in Guatemala	2-62
Learning Objectives	2-62
Case Scenario	2-62
References	2-76

MODULE THREE: DISASTER SURVEILLANCE METHODS

Overview of Module Three – Disaster Surveillance Methods	3-1
Learning Objectives	3-1
Estimated Completion Time	3-2
Prerequisites	3-2
Lesson 1: Overview of Disaster Surveillance	3-3
Introduction	3-3
Defining Disaster Surveillance	3-3
Disaster Surveillance: Morbidity and Mortality Considerations	3-6
Surveillance Challenges in a Disaster Setting	3-8
Lesson 1 Summary	3-11
Lesson 2: Disaster Surveillance Methods	3-12
Introduction	3-12
Planning for Disaster Surveillance	3-12
Steps for Designing and Conducting a Disaster Surveillance System	3-14
Considerations for Designing or Using Existing Surveillance Methods	3-18
Surveillance Methods	3-20
Disaster Surveillance Indicators and Data Collection Forms	3-22
Practice Exercise	3-25
Lesson 2 Summary	3-26
Skills Assessment	3-27
References	3-29

COURSE OVERVIEW

The Disaster Preparedness and Response Training Course has three modules. The course also has a final comprehensive capstone activity where learners apply the knowledge and skills learned in the course. After completing all three modules, you will have a better understanding of the disaster-related rapid needs assessments and surveillance necessary to support responses to disasters and other public health emergencies.

Each module builds on the skills and concepts learned in the previous modules. The modules should be completed consecutively in the following order:

- Module One Epidemiologic Response to Disasters
- Module Two Disaster Response Rapid Needs Assessment
- Module Three Overview of Disaster-related Morbidity and Mortality Surveillance

ABOUT THIS WORKBOOK

The Participant Workbook uses a self-paced, learner-focused format, with most of the instructional content contained in the workbook allowing for a flexible teaching platform and timeframe, as well as uniformity and consistency in content. You can use the instructional materials individually with the guidance of a mentor or in a classroom setting. To assist classroom instructors and mentors with the training, facilitator/mentor guides are available for each module.

TARGET AUDIENCE

The target audience is 2nd year Field Epidemiology Training Program (FETP) residents (fellows) and alumni, as well as other health professionals associated with ministries of health who are responsible for disaster preparedness and response initiatives.

GLOSSARY OF TERMS

Active Surveillance – Surveillance that employs staff members to contact regularly health care providers or the population to seek information about health conditions.

Assessment Area – The geographic area that makes up the sampling frame in an epidemiologic study.

Case Definition – A set of standard criteria for classifying whether a person has a particular disease, syndrome, or other health condition. A case definition frequently includes criteria for person, place, and time and often includes inclusion criteria (characteristics that a person must have if they are to be included) and exclusion criteria (characteristics that disqualify a person from inclusion). A case definition can also include the degree of certainty in a diagnosis ranging from confirmed, probable, to suspected.

Cluster Accessibility – The ability to enter a given selected cluster to complete interviews. Difficulty in accessibility may arise due to storm damage, unsafe conditions, or restricted entries.

Communicable Disease – An infectious disease transmissible from person to person by direct contact with an affected individual, the individual's discharges, or by indirect means.

Completion Rate – A type of response rate that shows how close interview teams came to completing the targeted number of interviews.

Complex Emergency – A crisis in a country, region or society where there is a total (or near total) breakdown of authority, resulting from internal or external conflict, and which may require a large-scale international response beyond the mandate or capacity of any one single agency.

Confidence Interval (CI) – The range around a numeric statistical value obtained from a sample, within which, at a given level of probability, the actual, corresponding value for the population is likely to fall (e.g., 95%).

Contact Rate – A type of response rate showing the proportion of households where contact was attempted and the household successfully completed an interview.

Cooperation Rate – A type of response rate that shows the proportion of households where contact was made and the household agreed to complete an interview.

Direct Health Effect – An adverse health effect caused by the actual physical forces of a disaster, such as a drowning or injury from flying debris.

Disaster – The serious disruption of societal functioning causing widespread human, material, or environmental losses that exceed the local response resources, triggering calls for external assistance.

Disaster Epidemiology – The use of epidemiology to measure the short- and long-term health effects of disasters and to predict the consequences of future disasters.

Disaster Surveillance – A public health practice used to assess health effects, monitor the effectiveness of relief efforts, respond to public concerns and media inquiries, and facilitate planning for future disasters. See surveillance.

Displacement – The forced movement of populations of people or animals from the area where they live, usually due to sudden impact from natural disasters, threat or conflict.

Environmental Hazard – Any phenomenon in the environment that is a potential source of harm or adverse health effects.

Epidemiologic Case Study – A study aimed at revealing the relationships between exposures and mortality and morbidity, including case-control studies, cohort studies, risk-factor studies, case series, and outbreak investigations.

Evaluation and Effectiveness Study – A study aimed at evaluating specific programs and response techniques in addition to assessing the success of specific programs and responses.

Final Report – A report distributed to a wide audience that builds off of a preliminary report and includes additional data analysis and results, typically provided within a few weeks of conducting a rapid needs assessment (RNA).

Hazard – Any source of potential harm that may cause loss of life, injury or other health impacts, property damage, loss of livelihoods and services, social and economic disruption, or environmental damage.

Hazard Mapping – The act of specifying and identifying locations at high risk for a specific hazard (e.g., areas vulnerable to flooding).

Household – A household includes all the individuals who occupy a housing unit as their usual place of residence.

Human-Induced Disaster – A disaster which occurs as the result of intentional or unintentional human actions and that occurs in or close to human settlements.

Human Impact – Injury, mortality, increased disease morbidity rates for a variety of illnesses, subsequent displacement, and a lack of necessities, such as food and water.

In situ – In a natural or original position or place.

Incidence – The occurrence of new cases of disease or injury or events in a population over a specified period.

Incidence Proportion – The proportion of an initially disease-free population that develops disease, becomes injured, or dies during a specified period.

Indirect Health Effect – Caused by unsafe/unhealthy conditions that develop due to the effects of the disaster or events that occur from anticipating the disaster (e.g., carbon monoxide poisoning from improper generator use).

Infrastructure Damage – Damage to houses, business centers, hospitals, and transportation services because of a disaster.

Mitigation Strategy – Formulated action or development of policies that reduce disaster-related risk to people and property.

Morbidity – The state of being ill or diseased or the incidence of illness in a population.

Mortality – The incidence of death in a population.

Natural Disaster – A disaster which is the result of potentially harmful phenomenon that occurs in nature, such as hydrometeorological, geological and biological hazards.

Noncommunicable Disease – A disease that does not pass from person to person, typically of long duration and slow progression.

Passive Surveillance – A system in which a health jurisdiction receives reports from hospitals, clinics, public health units, or other sources.

Preliminary Report – A presentation provided to key stakeholders within a day or two after data collection, allowing partners to make quick and better informed decisions and address any immediate needs.

Probability Proportional to Size – A method of sampling that ensures clusters with more households have a higher chance of selection and that is weight-adjusted during data analysis.

Rapid Needs Assessment (RNA) – A collection of techniques (e.g., epidemiological, statistical, anthropological) designed to identify quickly the basic and health needs of a community.

Response Rate – A calculation that helps determine the representativeness of the sample to the population within the sampling frame. See contact rate, completion rate, cooperation rate.

Sampling - The process of selecting representative respondents from the target population who reflect the characteristics of the population from which it is drawn.

Sampling Frame – The entire population within the selected assessment area from which a sample is drawn (e.g., a list or map of all households). The sample is a subset of the larger sampling frame.

Sentinel Surveillance – Surveillance that occurs when data are gathered from a limited number of sites; Sentinel Surveillance is used as an alternative to population-based surveillance and national surveillance.

Stratified Sampling – A commonly used sampling method that decreases the sampling error by dividing the target population into suitable, relatively homogenous, nonoverlapping subpopulations (strata); a random sample is then selected within each stratum.

Surveillance – The ongoing systematic collection, analysis, and interpretation of injuries, illnesses, and deaths, for the use in planning, implementation, and evaluation of public health practice.

Syndromic Surveillance – Surveillance that uses a group of signs and symptoms, primary complaints, or other characteristics of the disease, rather than specific clinical or laboratory diagnostic criteria.

Technological Disaster – A disaster which occurs as the result of human actions or technological failures.

Two-Stage Cluster Sampling Design – The recommended RNA sampling methodology. In the first stage, clusters are selected probability proportional to size from a population (30 clusters). Then within each cluster, interview-subject subunits are randomly selected (7 interviews).

Vulnerability Analysis – The analysis of the characteristics and circumstances of a community, system or asset that make it susceptible to the damaging effects of a hazard.

Weighted Frequency – A mathematical weight given to probability of selection, used in data analysis to adjust analyses to account for a complex sampling design (e.g., two-stage cluster sampling method). Weighted Frequency is often used to represent an entire target population.

Module One: Epidemiologic Response to Disasters™

Acknowledgement

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Disclaimer

The findings and conclusions in this participant workbook are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official position of the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention.

U.S. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention
Office of Noncommunicable Disease, Injury and Environmental Health,
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Module 1: Epidemiologic Response to Disasters

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Overview of Module One – Epidemiologic Response to Disasters	1
Learning Objectives	1
Estimated Completion Time	1
Prerequisites	1
Lesson 1: Public Health Implications of Disasters and Hazards	2
Introduction	2
Common Types of Disasters	2
Table 1. Examples of different types of disasters	5
Effects of Disasters	6
Disaster-Related Health Effects and Public Health Implications	9
Table 2. Direct and indirect health effects of natural disasters	10
Public Health Concerns Following a Disaster	11
Practice Exercise	13
Lesson 1 summary	17
Lesson 2: The Role of Disaster Epidemiology in Disaster Preparedness and Re	sponse .18
Introduction	18
Goals of Disaster Epidemiology	18
The Disaster Cycle	19
Figure 1. Four phases of the disaster cycle	19
The Role of an Epidemiologist in Disaster Preparedness and Response	22
During the Preparedness Phase	22
During the Response Phase	22
During the Recovery and Mitigation Phases	23
Special Considerations for Disaster Epidemiology	26
Practice Exercise	28
Lesson 2 Summary	30
Peferences	31

OVERVIEW OF MODULE ONE — EPIDEMIOLOGIC RESPONSE TO DISASTERS

In the 1960s, scientists began to use epidemiological methods to respond to the public health impact of disasters. Epidemiologists assess the effect of a disaster on human health, recommend means to control an outbreak within a disaster situation, and provide support for minimizing the effect of future disasters. To assist meaningfully as an epidemiologist, you must know the different types of disasters, how they occur, and the consequences they have for society. In the wake of a disaster many different types of organizations and professionals will provide assistance. You should have a clear understanding of how you as an epidemiologist fit into a potentially complex response effort.

In this module, you will learn to distinguish between different types of disasters and their public health effects and learn about the role of an epidemiologist in disaster response and preparedness. This module consists of two lessons:

- Lesson 1: Public Health Implications of Disasters and Hazards
- Lesson 2: The Role of Disaster Epidemiology in Disaster Preparedness and Response

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After completing Module One, you will be able to do the following:

- Describe how a disaster affects the community, and especially a disaster's potential public health effects
- Explain the epidemiologist's role during each phase of the disaster cycle
- Understand the unique challenges of responding to a disaster as an epidemiologist

ESTIMATED COMPLETION TIME

Module One will take approximately six hours to complete, including some discussion time with your mentor or facilitator.

Prerequisites

Before participating in this training module, we recommended that you complete the following training courses:

- Introduction to public health and epidemiology (FETP core curriculum)
- Responding to outbreaks (FETP core curriculum)

LESSON 1: PUBLIC HEALTH IMPLICATIONS OF DISASTERS AND HAZARDS

INTRODUCTION

As human populations grow and societies become increasingly interconnected and complex, the damages from natural and human-induced disasters have become more and more extensive. Our vulnerabilities as societies have deepened the effects that disasters have on human health. Socioeconomic, political, cultural, geographical, and other factors combine and compound to increase the scope of a disaster's consequences. As an epidemiologist, you may be called on to respond to disasters. You should understand the different types of disasters, the immediate and longer term of their effects on public health, and, following a disaster, the factors that magnify adverse health outcomes.

In this lesson, you will learn about the different types of disasters that affect human society and the public health consequences common to most types of disasters.

After completing this lesson, you will be able to do the following:

- Describe different categories of disasters
- Describe a disaster's effects in a community
- Identify a disaster's potential public health consequences

COMMON TYPES OF DISASTERS

There are many definitions for a disaster. Different organizations may use slightly differing definitions. Still, the following are fundamental components across all definitions – a disaster

- is a severe event,
- causes damage to infrastructure, economic and social structures, or human health, and
- requires external assistance.

The United Nations Department of Humanitarian Affairs, the World Health Organization and Gunn's multilingual Dictionary of Disasters Medicine and International Relief, all define a **disaster** as the following:

A disaster is a serious disruption of the functioning of society, causing widespread human, material or environmental losses that exceeds the local capacity to respond, and calls for external assistance.

While many disasters happen suddenly with little warning (e.g., tornadoes, landslides), others are preceded by warning signs (e.g., tropical cyclones). Disasters can result from natural **hazards** such as severe weather or from human-related activities such as bombings. Disasters are typically classified into distinct categories based on the cause of the hazard as either natural or human-induced.¹ The following describes these classifications:

Natural disasters – This category of disasters include those caused by hydrometeorological, geological, and biological hazards. Examples of hydrometeorological-related disasters include floods, tornados, hurricanes (including cyclones, typhoons, monsoons and other tropical storms), ice storms, or extreme heat, and can be a factor in other hazards such as wildfires. Geological phenomena that can lead to disasters include earthquakes, landslides or mudslides, avalanches, and volcano eruptions. It can be difficult to categorize some natural disasters as overlap often occurs. For example, a tsunami is triggered by a geological event but includes an oceanic process manifested as a water-related hazard. Another example is a mudslide occurring as a result of flash-flooding due to a hurricane or other storm. Biological disasters are those that are caused by the spread of disease. There are four major patterns of disease occurrence ranging from the least to the most severe (endemic, outbreak, epidemic, and pandemic). Biological disasters are most often associated with outbreaks, epidemics, and pandemics.

Technological or human-induced disasters –

This category of disasters result from human actions or technological failures. Human activity has increasingly affected an environment's natural ecology and contributed to the manifestation of these disasters. For example, human activities (e.g., agricultural or other practices) that result in deforestation have led to landslides and drought. Similarly, the settlement of communities in flood zones or close to beaches and coastal areas has increased the human effect of floods and tsunamis.

Notable human-induced disasters

- Brazil Plan Crash São
 Paolo's Congonhas Airport
- North Korea Oil Pipe Explosion
- Siberia Mine Explosion
- Mozambique Munitions Explosion
- Congo Train Derailment

Source: Time Magazine Lists http://content.time.com/time/specials/2007/artic le/0,28804,1686204_1686252_1690614,00.ht

Most human activities directly responsible for creating disasters are related to technology or industry. Technological advances can and have resulted in creating both intentional and unintentional disasters. A technological disaster is attributed, in part or

¹ Ifrc.org. Types of a Disaster: Definition of Hazard website. [Cited 2013 Sept 12]. Available from: http://www.ifrc.org/en/what-we-do/disaster-management/about-disasters/definition-of-hazard/.

entirely, to human intent, error, negligence, or involves a failure of a manufactured system. An example of this is the 2010 Gulf of Mexico Oil Spill disaster, which resulted in the immediate death of 11 workers.²

Complex emergencies – Complex emergencies, which result from internal or external conflict, can be slow to take effect and can extend over a long period. In a complex emergency, there is the total or considerable breakdown of authority which may require a large-scale response beyond the mandate or capacity of any one single agency, especially in resource limited countries. Complex emergencies are categorized by

- · extensive violence and loss of life;
- displacements of populations;
- widespread damage to societies and economies;
- need for large-scale, multi-faceted humanitarian assistance;
- hindrance or prevention of humanitarian assistance by political and military constraints; or
- significant security risks for humanitarian relief workers in some areas.

In WHO (2002) Environmental health in emergencies and disasters: a practical guide, **complex emergency** is defined as the following:

Situations of disrupted livelihoods and threats to life produced by warfare, civil disturbance and large-scale movements of people, in which any emergency response has to be conducted in a difficult political and security environment.

Table 1 lists examples of natural disasters, technological/human-induced disasters and complex emergencies

² Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Fatal injuries in offshore oil and gas operations – United States, 2003-2010. MMWR 2013 62(16):310-4

Table 1. Examples of different types of disasters

Natural Disasters	Technological/Human-induced Disasters	Complex Emergencies
 Earthquakes Extreme Heat Floods Drought Tropical cyclones Landslides Tornadoes Tsunamis Volcanoes Wildfires Winter Weather Infectious disease outbreaks 	 Radiation emergencies from nuclear blasts, nuclear reactor accidents, or accidental spills of radioactive material Accidental release of hazardous chemicals Bioterrorism Oil spills Bombing or destroying a nuclear reactor 	War Conflict



KNOWLEDGE CHECK

Oil spills, radiation emergencies from nuclear blasts, and bioterrorism are all examples of what kind of disaster? (You may select more than one response)

- A. Natural disaster
- B. Technological disaster
- C. Complex emergency
- D. Human-induced disaster



Let the facilitator or mentor know you are ready for the discussion

DISCUSSION QUESTION #1

Think about your community. What types of disaster(s) is your community most likely to experience?

EFFECTS OF DISASTERS

A key aspect to remember is that a natural or human-induced event becomes a disaster only if it

reaches a scope that is beyond the local capacity to handle the emergency and requires the assistance of external organizations. Often times, the hazard by itself might not be devastating. For example, a tropical cyclone that occurs in the middle of an ocean is purely a

A hazard may lead to a disaster when it interacts with vulnerable human populations

weather event and does not cause much, if any, damage. Such a disaster's effect will vary between communities depending on preparedness levels, resiliency, and mitigation efforts; that is, what might be a disaster in one community might not be a disaster in another. An area with a tsunami warning system might experience less of an effect (e.g., loss of life) from a tsunami than might an area with no warning system.

Several factors contribute to the vulnerability of a community: social vulnerabilities associated with poverty, social class, health and nutritional status, access to health services, and environmental conditions.

A disaster's effects generally fall into the following categories.³

Infrastructure Damage – Damage may occur to houses, business centers, hospitals, and transportation services. The local health infrastructure may be destroyed, which can disrupt the delivery of routine health services to an affected population. People who vacate damaged housing and other buildings may be without adequate shelter. Roads may be impassible or damaged, hindering relief efforts, limiting access to needed medical supplies and care, affecting the distribution of food throughout the country, and increasing the risk of injuries as a result of motor vehicle incidents. Environmental hazards can cause a disruption to utility services (e.g., power, telephone, gas) and to the delivery of basic services.

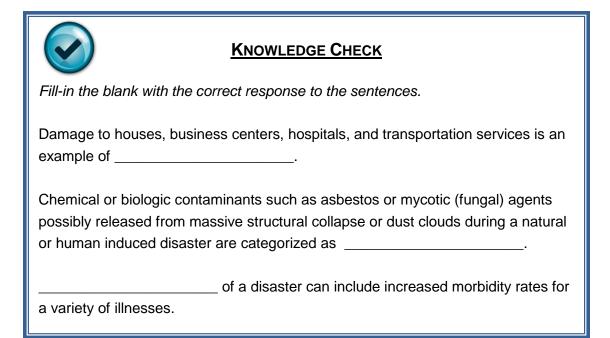
Human impact – Injury or death are the most immediate effects of disasters on human health. In the wake of a disaster and the ensuing infrastructure and societal damage, morbidity rates for a variety of illnesses may increase as populations become displaced and relocated to areas where health services are not available. Or populations can find themselves in areas not equipped to handle basic needs at the level necessary to manage a surge of patients. Damage to infrastructure can lead to food and water shortages and inadequate sanitation, all of which accelerate the spread of infectious

³ CDC, Public Health Surveillance for Disaster-related Mortality. Full-day Training: Colorado Department of Health and Environment Disaster Epidemiology Training; October 24, 2012; Denver CO

diseases. Loss of loved ones, social support networks, or displacement can result in psycho-social problems. Proper management of dead bodies also becomes a challenge and every effort should be taken to identify the bodies and assist with final disposal in accordance with surviving family member wishes and the religious and cultural norms of the community.

Environmental hazards – During natural or human-induced disasters, technological malfunctions may release hazardous materials into the community. For example, toxic chemicals can release and be dispersed by strong winds, seismic motion, or rapidly moving water. In addition, disasters resulting in massive structural collapse or dust clouds can cause the release of chemical or biologic contaminants such as asbestos or mycotic (fungal) agents. Flooded or damaged sewers or latrines may force people to use alternative methods for disposing human waste, potentially introducing additional environmental hazards into a community. Increase in vector populations, such as mosquitoes or rodents can pose a risk to human health, as can stray animals displaced by the disaster.

Regardless of how a disaster's effects are characterized, the result is a serious disruption of the functioning of society, causing widespread human, material, or environmental losses that exceed the local capacity to respond, and require external assistance.





Let the facilitator or mentor know you are ready for the discussion

DISCUSSION QUESTION #2

What are the factors that can influence the effects a disaster may have on a community or region?

DISASTER-RELATED HEALTH EFFECTS AND PUBLIC HEALTH IMPLICATIONS

Several factors determine the public health effects of a disaster, including the nature and extent of the disaster itself, population density, underlying health and nutritional conditions of the affected population, level of preparedness, and the preexisting health infrastructure.

Defining the relationship between a disaster and its specific health effects requires broad scientific investigation. Nevertheless, using available and reliable evidence and information, we can classify a disaster's health effects as either direct or indirect.

Direct health effects – Caused by the disaster's actual, physical forces. Examples of a direct health effect include drowning during a tsunami or injury caused by flying debris during a hurricane or tornado. These health effects typically occur during the event.

Indirect health effects – Caused by unsafe/unhealthy conditions that develop due to the effects of the disaster or events that occur from anticipating the disaster. Some indirect health effects may not appear until several weeks following a disaster while other indirect health effects may occur immediately after, or even prior to, the disaster. For example, carbon monoxide poisoning is an indirect health effect that typically occurs during power outages and would require immediate attention. Table 2 describes several possible direct and indirect health effects of natural disasters.

Table 2. Direct and indirect health effects of natural disasters

Type of Disaster	Direct Health Effects	Indirect Health Effects
Hurricane/cyclone	 Drowning Injuries from flying debris (e.g., head and chest trauma) Injuries from submerged debris or structures (e.g., puncture wounds) 	 Worsening of chronic disease Carbon monoxide poisoning Waterborne disease Vector-borne disease Disease outbreak Mental health concerns
Tornado	Injuries from flying debris or structural collapse	 Worsening of chronic disease Carbon monoxide poisoning Waterborne disease Vector-borne disease Disease outbreak Mental health concerns
Flood	 Drowning Injuries from submerged debris or structures 	 Worsening of chronic disease Carbon monoxide poisoning Waterborne disease Vector-borne disease Disease outbreak Mental health concerns
Earthquake	 Injuries from rock slides or collapsed buildings Drowning from ensuing tsunami 	 Worsening of chronic disease Carbon monoxide poisoning Waterborne disease Vector-borne disease Disease outbreak Mental health concerns
Volcanic eruption	 Suffocation by ash or toxic gases Injuries, including burn injuries, from mud or lava flows Drowning from ensuing tsunami 	 Worsening of chronic disease Carbon monoxide poisoning Waterborne disease Vector-borne disease Disease outbreak Mental health concerns

PUBLIC HEALTH CONCERNS FOLLOWING A DISASTER

One of the public health concerns following a disaster is the potential for the spread of communicable diseases or new illness outbreaks. Damage to water systems, sanitation facilities, food supply systems, health infrastructure, and other basic infrastructures can increase the risk of an outbreak following a disaster. The gathering of large numbers of displaced people within shelters or refugee camps provides increased opportunity for disease transmission. In addition to the effect on humans, disasters can also disrupt the environment and increase human exposure to vectors such as mosquitoes, rodents, or other animals. Outbreaks do not spontaneously occur after a disaster. The risk of an outbreak of a communicable disease to occur is minimal unless the disease is endemic in an area before the disaster, because transmission cannot take place unless the causative agent is present. Improved sanitary conditions can greatly reduce the chances of an outbreak.⁴

In addition to concerns about communicable diseases, public health officials also track chronic diseases, mental health problems, injuries and mortality. Chronic diseases such as diabetes, asthma, and high blood pressure could worsen due to disruption of routine health services, lack of access to prescription drugs, or environmental conditions. The inability to treat chronic diseases could be life-threatening to vulnerable populations and could give rise to additional complications that could affect a person's long-term quality of life.

After the initial phases of a disaster, the overall public health response effort gradually shifts from providing emergency care to providing primary and routine health services and resolving environmental health concerns. The epidemiologist should carefully assess the potential effect of the disaster on long-term public health needs. Damaged infrastructure after a disaster may significantly affect the ability to deliver routine health services for months or even years, interrupting immunization campaigns and treatment of chronic diseases.

Mental health problems can become a major public health concern following a disaster. The lack of mental health services or increase in stress may result in a rise of suicide attempts, domestic violence, safety concerns for family and friends, and a feeling of anxiety attributed to the monumental task of rebuilding a life. In addition, disaster-related injuries might include drowning, electrocution due to downed power lines, motor vehicle crashes, and injuries due to cleanup efforts (e.g. chain saw injuries, wounds, tetanus).

⁴ Pan American Health Organization. Natural Disasters: Protecting the Public's Health. Washington (DC); 2000. Report No.: 575.

⁵ University of North Carolina. Public health consequences of disasters. Haiti Field Epidemiology Training Program, Intermediate, Module 6; no date [cited 2014 Oct 16].



KNOWLEDGE CHECK

What is not a typical example of an indirect health effect?

- A. Exacerbation of chronic disease
- B. Waterborne disease
- C. Drowning
- D. Disease outbreak



Let the facilitator or mentor know you are ready for the discussion

DISCUSSION QUESTION #3

In what ways can treatment of chronic disease be affected after an earthquake?

PRACTICE EXERCISE



PRACTICE EXERCISE #1

In this practice exercise, you will apply the concepts learned in Lesson 1. Please read through the following case studies and answer the questions related to each case.

The Great East Japan Earthquake – 2001

On March 11, 2011, a 9-magnitude earthquake struck the east coast of Japan and triggered a tsunami with waves estimated to be greater than 30 meters, destroying many cities and villages. The earthquake and tsunami claimed over 15,000 lives and left over 2,000 missing. This catastrophic event severely damaged the Fukushima Nuclear Power Plant, resulting in the release of radioactive material. Radioactive contamination from the power plant added to the public health effects from the tsunami and earthquake.

http://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/Ops_Update_24monthReport_Final.pdf; http://www.who.int/kobe_centre/emergencies/east_japan_earthquake/situation_reports/sitrep35_6july2011.pdf

How would you classify this disaster?

What are the potential resulting effects of the disaster?

What are the likely public health implications?

What are the possible direct health effects?

What are the possible indirect health effects?

What are some potential response challenges?

Tungurahua - 2006

The Tungurahua volcano in Ecuador erupted on August 16, 2006. The eruption continued overnight before diminishing the following day. Massive clouds of ash, steam, and gas (approximately 8 km high), as well as abundant lava and pyroclastic flows descended through Achupashal, Cusúa, Mandur, Bascún, Juive Grande and La Hacienda rifts. The villages of Chilibu, Choglontuz, and Palitagua were severely damaged.

villages of Chilibu, Choglontuz, and Palitagua were severely damaged.
Volcanic material was also reported in Baños and blocked the Chambo and Puela rivers, producing a dam and putting several communities at risk for flooding. Ash fallout also severely affected the provinces of Los Ríos and Bolívar. http://www.paho.org/disasters/index.php?option=com_content&task=view&id=759&Itemid=904
How would you classify this disaster?
What are the potential resulting effects of the disaster?
What are the likely public health implications?
What are the possible direct health effects?
What are the possible indirect health effects?
What are some potential response challenges?

Heavy Rains and Landslides affect Guatemala - 2010

Heavy rains in September 2010, on the Pacific coast of Guatemala, caused landslides and

overflowing of rivers, due to soil saturation. According to reports, there were more than 40
deaths, 16 people went missing and more than 50,000 people were affected. A red alert
was declared in the affected areas. There was no damage to health facilities, although the
road infrastructure was affected.
http://www.paho.org/disasters/index.php?option=com_content&task=view&id=1371&Itemid=904
How would you classify this disaster?
What are the potential resulting effects of the disaster?
The same and the personal recurrency of the same same same same same same same sam
What are the likely public health implications?
What are the possible direct health effects?
What are the possible indirect health effects?
What are some potential response challenges?

Darfur- Western Sudan, Sudan's Darfur Conflict - 2003

The Darfur region in western Sudan is experiencing one of the world's worst humanitarian emergencies. Since early 2003, conflict and violence between government forces and Janjaweed militia against the rebel forces of the Sudan Liberation Movement/Army and the Justice and Equality Movement have driven over one million people from their homes. The displaced have sought refuge in makeshift camps in Sudan and over 150,000 refugees have sought shelter and relief across the border in Chad

http://origins.osu.edu/article/worlds-worst-humanitarian-crisis-understanding-darfur-conflict

The operating environment in Darfur, Sudan, where displacement and population movements occur continuously, is extremely challenging. The population of concern

includes around 2.3 million internally displaced persons (IDPs), some 140,000 refugees,
7,000 asylum-seekers and an estimated hundreds of thousands persons at risk of
statelessness. Most are refugees from Eritrea, Ethiopia, Chad, the Democratic Republic of
the Congo (DRC) and Somalia. http://www.unhcr.org/pages/49e483b76.html
How would you classify this disaster?
Milest are the restartial regulting effects of the dispeter?

What are the potential resulting effects of the disaster?

What are the likely public health implications?

What are the possible direct health effects?

What are the possible indirect health effects?

What are some potential response challenges?



Let the facilitator or mentor know you are ready for the discussion

LESSON 1 SUMMARY

As you have learned in this lesson, a disaster is a serious disruption of the functioning of society, causing widespread human, material, or environmental losses that exceed the local capacity to respond and therefore necessitates external assistance. Disasters are classified as natural, technological/human-induced, or complex. A key aspect to remember is that a hazard becomes a disaster only if it reaches a scope that is beyond the capacity of local resources and requires assistance from external organizations. Given the evidence and information, a number of health effects of a disaster can be classified as a direct health effect or an indirect health effect.

Public health concerns following disasters include increased morbidity and mortality due to exacerbation of chronic diseases such as diabetes and asthma; mental health, especially in the absence of mental health services available to those affected by the disaster; and the potential risk of an outbreak due to damage to water systems, sanitation facilities, food supply systems, health infrastructure, and other basic infrastructure. The gathering of large numbers of displaced people within shelters or refugee camps also may provide increased opportunities for transmission of disease.

LESSON 2: THE ROLE OF DISASTER EPIDEMIOLOGY IN DISASTER PREPAREDNESS AND RESPONSE

INTRODUCTION

Traditional epidemiologic methods and tools apply to disaster preparedness, response, and recovery efforts. Disaster epidemiology uses epidemiologic principles to assess both the short-and long-term adverse health effects of disasters and to predict the consequences of future disasters. Epidemiologists are increasingly called on to assist with both natural and technological disaster responses. Given the complex nature of disaster preparedness and response efforts, and given the multiple players and stakeholders involved, understanding the unique role and responsibilities of an epidemiologist is critical. This lesson describes the role of an epidemiologist within the disaster cycle.

After completing this lesson, you will be able to do the following:

- Define the goals of disaster epidemiology
- Describe the disaster cycle
- Explain the epidemiologist's role during each phase of the disaster cycle
- Identify as an epidemiologist the unique challenges of responding to a disaster

GOALS OF DISASTER EPIDEMIOLOGY

The primary goal of disaster epidemiology is to prevent or reduce the morbidity and mortality

resulting from a disaster. Disaster epidemiology can produce timely and reasonably accurate information about morbidity and mortality caused by disasters and the factors that put populations at risk for illness and death. This information is essential to inform decisions about how to prioritize response efforts and where to direct relief supplies, equipment, and personnel. Epidemiologic knowledge can also identify specific risk factors associated with different types of disasters. Such identification can help develop effective strategies for mitigating the effects of

Disaster epidemiology is the use of core public health capabilities to

- Assess the needs of affected populations and provide timely and accurate health information to decision makers, and
- Identify risk factors and improve prevention and mitigation strategies for future disasters

disasters in the future. Such data can also inform the design of early warning systems and the development of targeted training and education programs

THE DISASTER CYCLE

Disasters are often thought of as happening in a cyclical manner, consisting of four phases: preparedness, response, recovery, and mitigation (Figure 1).⁶ It is important to note that the activities that take place within the disaster cycle are interrelated and may happen concurrently.

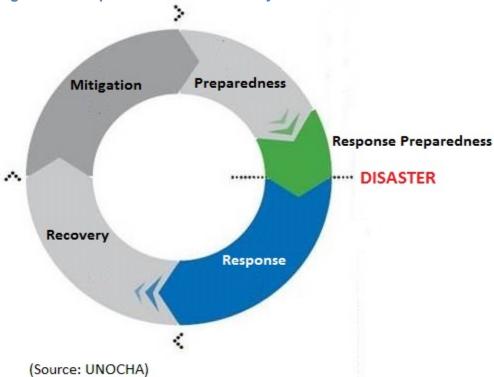


Figure 1. Four phases of the disaster cycle

Preparedness – The preparedness phase includes the development of plans designed to save lives and to minimize damage when a disaster occurs. Disaster prevention and preparedness measures should be developed and put in place long before a disaster strikes. Preparedness plans should be developed based on the identification of potential disasters and the related risks associated with those disasters. When possible, this should include hazard mapping to specify locations at high risk for specific disasters. The plan should include training of health personnel, community members, and other potential first-responders, as well as establishing systems for communicating warnings to the community.

⁶ Adapted from UN/OCHA. Disaster Preparedness for Effective Response Guidance and Indicator Package for Implementing Priority Five of the Hyogo Framework, Geneva.2008. Available from: http://www.unisdr.org/files/2909_Disasterpreparednessforeffectiveresponse.pdf.

Strategies for evacuating at-risk communities before impending disasters should be well thought out and communicated to community members. Weather patterns, geophysical activities, terrorist activities, industrial activities, wars, and other activities associated with a potential disaster should be monitored so that officials can anticipate impact, issue timely warnings and, when possible, evacuate at-risk populations. This phase should also include an inventory of available resources to respond to a potential disaster. An inventory will help estimate the additional resources needed and speed up the mobilization of resources following a disaster. Finally, partnerships should form in the preparedness phase to establish alliances, outline respective roles and define everyone's responsibilities.

Response – The response phase is the actions taken to save lives and prevent further damage in a disaster. This phase begins immediately after a disaster has struck. During the response phase, plans developed in the preparedness phase are put into action. While some disasters last only for a few seconds (e.g., earthquakes, explosions), others might last for several days, weeks, or even months (e.g., floods, droughts). The primary focus of the response phase is to provide relief and take action to reduce further morbidity and mortality. Such actions include providing first aid and medical assistance, implementing search and rescue efforts, restoring transportation and communication networks, conducting public health surveillance, and evacuating people who are still vulnerable to the effects of the disaster. Also during this phase necessary supplies, including food and water, are distributed to survivors.

Recovery – As the immediate needs of the disaster are addressed and the emergency phase ends, the focus of the disaster efforts shifts to recovery. The recovery phase includes the actions taken to return the community to normal following a disaster. Actions during this phase include repair and maintenance of basic health services, including sanitation and water systems; repair, replace or rebuild property; and the proper management of dead bodies. Proper care of dead bodies is necessary to help minimize the psychosocial effects on families. The management of dead bodies involves a series of activities that begin with the search for corpses, in situ identification of bodies, transfer to a facility serving as a morgue, delivery of the body to family members, and assistance from local health authorities for the final disposal of the body in accordance with the wishes of the family and the religious and cultural norms of the community. Documenting the cause of death, manner of death, and relationship to the disaster is important to better understand the human health effects of a disaster.

Mitigation – The mitigation phase is the sustained action or development of policies that reduce or eliminate risk to people and property from a disaster. During the mitigation phase, identified risks and population vulnerabilities are carefully reviewed to develop strategies to prevent reoccurrence of the same type of disaster in the future or limit the effect from such disasters. Existing preparedness plans are reviewed and revised to enhance the preparation efforts. A few examples of activities that could take place during the mitigation phase are building or strengthening dams and levees, establishing better and safer building codes, purchasing fire insurance, and updating land use zoning.

Though the order of events that take place following a disaster have a specific priority, many activities happen simultaneously. Similarly, some activities related to disaster response and recovery can extend for long periods. This is evident in continued efforts to manage the Chernobyl Nuclear Power Plant disaster that continues to plague the area over 30 years later with continued health risks and environmental cleanup.⁷



KNOWLEDGE CHECK

What are the phases of the disaster cycle?

- A. Preparedness, response, recovery, mitigation
- B. Preparedness, response, risk assessment, planning, reconstruction
- C. Planning, response, risk assessment, evaluation, mitigation
- D. Planning, response, recovery, surveillance, evaluation

⁷ The Chernobyl Forum. Chernobyl's legacy: health, environmental and socio-economic impacts and recommendations to the governments of Belarus, the Russian Federation and Ukraine. 2002. Available from http://www.preventionweb.net/files/5516_Chernobyllegacy.pdf

THE ROLE OF AN EPIDEMIOLOGIST IN DISASTER PREPAREDNESS AND RESPONSE

One public health action goal during a disaster is to identify certain risk factors. Specifically, those risk factors that predispose individuals or populations to adverse health outcomes during the four phases of the disaster cycle (preparedness, response, recovery and mitigation). The knowledge of these risks helps identify mechanisms of death, injury, and exposure. Such risk mechanism identification can mitigate the effects of current disasters and improve prevention and mitigation strategies for future disasters. Epidemiologists help to identify disaster-related outcomes, consider risk factors for disaster-related outcomes, and determine relevant risk factors for affected population groups. Epidemiologists have a role to play during all phases of the disaster cycle. But the epidemiologist's primary role is during the preparedness, response, and recovery phases.⁸

During the Preparedness Phase

During the preparedness phase, an epidemiologist's role is to conduct activities such as hazard mapping, translating data into policy, vulnerability analysis, educating the local community, and providing guidelines for community needs assessment and disaster-related morbidity and mortality surveillance. In addition, epidemiologists play a vital role in providing training and building partnerships among potential disaster response agencies, such as local and state health departments, national or international governmental and nongovernmental organizations, and academic institutions. Throughout the disaster cycle, identifying the key partners in disaster response and including them in response plan development helps to smooth relationships among agencies.

During the Response Phase

During a disaster's response phase, the assistance of an epidemiologist is usually requested. The request is typically to support immediate response efforts. The epidemiologist plays a major role in such response efforts. During this phase, the epidemiologist employs scientific data collection and analysis methods to conduct a rapid assessment of health and medical needs through surveys and investigations. Using information obtained through needs assessments and surveillance, the epidemiologist can make recommendations for the distribution of health resources and other resources to affected populations.

Rapid needs assessment (RNA) – An epidemiologist might conduct an RNA during the response phase of a disaster. RNAs quickly identify a community's basic and health needs. The assessments help determine the magnitude of a community's needs and aid in planning and implementing relief efforts. A toolkit developed by CDC, the Community Assessment for Public Health Emergency Response (CASPER), can be a valuable

⁸ Noji EK. The Public Health Consequences of Disasters. New York, NY: Oxford University Press; 1997.

reference for conducting rapid needs assessments. You will learn more about RNAs in Module 2 of this course.

Surveillance – During a disaster response, an epidemiologist might conduct surveillance of the health problems faced by the affected populations. Morbidity surveillance detects disease outbreaks and tracks disease trends. Early detection and response can mitigate the likelihood of outbreaks. Conducting health surveillance allows for informed decisions about allocating resources, targeting interventions to meet specific needs, and planning for future disasters. In addition to public health morbidity surveillance, mortality surveillance can provide information to prevent excess death. Available surveillance systems should be used to the extent possible. In the preparedness phase, surveillance systems useful for detecting disaster-related health effects should be identified. But following disasters, disruption of health systems might occur; use of traditional surveillance systems is not always feasible and alternate surveillance methods should also be considered. You will learn more about public health surveillance during disasters in Module 3 of this course.

During the Recovery and Mitigation Phases

Following the response phase of a disaster, the epidemiologist's role is to continue necessary surveillance and monitoring activities, conduct research on the causes of disaster-related morbidity and mortality, evaluate interventions, and develop follow-up studies of populations affected by the disaster. The findings from these studies can help to identify prevention strategies for future disasters.

Epidemiologic case studies – While epidemiologic studies are mainly conducted after the disaster is over, the development of the study plan and associated data collection efforts begin in the response phase. The studies aim at revealing relationships between exposures and mortality and morbidity. Epidemiologic studies can include case-control studies, cohort studies, risk factor studies, case series, and outbreak investigations. Some examples are

- a case-control study on the risk of tornado-related death and injury after the tornado has occurred.
- an ecological study on chronic diseases and disaster medication needs of tropical cyclone or hurricane evacuees, or
- a cohort study of the potential link between severe flooding and an increase in the incidence of gastrointestinal symptoms in affected populations.

Evaluation and effectiveness studies – Evaluation and effectiveness studies can occur during a response or after the disaster. These studies evaluate specific programs and response techniques and assess the success of specific programs and responses. Evaluation and effectiveness studies can focus on the implementation of relief programs, methods used, or the performance of the local health authorities during a response. Examples of evaluation and effectiveness studies include the following:

- Lessons learned from an emergency response to cyclone or hurricanerelated mass evacuations
- An outcomes assessment of a particular triage method after disasters
- An assessment of the use and distribution of health services following a disaster



KNOWLEDGE CHECK

What activity takes place during the preparedness phase of a disaster cycle? (you may select more than one response)

- A. Distributing basic supplies such as food and water
- B. Establishing partnerships
- C. Repairing roads and collapsed structures
- D. Conducting epidemiologic studies

What activity takes place during the mitigation phase of a disaster cycle? (you may select more than one response)

- A. Conducting a rapid needs assessment
- B. Conducting an inventory of available resources
- C. Evaluating the safety of building codes
- D. Conducting epidemiologic studies



Let the facilitator or mentor know you are ready for the discussion

DISCUSSION QUESTION #4

As an epidemiologist, what are some of the challenges or difficulties you could face in a disaster?

SPECIAL CONSIDERATIONS FOR DISASTER EPIDEMIOLOGY

Challenges or considerations for disaster epidemiology include the following:

Absence of baseline data – Baseline information, such as prevalence of health conditions, may be absent; especially when the population affected is displaced to a shelter. In these cases information on the population may not be available before the disaster occurs. This absent or unavailable baseline information is a challenge when trying to determine the impact of the disaster such as true increases in particular health conditions. For example, an RNA after the Deepwater Horizon oil spill found that 31% of households reported at least one person experiencing recent cardiovascular symptoms. However, it is difficult to determine the true increase due to the lack of information on cardiovascular symptoms in the community prior to the oil spill.

Difficulty in obtaining denominator data – The population under surveillance may change frequently and be unpredictable. Residents might have evacuated or been displaced. Traditional census or population data might not adequately reflect the at-risk population. Additionally, the disaster might not affect individual persons uniformly.

Damage or disruption to the local healthcare infrastructure – Needed facilities might be damaged and provide only limited services. Healthcare systems might be completely destroyed and nonfunctional. Therefore, the only available medical assistance may be from outside, in the form of 1) temporary hospitals run by response workers, 2) Red Cross temporary shelters for basic medical care, or 3) mobile health units run by nongovernmental organizations or volunteer medical groups. Unfortunately, these aid agencies might not collect information uniformly, making surveillance difficult and comparison of data to create a clear picture of the disaster event nearly impossible.

Coordination of data collection efforts – Competing priorities often involve multiple sectors and affect what data are collected and the timing of that data collection. In addition, coordination of efforts can be difficult. Standardization of data elements across the different collection agencies and streamlined reporting and information sharing mechanisms are often difficult to obtain. Therefore, repeated collection of information in a rapid manner from multiple sources under adverse conditions can be quite challenging.

Logistical constraints – Power and telephone outages affect communication networks and transportation systems. The usual reporting mechanisms can be interrupted, leading to the underreporting of health events.

Morbidity and mortality rate calculation challenges – To compare pre- and post-

impact morbidity and mortality rates and to compare those rates across population groups, we must calculate the rates rather than use simple numbers. For example, this calculation is done by relating death counts to the population during a specific period. In stable conditions, the population data can be obtained from census bureaus or other community data sources. During emergencies, however, epidemiologists often encounter challenges in estimating the population size to use as a denominator. Typically, when census or other community level data are not available, estimates

Data about number of deaths can be obtained from the following sources:

- Medical Examiner or Coroner Office
- Clinic or hospital
- Disaster Mortuary Team (DMORT)
- Religious authorities
- Household members

and educated guesses about the population size will need to suffice.

When calculating mortality, it is important to consider the size of the population and the time period in which the deaths occurred. This should be done by calculating mortality rates. Moreover, to determine the overall mortality effect, we need to understand the normal death toll within a certain period. Module 3 of this course will discuss tools to help conduct morbidity and mortality surveillance activities, including calculation of morbidity and mortality rates.



Let the facilitator or mentor know you are ready for the discussion

PRACTICE EXERCISE



PRACTICE EXERCISE #2

In this practice exercise, you will test your knowledge and understanding of disaster and disaster epidemiology. For each question, choose the best answer(s) from the four choices provided (A, B, C, or D). Circle the letter at the beginning of the statement that corresponds to your choice. NOTE: Some questions may have more than one correct answer; you may select more than one response.

1. Disaster epidemiology seeks to

- A. Prevent or reduce the morbidity and mortality resulting from disasters
- B. Assess basic needs of affected populations
- C. Provide first-response to affected populations
- D. Inform resource allocation plans for the response phase of a disaster cycle.

2. Epidemiologists play a role only in the response phase of the disaster cycle.

- A. True
- B. False

3. What activity takes place during the recovery phase of the disaster cycle?

- A. Training of health personnel
- B. Developing preparedness plans
- C. Repairing and maintenance of basic health services
- D. Establishing partnerships

4. During which phase of the disaster cycle should inventories of medical supplies and basic needs be conducted?

- A. Preparedness
- B. Response
- C. Recovery
- D. Mitigation

5. What activity takes place during the response phase of the disaster cycle?

- A. Conducting surveillance of health problems
- B. Conducting an inventory of available resources
- C. Training of health personnel
- D. Conducting epidemiologic studies

6. During what phase of the disaster cycle does an epidemiologist play the most limited role?

- A. Preparedness
- B. Response
- C. Recovery
- D. Mitigation

7. Which of the following does not describe an epidemiologist's role in a disaster?

- A. Identify disaster-related outcomes
- B. Determine risk factors for affected population groups
- C. Rebuild damaged infrastructures and restore health systems
- D. Conduct rapid needs assessments

8. What is the role of an epidemiologist during the preparedness phase of the disaster cycle?

- A. Conduct needs assessments
- B. Analyze vulnerabilities of communities
- C. Educate local communities
- D. Conduct surveillance activities.

9. Conducting a rapid needs assessment occurs during which phase of the disaster cycle?

- A. Preparedness
- B. Response
- C. Recovery
- D. Mitigation

10. What is an indicator of significant public health effects during disasters?

- A. Disease incidence
- B. Disease prevalence
- C. Mortality rate
- D. Case-fatality rate

11. What are some challenges for conducting epidemiologic work within a disaster setting? (open-ended, please provide at least three examples)

12. Conducting an outcomes assessment of a particular triage method after a natural disaster is an example of

- A. An evaluation study
- B. A rapid needs assessment
- C. An epidemiologic study
- D. A case-control study



LESSON 2 SUMMARY

As you have learned in this lesson, the primary goal of disaster epidemiology is to prevent or reduce the disaster-related morbidity and mortality. Disasters are often thought of as happening in a cyclical manner consisting of four phases: Preparedness, Response, Recovery and Mitigation. This is known as the disaster cycle. As an epidemiologist, your role will be to help to identify disaster-related outcomes and determine relevant risk factors for the affected population. While epidemiologists have a role to play during all phases of the disaster cycle, their primary role is during the preparedness, response, and recovery phases. At the same time, you should remember there are some additional challenges to conducting epidemiology in a disaster setting. These challenges include the absence of baseline data, a difficulty in obtaining denominator data, damage or disruption to local infrastructure, difficulty in the coordination of efforts, and other logistical constraints

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PARTICIPANT WORKBOOK

Module Two: Disaster Response Rapid Needs Assessment[™]

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Disclaimer

The findings and conclusions in this participant workbook are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official position of the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention.

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Office of Noncommunicable Disease, Injury and Environmental Health,
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Health Studies Branch



MODULE 2: DISASTER RESPONSE RAPID NEEDS ASSESSMENT

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Overview of Module Two – Disaster Response Rapid Needs Assessment	1
Learning Objectives	1
Estimated Completion Time	2
Prerequisites	2
Lesson 1: Planning a Disaster Response Rapid Needs Assessment (RNA)	3
Introduction	3
Overview of RNA Methodology	3
Four Phases of an RNA	4
Figure 1. Four phases of an RNA	5
RNA Purpose and Objectives	6
When to Conduct an RNA	6
RNA Scope	6
RNA and the Disaster Cycle	7
Challenges to Conducting an RNA	8
Table 1. RNA challenges and preventive actions	8
Planning for an RNA	11
Table 2. RNA planning checklist	11
Practice Exercise	15
Lesson 1 Summary	16
Lesson 2: Phase 1 – Preparing for an RNA	17
Introduction	17
Overview of RNA Sampling Method	17
Determine the Assessment Area	18
Two-Stage Cluster Sampling Method	20
Stage One – Selecting 30 Clusters and Mapping	21
Stage Two – Selecting Seven Households	21
Figure 2. Example of using systematic random sampling to select households for interview.	22
Considerations Affecting Sample Selection and Size	24
Other Sampling Methods	24
Simple Random Sampling	24
Systematic Random Sampling	25
Stratified Sampling	25

PARTICIPANT WORKBOOK

Practice Exercise	27
Develop the RNA Questionnaire and Forms	28
Developing the RNA Questionnaire	28
Structuring an RNA Questionnaire	28
Data Collection Options	30
Table 3. Data collection options advantages and disadvantages	30
RNA Forms in the Field	31
Table 4. RNA forms in the field	31
Identify and Train Field Interview Teams	34
Forming Field Interview Teams	34
Size of Field Interview Teams	34
Table 5. Considerations for the number of field interview teams	35
Training the Field Interview Teams	35
Conducting the Interview	36
Interview Tips	36
Table 6. RNA interview tips	37
Practice Exercise	39
Lesson 2 Summary	40
Lesson 3: Phase 2 – Conducting an RNA	41
Introduction	41
Administering the Questionnaire in the Field	41
Interview Steps in the Field	41
Figure 3. General interview steps in the field	41
Considerations while in the Field	42
Table 7. Considerations for field interview teams	42
RNA Debrief	43
Table 8. Sample debriefing questions	43
Practice Exercise	44
Lesson 3 Summary	45
Introduction	46
Data Entry and Analysis	46
Data Entry	46
Table 9. Considerations for data entry	46
Data Analysis	47
Figure 4. Weight variable formula	47
Example of Applying Weights: India Tsunami	49

Figure 5. Sample dataset showing number of interviews per cluster and assigned weight	49
Calculating Weighted Frequencies	49
Figure 6. Frequency analysis window showing selected variables and weight	50
Figure 7. Example of Epi Info™ output window showing weighted frequencies	50
Nonweighted frequency	51
Table 10. Nonweighted and weighted frequencies of current source of electricity	51
Calculation of 95% Confidence Intervals	51
Figure 8. Selected variable for calculation of complex sample frequencies	52
Figure 9. Example of Epi Info™ output window showing complex sample frequencies	52
Response Rates	53
Figure 10. Sample dataset showing attempted and completed interviews per cluster	53
Calculation Response Rates	54
Table 11. Common response rates	54
Reporting the Results	56
Table 12. Report considerations	56
Preliminary Field Report	57
Table 13. Common reporting structure	57
Final Report	58
Practice Exercise	60
Lesson 4 Summary	61
Skills Assessment	62
Rapid Needs Assessment (RNA) Case Study: Flooding in Guatemala	62
Instructions	62
Learning Objectives	62
Case Scenario	62
Assessment Location	63
Figure 11. Areas affected by heavy rain or flooding	64
Figure 12. Satellite image of assessment area in a GIS map	64
Questionnaire Design	65
Data Collection	65
Figure 13. Sample excerpt of data from El Progreso	66
Fieldwork	68
Figure 14. RNA tracking form	68
Table 14. Characteristics of households in affected areas following the flood, El Progreso	69
Appendix A. Flood assessment form, June 2010	71
References	76

OVERVIEW OF MODULE TWO - DISASTER RESPONSE RAPID NEEDS ASSESSMENT

A **rapid needs assessment (RNA)** is a collection of techniques (e.g., epidemiological, statistical, anthropological) designed to provide information about a community's needs following a disaster. It uses local resources and specific methods to conduct a relatively quick, effective, and representative community snapshot to assess needs and guide relief efforts. During a disaster, you should consider an RNA when you need to understand a disaster's impact on affected populations.

In this module, you will learn about an RNA for disaster response and the various components needed to plan, execute, and report results collected from the assessment. This module consists of four lessons:

- Lesson 1: Planning a Disaster Response RNA
- Lesson 2: Preparing for an RNA
- Lesson 3: Conducting an RNA
- Lesson 4: Data Entry, Analysis, and Writing the Report

Content is drawn from several tools and approaches, including the following:

- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) /Health Studies Branch (HSB)
 Community Assessment for Public Health Emergency Response (CASPER) toolkit.
- Johns Hopkins and the International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies Public Health Guide in Emergencies.
- World Health Organization, Cluster sampling methodology.

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After completing Module Two, you will be able to do the following:

- Explain the steps for planning an RNA
- Identify an appropriate sampling method
- Design a questionnaire instrument
- Identify steps for implementing an RNA during a disaster response

⁹ Lloyd F. Novick, John S. Marr. *Public Health Issues Disaster Preparedness: focus on bioterrorism.* Jones & Bartlett Learning; 2003.

ESTIMATED COMPLETION TIME

Module Two will take approximately 16 hours to complete, including some discussion time with your mentor or facilitator.

PREREQUISITES

Before participating in this training module, we recommend that learners complete the following training courses:

- Module One: Epidemiologic Response to Disasters
- Questionnaire Design (FETP core curriculum)
- Interview Techniques (FETP core curriculum)
- Introduction to Sampling (FETP core curriculum)

LESSON 1: PLANNING A DISASTER RESPONSE RAPID NEEDS ASSESSMENT (RNA)

INTRODUCTION

As you learned in Module One, *Epidemiologic Response to Disasters*, significant damage can happen after a disaster, such as physical injuries, illnesses, potential disease outbreaks, short-and long-term psychological effects, death, significant damage to buildings and other structures, and devastating financial loss. ¹⁰ As an epidemiologist, you could be called on to assist in determining the extent of such damage, particularly damage to human health and the health infrastructure, to identify the needs of a community, and to recommend interventions to reduce further morbidity or mortality.

In this lesson, you will learn about an RNA method for gathering information about the health and other basic needs of a community affected by a disaster. The lesson sets out the four phases of conducting an RNA.

After completing this lesson, you will be able to do the following:

- Describe the need for conducting an RNA
- Recognize the issues that need to be addressed before conducting an assessment
- Identify challenges of conducting an RNA

OVERVIEW OF RNA METHODOLOGY

The destruction of homes, damage to local infrastructure such as the water supply, electricity, and health facilities, and the interruption of services and social support networks can affect a community's well-being. During the response phase of a disaster, public health and emergency management professionals must be prepared to respond to and meet the needs of the affected community. Action to mitigate adverse effects requires timely and accurate information. Key information such as the number of affected households, health status, immediate- and long-term needs and the scope and type of intervention required can be obtained quickly and effectively with the RNA's proven methodology.

¹⁰ Noji EK. 1997. The public health consequences of disasters. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Specifically, an RNA uses validated data collection methods to determine

- magnitude of the disaster's effect on the community;
- number of households affected,
- basic characteristics of the households affected (e.g., are there more vulnerable groups with increased risk for disease or death?),
- current health priorities and potential public health problems,
- availability of basic needs such as food and water, and
- need for external support or intervention.

A disaster-response RNA provides agencies, emergency managers, or local health authorities with evidence-based information about the affected population's needs. An RNA will help inform the prioritization of interventions and allocation of finite supplies and resources. Without the timely availability of reliable and scientifically sound data, public health officials run the risk of making ill-informed decisions that might adversely affect the response effort.¹¹

The RNA methodology is an epidemiologic investigation method. An RNA facilitates rapid data collection within a resource-constrained setting. It also focuses on the *household* as the unit of analysis rather than the individual. This focus on collecting household-level information allows for data collection timeliness. This method also assumes that the disaster affects everyone within a household, and all households within a given area are subject to the same exposure (disaster) equally. The RNA methodology serves as a relatively inexpensive and practical public health tool. Today, for most types of disasters, an RNA represents a first line of epidemiologic response. ¹²

FOUR PHASES OF AN RNA

The four phases of an RNA are the following:

- 1. Prepare the Assessment
- 2. Conduct the Assessment
- 3. Analyze the Data
- 4. Write the Report

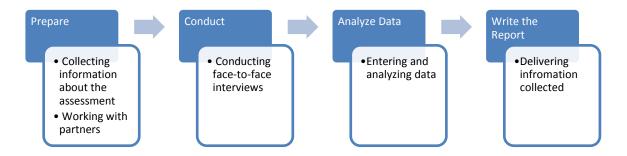
¹¹ CDC. Community Assessment for Public Health Emergency Response (CASPER) Toolkit, Second edition. Atlanta (GA): 2012.

edition. Atlanta (GÁ); 2012.

12 Malilay J, Flanders WD, Brogan D. A modified cluster-sampling method for post disaster rapid assessment of needs. Bull World Health Organ.1996;74:399-405.

These phases, represented in the Figure 1, should not be confused with the four phases of the disaster cycle discussed in Module One.

Figure 1. Four phases of an RNA



These phases provide a quick, inexpensive, accurate, and reliable process for obtaining household-based information about communities affected by natural or human-made disasters. In this lesson, we will focus on Phase 1 of an RNA, Prepare the Assessment.



KNOWLEDGE CHECK

What are the four phases of an RNA?

- A. Respond, Recovery, Analyze Data, Disseminate Information
- B. Plan, Respond, Recovery, Write the Report
- C. Prepare, Conduct, Analyze Data, Write the Report
- D. Preparedness, Respond, Recovery, Mitigation



Let the facilitator or mentor know you are ready for the discussion

DISCUSSION QUESTION #1

An RNA is a validated data collection method to determine what type of information?

RNA PURPOSE AND OBJECTIVES

The primary purpose of an RNA is to rapidly obtain vital information about the needs of a community and monitor changes in those needs during the recovery period. In a disaster setting, the main objectives are to

- describe the effects of the disaster on health;
- determine the critical health needs and assess the impact of the disaster;
- characterize the population residing in the affected area;
- produce household-based information and estimates for decision-makers;
- evaluate the effectiveness of relief efforts through a follow-up assessment; and
- prevent adverse health effects.

When to Conduct an RNA

Conduct an RNA at any time the public health needs of a community are not well known. Such

times can occur during a disaster response or within a nonemergency setting. During a disaster, the local, state, or regional emergency managers or health department officials could decide to initiate an RNA when

•	the effect of the disaster on the
	population is unknown,

- the health status and basic needs of the affected population are unknown, or
- the response and recovery efforts need to be evaluated.

Timeliness of an RNA is critical		
Event	Initial Assessment Timing	
Hurricane Isabel, NC, 2003	< 24 hours	
Earthquake Tsunami, American Samoa, 2009	5 days	
Hurricane Katrina, US MS, 2005	14 days	
Earthquake Turkey, 1999	15 days	

RNA Scope

While an RNA is a quick, reliable, and accurate technique that provides household-based information about a community's needs, it is not intended to

- provide direct services to residents such as cleanup or home repair;
- deliver food, medicine, medical services, or other resources to the affected area;
- determine why people are not returning to their community; or
- establish current population estimates.

RNA data are aggregated and reported at the household level. This method determines all the resources from which the affected community can benefit. During their interaction with the community, the RNA team may identify certain households in need of services, such as diabetic

patients without insulin or supplemental oxygen-dependent persons without access to electric power. The team can refer these households to the appropriate resources.

RNA and the Disaster Cycle

You can conduct an RNA at any phase of the disaster cycle. But note that the affected community's needs will change at different points in that disaster cycle and the RNA's objectives will vary depending on the timing of the assessment relative to the disaster. For example, during the preparedness phase, you can conduct an RNA to assess the disaster preparedness level of the community, such as determining how many households have emergency supply kits. During the recovery phase of a disaster, you can conduct an RNA as a follow-up to a previous RNA to assess the effectiveness of the response or intervention program and determine ongoing community needs. RNAs have also been used to assess public health perceptions, determine current health status, and estimate the needs of a community in a nonemergency setting. For example, an RNA can be conducted as part of a larger health assessment to measure a community's awareness and opinions concerning the effect of a project (e.g., a new transportation route) on a community's health.



KNOWLEDGE CHECK

Which statement(s) are not objectives of an RNA? (Select all that apply)

- A. Produce household-based information and estimates for decision-makers
- B. Determine why people are not returning to their community
- C. Deliver food, medicine, medical services, or other resources to the affected area
- D. Characterize the population living in the affected area



Let the facilitator or mentor know you are ready for the discussion

DISCUSSION QUESTION #2

What are the main objectives of an RNA in a disaster setting?

CHALLENGES TO CONDUCTING AN RNA

Many potential challenges are associated with conducting an RNA in a disaster setting. As a member of an RNA team, you should be aware of the common challenges that can occur during an assessment and be familiar with the preventive actions outlined in Table 1.

Table 1. RNA challenges and preventive actions¹³

Challenge	Description
Limited access	Challenge: Inability or difficulty in reaching people to interview.
	Preventive action: Understanding the current situation will be critical,
	including the displacement of the population (i.e., are people in a
	refugee camp, evacuation center, or other centralized location such as
	a shelter?). The sampling methodology might need modifying to ensure access to the affected populations.
Limited	Challenge: The assessment is poorly coordinated between various
coordination	Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and excludes the host
	government and the affected community.
	Preventive action: Appoint a team leader to coordinate the
	assessment with the local officials, the affected community's leaders,
	and other agencies so that the results are shared and not duplicated,
	and so that future support of relief activities is ensured.
Lacking	Challenge: The assessment team lacks the expertise needed.
expertise	Preventive action: Select members of the team with disaster-specific
	(previous experience), site-specific (geography, language, culture) or
	specialty-specific skills (epidemiologists, public health nurses, logisticians).
Incomplete data	Challenge: The number of competed surveys are often fewer than
	expected (e.g., poor access or refusal).
	Preventive action: Discuss the plans with local authorities, community
	representatives, and other agencies and use local media to
	inform/educate the community about the assessment.

¹³ Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health; International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies. Public Health Guide for Emergencies, 2nd ed. Geneva: IFRCRCS; 2008 [cited 2013 Nov 10]. Available from: http://www.jhsph.edu/research/centers-and-institutes/center-for-refugee-and-disaster-

response/publications_tools/publications/_CRDR_ICRC_Public_Health_Guide_Book/Forward.pdf

Unreliable population size	Challenge: The estimated size of the target population – the denominator – is unreliable.		
	Preventive action: Conduct a quick census of the affected community		
	by, if possible, walking or driving around the affected area. Reach out to		
	local agencies, other disaster responders, and relief agencies to find		
	out whether they have more updated population estimates.		
Failure to consider needs	Challenge: The assessment report does not consider the affected population's perceived needs.		
	Preventive action: At every stage of the assessment involve		
	representatives from the local governmental and nongovernmental		
	agencies and the affected population, including when you are drawing		
	conclusions from the local responses and determining outstanding		
	needs.		
Poor execution	Challenge: Assessment team members do not complete their assigned		
	tasks in a timely manner. Thus, time is insufficient for accurate		
	assessments, the assessment period is extended, and serious delays in vital action might occur.		
	Preventive action: Establish a detailed and realistic timeline and		
	clearly communicate the expectations and timeline with each team		
	member. Readjust the plan based on the reality of the situation.		
Poor information sharing	Challenge: Information is not shared with government, NGOs, or other agencies.		
	Preventive action: Discuss before the assessment when and how to share common planning and priority settings.		



KNOWLEDGE CHECK

Which statement(s) best describe preventive action for challenges related to unreliable population size?

- A. Inform/educate the community about the assessment using local media.
- B. Discuss when and how to share common planning and priority settings.
- C. Understand the displacement patterns of the population.
- D. Conduct a quick census of the affected community by walking or driving around the affected area.

Which statement(s) best describe preventive action for challenges related to incomplete assessment data?

- A. Inform/educate the community about the assessment using local media.
- B. Discuss when and how to share common planning and priority settings.
- C. Understand the population's displacement patterns.
- D. Conduct a quick census of the affected community by walking or driving around the affected area.



Let the facilitator or mentor know you are ready for the discussion

DISCUSSION QUESTION #3

Think about your own jurisdiction, what are some challenges to conducting an RNA that may happen in a disaster?

PLANNING FOR AN RNA

Despite the urgent need for information following a disaster, reserving time to prepare sufficiently for an RNA is critical, especially before initiating any data collection. Knowing the purpose, setting, and availability of resources is similarly important, especially *before* making the decision to conduct an RNA.

Table 2 contains a checklist an RNA team can use in planning for the assessment. The checklist will help to clarify the RNA purpose, setting, and availability of resources. As epidemiologists you will most likely be a member of an RNA team. You should be able to identify the information your assessment team might want to collect in an RNA. You should be able to ensure that key planning steps have been covered. All the items on the checklist might not be feasible given disaster response circumstances, availability of resources, and immediate needs. Still, you should adapt the checklist in Table 2 to the context and culture of the affected community and to the available resources in the specific geographic area. Some key actions to consider when planning for an RNA are listed in Table 2.

Table 2. RNA planning checklist

Action	Description
	Know the Purpose
Define how information will be used	Before conducting an RNA, response officials' understanding of how the result will be used will help create a clear vision and narrow the scope of the data collection instrument. Clear goals are imperative to ensuring that the appropriate data are collected, thus generating useful information for public health actions.
Determine what information has been obtained from other assessments	Obtain information from local responders or from other assessments conducted by other agencies (e.g., flyovers and area damage assessments). Such information could be beneficial in determining your assessment area(s).
Identify relevant stakeholders	Identify and include all relevant stakeholders in the planning and design stages—this will ensure smooth partnership relations throughout the RNA process. During the first phase of an RNA (Prepare the Assessment), the role of each partner should be defined in terms of what each will contribute to the assessment. These contributions might include subject matter expertise, analytical support, materials, or ground information about the affected area. Working relationships between national and subnational partners, private or nongovernmental

	organizations, and educational institutions are built and fostered during the RNA preparedness stage. These partnerships are integral to the successful completion of an RNA. The number and type of partners in an RNA depends on the nature of the assessment, the location, and the RNA needs.
	Know Your Setting
Determine geographical areas to include	The RNA can, but might not always, cover all geographic areas affected by the disaster. The RNA's geographical assessment area covered will depend on the availability of resources and the objectives established by the local authorities. When determining the geographical areas in which to conduct an RNA, local authorities might take into account infrastructure damage or accessibility to areas affected by the disaster. Obtaining maps of the affected areas is often helpful (e.g., from local officials or meterologist office for areas affected by a hurricane or flood) to gain a better understanding of the affected community's geographical location, boundaries, terrain, and landmarks.
Determine the demographics and baseline health status of population	Having background information about the demographic characteristics of the affected population is informative for developing the questionnaire. Demographic data might be available from national census data, national statistics offices, Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS), or other population-based surveys. Useful demographic information includes age and sex distribution of the population, average household size, estimates of female- and child-headed households, and social structure. Although knowing the prevalence of medical conditions will be helpful to interpret the data, these data are not often available.
Ascertain security and access information	The RNA team should establish an understanding of ongoing natural or human-made hazards encountered during the RNA. Disaster response is often complicated by new hazards, such as road closures and downed power lines. Determining the overall safety and security of the affected area is important, especially before sending teams into the field. Speak with local officials to obtain safety and security information.

Know Your Resources Identify available Identifying available resources (both equipment and resources personnel) requires coordinating with a broad set of partners. The following is a series of suggested steps the RNA team should take to identify available resources: Coordinate with the Ministry of Health or other national agencies to support the response Determine the types and quantities of locally available resources: personnel, transportation, communication devices, first-aid kits, mapping devices such as Global Positioning System (GPS), computers with internet access, data entry and analysis software Identify a field coordination center that can serve as a headquarters for the RNA team. This center should be near the affected area and be equipped with phone or VHF or UHF radio communication device (or both), fax, and Internet access П Assemble the Determine how many interview teams are needed. This will assessment team be based on the assessment design, sample size, number of interviews that need to be conducted, and the distance that needs to be traveled to access each household. Identify any special expertise needed to conduct the RNA (e.g., a data analyst, a Geographic Information System (GIS) expert, an environmental scientist, a mental health professional), and local staff available to assist in data collection. If you cannot recruit a multidisciplinary assessment team locally, get the proper authorization (e.g., work permits, travel permits) for additional personnel from neighboring areas or partner organizations, including neighboring countries or other expatriots. Local representation is essential to foster trust between the public and assessment teams and improve buyin and support from the community. If possible, ensure someone locally based can arrange the assessment team's transportation, communication, accomodations, and meals.

Defining in advance what information is already known, what information is needed, where and from whom data should be collected, key partners and their role, available resources, and other such factors can improve the RNA's coverage, quality, and overall usability. Often, given the urgent need for information, the time required to organize, collect, and analyze precise and reliable data might simply prove infeasible This means you must make some decisions using less precise and less reliable data. When possible, you should confirm any information you use with the appropriate stakeholders (e.g., local officials, NGOs).

②	KNOWLEDGE CHECK		
Fill in the blanks.			
It is important to know the _ before making the decision t		_, and	



Let the facilitator or mentor know you are ready for the discussion

DISCUSSION QUESTION #4

What are some of the key items you should consider when planning for an RNA?

PRACTICE EXERCISE



PRACTICE EXERCISE #1

In this practice exercise, you will apply the concepts learned in Lesson 1. Please read through the following scenario and answer the questions. This scenario will be used across the remaining lessons in this module.

Flooding in a Southeast Asian country

Torrential rainfall and floods due to seasonal monsoons affected a province in a Southeast Asian country. On July 22, 2013, 45,948 people were displaced, 24 reported as dead, 2 were injured, and 14 were missing. Thousands of acres of farmland were damaged. In the early hours of July 21, 2013, flooding on a local river caused embankments to break flooding 80% of nearby areas. The province had one community hospital, one pharmacy, few physicians and clinicians, limited commercial air service, and limited support infrastructure. Nevertheless, it was rich in local culture and had a strong, intact social system and leadership.

All latrines in the city and county centers were destroyed. Two hospitals were partially damaged. Many roads and bridges were damaged, limiting access to affected areas. Electric power was mostly not available, and water utilities had low pressure.

In the flood's aftermath, many health personnel responded, but some experienced personal injury, family injuries or deaths, and property loss. Because some responders were also victims and unable to work during the disaster, public services needed staffing assistance from outside sources.

The local government requested interagency assistance from NGOs, MOH, and other key partners to determine the health and general needs of the affected population. The objective was to inform response and recovery activities by assessing affected areas and identifying post-storm public health needs.

List the information that you should gather to plan for an RNA responding to this disaster.

What should the goals of the RNA be during the recovery and mitigation phase?

List some challenges that you would anticipate in this situations. Describe why these challenges would be relevant to an RNA.



Let the facilitator or mentor know you are ready for the discussion

LESSON 1 SUMMARY

As you have learned in this lesson, an RNA is an important tool during a disaster. An RNA helps to gather quickly the information necessary to plan disaster response activities. A four-phased approach and checklist guides RNA activities. Given the time and resource constraints, being aware of and prepared for the challenges you might encounter is important, especially when planning for and conducting an RNA.

LESSON 2: PHASE 1 – PREPARING FOR AN RNA

INTRODUCTION

In Lesson 1, you learned about the RNA method for gathering household-based information from communities affected by a disaster. This method included a four-phased approach to gather household-based information. Remember that before initiating an RNA, determine whether that RNA uses the right assessment method based on the objectives, timeframe, and availability of resources. After this determination, RNA assessment teams will begin preparing for the RNA (Phase 1) to

- identify the assessment areas,
- · develop questionnaires and forms, and
- identify and train field interview teams.

After completing this lesson, you will be able to do the following:

- Describe the recommended sampling methodology used for an RNA
- Describe the modified two-stage cluster sampling method
- Describe considerations affecting sample selection and size
- Develop assessment questionnaires for the RNA
- Describe methods for identifying and training field interview teams

OVERVIEW OF RNA SAMPLING METHOD

As you learned in Lesson 1, the primary objectives of an RNA are to

- describe the effects of the disaster on health;
- determine the critical health needs and assess the impact of the disaster;
- characterize the population residing in the affected area;
- produce household-based information and estimates for decision-makers;
- · evaluate the effectiveness of relief efforts through a follow-up assessment; and
- prevent adverse health effects.

Ideally, you would collect information from all members of the community to assess their needs. But given time and cost constraints, this is rarely feasible, even in nonemergency situations. In a disaster response, obtaining information from every person would be too expensive and time consuming. The need to collect data in a rapid and timely manner necessitates conducting an RNA with a subset, or sample, of the population.

Sampling is the process of carefully selecting representative respondents from the target population who reflect the characteristics of the population from which it is drawn. When done correctly, sampling is an efficient way to gather quickly information on a population in a cost-efficient manner. A sample should accurately reflect the distribution of relevant variables in a population according to person, place, and time. To the extent possible, this subset should be as representative as possible of the larger population so as to generalize the findings accurately to the larger target population.

To select households within the assessment area, the recommended RNA sampling method is the two-stage cluster sampling design. This design includes the selection of 30 clusters (first stage) and within each cluster 7 interviews (second stage) are completed. The data collected using this method are meant to generate estimates. How you select the clusters and households for interviews is important to ensure valid estimates.

DETERMINE THE ASSESSMENT AREA

The first RNA preparation step is determining the assessment, or geographic, area(s). The

assessment area(s) are the RNA's sampling frame. A sampling frame is a list of households from which a sample is to be drawn, such as maps or lists of households in an area. As mentioned in Lesson 1, local officials from the affected area who requested the RNA will usually determine the sampling frame.

One of the key assumptions of the disaster response RNA is that the households in the sampling frame are all similarly affected. Thus, the sampling frame should be limited rather than be expansive. The disaster area may be geographically large or have vast differences between communities. Differences may include the extent of storm damage, social or geographic vulnerability, or the nature

Examples of how the sampling frame can be defined include the following:

- Political boundaries (e.g., houses in a county, district, city, village)
- Geographic boundaries
 (e.g., houses located within
 specific landmarks, such
 as a road or lake)
- Specific community (e.g., houses in the most affected community without local health services)

of the jurisdictions responding to their needs. If such conditions occur, you should consider separate sampling frames and RNAs for each specific area. For example, if an earthquake struck an urban area and a rural area, you would consider conducting separate RNAs for the urban and the rural areas. Once you know your sampling frame(s), you will use the appropriate sampling methodology to draw a representative sample to reach your target population.



KNOWLEDGE CHECK

A _____ is a list of households from which a sample is drawn

- A. Sample
- B. Sampling frame
- C. RNA
- D. Cluster



Let the facilitator or mentor know you are ready for the discussion

DISCUSSION QUESTION #5

How is the geographic assessment area(s) identified?

DISCUSSION QUESTION #6

How is the sampling frame defined?

Two-Stage Cluster Sampling Method

The next step in preparing for an RNA is to determine the proper sampling method. The

sampling method should be selected on the basis of the assessment objectives, timeframe, and available resources. Two-stage cluster sampling is the recommended methodology for conducting an RNA. You may use other sampling methods, however, which are described at the end of this module.

The two-stage cluster sampling method is recommended for an RNA. Other sampling methods include simple random sampling, systematic sampling, and stratified sampling. However, these may not be feasible.

The World Health Organization's (WHO) Expanded

Programme on Immunization (EPI) adapated the two-stage cluster sampling methodology to estimate immunization coverage. According to WHO, this cluster design is easy to implement in the field, requires few resources, and provides valid and precise estimates with relatively quick reporting. The recommended design is 30 clusters of 7 subjects to yield 95% confidence levels. In 1992, CDC modified the EPI method for use following a disaster. The modification enables users to estimate the number of households with specific needs in the disaster-affected area.

There are times when sampling may not be necessary. A few conditions to consider when determining whether sampling is necessary, include when

- the total number of households in the assessment area is significantly larger than what can be assessed with available resources,
- the area that needs to be covered to assess the affected population is too large,
- the number of field interview teams is limited, or
- the assessment must be completed quickly (one or two days) because results are needed quickly.

The goal of the two-stage cluster method is to complete 210 interviews (30 X 7) within each assessment area(s).

World Health Organization (WHO). Rapid health assessment protocols for emergencies. Geneva: WHO; 1999.

¹⁵ Malilay J, Flanders WD, Brogan D. A modified cluster-sampling method for post disaster rapid assessment of needs. Bull World Health Organ.1996;74(4):399-405.

¹⁶ Hlady, W. G., Quenemoen, L. E., Armenia-Cope, R. R., Hurt, K. J., Malilay, J., Noji, E. K., & Wurm, G. Use of a modified cluster sampling method to perform rapid needs assessment after Hurricane Andrew. Annals of Emergency Medicine.1994; 23(4):719-725. [cited 2014 October 24]. Available from: http://www.annemergmed.com/article/S0196-0644(94)70305-1/abstract.

Stage One - Selecting 30 Clusters and Mapping

The first stage includes selecting a sample of 30 clusters (e.g., census blocks, villages) with

probability proportional to the estimated number of estimated number of households. The sampling method thus requires a count of all households in your sampling frame. In some geographic area, clusters may cover a wide area and/or has many housing units, which create logistical challenges for field interview teams to interview. In such situation segmenting the

Selecting with a probability proportional to size ensures that clusters with more households have a higher chance of selection. This method of selection is then corrected during data analyses by weighting.

cluster and select the cluster proportional to size is advisable.

You accomplish this first stage by dividing the sampling frame into non-overlapping subpopulations, or "clusters." Thirty clusters are selected with their probability proportional to the number of households in each cluster. You can gain information on the number of household per cluster from local officials, such as community leaders, and from local documents, such as tax records, property records, or census files (see DEMO data). In some countries, you can obtain this information using the Census website or Geographic Information Systems (GIS) software such as ArcGIS developed by the Environmental Systems Research Institute, Inc. (ESRI). Using GIS provides more flexibility in the selection of a sampling frame. GIS allows the user to assess portions of a county, district, city or village. Instructions for using GIS to select clusters are based on your GIS program and shape files; they are not provided in this lesson.

Once you have selected the 30 clusters, create maps of the selected clusters, including road names and key landmarks, using GIS. If GIS resources are not available, identifying the selected clusters and landmarks is possible by using commercially available local maps or satellite images such as Google Earth.

Stage Two – Selecting Seven Households

For the purpose of conducting interviews during the second stage of sampling, seven households are randomly selected in each of the 30 selected clusters. The sampling method thus requires a count of all the households within the cluster. You should coordinate with local authorities or leadership to decide how to best determine the number of households within each cluster.

We suggest the following two methods for selection of households from sampled clusters:

- Simple Random Sampling (SRS): Create a complete list of households within the cluster and use a random number generator to select randomly seven households.
 On arriving at your location, the steps for this method are the following:
 - 1. Travel around the cluster and count all the households
 - 2. Number the households from 1 to N
 - 3. Using a random number table or random number generator provided to field teams, randomly select 7 households (see www.random.org for free tools) OR If GIS is available, identify seven random global positioning system (GPS) waypoints generated by using GIS and census data. If no home is located at the waypoint, interview the closet house to the waypoint
- 2) **Systematic Random Sampling:** Before arriving at a selected cluster, select a random starting point by using a printed map (see Figure 2). On arriving at your selected starting point, the steps for this method are the following:
 - 1. Use a detailed map (e.g., a cluster viewed in Google Earth) or, if one is not available, count or estimate the number of households within the cluster
 - 2. Divide that number of households by 7 (the N); any N is acceptable as long as the number remains consistent throughout the cluster
 - 3. Start at the house nearest the randomly selected starting point, travel through the cluster and select the Nth house to interview until seven interviews are complete

Figure 2. Example of using systematic random sampling to select seven households for interview. Starting with house #1, every 8th house is selected for interview





KNOWLEDGE CHECK

What is the recommended sampling method for conducting an RNA?

- A. Stratified sampling
- B. Two-stage cluster sampling
- C. Simple random sampling
- D. Systematic sampling



Let the facilitator or mentor know you are ready for the discussion

DISCUSSION QUESTION #7

Why is selecting a sample of 30 clusters with probability proportional to size important?

CONSIDERATIONS AFFECTING SAMPLE SELECTION AND SIZE

The following are instances when factors outside of your control cause you to change or modify how you implement an RNA:

Cluster accessibility – You or your interview team may encounter difficulty completing all of the interviews for the 30 clusters. Difficulties might include storm damage, unsafe conditions, or restricted entries. If any such difficulty occurs, remember that clusters should be chosen without replacement—meaning that the clusters originally selected are the clusters that are assessed. And due to inaccessibility, this process might result in interviewing fewer than 30 clusters. One option is to increase the number of clusters selected in the first stage sampling prior to going into the field. For example, you or your leadership team can decide to select 35 clusters instead of the standard 30. If this method is chosen, it is critical that the change occurs *before* starting the first stage of the sampling method and before the interview team begins data collection in the field. Also, for this option it is essential that teams then visit all 35 census blocks and treat the design as 35x7 (sample size of 245) in data collection and analysis.

Clusters with fewer than seven households – You may also encounter clusters with fewer than seven households, making it impossible for field interview teams to interview the recommended seven households from that cluster. One option is to check the frequencies of households within the chosen sampling frame to identify this problem prior to the first stage of sampling (selecting the 30 clusters). If you see many clusters with a small number of households, combine the clusters to create larger clusters (e.g., combining 2-3 blocks or villages). The only requirement is that clusters be all-inclusive and non-overlapping. If this method is chosen, it is critical that the change occurs before starting the first stage of cluster sampling.

OTHER SAMPLING METHODS

As you may recall from the previous section, sampling is used when information on everyone from the sampling frame in a population cannot be obtained easily or when logistical challenges arise. Sampling efficiently yields information about a large population by extrapolating data from a representative sample of the population. While modified two-stage cluster sampling is the recommended method when conducting an RNA, other probability-based sampling methods are available that you may find helpful.

Simple Random Sampling

Each unit (e.g., household) in the population is identified, and each unit has an equal chance of being in the sample. This method requires a comprehensive list of every household in the sampling frame. The following are key conditions for simple random sampling:

- The selection of each unit is independent of the selection of every other unit
- Selection of one unit does not affect the chances of any other unit

This method will take more time to complete than the two-stage cluster method due to the lack of geographical clustering of samples. More information about simple random sampling is presented by Peter K.Wingfield-Digby, Rapid Assessment Sampling in Emergency Situations, at http://www.unicef.org/eapro/Rapid_assessment_sampling_booklet.pdf¹⁷

Systematic Random Sampling

Each unit (e.g., household) in the population is identified, and each unit has an equal chance of inclusion in the sample. You may use systematic random sampling when you can order or list sampling units (i.e., individuals or households) in some manner (e.g., logical geographic order, from one end of the village to the other). Rather than selecting all subjects randomly, determine a selection interval (e.g. every fifth household), select a starting point on the list picked at random, and select every nth household (where n = the sampling interval) on the list. Systematic random sampling assures good geographical distribution according to population density. Systematic sampling also allows better representation than simple random sampling, assuming no cyclic pattern in the distribution of sampling units (which would be extremely rare). More information about systematic random sampling is presented by Peter K.Wingfield-Digby, Rapid Assessment Sampling in Emergency Situations, which can be found at http://www.unicef.org/eapro/Rapid_assessment_sampling_booklet.pdf. ¹⁸

Stratified Sampling

The target population (sampling frame) is divided into suitable, non-overlapping subpopulations, or strata. A stratum is a subset of the population that shares at least one common characteristic. Each stratum should be homogeneous within and heterogeneous between. A random or systematic sample is then selected within each stratum. Therefore, separate estimates can be obtained from each stratum, and an overall estimate obtained for the whole population defined by the strata. The value of stratified sampling is that each stratum is more accurately represented, and overall sampling error is reduced. More information about stratified sampling is in Peter K.Wingfield-Digby's Rapid Assessment Sampling in Emergency Situations, at http://www.unicef.org/eapro/Rapid_assessment_sampling_booklet.pdf.¹⁹

¹⁷ UNICEF. Rapid assessment samplingin emergency situations. Bangkok: UNICEF; 2010. [cited 2014 October 24]. Available from: http://www.unicef.org/eapro/Rapid_assessment_sampling_booklet.pdf. ¹⁸ *ibid*

¹⁹ ibid



KNOWLEDGE CHECK

_ uses a selection interval rather than selecting units randomly.

- A. Two-stage cluster sampling
- B. Simple random sampling
- C. Systematic random sampling
- D. Stratified sampling



Let the facilitator or mentor know you are ready for the discussion

DISCUSSION QUESTION #8

What are some of the challenges affecting sample selection and size?

DISCUSSION QUESTION #9

What is the difference between simple random sampling, systematic random sampling, and stratified sampling?

PRACTICE EXERCISE



PRACTICE EXERCISE #2

In this practice exercise, you will apply the concepts learned so far in Lesson 2. Please recall the flooding scenario (page 15) and answer the questions.

Flooding in a Southeast Asian country, continued

[See page 15]. As a result of the large number of people displaced, reported dead, injured, or missing due to flooding, gathering exhaustive information is difficult.

What sampling method would you use to determine health- and safety-related needs of those impacted by the flooding? Why?



Let the facilitator or mentor know you are ready for the discussion

DEVELOP THE RNA QUESTIONNAIRE AND FORMS

In addition to identifying the assessment area(s), you should work with stakeholders (e.g., local authorities, subject matter experts) to finalize the assessment questions as well as to determine the best data collection option (i.e., paper forms or electronic devices). The RNA field interview teams should carry all required forms in the field. These forms include the following:

- Questionnaire/interview
- Tracking form
- Introduction letter or consent script
- Confidential referral form

Developing the RNA Questionnaire

In the aftermath of a disaster, accurate and low-cost, population-based information about the affected community's general safety and health needs is critical. A questionnaire is developed to identify rapidly the need for basic necessities such as food, water, electricity, shelter, and access to medical care. The RNA questionnaire is used to gather the right information to

determine the magnitude of the need and to plan and drive relief efforts.

As such, before you begin to develop the questionnaire, you must first identify the RNA's objective, scale, and scope as agreed on by local authorities, subject matter experts, and other key stakeholders. Such agreement will

It is important to collect only data that will be used. Define what you need to know (not what you would like to know) and consider cost, speed, and availability of resources.

Questionnaire objectives and questions should **SMART**:

- **S**pecific clear and unambiguous
- Measurable concrete criteria for measuring
- Attainable realistic
- Relevant specific to the situation
- **T**ime-bound limited to a time-frame

ensure understanding of the work to be undertaken, anticipated time frame, and questionnaire priorities. This is the crucial first step, as all other questionnaire aspects stem from it.²⁰

Structuring an RNA Questionnaire

Once you have determined the assessment's scope and objective, you are ready to begin building the questionnaire. The RNA questions will be at the *household level*, including those pertaining to the health status and behavioral/mental health of inhabitants within a household (e.g., does anyone in the household have a cough?).

²⁰ Connolly MA, editor. Communicable disease control in emergencies: a field manual. WHO; 2005. [cited 2013 Sept 3]. Available from:

http://www.who.int/diseasecontrol_emergencies/publications/9241546166/en/index.html.

Questionnaires should be simple, short and ideally limited to 10-15 minutes (generally, a two-page questionnaire). Consider the following when developing questions:

Avoid open-ended questions and only ask for information that will meet the
assessment objectives. In general, yes/no and multiple choice questions are the best
options for obtaining the needed information most efficiently. Examples of an openended and closed-ended (preferred) question are provided below.

Open-ended question : Since the disaster, what types of injury have you or a member of your household sustained?			
Close-ended question (preferred): Since the disaster, have you or a member of your household sustained a broken bone?			
Yes No Don't KnowRefused			

- Consider including the following categories within the two-page questionnaire:
 - Location of the household
 - o Household type (e.g., single family home) and extent of damage to the dwelling
 - Household needs (e.g., food, water, medicine, first aid)
 - Household members' physical and behavioral health status
 - o Greatest need
- Consider the comfort level of both the interviewer and the respondent. If questions
 are too personal, the respondent might refuse or be uncomfortable answering, which
 might lower the response rate.
- Pilot test the questionnaire (i.e., practice the interview with others who have not been involved in the development) for acceptability, comprehension, and appropriate order to identify any confusing questions and to estimate the length of time necessary to complete the interview.

If possible, use existing questionnaires with demonstrated reliability and validity in your population. Existing questionnaires will save you time and allow you to compare your data with other data. The following resources may provide additional pretested questions from local or international organizations that you can use to develop your own questionnaire:

- WHO
- Demographic and Health Survey (DHS)
- CASPER Toolkit, Appendix B (question bank) and Appendix C (preparedness template that can be used for disaster planning

 CDC surveys such as the Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System (BRFSS), Pregnancy Risk Assessment Monitoring System (PRAMS), National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES), National Health Care Survey, National Health Interview Survey

Data Collection Options

There are two options for collecting data from the field: paper forms and electronic devices. You should consider the advantages and disadvantages to both, given the objectives and the nature of your questionnaire. As Table 3 summarizes, paper forms can be labor-intensive in the data entry process while electronic devices can be labor-intensive in the development stage. Also, the potential for error lurks at different stages in the paper versus the electronic formats. Regardless of the data collection method you choose, pilot testing the questionnaire is essential before deployment to the field.

Table 3. Data collection options advantages and disadvantages

	Advantages	Disadvantages
Paper form	 No technical training Relatively cheap supplies Requires paper, pens, and clipboards No maintenance of supplies No limitation on number of teams Faster to fill during an interview 	 Relatively slow data management process (i.e., requires data entry after fieldwork) Can be labor-intensive to enter data into database after fieldwork Potential for human error
Electronic form	 Can provide real-time data quality checks Quicker data management process (i.e., no data entry required after fieldwork) 	 Technical training required May be expensive to purchase the hardware and software May incur costs if broken, dropped, or water-damaged Requires data collection devices, battery chargers, and electricity in the field Necessitates maintenance and care of software and devices Can be labor intensive to develop in advance of fieldwork Unavailability of equipment may limit the number of teams May distance the interviewer from the interviewee

RNA Forms in the Field

The RNA interview team should ensure the following forms are included in the field packet and have been properly reviewed before going into the field. Table 4 contains the necessary forms.

Table 4. RNA forms in the field²¹

Form	Definition	Key Consideration		
Tracking form	Used to monitor the outcome of every interview attempt and is the basis for calculating the response rates. The form will allow the RNA team to collect information about each household selected, even those that are inaccessible. Field interview teams should record each household selected and the interview outcome (e.g., completed interview, no answer). Please see the RNA (CASPER) Tool tracking form.	The field interview teams should use the reverse side, or second page, of the tracking form to take notes in the field including households that need to be revisited. When the RNA is complete, the tracking form should be destroyed so there is no way to link addresses to specific questionnaires. Ikit, Appendix E for a copy of the		
Introduction and consent script	When arriving at the household, the team should be prepared to give an introduction and obtain verbal consent. The survey participant must give explicit verbal consent to participate in the interview. Written consent is typically not required because obtaining a signature leads to increased confidentiality risk for the participant. Please see the RNA (CASPER) Tool introduction and consent script.	A script written for the field interviewer teams to recite from is helpful. The script can be memorized or read to respondents. The script should be kept brief, printed on official letterhead, and given to each selected household. This form should include a phone number for the health department or agency responsible for the RNA.		

²¹ CDC. Community Assessment for Public Health Emergency Response (CASPER) Toolkit, Second edition. Atlanta (GA); 2012.

Confidential referral form

Field interview teams must be prepared to respond if they come across an urgent need that presents an immediate threat to life or health. Typically, teams that encounter a household with urgent needs should encourage or assist the household to call emergency services. In the event that calling emergency services is not appropriate or possible, the teams should complete a confidential referral form.

This form should be immediately communicated to the RNA leadership staff for rapid follow-up and communication with previously identified health service providers in the area (e.g., mental health) or response agencies involved in addressing immediate needs during disasters.

Please see the RNA (CASPER) Toolkit, Appendix F for a sample of a confidential referral form.

Leave behind handouts and public health material

The field interview team can help distribute vital public health information to the community (e.g., health education on carbon monoxide poisoning prevention, proper cleanup methods, and contact information for disaster services). Handouts should be prepared in advance and provided to all interviewed households and interested community members.

Handouts should include a list of key contact names and numbers were people can get help and updated information about the disaster including, but not limited to, shelters or places to get medical care, food, electricity, and so on. This information should be given out regardless of participation status and can also be given to interested community members who were not selected to be in the assessment.



KNOWLEDGE CHECK

The ______. monitors the outcome of every interview attempt.

- A. Tracking form
- B. Consent script
- C. Confidential referral form
- D. Leave behind public health materials



Let the facilitator or mentor know you are ready for the discussion

DISCUSSION QUESTION #10

What are some considerations when designing an RNA questionnaire?

DISCUSSION QUESTION #11

What are two advantages and two disadvantages of using a paper form for data collection?

IDENTIFY AND TRAIN FIELD INTERVIEW TEAMS

Face-to-face interviews are used to conduct the RNA questionnaire. Therefore, field interview

teams must be selected and trained to administer the questionnaires in the field. Training field interview teams on how to administer the questionnaire is vitally important in ensuring the validity of the results. Important considerations in assembling and training a field interview team are discussed in this section.

Forming Field Interview Teams

The field interview team – the people who conduct the RNA in the field – should ideally be a multidisciplinary, qualified group representing a wide range of expertise and with previous experience conducting interviews. For example, a team to assess the health needs of an

The RNA field interview team differs from the RNA assessment team. The field interview team conducts the interviews in the field and the assessment team prepares for the RNA (e.g., identifies the assessment area(s), defines the scope and nature of the questionnaire, develops the questions).

affected population would ideally include people from one or more of the following fields: public health and epidemiology, nutrition, logistics, and environmental health.

Take into account the following criteria when selecting team members.²²

- Familiarity with the region or population affected
- Knowledge of and experience with the type of disaster being assessed
- Capacity for teamwork and local acceptability for those recruited from abroad
- Analytical skills, particularly the ability to see trends and patterns
- Capacity to make decisions in unstructured situations using relatively sparse data

Each field interview team should be a mix of gender, experience, and profession. For example, males paired with females, locals paired with external partners, experienced persons paired with inexperienced persons, and students paired with professionals or seasoned volunteers. This will help to ensure an even distribution among the teams as well as promote a safe work environment.

Size of Field Interview Teams

Identify approximately 20-30 persons to conduct the RNA in the field. These persons should be divided into separate teams, with at least two persons in each team, for a total of 10 to 15 teams. The number of teams will dictate the amount of time needed to conduct the RNA;

²² WHO. Rapid Health Assessment Protocols for Emergencies website. http://www.who.int/diseasecontrol_emergencies/publications/9241546166/en/index.html. Accessed September 25, 2013.

fewer teams require a longer time to collect the data, while more teams allow for a shorter data collection period. You should also take into account the availability of equipment needed. For example, larger numbers of field interview teams require more equipment such as vehicles and electronic data collection devices (if necessary). Table 5 contains considerations for determining the number of field interview teams.

Table 5. Considerations for the number of field interview teams

Small Number of Field Teams (<10)	Large Number of Field Teams (≥10)	
May be easier to identify required staff and train	May be difficult to identify enough staff and train	
	 Can solicit broader participation across participating organizations 	
Data collection will take more time	Data collection will take less time	
Less equipment is needed (e.g., vehicles, electronic devices)	 Requires additional coordination and equipment (e.g., data collection devices, battery chargers in the field) 	

Once the field interview teams are in place, hold an introductory meeting to allow members a chance to exchange contact information, become familiar with each other's roles and skills, and receive training.

Training the Field Interview Teams

Training the field interview teams is one of the most important aspects of conducting the RNA. Poorly trained teams could collect or report the data inaccurately, thus jeopardizing the results and misrepresenting the affected communities needs. Therefore, it is important that all field interview teams be trained to conduct an RNA properly. Conduct a three- to six-hour just-in-time training either one day in advance or on the morning of the first day of field data collection. At the end of the training, field interview team members should be familiar with the following:

- The RNA's objectives
- Each team member's roles and responsibilities
- The questionnaire and the information that each question elicits
- The sampling methodology and key considerations
- Future meeting times and places, including the debriefing process
- How to deliver the interview introduction and consent script
- Situations requiring immediate referral
- Safety instructions and a general awareness of potential hazards such as flood water, downed power lines, or unattended animals
- Hazards to look for such as improper generator use
- How to complete the necessary forms for every household at which contact was attempted

For a complete sample agenda, please see the Community Assessment for Public Health Emergency Response (CASPER) Toolkit, Appendix H²³.

CONDUCTING THE INTERVIEW

Because an RNA is conducted at the household level, you should select one adult household member (i.e., 18 years of age or older) to speak for all household members. The field interview team should use its best judgment to select the person to be interviewed. The general rules for selecting such a person are as follows:

- Any adult regardless of sex, race, ethnicity, or religion can be selected
- If more than one adult is present, the interviewer can allow the household members to self-select or the interviewer may make the choice
- The selected person should understand that he/she is reporting on the entire household and not on just themselves

Interview Tips

Before going to the field, interview team members should assign and clearly understand roles and responsibilities of each member (e.g., driving, navigating, interviewing). More specifically, we recommended that the local member conduct the interview and make the initial contact with the selected household. The household may be more willing to take part in the interview if it is led by a local representative. Local representatives are typically seen as trustworthy advocates who have the best interests of the community in mind. The assigned interviewer should practice the questionnaire with his/her partner so that both are familiar and comfortable with the questions (e.g., wording of the questions, intent of the questions, skip patterns).

Before going into the field, interview team members should also decide where to conduct the interviews. Specifically, decide beforehand whether household interviews will be conducted in an area outside the home protected from hazards (e.g., front porch) or inside the home. The decision is at the discretion of the team and should take into account the comfort level and personal safety of both team members. An area outside the home, however, is the preferred interview location.

The following table provides a general guideline for a successful interview and includes suggested tips to build rapport, minimize response bias, and encourage open dialogue.

²³ CDC. Community Assessment for Public Health Emergency Response (CASPER) Toolkit, Second edition. Atlanta (GA); 2012.

Table 6. RNA interview tips²⁴

	Building Rapport				
Act professionally					
	 Refrain from eating, drinking, or chewing gum during the interview 				
Establish legitimacy	Deliver introductions according to the consent script				
	 Ensure proper identification, including badges which should remain visible to the respondent at all times 				
Show empathy and	Convey a sense of empathy and respect				
respect	 Establish eye contact, display confidence, and an approachable demeanor 				
	 Express interest in the respondent's answers 				
	 Be an active listener while remaining patient if/when a respondent is having a difficult time answering questions; remember, the respondent is using his/her time to help ensure the success of the RNA 				
	Minimize Response Bias				
Standardize questions	 Ask questions in the same manner for each interview; read questions exactly as they are written 				
	 Do not attempt to "improve" a question by altering a few words or not reading the question in its entirety. This could change the question's entire meaning 				
	 Do not omit questions (e.g., if the team member "knows" the answer or thought he/she heard it) 				
	Do not finish a respondents sentences				
	 Do not "prefill" answers to questions (e.g., if the respondent answered a question in another conversation) 				
Allow participants to think	Give respondents time to express themselves while keeping the interviews at a steady pace				
	Encourage the Respondent				
Clarification of	If the respondent needs clarification, repeat the question first and				
questions	then elaborate if needed				
	 If the respondent is not fully satisfied with the answer choices, encourage him/her to select the one that fits best without leading 				
	If any confusion remains, team members should write down exactly what was said so that the confusion can be addressed with the RNA assessment team				

²⁴ ibid

Probing techniques

- If a question is open-ended, ask the respondent to elaborate as a
 way to obtain additional information, if necessary. For example, an
 interviewer can ask "Is there anything else you would like to add?"
- Do not direct a respondent toward an answer, use overt encouragement, or remind a respondent of an earlier remark if the answers differ from what the team expects
- Remain neutral and, if necessary, repeat the response a technique that can lead to clarification or improve recall

At the end of the interview and before leaving the household, team members should review the entire questionnaire to ensure that all questions have been answered. The team members should record any confusion or concern about questions during the interview and share the confusion or concern with leadership staff. Remember to thank the respondent, to leave the handouts and other public health information, and to refrain from leaving in haste. Before leaving, review the questionnaire again for missing information and complete the tracking form.



KNOWLEDGE CHECK

Which of the following is NOT an interview tip when conducting an RNA?

- A. Convey a sense of empathy and respect
- B. Give respondents time to answer questions
- C. Prefill answers to questions when you have heard the respondent previously answer the question
- D. Ask questions in the same manner for each interview



Let the facilitator or mentor know you are ready for the discussion

DISCUSSION QUESTION #12

What are some things to consider when deciding the number of field interview teams to have for your RNA?

PRACTICE EXERCISE



PRACTICE EXERCISE #3

In this practice exercise, you will apply the concepts learned in Lesson 2. Please recall the flooding scenario (page 15) and answer the questions.

Flooding in a Southeast Asian country, continued

[See page 15]. As previously mentioned, the local government requested interagency assistance from NGOs, MOH, and other key partners to determine the health and general needs of the affected population. This request was met and an RNA assessment team were formed to prepare for the assessment.

Develop 10 questions to collect information on immediate needs and health-related issues of the affected provinces.

What are some considerations for selecting field interview team members?

During the predeployment training, field interview team members were briefed on safety issues they might encounter in the field. What types of personal safety issues may someone encounter after a monsoon? What personal supplies should teams take into the field?



Let the facilitator or mentor know you are ready for the discussion

LESSON 2 SUMMARY

As you have learned in this in this lesson, an RNA is a useful tool to provide local, state, and other decision-makers with the health status and basic needs of a population affected by a disaster. During a disaster, the results of an RNA help to plan and implement response activities. Thus it is important to properly identify the geographical areas under assessment, as well as consider all of the factors affecting questionnaire development and properly train the field interview team. With the scarce resources and damaged infrastructures typically found in a disaster setting, the need is critical to provide accurate information to decision-makers who allocate resources and implement relief efforts

LESSON 3: PHASE 2 - CONDUCTING AN RNA

INTRODUCTION

As discussed in Lesson 2, the method for conducting an RNA is the face-to-face interview. As part of phase 2, *Conducting an RNA*, to conduct a successful interview in the field, interview teams must follow several steps. In this lesson, we discuss the steps interview teams need to follow.

After completing this lesson, you will be able to do the following:

- Explain the interview steps that should be followed in the field
- Discuss field awareness

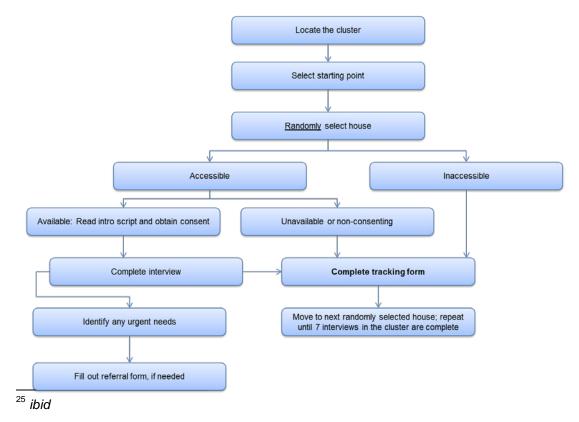
ADMINISTERING THE QUESTIONNAIRE IN THE FIELD

To administer the questionnaire safely and accurately, field interview teams must follow the approved interview guidelines and steps.

Interview Steps in the Field

The flowchart in Figure 3 shows the general steps for conducting an RNA in the field.

Figure 3. General interview steps in the field.²⁵



Considerations while in the Field

Fieldwork requires awareness of the environment, use of personal judgment, and a positive and flexible outlook. Table 7 depicts five considerations for interview team members to keep in mind while in the field.

Table 7. Considerations for field interview teams

	Building Rapport				
Think safety	Despite all the preparation necessary before conducting an RNA in the				
	field, unexpected problems may arise. Interview teams should				
	 receive briefings about potential safety concerns, such as downed power lines, unsafe road blockages, unattended pets, and other potential hazards; 				
	 use personal judgment when assessing any safety concerns and contact the RNA leadership about any concerns that arise; and 				
	communicate with RNA leadership frequently to ensure safety.				
Remain flexible	As with all disaster relief efforts, flexibility is important. Various				
	responsibilities need to be shared, such as transportation logistics,				
	interviewing, and tracking. Team members should remember that				
	 plans can always change so field interview teams may switch members, may swap clusters, or may be asked to take on an additional cluster; and 				
	a positive attitude is key				
Adhere to the	To ensure data quality and representativeness, adherence to the RNA				
methodology	methodology is vital. Adherence includes				
	 randomly selecting households within clusters and conducting interviews in a standard, structured manner; 				
	 following the assessment procedure and guidelines covered in the just-in-time training; and 				
	 calling the RNA team leadership office (field headquarters) if you have any questions 				
Be respectful	Field interview team members going into a community should remember to be respectful to the respondents and to the community. They should				
	 read the provided script its entirety, answer any questions the household respondent might have, and allow the respondent to quit at any time if the respondent so requests; and 				
	 consider cultural norms and practices when selecting the time and the day to conduct interviews. Always remember that the respondent has just suffered through a disaster 				

Understand	Field team members should understand and accept their own personal		
personal limitations	limitations, whether those limitations involve a personal comfort level		
	when entering a household, time limitations of being in the field, or a		
	team member's physical condition.		

RNA Debrief

After the field data collection is complete, a debriefing meeting with all of the team members is a recommended step. The meeting will help to identify lessons learned and suggest improvements. Team members should share their anecdotes, observational information, lessons learned, or concerns not captured on the questionnaire for inclusion in the final report(s). Table 8 includes sample debriefing questions to collect information from RNA teams.

Table 8. Sample debriefing questions

Example Questions

- In your opinion, what went well? What did not go well?
- To what extent do you think this assessment will be useful to your community in responding to this emergency?
- Did you think you were prepared (e.g., training, food, safety, communications, supplies) for your assignment?
- Would you want to participate on a team in the future?
- If we were to do this assessment again, what improvements can we make?
- Did you learn anything from this experience?
- Did you have specific problems with any of the tools or methods used (e.g., questionnaire, tracking form, selecting individual house)
- Please provide any additional comments.



Let the facilitator or mentor know you are ready for the discussion

PRACTICE EXERCISE



PRACTICE EXERCISE #4

In this practice exercise, you will apply the concepts learned in Lesson 3. Please recall the flooding scenario (page 15) and answer the questions.

Flooding in a Southeast Asian country, continued

[See page 15]. RNA interview teams were selected, appropriately trained, briefed on the conditions related to impassable roads and bridges, damaged hospitals, limited electricity and water, and are ready to begin the RNA

What are the interview steps in the field?

What are some of the safety concerns in the field?

Why is debriefing important?



Let the facilitator or mentor know you are ready for the discussion

LESSON 3 SUMMARY

In this lesson, we explore proper interview techniques by the RNA team while in the field. The interview guidelines that the interview teams are required to adhere to are defined, as well as several important considerations while in the field. Fieldwork often requires an astute awareness of the environment, the use of personal judgment, and a positive and flexible outlook. For example, the interview teams should always be mindful of personal safety (e.g., avoiding downed power lines), remain flexible, and understand their personal limits. After completing RNA field activities, we recommend that team members meet to discuss the process, lessons learned, and areas for improvement.

LESSON 4: PHASES 3 AND 4 - DATA ENTRY, ANALYSIS, AND WRITING THE REPORT

INTRODUCTION

In lesson 3, you learned how to define the scope and nature of the questionnaire and how to design the questionnaire. Now we will cover phases 3 and 4, Data Entry and Analysis, and Writing the Report. We will discuss the process for analyzing data collected from a questionnaire using a statistical software package and learn how to use a preliminary and final reporting structure to report the results from the questionnaire and the data analysis.

After completing this lesson, you will be able to do the following:

- Discuss the considerations for using paper versus electronic devices for data entry
- Describe the method for analyzing data
- Understand the use of weighted analysis
- Describe the process for writing a preliminary and final report of the RNA findings

DATA ENTRY AND ANALYSIS

You will use statistical software packages to analyze data collected from both paper and electronic questionnaires. Although a variety of statistical software packages are available, we recommend Epi Info™ software: it is user-friendly and free of charge. Any statistical software package is acceptable as long as it allows you to "weight" data (e.g., SAS). Weighting data is a key requirement for any software package considered for an RNA data analysis.

Data Entry

To ensure the quality of data collected, whether electronically or paper-based, consider how you will enter and analyze the data. Table 9 details considerations for entering and analyzing data.

Table 9. Considerations for data entry.²⁶

rubio or concludination for unity.			
Paper Form	Electronic Device		
 Enter into an electronic dataset using software that is familiar, easily accessible, and maintainable Build data entry platform before conducting fieldwork Provide training for data entry staff to enter data accurately 	 Merge collected data into a single file that statistical software can analyze (e.g., Epi Info™, SAS) 		
	,t.		

²⁶ ibid

Data Analysis

To adjust the data to account for a complex sampling design, such as the two-stage cluster

sampling methodology, weighted

frequencies are used to represent the entire target population (i.e., the sampling frame). Note that in most cases, nonweighted analyses will not represent the entire target population and may bias estimates.

For tutorials in creating the database, entering data, and running analysis, please visit the CDC's Epi Info™ website at http://wwwn.cdc.gov/epiinfo/user-guide/ and follow the User Guide

Remember, households selected in cluster sampling have an unequal probability of selection. To avoid biased estimates, data analyses should include a mathematical weight for selection probability. Weighting involves assigning a weight for each household for which an interview is completed. The weight is based on the household's probability of selection. Once all data are merged into a single electronic dataset, a weight variable is added to each surveyed household by use of the formula in Figure 4 (see DEMO data)

Figure 4. Weight variable formula

Weight =

Total number of households in the sampling frame

(number of households interviewed in cluster) * (number of clusters selected)

The numerator is the total number of households in the sampling frame; that number will be the same for every assessed household. Remember, the sampling frame is defined as the entire assessment area in which the RNA is conducted.

In only one instance will all the weights be equal. If you complete seven interviews in each cluster, then each household will receive the same weight – assigning weighting will not be required. For example, if information was obtained from exactly seven households in 30 clusters, the denominator for every household would be 7 (number of interviews) * 30 (number of clusters selected) which equals 210. In this case, the sample itself was weighted because all households in the sample had an equal probability of being selected. This outcome is possible, but unlikely to occur.

The more likely scenario is to have households where people are not home, households refuse to participate, or insufficient households in the clusters. When this occurs, the denominator will be different for each surveyed household depending on the cluster from which the household was selected. Households from the same cluster will have the same weight, but weights will

differ between clusters. For example, if only five completed interviews occurred in a cluster, the denominator of the weight for each of the five surveyed households would be 5 (number of interviews) * 30 (cluster size) = 150.



KNOWLEDGE CHECK

True or False. Providing training for data entry staff to enter data accurately is a consideration for electronic data entry.

Which statement(s) are true about weighted analysis. (you may select more than one answer)

- A. Weighted analyses are meant to account for a complex sampling design, such as two-stage cluster sampling.
- B. Weighted analyses are done to avoid biased estimates
- C. Weighting is always required
- D. Weighted analyses are completed by assigning a weight for each household for which an interview is completed



Let the facilitator or mentor know you are ready for the discussion

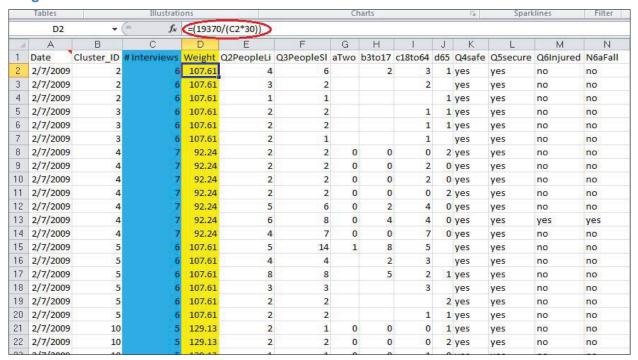
DISCUSSION QUESTION #13

What is the formula for weighting data?

Example of Applying Weights: India Tsunami

An RNA conducted in India after a major tsunami will illustrate the process of applying weights using sampling data collected from an RNA. In stage one of sampling, 30 clusters were selected representing a total of 19.370 households. The goal was to conduct 210 interviews, but only 187 were completed. Figure 5 provides a sample dataset showing the number of interviews per cluster and the assigned weight for each household interviewed. For the purpose of calculating the "weight" column (highlighted in yellow), an additional column was added, ""# interviews", to represent the number of households interviewed within the clusters (highlighted in blue). Note that the weighting formula circled in red is the same calculation with the three variables introduced above.

Figure 5. Sample dataset showing the number of interviews per cluster and the assigned weight for each house interviewed.²⁷



Calculating Weighted Frequencies

After assigning weights, the next step was to calculate the frequencies for each of the interview questions. For the purposes of this RNA, EPI Info ™ was the statistical software. To calculate weighted frequencies in Epi Info™ "classic mode," the following steps were performed (use DEMO data):

- Step 1: Import the data file with the weight just created
- Step 2: Click on "Frequencies" along the left hand column

ibid

²⁷ ibid

- Step 3: In the "Frequency of" box, select variable(s) for which you would like results
- Step 4: In the "Weight" box, select the variable "WEIGHT" that was just created
- Step 5: Click "OK" (see Figure 6) and generate a report providing the estimates.

Figure 6. Frequency analysis window showing selected variables and weight

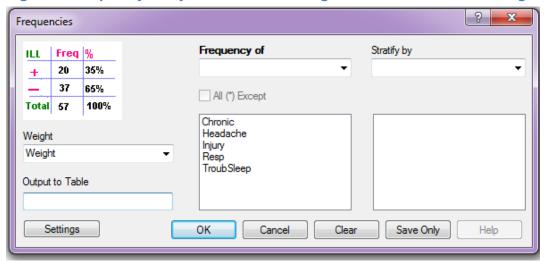
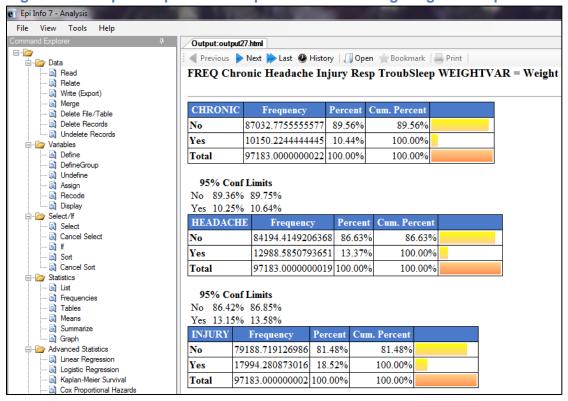


Figure 7 displays the Epi Info[™] output window with the selected variables from the previous step, followed by a table for each selection. Save the output tables and use them in the final report.

Figure 7. Example of Epi Info™ output window showing weighted frequencies



Nonweighted frequency

To obtain nonweighted estimates, follow the above instructions but do not assign a variable in the "weight" box. Applying weights provides projected estimates that can be generalized to every household in the assessment area or sampling frame. The unweighted frequency only shows results from your RNA sample. Table 10 shows the nonweighted and weighted frequencies for a specific question from a Tsunami RNA.

Table 10. Nonweighted and weighted frequencies of current source of electricity following a tsunami²⁸

Sources of Electricity	Indicators		Sources of Information		
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	95% CI
Power company	137	74.1	14,190	74.0	61.9–86.0
Gasoline generator	15.7	74.1	3,200	16.7	7.6–25.7
None	19	10.3	1,789	9.3	3.8–14.8

Remember that weighted analysis does not account for changes that may occur in the number of households between the time of the census and the time of the assessment (e.g., the number of households per cluster may have changed between when the census was conducted and when the RNA was conducted). Thus, despite attempts to arrive at unbiased estimates, the reported frequencies may lack precision.

Calculation of 95% Confidence Intervals

Once the weighting has been established, you will need to calculate Confidence Intervals (CIs). When conducting weighted estimates, the RNA team should use 95% CIs. CIs represent the reliability of the weighted estimate. Do the following steps to calculate a 95% confidence interval in Epi Info™ "classic mode," (see DEMO data):

- Step 1: Import the data file into Epi Info™
- Step 2: Select "Complex Sample Frequencies" command under "Advanced Statistics" on the left hand side.
- Step 3: In the "Frequency of" box, select variable for which you interested
- Step 4: In the "Weight" box, select the "WEIGHT" variable that was created
- Step 5: in the "Primary Sampling Unit" box, select the "Cluster Number" variable
- Step 6: Click "OK" (see Figure 9) to generate a table providing confidence intervals

²⁸ ibid

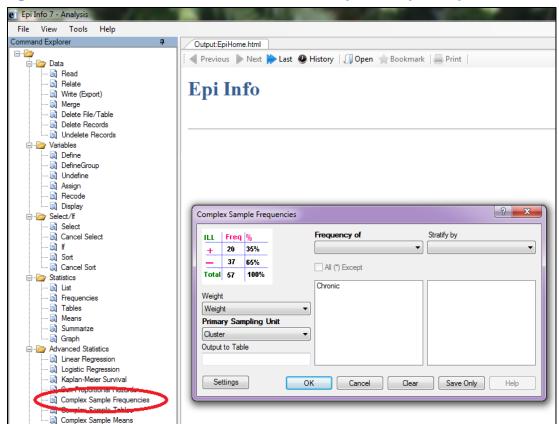
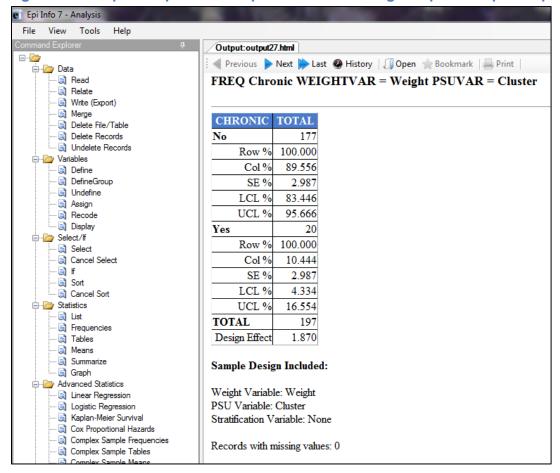


Figure 8. Selected variable for calculation of complex sample frequencies

Figure 9. Example of Epi Info™ output window showing complex sample frequencies



Response Rates

Calculating response rates helps determine the representativeness of the sample to the population within the sampling frame. The field interview teams collect the information to calculate response rates (i.e., numerator and denominator) on the tracking form. This underscores the need for the teams to be well-trained in using the tracking form and to be disciplined in tracking all households selected for interview, including those for which no interview was completed or no contact was made.

To compile the tracking form data, tally the responses to each row on the tracking form. In some sections, it may be necessary to reconcile discrepancies (e.g., the interviewer may have appropriately selected both "no answer" and "door was answered" because the field interview team returned to complete a survey at a household previously selected but no one answered the door"). Select only the final designation (e.g., "door was answered") for tally and disregard the prior visits. These tallies can then be entered into a spreadsheet, illustrated in Figure 10. Each column should represent a single cluster. If more than one tracking form was completed per cluster, consider forms for the same cluster cumulative and tally them onto the same column in the spreadsheet.

Figure 10. Sample dataset showing attempted and completed interviews per cluster

	Location													
	Cluster	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	1
	Interviwer	Team 1	Team 3	Team 7	Team 5	Team 1	Team 9	Team 4	Team 4	Team 3	Team 11	Team 9	Team 11	Tear
	Date of Interview	9/9/2013	9/10/2013	9/9/2013	9/9/2013	9/9/2013	9/10/2013	9/9/2013	9/9/2013	9/9/2013	9/9/2013	9/9/2013	9/9/2013	9/9/2
No Access	Household Accessible	12	12	13	13	29	14	12	15	22	19	21	19	23
No Access	Household Inaccessible	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	No Housing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Mobile Home	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Type of Dwelling	Single Family Home	12	12	13	13	0	14	12	15	21	19	15	19	12
.,,,	Apartment or Condo	0	0	0	0	29	0	0	0	0	0	6	0	11
	Other	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
_	None or Minimal	10	10	11	7	17	11	9	10	13	11	13	13	1
Damage	Damaged	1	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	2	2	1	4	0
	Destroyed	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	1	0	0
	Door was answered	11	10	11	7	17	11	10	10	15	12	15	13	11
No Answer	Home but no answer	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
NO Allowel	Appears Vacant	0	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	2	1	0	4	0
	Nobody Home	1	2	1	6	10	3	2	5	5	5	6	2	12
	Language Barrier	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
	Refused to Participate	5	2	4	4	9	4	3	2	6	2	3	6	3
Interview	Non-resident	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	2	1	0
IIITEI VIEW	No adult over 18 yrs old	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
	Interview begun, not finish		0	1	0	2	0	0	0	1	2	2	0	1
	Interview Completed	5	7	6	3	6	7	7	7	7	7	7	6	7
Total Number	of Households Sampled	5	7	6	3	6	7	7	7	7	7	7	6	7
Total Number of	of Households Attempted	12	12	13	13	29	14	12	15	22	19	21	19	23

Calculation Response Rates

The three common response rates included in the analysis are the completion rate, the cooperation rate, and the contact rate. The definition, calculation, challenges, and key considerations of these response rates are described in more detail in Table 11.

Table 11. Common response rates

Completion Represents Number of Rates below 80%	You should allot
how close completed (typically n=168)	enough time for
interview teams interviews / result in an t	teams to complete a
came to Goal number of unacceptably low r	minimum of 80%.
collecting the interviews number to	We recommend
goal number of (typically n=210) represent the	having a few teams
interviews sampling frame a	available to return to
(typically	low-responding
n=210).	clusters during
f	follow-up day(s)
Cooperation The proportion Number of The higher the I	It represents both
	the eligibility and the
at which contact interviews / contacts made,	willingness of the
was made and All households the more the	community to
agreed to where contact sample becomes of	complete the
complete an was made* one of i	interview.
interview. convenience.	
Contact The proportion Number of The lower the	Higher contact rates
	indicate better
at which contact interviews / more the sample r	representativeness
was attempted Number of becomes one of c	of the sample to the
and agreed to households convenience at p	population. Lower
complete an where contact the second stage of	contact rates
interview was attempted**	indicate that teams
	had to attempt
	interviews at many
	households to obtain
t	the necessary
i	interviews

^{*} including completed interviews, incomplete interviews, refusals, door was answered

^{**}including completed interviews, incomplete interviews, refusals, and appears as though someone is home but no answer, appears vacant, and nobody home after 1st, 2nd, or 3rd visit



KNOWLEDGE CHECK

What response rate represents how close field interview teams came to collecting the goal number of interviews (typically n=210)

- A. Contact rate
- B. Completion rate
- C. Cooperation rate



Let the facilitator or mentor know you are ready for the discussion

DISCUSSION QUESTION #14

What are the three common response rates? How do you calculate them?

REPORTING THE RESULTS

Writing the report is the RNA's final phase. Although it is the last phase, its planning and development should begin long before any data are collected in the field. An essential element to this process is to plan for the report in advance. During the preparation phase of the RNA, you should identify several foundational aspects of the report, such as who will write the report, who is the target audience, and what analysis you will include. Exploring these aspects with the RNA assessment team at the onset will allow the team to turnaround the reports quickly to key stakeholders (e.g., within 48 hours). We recommended the following two reports:

- Preliminary Report or presentation provided to key stakeholders within a day or two of data collection. This will allow partners to make quick, better-informed decisions and address any immediate needs
- A final report that builds off of the preliminary report and includes additional data analysis and results. This report is distributed to a wider audience and is often provided within a few weeks of the RNA

As with any report, results should be in a simple, easy-to-read format that reflects the original objectives of the RNA. Table 12 provides a series of key considerations when planning and creating reports.

Table 12. Report considerations²⁹

Action	Description
Designate a point person	Designate a person who will be in charge of the reports. This
	person should be familiar with the entire process and involved in
	the preliminary meetings, sampling, and analysis.
Create table shells	Begin the writing process before completion of data collection.
	Gather background information for the report and create table
	shells that will expedite the development of the report.
Identify audience needs and tailor content	When drafting the report, consider the target audience. Will you send the report to emergency managers, to epidemiologists, to politicians, to the media, or to all of these recipients?
	Consider how each audience digests information and tailor accordingly. Use the audience to determine the format, how much information to include, the report length, and the technical detail. For example:
	Emergency managers may find the projected number of HH useful (e.g., 5k households need tarps, 4k households need medication, etc.). This information is probably best displayed in a bulleted list.

²⁹ ibid

	 Epidemiologists will likely want the most technical information, including full tables with all the data (including all results, missing data, confidence Intervals, etc.). Politicians/media may need a written paragraph of overall results or bulleted format of key points. Graphs/charts might be more effective rather than lengthy tables.
Recommend actions based on results	Present results in an action-prompting format. Actions derive from the current health status or needs of the population as presented in the results. Actions can include, but are not limited to, prioritization of resources, public health messaging, enhanced health surveillance, or public health interventions.

Preliminary Field Report

The preliminary field report is a draft version of the final report. The preliminary report contains the initial results and recommendations to share with stakeholders who need time sensitive information. We strongly recommend that you inform partners and stakeholders of the preliminary results as soon as possible to ensure timely responses by other agencies and maximum transparency to the public. Given that the report has not been finalized, that fact should clearly appear on each page and should be clearly communicated to show that the report is preliminary in nature. Therefore, limited distribution of the preliminary report may be in order. Table 13 provides a common structure for the preliminary and final report.

Table 13. Common reporting structure³⁰

Section	Description
Introduction	Describe the purpose of the report, including the background of
	the disaster (e.g., date occurred, affected population) and details
	of the RNA request (e.g., who requested, who conducted, timing
	of assessment) and the RNA's aims and objectives.
Approach or methodology	Provide the audience with an overview of the methodology used
	to produce those results that appear in the results section. Include
	a simple description of the sampling frame (i.e., target
	population), the two-stage cluster design, the questionnaire, the
	number and training of field interview teams, and the data
	analysis procedures.

³⁰ ibid

Dogulto	Include the three reasones rates discussed earlier in this lesses
Results	Include the three response rates discussed earlier in this lesson,
	the number of households represented by the sampling frame,
	and the RNA's main findings. Remember the audience needs and
	expectations and tailor the level of detail and content accordingly.
Conclusions	Recap the main findings, the RNA's limitations, and the
	preliminary recommendations as based on the initial conclusions.
	Recommendations should be specific, objective, targeted, and
	tangible, thus enabling them to prompt action.
Attachments	If available, include other report types or supporting
	documentation in conjunction with the preliminary report, such as
	bulleted lists of highlights or press releases.

We recommend that a presentation accompany the delivery of the preliminary report. Invite to the meeting all partners and appropriate community organizations. The meeting should mirror the structure of the preliminary report and include background, method, results, and conclusion sections. Give consideration to the best way to present the results in an oral presentation. An oral presentation is also a good opportunity to discuss implementation of the recommendations, next steps, and lessons learned, and to solicit input from a broad group of stakeholders

Final Report

The final report includes additional, detailed information regarding the RNA results. Release of the final report and its distribution to a wider audience is customary within several weeks after release of the preliminary report. A final report will include the following new and updated sections from the preliminary report:

- **Executive summary** develop an executive summary that highlights the report outcomes in a short and easily digestible format that also contains the report's key results and conclusions
- Updated results section include key findings from the preliminary report as well
 as any additional analyses not included in the preliminary report (e.g., qualitative
 data or analysis of open-ended questions, if applicable). The results may include
 weighted and nonweighted frequencies, weight and nonweighted percentages, and
 confidence intervals that correct any inaccuracies from the preliminary report.
- Updated conclusion section include discussion from the preliminary report and
 incorporate any feedback received, additional information, and final
 recommendations created in collaboration with partners. Also include any actions
 taken as a result of the RNA (e.g., enhanced public health messaging)
- Acknowledgements section include in the final report all individuals and organizations that helped with each stage of the RNA

After the report is finalized, provide a final copy to all partners, including state and local public health authorities, emergency operations centers, incident command staff, and other agencies



KNOWLEDGE CHECK

True or False. The report writing process should be started before completion of data collection



Let the facilitator or mentor know you are ready for the discussion

DISCUSSION QUESTION #15

What is the difference between a preliminary and a final report?

PRACTICE EXERCISE



PRACTICE EXERCISE #5

In this practice exercise, you will apply the concepts learned in Lesson 4. Please recall the flooding scenario (page 15) and answer the questions.

Flooding in a Southeast Asian country, continued

[See page 15]. The RNA interview teams conducted face-to-face interviews and completed the data gathering process. That they distribute within 48 hours a preliminary report to stakeholders is important, as is a final report that for later distribution to a broader audience.

Why did the teams carry tracking forms into the field?

What are the components of the final report?



Let the facilitator or mentor know you are ready for the discussion

LESSON 4 SUMMARY

In this lesson, we discussed data entry, analysis, and reporting RNA findings. To ensure the quality of the collected RNA data, consider whether to use an electronic or a paper-based data entry method. Weighted analysis may be necessary to account for a complex sampling design, such as the two-stage cluster sampling method. We provided details on how to calculate a weighted analysis and discussed how to obtain the 95% confidence interval. We discussed how response rates determine how representative the RNA sample is to the population within the sampling frame. The field interview teams record the information necessary to calculate these rates on the tracking form. The three response rates included in the analysis are the completion rate, the cooperation rate, and the contact rate. After completion of data entry and analysis, develop a preliminary or draft report that includes the initial results and recommendations to share with those stakeholders who need time-sensitive information. Once stakeholders and other vested parties provide their input, produce the final RNA report and include additional, detailed information regarding the RNA results. Release of the final report and its distribution to a wider audience is customary within several weeks of the preliminary report.

SKILLS ASSESSMENT

RAPID NEEDS ASSESSMENT (RNA) CASE STUDY: FLOODING IN GUATEMALA

This case study is based on an actual assessment conducted in 2010 by the Guatemala Ministry of Health (GMOH). The scenario has been adapted from the case study of this assessment developed by the Health Studies Branch (HSB), National Center for Environmental Health (NCEH), Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) in Atlanta, GA.

Instructions

- Read each section of the case study example
- Pretend that you are on the response team sent to investigate this emergency
- Read the questions in the grey-shaded boxes
- Use the information covered in Module Two to respond to the questions
- Write your responses in the space provided within this workbook
- Discuss your responses with your mentor/facilitator

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After completing this skills assessment, you will be able to describe the following:

- The two-stage cluster sampling design used in an RNA
- What should be included in an RNA household assessment
- The usefulness of an RNA during an emergency response

CASE SCENARIO

In June 2010, Tropical Storm Agatha made landfall in Guatemala. Between June 1st and June 3rd, the storm was responsible for the deaths of 160 persons and another 53 missing. Rapid, subsequent flooding, torrential downpour, and severe storms caused evacuation of multiple residences, neighborhoods, and cities. Emergency water rescues and helicopter extractions occurred, but much of the property left behind by residents was heavily damaged or destroyed. In the aftermath of the disaster, the Guatemala Ministry of Health (GMOH) conducted a Rapid Needs Assessment (RNA) to 1) identify the immediate public health needs of residents who returned to the affected communities and 2) guide response and recovery activities.

Assessment Location

Preparations for the assessment began on June 4th. The GMOH knew it would be important to conduct the assessment in the areas hit hardest by the storms. To help determine where to take action, GMOH began quickly to collect information about precipitation levels.

Q1. When would an RNA be helpful?
Q2. Develop 1-2 RNA objectives
Q3. What information would you need to gather to determine where to conduct the assessment?

Bay of Campeche

Caribbean Sea

Belize

Guatemala Honduras

Pacific Ocean

Pacific Salvador

Ocean

OCESSE OCIES SYNCOLOR IS CHAMBY 30 10 11 15 11 C

Figure 11. Areas affected by heavy rain or flooding

Figure 12. Satellite image of assessment area in a GIS map





Using data collected from emergency managers and meteorological maps that showed the areas with the highest precipitation levels (Figure 11), the GMOH selected El Progreso as the assessment location. GMOH then developed maps using GIS data, as seen in Figure 12. After deciding the location, the GMOH continued with the next step: creating a questionnaire

Questionnaire Design

In working to design a questionnaire, that health officials and emergency managers formulated questions that captured multiple types of information pertaining to the affected population—including their health needs and the storm's physical effects

Q4. After a disaster such as a flood, what specific information would GMOH officials want to capture in a data collection instrument?

GMOH developed a sampling plan to determine to which households within El Progresso they would administer the questionnaire. After completing the sampling plan, GMOH created a short, one-page questionnaire to collect all the necessary health, access, and demographic information needed to conduct the assessment accurately (Appendix A).

Data Collection

Given the number of affected households within the Progreso Department's target population (approximately 28,000 households), the GMOH evaluated the best method for selecting a sample and set out to collect a sample to assess.

Q5. If you were selecting a sampling method, which one would you choose? State your reasons.

Q6. After determining the most appropriate sampling method, what information and sources of information would be needed to select a sample of households from the target area?

The GMOH considered multiple selection methods, but ultimately chose a two-stage probability-proportional-to-size method. As the first stage involved gathering a list of all the households, the team identified census and property data as necessary information sources. The GMOH team reached out to the Guatemala Census Office and was able to gather block-level (Avenida) information on the total number of households in the affected area. To conduct the sampling, the team chose variable names and locations of the fields needed from the database: examples include Department, Municipal Zone, block (Avenida), total population, and HU count. Figure 13 is an example of the downloaded data files, divided by their department of interest, Progreso:

+ (m fx 578 Α C D G В Zona Avenida Populacion Total Numero de Casas Cumulativo Cum_Range N_al azar N_Groupo NA_Generado 1 Departamento Municipal 2 El Progreso 1 44 25 25 50 Morazan 1 1-25 102 3 El Progreso 50 21 Morazan 26-46 315 338 5 El Progreso Morazan 2 4 40 16 65-80 6 El Progre 7 El Progreso Morazan 2 6 68 27 129 103-129 8 El Progreso 3 40 14 143 130-143 Morazan 1630 3 8 38 17 160 144-160 9 El Progreso Morazan 2006 10 El Progreso 9 46 18 178 Morazan 161-178 11 El Progreso Guastatoya 1 1 29 16 194 179-194 2134 20 2150 12 El Progreso Guastatoya 1 48 214 195-214 2264 19 13 El Progreso Guastatoya 59 233 2767 27 14 El Progreso Guastatoya 53 260 16 5 265 2807 15 El Progreso 5 3047 16 El Progreso Guastatoya 2 6 35 16 281 3128 17 El Progreso 3 3 284 282-284 Guastatoya 3293 Guastatoya 313 18 El Progreso 52 29 3369 19 El Pro 3764 20 El Progreso Sansare 1 1 27 12 350 339-350 3767 21 El Progreso Sansare 1 2 28 14 364 351-364 4222 27 22 El Progreso Sansare 391 1 3 36 365-391 4237 416 23 El Progreso 2 25 Sansare 4 40 392-416 24 El Progreso 437 4291 2 36 21 417-437 Sansare 4318 25 El Progreso Sansare 6 52 32 438-469 26 El Progr 4396 4510 27 El Progreso Sanarate 1 2 19 7 512 506-512 4657 28 El Progreso Sanarate 31 14

Figure 13. Sample excerpt of data from El Progreso

To determine the selection of clusters, the team divided the process into four steps:

- 1. Start a cumulative tally of households from block (Avenida) to block (shown in yellow)
- 2. Use a random number generator to randomly select 30 numbers
- 3. Choose the block (Avenida) that represents the first random number
 - a. Looking at the hypothetical data above, a random number of 50 would correspond with the block (Avenida) where the 50th household is found based on the cumulative column. In this case, *Municipal Morazan; Zona 1; Avenida 3 in Row 4* is the first cluster
- 4. Continue to select blocks (Avenidas) using the randomly generated number list until all 30 clusters have been selected

Q7. Looking at the sample data in Figure 13, which cluster would be chosen by the random number 287?

The GMOH team was divided up, and each unit was given contact phone numbers for field coordinators, a list of all contact numbers for all interviewers, and a map of their respective cluster(s). On June 5th—just two days after Agatha ended—the field interview teams were trained on how to properly administer the data collection instrument. By the morning of June 6th, the teams began assessing households in the Progreso Department

Q8. What information should the predeployment training cover?

Q9. The GMOH team broke into groups to conduct interviews. What general guidelines should you follow when assembling interview teams?

Fieldwork

All household interview attempts were recorded on the tracking form (Figure 14)

Figure 14. RNA tracking form

				ŀ	kapid	Nee				(KNA	L)							
							ackin											
Location:																		
Instructions: Use one tracking form per cluster. Check where appropriate, but try to choose only one best option for each of the five																		
categories. Go as f									,	.,		· · · ·		op.i.				
Sampled Ho	using Units	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1) ACCESS				ļ		ļ								ļ		ļ		ļ
Household is	Accessible																	
Household is In																		
2) TYPE OF DWELLI	ING																	
No housir	ng structure																	
M	obile Home																	
Single Fa	mily Home																	
Apartmen	t or Condo																	
	Other																	
3) DAMAGE																		
None	or Minimal																	
	Damaged																	
	Destroyed																	
4) ANSWER																		
	s answered																	
Appears as though s	someone is t no answer																	
Nobody home	ears vacant																	
after	1 st visit					├ <u>-</u>										} -		
	2 nd visit			}				} 						·				·
	3 rd visit																	
5) INTERVIEW						_												<u> </u>
	age Barrier																	
Refused to Participate																		
Interview begun, not finished																		
	Completed																	
Survey # (i.e. Completed Que																		
Completed Que	estionnaire.					1												

Each team worked to get all the interviews completed; they conducted interviews all day June 6th and June 7th, with the teams returning back to base camp at approximately 5:00pm (sundown). All completed questionnaires were immediately entered into the statistical software Epi InfoTM. Shortly after data entry, analysis was conducted to determine results. In total, the interviewers were able to complete 207 questionnaires.

Q10. Name at least two roadblocks or challenges interviewers might encounter while in the field.

While in the field, the teams were able to distribute information on the different clinic and aid stations in the surrounding area. Additionally, they carried pamphlets containing information regarding the public health hazards of the flood as supplemental education to the residents of the affected communities. These procedures are common in disaster situations as many times affected populations do not have an easy means of getting information regarding safety and/or treatment options.

By June 8th, after analyzing the data and producing the results (Table 14), the team presented a complete report on their findings to the GMOH Emergency Preparedness and Response Director.

Table 14. Characteristics of households in affected areas following the flood, El Progreso

Characteristic	% of households (n=207)	95% CI	Projected households	Estimate 95% CI
Residence				
Feels residence not safe	40.4	29.2 - 51.6	8454	6078 – 10830
Needs tarp	47.3	34.6 - 60.0	9945	7376 – 12514
Utilities				
No electricity	11.2	2.6 - 19.8	2751	755 – 4747
Drinking water				
Drinking bottled water	17.4	8.2 – 26.5	3633	1412 – 5853
from agency	17.4	0.2 – 20.5	3033	1412 – 5655
Drinking bottled water	44.4	34.2 – 54.6	9206	6721 – 11690
from other source	44.4	34.2 – 34.0	9200	0721 - 11090
Drinking from stream	1.4	0.0 - 2.9	300	0 – 657
Healthcare needs since th	e flooding			
Illnesses	35.1	270 - 43.2	6936	5484 – 8387
Injuries	9.9	4.6 - 15.2	2033	922 – 3134
Required medical care	24.6	16.5 - 32.8	5036	3439 – 6633
Emotional concerns	17.8	8.8 - 26.8	3466	1612 – 5321
Other				
Needs clothes	28.1	17.98 – 38.30	6033	3922 – 8144

Q11. What can you conclude from these findings? Using your response, what recommendations would you make to decision-makers?

The director shared the information with the Governor's Office. The report was instrumental in helping to provide mental health services in addition to distributing necessary items, such as clothing and tarps, and medication to the affected communities



Let the facilitator or mentor know you are ready for the discussion

Appendix A. Flood assessment form, June 2010

Question	Response
Q1. Date (MM/DD/YY)	
Q2. Interviewer Name	
Q3. Team Number:	
Q4. County:	
Q5. Cluster number:	
Q6. How many people lived in your household	Number:
before the flood?	
Q7. How many people slept here last night?	Number:
Q8. How many in your household were children	Number:
less than 2 years old?	
Q9. How many in your household were 65 years	Number:
of age or older?	
Q10. If one or more children are currently living in	□Yes □No □Don't Know □Ref □NA
the household, do you have access to enough	
diapers and formula for 7 days (if needed)?	
Q11. Is anyone in your household pregnant?	□Yes □No □Don't Know □Ref □NA
Q11a. If YES, how many?	Number:
Q12. Did your whole household evacuate your	□Yes □No □Don't Know □Ref
home to sleep somewhere else?	
Q12a. If YES, what day did your household	Date evacuated://
evacuate your home? (MM/DD/YY)	
040b If V/50 color described according to a second	Data ratuma de la la
Q12b. If YES, what day did your household	Date returned://
return (spend the first night back)? (MM/DD/YY)	4. Drieleletenselessenste
Q13. What is the primary type of construction of	1=Brick/stone/concrete
this dwelling (majority of exterior as observed by	2=Siding (e.g., wood, aluminum, vinyl)
interviewer)?	88=Other, specify
Q14. Would you describe the damage to your	1=None or minimal
home as	2=Damaged and uninhabitable
	3=Damaged and uninhabitable, but
	repairable 4=NOT repairable
Q14b. If DAMAGED, do you need a tarp?	□Yes □No □Don't Know □Ref

Q15. Do you feel the home is safe to live in?	□Yes □No □Don't Know □Ref		
Q15a. If NO, when do you expect this home to be safe to live in?	1=Less than a month 2=1-3 months 3=4-6 months 4=More than 6 months 5=Never 99=DK		
Q16. Has your household noticed any increase in problems with the following?	□Mosquitoes □Flies □Rats □No problems		
Q17. Does your household currently have running water?	□Yes □No □Don't Know □Ref		
Q18. Does your household have a working indoor toilet?	□Yes □No □Don't Know □Ref		
Q18a . If <i>NO</i> , does your household have access to a functioning toilet?	□Yes □No □Don't Know □Ref		
Q19. Are there screens on the windows in this residence?	□Yes □No □Don't Know □Ref □Broken screens		
Q20. Does your household have electricity from the utility company?	□Yes □No □Don't Know □Ref		
Q21. Has your household used a generator at any time since the flood?	□Yes □No □Don't Know □Ref		
Q21a. If YES, where is or was the generator located?	1=Inside 2=Garage/shed 3=Carport 4=Outside, greater than 25 feet from home 5=Outside, less than 25 feet from home 88=Other 99=DK		
Q22. Since the flood, has your household used any of the following appliances indoors?	□Charcoal, wood or propane cooking stove □Other gasoline or diesel powered equipment <i>specify</i> : □No □Don't Know □Ref		

Q23. Where is your household getting your	1=Well	
drinking water from?	2=Public utility	
	3=Bottled, supplied by Red Cross or other	
	relief agency	
	4=Bottled, not supplied by relief agency	
	5=No drinking water	
	99=DK	
Q24. Is your household treating your drinking water?	□Yes □No □Don't Know □Ref	
Q24a. If YES, how is your household treating	1=Boiling	
your drinking water?	2=Bottled	
your drinking water:	3=Chemical treatment	
	4=No treatment	
	88=Other	
Q25. Do you or your household members need	□Yes □No □Don't Know □Ref	
clothes?	ares and about those area	
Q26. Has anyone living in this household ever	a. Asthma	
been told by a doctor, nurse, or other healthcare	b. Emphysema	
professional that he or she has the following	c. Hypertension	
health problems?	d. Heart disease	
•	e. Diabetes	
	f. Physical disability	
	g. Hearing impairment	
	h. Visual impairment/legally blind	
	i. Gastrointestinal illness	
	 j. Renal disease k. Neurological (stroke, seizures, Transient Ischemic Attack (TIA)) I. Dementia/Alzheimer's m. Arthritis and joint pain 	
	n. Cancer	
	o. Anemia	
	p. Psychiatric disorders	
	q. Other	
Q27. Has any household member become ill	□Yes □No □Don't Know □Ref	
since the flood?		

Q27a. If YES, how many household members	a. Stomachache/diarrhea		
have had the following since the flood:	b. Dehydration/ heat stress		
	c. Respiratory (cough, flu)		
	d. Hearing or visual impairment		
	e. Injury/ Physical disability		
	f. Stroke (heat, hypertension, other)		
	g. Heart attack (chest pain)		
	h. Chronic illness that worsened		
	i. Skin condition/rash/sunburn		
	j. Stress/sleep disturbance		
	k. Inability to perform daily task		
	I. Other		
Q28. Has any household member been injured	□Yes □No □Don't Know □Ref		
since the flood?			
	a. Drowned		
Q28a. If YES, how many household members	b. Motor vehicle-related injury or other		
have been injured or died from the following	blunt trauma		
since the flood?	c. Electrical injury		
	d. Burn, including sunburn		
	e. CO poisoning		
	f. Laceration, abrasion		
	g. Bruise/contusion		
	h. Impalement/puncture wound		
	i. Brain injury/concussion j. Strain/sprain/dislocation		
	k. Fracture		
	I. Dog bite		
	m. Insect bite		
	n. chemical exposure		
	o. Other		
Q29. Since the flood, has anyone in your	□Yes □No □Don't Know □Ref		
household required medical care?			
Q30. Does anyone in your household need	□Yes □No □Don't Know □Ref		
medical care or supplies now? If yes, collect			
referral information.			
Q31. Will anyone in your household need	□Yes □No □Don't Know □Ref		
medical care or supplies in the next 3 days to 1			
week?			

Q32. Can everyone in your household get	□Yes □No □Don't Know □Ref		
the medical care and supplies he or she needs?			
	1=Lack of transportation		
Q32a.lf NO, what is preventing you/them from	2=No medical services available		
getting the medical attention you/they need?	3=Financial reasons		
	4=Debris or damage roads		
	5=Afraid to travel		
	6=Other:		
Q33. Has any household member died during or	□Yes □No □Don't Know □Ref		
after the flood?			
Q34. Has anyone in your household had any of	1=No symptoms		
the following since the flood?	2=Difficulty concentrating		
(select ALL that apply):	3=Trouble sleeping		
	4=Loss of appetite		
	5=Racing or pounding heartbeat		
	6=Agitated or frantic behavior		
	7=Violent behavior or threatening violence		
	8=Suicidal thoughts or attempts		
	9=Drug or alcohol intoxication or		
	withdrawal		
	10= Bereavement: loss of family		
	members, friends, neighbors		
	88=Others		
	99=Don't Know		
Q35. Are emotional concerns preventing you or	□Yes □No □Don't Know □Ref		
any household members from taking care of			
yourself/himself or others?			
Q36. What is your households greatest need	1=No current needs		
right now? (select one)	2=Food		
	3=Electricity		
	4=Water		
	5=Medical care		
	6=Medications		
	7=Transportation		
	8=Physical help with cleanup and repairs		
	9=Financial help with cleanup and repairs		
	10=Trash removal		
	88=Other, specify		
	99=Don't Know		

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Module Three: Disaster-related Morbidity and Mortality Surveillance Methods™

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MODULE 3: DISASTER-RELATED MORBIDITY AND MORTALITY SURVEILLANCE METHODS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Overview of Module Three – Disaster Surveillance Methods	1
Learning Objectives	1
Estimated Completion Time	2
Prerequisites	2
Lesson 1: Overview of Disaster Surveillance	3
Introduction	3
Defining Disaster Surveillance	3
Purpose of Disaster Surveillance	4
Importance of Disaster Surveillance	4
Disaster Surveillance: Morbidity and Mortality Considerations	6
Morbidity Surveillance	6
Mortality Surveillance	7
Surveillance Challenges in a Disaster Setting	8
Table 1. Surveillance challenges and solutions	8
Lesson 1 Summary	11
Lesson 2: Disaster Surveillance Methods	12
Introduction	12
Planning for Disaster Surveillance	12
Steps for Designing and Conducting a Disaster Surveillance System	14
Establish Objectives	14
Determine Variables (Case Definitions)	14
Data Sources and Data Collection	15
Analyze Data	16
Equation 2. Incidence proportion	16
Disseminate Data	16
Considerations for Designing or Using Existing Surveillance Methods	18
Surveillance Methods	20
Disaster Surveillance Indicators and Data Collection Forms	22
Disaster-related Morbidity and Mortality Surveillance Indicators	22
Table 2. Morbidity and mortality surveillance indicators and sources of information	
Disaster Surveillance Data Collection Forms	23
Table 3. Description of form types	23

PARTICIPANT WORKBOOK

Practice Exercise	25
Lesson 2 Summary	26
Skills Assessment	27
References	29

OVERVIEW OF MODULE THREE - DISASTER SURVEILLANCE METHODS

Surveillance is the ongoing, systematic collection, analysis, and interpretation of injuries, illnesses, and deaths for planning, implementation, and evaluation of public health practice.³¹ Surveillance enables public health to track and identify any adverse health effects in the community.³² During a disaster, you should consider surveillance when you need to understand a disaster's impact on affected populations. You should have a clear understanding of how you as an epidemiologist can plan for and put disaster surveillance activities in place.

In this module, you will learn about disaster-related morbidity and mortality surveillance, the importance of surveillance during a disaster, various disaster surveillance methods, and challenges or difficulties you might face when conducting surveillance during a disaster. This module consists of two lessons:

- Lesson 1: Overview of Disaster Surveillance
- Lesson 2: Disaster Surveillance Methods

Content is drawn from several sources, including the following:

- Pan American Health Organization, Epidemiologic Surveillance After Natural Disaster
- The Johns Hopkins and the International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies, Public Health Guide for Emergencies
- World Health Organization, Disaster Surveillance

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After completing Module Three, you will be able to do the following:

- Describe the purpose and importance of disaster surveillance
- Explain the differences in surveillance methods
- Explain the steps for setting up a surveillance system during a disaster
- Describe the challenges in establishing a surveillance system during a disaster
- Explain how to conduct morbidity and mortality surveillance in a disaster setting

³¹ Thacker SB, Berkelman RL. Public health surveillance in the United States. Epidemiol Rev. 1988;10:164-90.

³² Thacker SB, Stroup DF. Public health surveillance. In: Brownson, RC and Petitti, DB, editors. Applied epidemiology: theory to practice. New York: Oxford University Press; 1998a. p. 105–35.

ESTIMATED COMPLETION TIME

Module Three will take approximately six hours to complete, including some discussion time with your mentor or facilitator.

PREREQUISITES

Before participating in this training module, we recommended that you complete the following training courses:

- Module One: Epidemiologic Response to Disasters
- Introduction to surveillance (FETP core curriculum)
- Surveillance system development (FETP core curriculum)
- Surveillance data collection (FETP core curriculum)

LESSON 1: OVERVIEW OF DISASTER SURVEILLANCE

INTRODUCTION

As you learned in Module One, many significant damages can happen after a disaster, such as illness, potential disease outbreaks, death, displaced populations and crowded shelters, short-and long-term psychological effects, significant damage to buildings and other structures, and devastating financial loss.³³

In this lesson, you will learn about the purpose and importance of surveillance, particularly as it relates to controlling or reducing disaster-caused injuries, illnesses, and deaths, as well as some of the common public health disaster surveillance challenges.

After completing this lesson, you will be able to do the following:

- Describe the purpose and importance of disaster surveillance
- Discuss the objectives of disaster surveillance
- Describe challenges in establishing a surveillance system during a disaster

DEFINING DISASTER SURVEILLANCE

To respond appropriately and effectively to disasters, government and health officials must have timely and accurate information. One way to gather such information is through disaster surveillance. In simple terms, **disaster epidemiology** is the use of epidemiology to measure the short- and long-term health effects of disasters and to predict the consequences of future disasters.³⁴ **Disaster surveillance** is an epidemiology tool that assesses health effects, monitors the effectiveness of relief efforts, responds to public concerns and media inquiries, and assists in planning for future disasters.³⁵ Disaster surveillance systems provide information and feedback from the data you collect. That information and feedback provides the basis on which interventions are planned as well as insights into future disasters.

³³ Noji EK. The Public Health Consequences of Disasters. New York, NY: Oxford University Press: New York.1997.

³⁴ Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Preparedness and response for public health disasters: Disaster epidemiology. Atlanta: CDC [updated 2012 Jan 13; cited 2013 Nov 10]. Available from: http://www.cdc.gov/nceh/hsb/disaster/epidemiology.htm

http://www.cdc.gov/nceh/hsb/disaster/epidemiology.htm

35 CDC. Disaster Surveillance. Presentation at COCA conference call: disaster surveillance; December 18 2007.

Purpose of Disaster Surveillance

After a disaster, you might be called on to help answer questions, such as which problems are occurring, where and why they are occurring, who is impacted, and what problems are causing the most injury, illness, or death. Disaster surveillance is one method by which you answer these questions. As an epidemiologist, your role in disaster surveillance is to

- define and detect outbreaks and health problems,
- estimate the magnitude of a health problem,
- identify groups at risk for negative health outcomes,
- inform and monitor the effectiveness of response and relief efforts, or
- assist with planning for future disasters and recommend ways of decreasing the consequences of future disasters.

When you implement your disaster surveillance system, you should promptly analyze and disseminate your findings because health and other government officials need your results to take action. In fact, this is the primary purpose of surveillance: to provide timely, accurate, and relevant information to drive decisions and interventions during a disaster.³⁶

Importance of Disaster Surveillance

You should put together a surveillance system to receive timely information about health problems. In this way diseases and outbreaks can be detected early and programs and interventions can be most effective.³⁷ In other words, you can use disaster surveillance to uncover potential disease outbreaks and track when and where injuries, illnesses, and deaths occur.

Also, disaster surveillance helps you to make informed decisions on which actions to take. For example, it can help you determine where to direct resources (e.g., humanitarian aid or financial) and how to target interventions and relief efforts. Surveillance can also help in planning for future disasters. Here are potential objectives of a public health disaster surveillance system:

- Follow disease trends for early detection and control
- Estimate the magnitude of a health problem
- Monitor a population's health and identifying priority, immediate, and long-term health needs

response/publications_tools/publications/_CRDR_ICRC_Public_Health_Guide_Book/Forward.pdf

Last JM. A Dictionary of Epidemiology. 2nd ed. New York: Oxford University Press; 1988.
 Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health; International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies. Public Health Guide for Emergencies, 2nd ed. Geneva: IFRCRCS; 2008 [cited 2013 Nov 10]. Available from: http://www.jhsph.edu/research/centers-and-institutes/center-for-refugee-and-disaster-

- Ensure resources are targeted to the most vulnerable groups
- Evaluate the coverage and effectiveness of program interventions
- Identify research needs and evaluating control strategies³⁸

Implementing a disaster surveillance system provides situational awareness; provides information that can prevent or reduce injury, illness, or death; and helps guide prevention strategies for future disasters.



KNOWLEDGE CHECK

Fill-in the blank with the correct response to the sentences.

_____ is an epidemiology tool that assess health effects, monitors the effectiveness of relief efforts, responds to public concerns and media inquiries, and assists in planning for future disasters.

- A. Disaster epidemiology
- B. Rapid needs assessments
- C. Disaster surveillance
- D. Disaster response



Let the facilitator or mentor know you are ready for the discussion

DISCUSSION QUESTION #1

Why should you conduct surveillance during a disaster?

³⁸ Wetterhall SF, Noji EK. Surveillance and epidemiology. In: Noji EK, editor. The public health consequences of disasters. New York: Oxford University Press; 1997. P. 37-64.

DISASTER SURVEILLANCE: MORBIDITY AND MORTALITY CONSIDERATIONS

Two indicators often define disaster-related surveillance: morbidity and mortality. Your surveillance system objectives, as well as local health and government priorities, will help you determine which indicator(s) to track.

Morbidity refers to the state of being ill or diseased or the incidence of illness in a population; **mortality** refers to incidence of death in a population.³⁹ The **mortality rate** is the most important indicator of serious stress affecting a displaced population.

Equation 1. Mortality rate

Mortality Rate =
$$\frac{\text{Death occurring during a given time period}}{\text{Size of the population among which the death occurred}} \times 10^{n}$$

During a disaster, you may collect morbidity and mortality data to 40

- Identify potential threats to person(s) requiring immediate public health action(s);
- estimate the magnitude of a health problem;
- monitor a population's health and identify priority, immediate, and long-term health needs;
- provide data for situational awareness;
- ensure resources are targeted to the most vulnerable groups;
- identify research needs and evaluate control strategies; and
- communicate findings to decision makers within the preparedness community.

Morbidity Surveillance

Morbidity surveillance in a disaster measures the disease state of an individual or the incidence of illness in a population. Disaster-related morbidity surveillance helps you detect disease outbreaks and track disease trends, as well as inform decisions about action items, such as allocating resources, targeting interventions to meet specific needs, and planning for future disasters. 41 Morbidity surveillance collects information on

³⁹ Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry. Glossary of Terms. Atlanta: ATSDR [updated 2009 Jan 1; cited 2013 Nov 10]. Available from: http://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/glossary.html#G-M-

⁴⁰ Spears, J. Partners in Data Recovery and Reporting; Presentation from National Disaster Epidemiology Workshop; 2013 May 8; Atlanta, GA.

⁴¹ Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Disaster Epidemiology: Frequently Asked Questions. Atlanta: CDC [updated 2012 Jan 13; cited 2013 Nov 10]. Available from http://www.cdc.gov/nceh/hsb/disaster/faqs.htm

- incidence rate,
- prevalence rate,
- age- and sex-specific morbidity rate.

Data sources for morbidity surveillance in a disaster include

- hospitals,
- clinics and other medical care facilities,
- · community health and relief workers, and
- shelter service and delivery sites.

Additionally, the CDC has developed multiple, ready-to-use templates for morbidity and mortality surveillance. You can use these tools to supplement existing surveillance systems or temporarily replace disaster-damaged surveillance systems. Access these tools on the CDC Emergency Preparedness and Response Web site (http://www.emergency.cdc.gov/disasters/surveillance/).

Mortality Surveillance

As stated, the mortality, or death rate, is the most important indicator by which to measure the effect of a disaster on a population.⁴² Important mortality data to collect include

- demographic characteristics,
- time and location of death, and
- cause and manner of death.

Common data sources for mortality data include

- medical examiner or coroner's office,
- 911 call centers,
- hospitals,
- mortuary service providers (e.g., funeral homes), and
- religious institutes (e.g., churches, mosques, synagogues)

⁴² Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health; International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies. Public Health Guide for Emergencies, 2nd ed. Geneva: IFRCRCS; 2008 [cited 2013 Nov 10]. Available from: http://www.jhsph.edu/research/centers-and-institutes/center-for-refugee-and-disaster-

response/publications_tools/publications/_CRDR_ICRC_Public_Health_Guide_Book/Forward.pdf

SURVEILLANCE CHALLENGES IN A DISASTER SETTING

Although we have discussed many of the benefits of conducting disaster surveillance; you may encounter challenges while in the field. The following describes some difficulties in implementing public health disaster surveillance and steps you can take to overcome those difficulties

Table 1. Surveillance challenges and solutions⁴³

Challenge	Description
Missing baseline data	Challenge: Baseline information about a disease or the health status of those affected is usually missing or nonexistent. This can occur because large amounts of the population are displaced, health infrastructure is severely damaged, or no previous surveillance system is available. Thus, it will be difficult for you to determine a true increase in a disease or a worsening health status in the affected population since you do not have a starting number for comparison.
	Potential solution : Missing baseline data is a very difficult challenge to overcome. While a perfect solution may not exist, when possible, you should gather available data through previously established surveillance systems, published data, census records, or surveys of the affected population.
Difficulty obtaining denominator data	Challenge: You need data on the size of the at-risk population (the denominator data) to calculate health condition rates. Rates permit valid comparisons of morbidity and mortality between populations that differ in size and composition. Difficulty obtaining denominator data may occur because the population under surveillance changes frequently (e.g., moving in and out of shelters or refugee camps), is unpredictable, or traditional census or population data may not adequately reflect the current affected population as residents may have evacuated an area or may have been displaced. As a result, your population denominator may not be accurate or stable.
	Potential solution: You may need census data to determine parameters, such as rates of infection in well-defined populations (e.g., refugee camps). You can usually obtain such data from the agency running the camp. Still, while this might be appropriate in

⁴³ Pavignani E, Colombo S. Analyzing Disrupted Health Sectors: A Modular Manual. Geneva: World Health Organization, Department of Recovery and Transition Programmes Health Action in Crises.2009. Available from: http://www.who.int/hac/techguidance/tools/disrupted_sectors/adhsm_en.pdf?ua=1

refugee camps with good registration data, in a war scenario with shifting populations such reliable data rarely exists and limits this method's use. In this case, when possible, you may need to conduct a survey to obtain denominator data

Damaged infrastructure

Challenge: The local hospitals and health care systems might be severely damaged or destroyed, which means limited or no healthcare services. If this happens, outside relief and health organizations (e.g., Red Cross) may provide temporary medical assistance and care. For example, hospital surveillance cannot occur if hospitals are not operating. In such cases, temporary medical care is often established, but may not have the same surveillance capacity as do hospitals. Additionally, the few operating medical care facilities are likely to be overwhelmed and unable to conduct surveillance.

Logistical problems or obstacles to surveillance can, and often do, occur in a disaster setting. Electricity (power) and telephone outages affect communication networks and transportation systems, or destroyed roads or affected transportation systems slow or stop data collection. Such problems can interrupt the usual reporting mechanisms, leading to an underreporting of health events.

Potential solution: During times of damaged or destroyed infrastructure, flexibility is important. For example, collect data with pencil and paper if technology is not functioning or available. Think about creative ways to gain information from resources unaffected by the disaster. Satellite imagery can identify the extent of a disaster by providing overhead photos both before and after the event.

For damaged healthcare systems, collect data by working with temporary onsite healthcare providers (e.g., Red Cross) and community leaders.

Lack of standardization in data collection and reporting

Challenge: The need to repeatedly collect the same types of information quickly from multiple sources under difficult conditions can be challenging.

Potential solution: Ideally, you should standardize data collection and reporting. During the preparedness phase, epidemiologists should develop methods to standardize surveillance, with a process that is simple, flexible, and acceptable to multiple organizations. Preexisting, standardized surveillance templates are available.

Competing priorities

Challenge: During a disaster, competing priorities (e.g., providing medical care, restoring infrastructure) that involve many different stakeholders, including government and health agencies. may affect what data you are able to collect and when you are able to collect it.

Potential solution: Competing priorities are difficult obstacles to overcome. Having a clear surveillance objective may help with decision-making among interested parties. Working to establish cross-sectional coordination, between, for example, disaster management officials and ministries of health, may help facilitate disaster surveillance activities.

Thus, while disaster-related morbidity and mortality surveillance has many uses, it is important to take into account that data must be collected rapidly under poor conditions and be pulled together quickly in a logical format while potentially being hindered by forces beyond your control.



KNOWLEDGE CHECK

In a disaster setting, what does mortality measure?

- A. The number of deaths in a population
- B. The incidence of illness in a population
- C. The prevalence of illness and death in a population
- D. The number of people affected by the disaster in a population



Let the facilitator or mentor know you are ready for the discussion

DISCUSSION QUESTION #2

What are three challenges you might face when putting together a disaster surveillance system?

LESSON 1 SUMMARY

In this lesson, we define surveillance as the ongoing, systematic collection, analysis, and interpretation of injuries, illnesses, and deaths, for the use in planning, implementation, and evaluation of public health practice. Similarly, disaster surveillance is an epidemiology tool that assesses health effects, monitors relief effort effectiveness, responds to public concerns and media inquiries, and assists in planning for future disasters. Data derived from disaster surveillance activities provide timely, accurate, and relevant information that drives decisions and interventions during a disaster. The two indicators of disaster surveillance are morbidity and mortality. Morbidity is the tracking of injury or illness related to a disaster, and mortality is the tracking of fatalities or deaths. Although public health disaster surveillance is a useful and important tool, when conducting surveillance activities, challenges often arise. Understanding these challenges and preparing for or developing potential solutions will benefit you when you undertake surveillance activities during a disaster.

LESSON 2: DISASTER SURVEILLANCE METHODS

INTRODUCTION

In Lesson 1, you learned about the purpose and importance of public health disaster surveillance and common challenges or problems encountered when conducting surveillance during a disaster. In this lesson, you will learn about planning for disaster surveillance, considerations for designing or using existing surveillance systems, and morbidity and mortality surveillance during a disaster.

After completing this lesson, you will be able to do the following:

- Explain the steps for setting up a surveillance system during a disaster
- Describe disaster surveillance methods
- Identify considerations for designing or using existing surveillance systems
- Describe how to conduct morbidity and mortality surveillance during a disaster

PLANNING FOR DISASTER SURVEILLANCE

Recall from Lesson 1 that surveillance is the systematic or regular collection of data, data analysis, and distribution or sharing of information to people (e.g. health officials or government officials) who can use it.⁴⁴ The ultimate surveillance goal is public health actions based on data collected from surveillance activities. Particularly for disaster surveillance, public health actions and interventions are geared toward estimating the magnitude of an illness or disease, detecting outbreaks, or documenting the distribution and spread of injury or death in populations affected by a disaster.

Disasters are chaotic and may require you to conduct surveillance activities in an unstable environment. In disaster settings, the routine surveillance system normally in place may not function, may be severely compromised or disrupted, or may not provide data quickly enough for timely decisions.⁴⁵

⁴⁵ Pan American Health Organization. Natural Disasters: Protecting the Public's Health. Washington, D.C. 2000. Report No.: 575. Available from: http://www.preventionweb.net/files/1913 VL206114.pdf

⁴⁴ Thacker SB, Stroup DF. Public health surveillance. In: Brownson, RC and Petitti, DB, editors. Applied epidemiology: theory to practice. New York: Oxford University Press; 1998a. p. 105–35.

As you plan and prepare to conduct surveillance activities, several considerations will help you address some of the unique difficulties you may face as a result of a disaster's challenging circumstances:

Syndromic surveillance – If routine surveillance is disrupted during a disaster's early stages, we recommended that you temporarily establish a local, syndromic surveillance system. The syndrome-based surveillance model should be flexible and provide a fast reporting system. Reestablish the routine surveillance system as soon as possible. 46

Logistics – Consider limiting the number of diseases under surveillance, taking into account the limited skill or willingness of relief workers to collect health data and the compromised logistical or infrastructure networks (e.g., limited or no Internet access, power outages, damaged laboratories).⁴⁷

Partners and stakeholders – In working with government officials, health care organizations, relief agencies and other stakeholders and partners, make sure you take into account the political, financial, and human resources needed to set up a successful public health disaster surveillance system. The support of high-ranking government or ministry of health officials is important to ensure political commitment and funding to mobilize resources. ⁴⁸ For example, you will need someone or some agency to assign you adequate epidemiologic and clerical staff who also have transportation to the field and priority access to health records.

As part of the planning and preparation process, gather background data on the disaster-affected geographical areas, the major disease risks in the affected area (e.g., cholera or malaria), and the at-risk and affected populations. In addition to information provided by the health system, by relief workers, and by local community groups, consider gathering information from unconventional sources – such as newspaper, Internet, or blog accounts – each of which can provide important early warnings.⁴⁹

⁴⁶ ibid

⁴⁷ United States. Pan American Health Organization. Epidemiologic Surveillance after Natural Disaster. By Josefa Ippolito-Shepherd. Washington, DC: PAHO, 1982. Available from http://helid.digicollection.org/en/d/Jph09ee/2.html. 12 Sept. 2013.

 ⁴⁸ Nsubuga P, White ME, Thacker SB, et al. Public Health Surveillance: A Tool for Targeting and Monitoring Interventions. In: Jamison DT, Breman JG, Measham AR, et al., editors. Disease Control Priorities in Developing Countries. 2nd edition. Washington (DC): World Bank; 2006. Chapter 53.
 Available from:: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK11770/
 ⁴⁹ Pan American Health Organization. Natural Disasters: Protecting the Public's Health. Washington, D.C.

⁴⁹ Pan American Health Organization. Natural Disasters: Protecting the Public's Health. Washington, D.C. 2000.xi, 119 p.—(Scientific Publication, 575). Available from: http://www.preventionweb.net/files/1913_VL206114.pdf

STEPS FOR DESIGNING AND CONDUCTING A DISASTER SURVEILLANCE SYSTEM

Careful planning is important for developing a strong disaster surveillance system. The information collected and analyzed from surveillance activities helps ensure direction of resources to the areas or populations with the most need, evaluation of program or intervention outcomes, and provision of data for future disaster surveillance systems. While some slight variations might occur, take the following steps to develop a disaster surveillance system:

- Establish objectives
- Determine variables to survey (e.g., case definitions)
- Determine data sources and collect data
- Analyze data
- Disseminate data

The following steps are important in establishing a strong, disaster-situation surveillance system.

Establish Objectives

During disaster, surveillance systems provide data to drive program or intervention activities, monitor poor health outcomes in affected populations, or track injury and death in affected communities. To achieve this purpose, the objectives should be clear and should describe how to use the surveillance information to inform public health action. According to the *Objectives of Surveillance – Inputs and Outputs in Field Epidemiology Manual*, objectives may include a) assess public health status to inform actions to control occurrence of disease, b) define public health priorities to inform policy and planning, c) evaluate programs to inform decisions about interventions, or d) initiate a research agenda to inform follow-up activities and mitigation efforts.⁵⁰

Determine Variables (Case Definitions)

After you have developed the objectives, you will need an operational definition of the health problem or condition for surveillance. This definition is necessary for accurate recognition and counting of the problem or condition. The operational definition consists of one or more criteria and is known as the **case definition** for surveillance. A case definition is a set of standard criteria for classifying whether a person has a particular disease, syndrome, or other health condition. A case definition must be simple, clearly defined, understandable, and must be practical for use in a disaster setting. Categorize a case using one of the following methods:⁵¹

Clinical case – a clinical syndrome generally compatible with the disease, as described in the clinical description. A general clinical impression that this is a case of disease.

Pan American Health Organization. Natural Disasters: Protecting the Public's Health. Washington, D.C.
 Report No.: 575. Available from: http://www.preventionweb.net/files/1913_VL206114.pdf
 ibid

Epidemiologic case – a case in which a) the patient has had contact with one or more persons who either have or have had the disease or have been exposed to an infection point source (i.e., a single source of infection, such as an event leading to a food bornedisease outbreak to which all confirmed case-patients were exposed) and b) plausible transmission of the agent by the usual modes of transmission. A case may be considered epidemiologically linked to a laboratory-confirmed case if at least one case in the chain of transmission is laboratory-confirmed.

Laboratory case – a case that is confirmed by one or more of the laboratory methods listed in the case definition under laboratory criteria for diagnosis

Some case definitions require laboratory confirmation, while others rely on multiple signs or symptoms for a condition where no laboratory test is readily available. When developing a case definition, the elements can include the degree of certainty in the diagnosis:

- Suspected a case classified as suspected for reporting purposes
- Probable a case classified as probably for reporting purposes
- Confirmed a case classified as confirmed for reporting purposes

It is important that you carefully develop the case definition(s) as the definition must meet the surveillance system's needs.⁵² When diagnosing an illness, disease, or other health condition for disaster surveillance, the case definition criteria might differ from the clinical criteria.⁵³ And in a disaster situation you may have to depend on initial impressions such as a chief complaint rather than confirmatory information such as laboratory results or discharge diagnoses. You will need to find a balance between diagnosis degree of certainty and reporting timeliness.

Data Sources and Data Collection

The surveillance system objectives will help determine the data sources. In a non-disaster event, data will typically come from medical and death records from healthcare providers and medical facilities. If traditional information channels are disrupted or missing, consider using nontraditional sources for information such as humanitarian aid agencies, civil defense organizations, religious officials, or police.⁵⁴

⁵² Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Case definitions for infectious conditions under public health surveillance. MMWR 1997; 46(RR10): 1-55.

⁵³ Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Office of Workforce and Career Development. Principles of Epidemiology in Public Health Practice. 3rd ed. Atlanta: GA. CDC. 2012. Available from: http://www.cdc.gov/ophss/csels/dsepd/SS1978/SS1978.pdf
⁵⁴ *ibid*

Analyze Data

After you have gathered surveillance data, analyze those data by person, place, and time. Generally, analysis of data to determine the attack rate or incidence proportion seeks to compare occurrence of illness and death in different geographic areas or periods. **Incidence** is the occurrence of new cases of disease or injury in a population over a specified period. **Incidence proportion** is the proportion of an initially disease-free population that develops disease, becomes injured, or dies during a specified (usually limited) period of time.

Equation 2. Incidence proportion

Incidence Proportion =

Number of new cases of disease or injury during specified time interval

Total population at start of the time interval

A rate is helpful because it takes into account the size of the population where cases were derived. Usually, a calculation of the number of cases and rates is followed by a description of the population in which the condition occurs (person), where the condition occurs (place), and the period over which the condition occurs (time). When analyzing data by person, age and sex are common variables. When analyzing data by place, the rate is often calculated by adjusting for differences in the size of the population in the assigned geographical areas. The results are typically shown on a map or table. Analyzing data by time is usually done when you want to describe trends and detect changes in disease occurrence or frequency. In the disaster setting, calculating proportions might not be possible due to a lack of denominator data. Analysis might then be limited to calculating incidence only. Often epi curves are created to produce a visual display of the onset of health problems associated with the disaster. The epi curve displays the time trend, distribution, pattern of spread, and magnitude of health problem

Disseminate Data

As state, data from disaster surveillance estimate the magnitude of a disease health condition, detect outbreaks, or document the distribution and spread of injury or death in populations impacted by a disaster. Thus timely, regular data dissemination is a critical surveillance component. You must disseminate (i.e., spread abroad) or distribute (i.e., apportion) data in a clear and concise manner. Decision-makers, stakeholders, and partners at all levels must understand your data so they can readily act on the recommendations your data support. Graphs and maps are useful tools that assist in rapid data review and comprehension

⁵⁵ Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Scientific Education and Professional Development Program Office. Principles of Epidemiology in Public Health Practice, 3rd ed. Available from: http://www.cdc.gov/osels/scientific_edu/ss1978/lesson3/section2.html

http://www.cdc.gov/osels/scientific_edu/ss1978/lesson3/section2.html

56 Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Create an epi curve. CDC [cited 2013 Nov 10]. Available from: http://www.cdc.gov/training/QuickLearns/createepi/1.html



KNOWLEDGE CHECK

Which of the following is not a key step of a disaster surveillance system?

- A. Establish objectives
- B. Determine variables
- C. Conduct a needs assessment
- D. Analyze data



Let the facilitator or mentor know you are ready for the discussion

DISCUSSION QUESTION #3

What are the differences between the degrees of certainty in the diagnosis to meet the need of the surveillance system?

DISCUSSION QUESTION #4

Why is determining the incidence proportion important?

CONSIDERATIONS FOR DESIGNING OR USING EXISTING SURVEILLANCE METHODS

As discussed in Lesson 1, disaster surveillance is the ongoing, systematic collection, analysis, and interpretation of data for use in planning, implementation, and evaluation of public health programs. In designing or using an existing disaster surveillance system, set clear, prioritized objectives. Ensure the surveillance system is sustainable for short- or long-term use, depending on the objectives. Once you have established the objectives, use them to limit your data collection and sites to the simplest possible, objective-oriented solution. Surveillance is time and resource intensive, so only use the most efficient method of reaching your objectives. Take into consideration data quantity versus timeliness and simplicity. During a disaster, data collection conditions are often chaotic and unpredictable. Because you do not want to burden or overwhelm staff, you should only collect needed information. You should balance the quantity of the data with how long it will take to collect and analyze those data.

As an epidemiologist, your role in a disaster is to determine the extent of damage to human health, identify the needs of a population, and recommend interventions to reduce further illness or death. Disaster-related morbidity and mortality surveillance is one tool to accomplish these goals. In preparing to set up a disaster surveillance system, several considerations will help you determine whether you need to design and set up a new system or whether you can modify a preexisting system. Begin by determining whether surveillance is the most efficient way to meet your objectives, or could you use an existing, in-place system which, with slight modifications or enhancements, would meet your objectives.⁵⁷ To help you decide on the best course of action, consider the following:

Preexisting information – The preferred method or course of action is to maximize the use of preexisting surveillance data for "baseline" information and modify established, epidemiologic surveillance systems for disaster settings. Determine whether working within the parameters of health resources and systems already available is a viable option, particularly if you are not familiar with preexisting systems and surveillance resources. With scarce resources and limited time, avoiding duplication of efforts is very important. ⁵⁸

Syndromic surveillance – If the health infrastructure is severely damaged or if establishing a new surveillance system will be too time-consuming, consider using syndromic surveillance. Syndromic surveillance integrates signs and symptoms, primary complaints or presumptive diagnoses, or other characteristics of the disease, rather than

Western KA. Epidemiologic surveillance after natural disaster. Washington (DC): Pan American Health Organization; 1982. Report No.: 420. [cited 2013 Sept 12]. Available from: http://helid.digicollection.org/en/d/Jph09ee/2.html ibid

specific clinical or laboratory diagnostic criteria. In areas particularly devastated by a disaster, syndromic surveillance can provide an earlier indication of an unusual increase in illnesses, injury, or death to shape early intervention efforts. Keep in mind, however, that syndromic surveillance is intended to supplement, not to replace, traditional disaster surveillance. 59

Sentinel surveillance – Different surveillance strategies meet different needs for timely, accurate, and reliable data. Sentinel surveillance occurs when data are gathered from a limited number of sites and is an alternative to population-based surveillance and national surveillance. Although sentinel surveillance is extremely useful for detecting large public health problems, it might not capture rare events, such as the early emergence of a new disease—these infections might emerge anywhere in the population. Sentinel surveillance is particularly useful for monitoring trends. It is less costly than other surveillance methods, but that is because data collection is limited. 60

Ad hoc surveillance – In addition to using the existing surveillance system, in a disaster setting you have the opportunity to develop and employ a supplemental or ad hoc surveillance system in which medical relief workers take part. A supplemental or ad hoc surveillance system will be useful for areas hit by a disaster that lack a preexisting surveillance infrastructure. Or in circumstances where tents, temporary shelters, or other venues provide medical care because the hospitals and clinics are overwhelmed or unavailable due to road closures, damaged buildings, or other infrastructure challenges.61

If available data and alternative sources of data will not suffice, establishing a new disaster surveillance system might be your only option. Carefully consider whether you can use existing data collection methods—even if not ideal—rather than establishing a new surveillance system. An existing system requires less effort to establish than would a new disaster surveillance system.

Whether you design a new system or modify an existing system, when collecting health data, use generally recognized and accepted data collection forms. You might like to use some other available forms, but the Environmental Hazards and Health Effects, Health Studies Branch

⁵⁹ ibid

⁶⁰ Nsubuga P, White ME, Thacker SB, Anderson MA, Blount SB, Broome CV, et al. Public health surveillance: a tool for targeting and monitoring interventions. In: Jamison DT, Breman JG, Measham AR, Alleyne G, Claeson M, Evans DB, et al., editors. Disease Control Priorities in Developing Countries. 2nd ed. Washington: World Bank; 2006. P. 997-1015. Available from http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK11770/

ibid

(DEHHE/HSB) at the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) have also prepared Morbidity and Mortality Disaster Surveillance Forms

(http://emergency.cdc.gov/disasters/surveillance/). And with any form you use, you need to watch for whether that form asks for personal identifying information as extra precautions should be taken to ensure the confidentiality and privacy of respondents or cases.

SURVEILLANCE METHODS

Surveillance is either active or passive. **Active surveillance** employs staff members to regularly contact heath care providers or the population to seek information about health conditions for a limited time period (usually weeks or months). Active surveillance provides the most accurate and timely information, but is expensive. Active surveillance has several benefits in a disaster setting. ⁶²

- Active surveillance activities complement regular reporting functions that might be disrupted because of the disaster
- Active surveillance can be used in non-traditional settings. If, for example, a segment
 of the population is moved to an evacuation center, regular reporting mechanisms
 lack the flexibility to set up in such locations.
- Active surveillance allows for public health officials to quickly detect infectious disease outbreaks, define or measure morbidity or illness among an affected population, and target relief efforts. Similarly, active surveillance can monitor relief effort effectiveness.

Passive surveillance is a system in which a health jurisdiction regularly receives reports from hospitals, clinics, public health units, or other sources. Passive surveillance is a relatively inexpensive strategy that can cover large areas. It has a low data collection burden and it provides important information for monitoring a population's health. Nevertheless, because passive surveillance depends on people in various institutions to provide data, data quality and timeliness are difficult to control. Also, passive surveillance relies on health officials to submit health reports. Reporting can be slow if the responsible health officials do not report regularly.

⁶² CDC. Disaster Surveillance. Presentation at COCA conference call: disaster surveillance; December 18 2007.

⁶³Nsubuga P, White ME, Thacker SB, Anderson MA, Blount SB, Broome CV, et al. Public health surveillance: a tool for targeting and monitoring interventions. In: Jamison DT, Breman JG, Measham AR, Alleyne G, Claeson M, Evans DB, et al., editors. Disease Control Priorities in Developing Countries. 2nd ed. Washington: World Bank; 2006. P. 997-1015. Available from: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK11770/



KNOWLEDGE CHECK

_____ integrates signs and symptoms, primary complaints or presumptive diagnoses, or other characteristics of the disease, rather than specific clinical or laboratory diagnostic criteria.

- A. Sentinal surveillance
- B. Syndromic surveillance
- C. Ad hoc surveillance
- D. Mortality surveillance



Let the facilitator or mentor know you are ready for the discussion

DISCUSSION QUESTION #5

What is the difference between active and passive surveillance?

DISASTER SURVEILLANCE INDICATORS AND DATA COLLECTION FORMS

Recall from Lesson 1 that morbidity (disease or illness) and mortality (deaths) are the two essential indicators of a disaster surveillance system. In most countries, morbidity and mortality reporting is a legally required part of a vital statistics program; many countries have complete data available for these indicators. During a disaster, however, these traditional reporting systems may not function. And you may want to collect data on health conditions not traditionally reported (e.g., amputations, watery diarrhea).

One example of a supplemental surveillance system used in a disaster-setting is the Surveillance in Post Extreme Emergencies and Disasters (SPEED) launched by the Philippine Department of Health and World Health Organization in 2010. SPEED is an early warning disease surveillance system for disaster situations. Its aim is to determine early and potential disease outbreaks and monitor disease trends. During a disaster, SPEED captures data and generates in a timely manner information relevant to health emergency managers from the grassroots up to the national level. SPEED uses syndromic surveillance and focuses on the 21 most common health conditions encountered after a disaster. Since 2010, SPEED has been used in a number of disasters, including in 2011 Typhoon Quiel (international name Nalgae) and Typhoon Sendong (international name Washi). 64

Disaster-related Morbidity and Mortality Surveillance Indicators

The following table has morbidity and mortality indicators and potential information sources.

Table 2. Morbidity and mortality surveillance indicators and sources of information⁶⁵

Surveillance	Indicators	Sources of Information
Morbidity	 Incidence rate Prevalence rate Age/sex-specific morbidity rate Proportional morbidity rate 	 Outpatient and admission records, shelters, refugee camp clinics Laboratories Feeding center(s) records Community health worker records

⁶⁴ Surveillance in post extreme emergencies and disasters. Center for Health Market Innovations; c2014 [cited 7 July 2014]. Available from: http://healthmarketinnovations.org/program/surveillance-post-extreme-emergencies-and-disasters-speed

Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health; International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies. Public Health Guide for Emergencies, 2nd ed. Geneva: IFRCRCS; 2008 [cited 2013 Nov 10]. Available from: http://www.jhsph.edu/research/centers-and-institutes/center-for-refugee-and-disaster-

response/publications_tools/publications/_CRDR_ICRC_Public_Health_Guide_Book/Forward.pdf

Mortality	Crude Mortality Rate (CMR)	Hospital death registers
	Age-specific mortality rateCause-specific mortality	Religious leaders or centers (e.g., churches or mosques)
	Case Fatality Rate (CFR)	Community reporters (including Community Health Workers)
		Burial shroud distribution
		Graveyards
		Camp administration

Disaster Surveillance Data Collection Forms

Traditional data sources can be used during a disaster to collect surveillance information. However, you may also need supplemental active surveillance if traditional systems are disrupted or if persons seek care outside typical acute care settings. ⁶⁶ In these situations, you can use surveillance forms to collect standardized data. Surveillance forms capture morbidity and mortality data. Table 3 describes supplemental form purpose and use.

Table 3. Description of form types⁶⁷

	Morbidity	Mortality
Purpose	Capture individual-level active surveillance of health conditions	Identify the number of deaths related to the disaster and provide basic mortality information
Setting	Acute care facilities (e.g., hospitals) Nontraditional health care setting (e.g., shelter with medical tent)	During a disaster, medical examiners and coroner's office, hospitals, religious institutes (church, mosque) or funeral homes
Use	Use the form to record information about chief complaints and specific infectious syndromes, mental health conditions, injuries, and chronic diseases that best describe the reason the patient seeks immediate care	Use this form for all known deaths related to the disaster. This form does not replace the death certificate

⁶⁶ Schnall AH, Wolkin AF, Noe R, Hausman LB, Wiersma P, Soetebier K, Cookson ST. Evaluation of a standardized morbidity surveillance form for use during disasters caused by natural hazards. Prehospital and Disaster Medicine. 2011; 26(2):90.

⁶⁷ Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Emergency preparedness and response: public health assessment and surveillance after a disaster. Atlanta: CDC [updated 2014 Sept 5; cited 2014 Sept 5]. Available from: http://www.bt.cdc.gov/disasters/surveillance/

The CDC has developed standardized morbidity and mortality forms you can access at: http://www.emergency.cdc.gov/disasters/surveillance/. Abbreviated forms can be used if summary or less-detailed information is sufficient or when the burden of collecting detailed, individual information is substantial.



KNOWLEDGE CHECK

Which of the following is not a surveillance indicator for morbidity?

- A. Proportional morbidity rate
- B. Case Fatality Rate (CFR)
- C. Incidence rate
- D. Prevalence rate



Let the facilitator or mentor know you are ready for the discussion

DISCUSSION QUESTION #6

What is the purpose of surveillance forms? Do you have any pre-existing standard surveillance forms to use in a disaster in your jurisdiction?

PRACTICE EXERCISE



PRACTICE EXERCISE #1

In this practice exercise, you will apply the concepts learned in this module. Please read through the following case study and answer the questions.

Background

On April 18th, a radiation contamination incident occurred at a nuclear fuel processing plant in Eastern Europe. Due to human error, one of the reactors at the plant underwent a partial nuclear meltdown. The tank temperature rapidly increased, causing the uranium fuel rods to melt and spill into the containment systems. Reactor temperature rose precipitously. Then a chemical explosion released dried radioactive waste into the air, creating a radioactive cloud reaching over 525 kilometers. Although no immediate casualties occurred as a result of the explosion, the rapid spread of the radioactive cloud resulted in the long-term contamination of a more than 800-square kilometer area. The International Nuclear Event Scale (INES) rated the accident a Level 6 (serious accident) that would likely require a long-term disaster response effort.

As part of their response effort, the Ministry of Health and government officials wanted to monitor health status in the affected areas and wanted to respond to immediate, blast-related health threats.

Adapted from: World History Project. Kyshtym Disaster. http://worldhistoryproject.org/1957/9/29/kyshtym-disaster; Kyshtym disaster. http://www.spiritus-temporis.com/kyshtym-disaster/explosion.html; International Nuclear Event Scale. http://www.iaea.org/ns/tutorials/regcontrol/refs/39inesleaflet.pdf; http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/meltdown.

What are the initial steps in setting up surveillance for the radiological event?

Describe the considerations to help you determine whether you need to design and set up a new surveillance system, or modify a preexisting system.

What types of data would you collect as part of your surveillance? Describe why.

Traditional (passive) systems were disrupted and many persons needed care outside typical acute care settings. How then do you collect morbidity and mortality data?



Let the facilitator or mentor know you are ready for the discussion

LESSON 2 SUMMARY

In this lesson, we have defined disaster surveillance as the systematic collection, analysis, and interpretation of relevant health data. Data derived from disaster surveillance activities are useful to establish morbidity and mortality trends, set priorities, and plan and assess relief efforts. The information obtained from the surveillance activities is useful in preparing for future disasters.

SKILLS ASSESSMENT

1. Which of the following is NOT a characteristic of public health surveillance?

- A. Systematic data collection
- B. Ongoing
- C. One-way
- D. Timely dissemination of data

2. Morbidity measures the disease state of a person or the incidence of illness in a population

- A. True
- B. False

3. What does mortality surveillance measure in a disaster setting?

- A. The incidence of illness or disease in a population
- B. The incidence of death in a population
- C. The rate of live births during a disaster

4. Which of the following best describes passive surveillance?

- A. Laboratories, physicians, or other healthcare providers regularly report cases of disease to health officials using a standard case definition of that particular disease.
- B. Local health agencies initiate the collection of specific cases of disease from laboratories, physicians, or other healthcare providers.
- C. The ongoing, systematic collection, analysis, interpretation, and application of realtime disease indicators that allow for detection before public health authorities would otherwise identify them.

5. Surveillance is essentially concerned with the gathering of information necessary for rational planning, operation, and evaluation of activities.

- A. True
- B. False

6. Which of the following best describes active surveillance?

- A. Laboratories, physicians, or other health care providers regularly report cases of disease to the local health officials using a standard case definition of that particular disease
- B. Local health officials initiate the collection of specific cases of disease from laboratories, physicians, or other health care providers
- C. The ongoing, systematic collection, analysis, interpretation, and application of realtime indicators for disease that allow for detection before public health authorities would otherwise identify them.

7. Which of the following is a disadvantage of syndromic surveillance?

- A. Small outbreaks are not detected
- B. Data collection is through automated means
- C. Early, real-time information gathering
- D. Health department staff burden is low for data collection
- 8. The lack of baseline surveillance data before a disaster makes no difference in confirming certain disease increases.
 - A. True
 - B. False
- 9. A(n) _____ is a set of standard criteria for classifying whether a person has a particular disease, syndrome, or other health condition
 - A. Sentinal surveillance
 - B. Case definition
 - C. Syndromic surveillance
 - D. Objective

10. An epidemiologist's role in disaster surveillance is to

- A. Define quickly and detect outbreaks and health problems
- B. Identify groups at risks for poor health outcomes
- C. Identify and determine the needs of groups in a population who have a high risk for poor health outcomes
- D. Inform the relief response efforts and monitor their effectiveness; and
- E. Assist in planning for future disasters and recommend ways to decrease the consequences of future disasters.

All of the above



Let the facilitator or mentor know you are ready for the discussion

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