Other Trial Designs

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Nothing to disclose



Outline

- Cohort study designs
 - Cohort
 - Quasi-cohort
- Randomized controlled trial
- Cluster randomized trials
- Adaptive trials
- Pragmatic trials



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Study Design Question

Which of the following is true for cohort studies?

A. Better suited to rare diseases than case control studies

- B. Confounding by indication not a concern
- C. Outcomes may be binary or time-dependent
- D. Cannot evaluate time-varying covariates



Study Design Question - Answer Which of the following is true for cohort studies?

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Study Design



School of Medicin

Cohort study

- A study comparing patients with an exposure to others without the exposure for differences in outcome
- Advantages
 - The study of any number of outcomes from a single risk factor/exposure
 - Incident rates available
 - Can calculate RR
 - Lack of bias in exposure data



Cohort study

- Disadvantages / Limitations
 - Potentially biased outcome data
 - Large sample size need for rare diseases
 - Long follow up needed
 - Subject to loss to follow up
 - Costly
 - Criteria and methods may change over time



Prospective vs Retrospective



Exposure —→ Disease

Time



Cohort study

- Example: Evaluation of a new procalcitonin-based guide for empiric antibiotic use in ICU sepsis
- Clinicians could choose to use the algorithm or not
 - Compare the results of patients for whom the algorithm is used to those for whom it is not used
 - Unadjusted analysis
 - Multivariable modeling to adjust for potential confounders
- Issues
 - Type of outcome (e.g., binary, time-dependent)
 - Clustering by clinician
 - Confounding by indication
 - Decision to use the algorithm is not random
 - Factors influencing use also associated with worse outcomes



Cohort study: Type of Outcome

- Example: Evaluation of a new procalcitonin-based guide for empiric antibiotic use in ICU sepsis
- Type of outcome:
 - Binary: "Were antibiotics discontinued after 72 hours more often in the PCT group vs the non-PCT group"
 - Time-dependent: "Were antibiotics discontinued earlier in the PCT group vs the non-PCT group"
- Binary outcome = Logistic regression analysis
 - Estimates the association between exposure status and binary outcome (yes or no)
 - Relative risk: incidence in exposed vs unexposed
 - Control for multiple confounders
- Time-dependent outcome Cox proportional hazards
 - Estimates association between exposure and time to event
 - Hazard ratio: survival in exposed vs unexposed at a given point in time
 - Accounts for censoring of subjects (loss to follow up)
 - Allows for time-varying covariates

Confounding by Indication

- Major concern in non-randomized stewardship studies
 - Why do patients receive different treatments/strategies?
 - Measured and unmeasured factors
 - Approaches
 - Multivariable modeling
 - Propensity score analysis
 - Instrumental variables



Multivariable Modeling

- Ascertainment of known potential confounders
- Inclusion of confounders in multivariable model
- Independent effect of the exposure/treatment
- Good when you have a large number of outcomes



Propensity Score Analysis

- Develop statistical model to predict receipt of treatment
 Propensity score
- Two general analysis approaches
 - Stratification or Matching
- Stratification
 - Exposed and unexposed subjects stratified by propensity score (e.g., deciles)
 - Analyses conducted within strata
- Matching
 - Exposed and unexposed subjects matched based on propensity score
 - Determine association after accounting for matching
- Can see how propensity score distributed across groups

 Often limited data at extremes
- Good when small number of outcomes



Instrumental Variables

- Another approach to addressing confounding by indication
- Instrumental variable
 - Correlated with the exposure
 - Not associated with the outcome
 - Not associated with any confounder in the exposure-outcome relationship
 - External to the exposure-outcome association
- External cause of the intervention but is by itself unrelated to the outcome
 - "Natural randomization"
 - Policy change, geographic differences
- Not always available
- Weak or strong
 - Depending on how much of the variance in the exposure it explains



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Quasi-Experimental Study

- (a.k.a.- non-randomized pre-post intervention design
- Evaluate intervention without using RCT
- The most basic type:
 - Collect baseline data
 - Implementation intervention
 - Collect same data as during baseline period
- Many different variations of quasi-experimental
 - 1) institution of multiple pretests
 - (i.e., collection of baseline data on more than one occasion)
 - 2) repeated interventions
 - (i.e., instituting and removing the intervention on sequentially);
 - 3) inclusion of a control group
 - (i.e., a group on which baseline and subsequent data is collected but on which no intervention is implemented).



Harris AD, *Clin Infect Dis*, 2004;38:1586

Analysis of Quasi-Experimental Studies: Interrupted Time Series

• Segments

- Specific event causes a change in the series, dividing it into distinct segments
- Estimating the change in the series allows you to assess the impact of the event
- Validity
 - Strongest non-experimental research design
 - Pre-event level and trend serves as a built-in "control"



Hypothetical Changes in Level and Slope of a Time-Series

Analysis of an intervention effect using segmented linear regression



Assumption:

Extrapolating the pre-intervention level and trend reflects the (counterfactual) outcome that would have occurred had the intervention not happened.



Adapted from Schneeweiss et al, Health Policy 2001

Possible Intervention Effects



Quasi-Experimental Study

- Advantages
 - Use when RCT not ethical
 - Use when intervention must be instituted rapidly (e.g., outbreak)
 - Use when RCT not logistically feasible
 - Broad interventions difficult to randomize to individual patients or hospital floors/units.
- Disadvantages
 - Difficult to control for potential confounding variables
 - e.g., patient severity of illness, quality of medical and nursing care, comorbidities, demographics, etc
 - Control for summary measures of potential confounders in a segment

Inability to control for individual level confounders



Harris AD, Clin Infect Dis, 2004;38:1586

Cohort Study Design

 A study comparing patients with the exposure of interest to those without the exposure of interest

- Exposure in this case is the intervention period

- Rather than the segment being the unit of analysis, it is the individual subject
- Works better if the intervention targeted at the individual





Comparison of Analyses (Cohort v Quasi)

- Example: Evaluation of a new procalcitonin-based guide for empiric antibiotic use in ICU sepsis
 - Interrupted time series
 - Time segments pre and post intervention
 - Analysis: Segmented regression
 - Outcomes
 - Monthly antibiotic use, death rates, length of stay
 - Confounders
 - Census ; Case-mix
 - Limitations
 - No ability to adjust for individual level confounders

- <u>Cohort Study</u>
 - Individual subjects
 - Pre period = unexposed
 - Post period exposed
- Analysis: Logistic regression or cox proportional hazards model
- Outcomes
 - Duration of antibiotic use; antibiotic days; death
 - Monthly death rates
 - Confounders
 - Demographics, comorbidities; time varying covariates?
- Limitations
 - Temporal trends, other interventions; clustering



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RCT

- Unit of analysis typically the individual
- If prescriber is the target of the intervention, analysis at patient level difficult
- Given prescriber will have both intervention and control subjects
 - Contamination of the intervention
- Randomization at level of prescriber is common in stewardship studies
 - Case mix of patients will differ across prescribers and will be based on characteristics of the prescriber
 - Weighted randomization by prescriber characteristics
 - Requires having a sufficient variability in characteristics across prescribers



Efficacy v Effectiveness

<u>RCT</u>

- Efficacy trial
- Ideal setting
- Restrict inclusion criteria
- Drug v placebo
- Single endpoint
- Internal validity
- Less clinical relevance
- "Can it work?"

Comparative effectiveness

- Effectiveness trial
- Real world
- Wide spectrum of patients
- Active comparator
- Multiple endpoints
- External validity
- More clinical relevance
- "Does it work?"



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Cluster Randomized Trials

- Intervention randomized to different clusters
- Outcomes compared between intervention and control cluster
- Unit of randomization is a naturally occurring group — Hospital unit, practice site, hospital
 - No individual level randomization
 - No assumption that individuals within a group are independent
- Often used when intervention will benefit more than just a given subject
 - Infection prevention; transmission
- Unit of analysis is the group
 Hospital, practice site, unit



Cluster Randomized Trials: Advantages

- More "real world"
 - Built into workflow of clinical care
 - One intervention implemented per site
- Greater external validity
 - Broader patient/clinician eligibility
- Implementation easier
 - Clinicians/administrators
 - Fewer IRB issues (e.g., waiver of consent)
- Avoids issues of contamination
 - Particularly relevant for infectious diseases
- Randomization controls for known and unknown confounders at the cluster level



Cluster Randomized Trials: Challenges

- Requires larger number of patients than an RCT
- Difficult to standardize intervention across sites
- Important to measure adherence
 - Intention to treat analysis
 - Per-protocol analysis
- Sample size calculations can be complex
- Assessing effects on patient-level outcomes
 - Assess how data are correlated within a cluster
 - Account for this in analysis
 - Account for differences in cluster sizes (weighting)
 - Adjustment for confounding variables



Cluster Randomized Crossover Trials

- Similar to cluster-randomized trials except more interventions
- Sites randomized to sequence of 2 or more interventions
- Need for washout periods?
 - Duration depends on intervention
 - Sensitivity analyses if unclear
- Analyses similar to cluster randomized trails



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Adaptive Trials: Pros and Cons of Traditional RCTs

- Traditional Clinical Trials
- Provide the highest quality evidence for/against a hypothesis
- Can be complex, lengthy, costly
- Results can be inconclusive
- Trial protocol fixed once started
 - Unable to adjust to:
 - Emerging data
 - New literature



Huskins WC et al, Clin Infect Dis 2017

Study Design Question

Which of the following can't be modified over the course of an adaptive trial?

- A. Sample size
- B. Intervention
- C. Number of trial arms
- D. Eligible population
- E. None (i.e., all can be modified)



Study Design Question

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Adaptive Trials: Definition and Goals

- Clinical Trials with Adaptive Design
- Definition: Design that uses data that accumulates during study to modify study elements
- Nature of the change driven by accumulating data
- Plan for change is pre-specified in advance
- Elements that can be modified
 - Sample size
 - Endpoints
 - Eligible population
 - Randomization ratio
 - Number of arms



Huskins WC et al, Clin Infect Dis 2017

Adaptive Trials: Goals

- Goals
 - Provide more flexibility to study can serve as definitive test of the primary hypothesis
 - Ideally shorten study period
 - Fewer human subjects
 - Lower cost
 - Modifications need to be pre-specified
 - Design that changes in response to accumulating evidence
 - New treatments; early signals
 - Goal: increase relevance of final results



Huskins WC et al, Clin Infect Dis 2017

Adaptive Trials: Study Issues and Adaptive Design

| Study design issue identified in trial planning | Adaptive design to potentially address the issue |
|---|---|
| Imprecise estimate of control group response rate or variation in responses | Sample size adjustment |
| Imprecise magnitude and/or precision of effect size | Sample size adjustment Predicted intervals |
| Uncertainty regarding subjects most likely to experience a benefit or a toxicity | Population enrichment |
| Uncertainty regarding the optimal dose of a new drug to assess its efficacy | Seamless Phase II/III trial Multi-arm, multi-stage trial |
| Multiple drugs, drug combinations, or treatment or testing strategies need to be evaluated in a consistent and efficient manner | Multi-arm, multi-stage trial Platform trial |
| Uncommon or rare condition makes it difficult to recruit sufficient subjects | Umbrella or basket trial |
| Uncertainty or evolution in optimal endpoint(s) to evaluate efficacy or safety | Changing endpoints |



Evans SR, Publishing Trial Results. Fundamental Concepts for New Clinical Trialists. Boca Raton, FL Chapman & Hall/CRC; 2015

Adaptive Trials: Challenges (I)

- Complex to implement
- Prolonged planning process
 - How will study elements be modified in the response to accumulating data?
- Unmasking for interim results may introduce operational bias resulting in:
 - Changes in recruitment/retention of subjects
 - Adherence to the intervention
 - Objectivity of the outcome assessment
- Role of DSMB in mitigating bias
 - DSMB shouldn't be responsible for redesigning study after reviewing unmasked data



Adaptive Trials: Challenges (II)

- Design changes may be based on observed effects ultimately determined to be irrelevant clinically.
- Statistical methods for adaptive designs complex
 - Must account for inflation of the type 1- (alpha) error (false positive interpretation of trial results) associated with interim analyses
- Modifying a study element during course of trial may raise ethical concerns

– Can complicate informed consent

• May be difficult to estimate the cost for the trial



Adaptive Trials: Reporting Suggestions

Guidelines for the Reporting of Adaptive Trials

| Describe | The adaptation |
|----------|---|
| | Whether the adaptation was planned or unplanned |
| | The rationale for the adaptation |
| | When the adaptation was made |
| | Data upon which adaptation is based |
| | Whether the data were unblinded |
| | The planned process for the adaptation |
| | Who made the decision regarding adaptation |
| | Deviations from the planned process |
| | Consistency of results before vs. after the adaptation |
| Discuss | Potential biases induced by the adaptation Adequacy of firewalls to protect against operational bias |
| | The effects on error control and multiplicity context |

Extension of the CONSORT statement for adaptive trials is under development



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Pragmatic Trial (I)

- Concept arose from concerns that results from traditional trials didn't adequately inform clinical practice due to optimization of efficacy
- Pragmatic trials emphasize real-world effectiveness and thus generalizability
- Types of Intervention trials: explanatory v pragmatic
- Explanatory trials
 - Seek to confirm physiological or clinical hypothesis
 - Measure efficacy under ideal conditions
 - Carefully defined subjects
 - Further scientific knowledge
- Pragmatic trials
 - Seek to inform a clinical or policy decision
 - Measure effectiveness under more usual conditions
 - Conducted in routine clinical practice
 - Aims to inform choices about treatments



Pragmatic Trials (II)

- Treatment strategies reflect variations that occur in real clinical practice
 - Should be clearly defined
 - Not always possible to blind
 - Same treatment doesn't have to be offered to each subject
 - Allow prescriber to target different treatments to different subjects
 - The target for study is management protocol, not specific treatments
- Study population should represent patients to whom the treatments/interventions would be applied
 - Often sicker, more comorbidities
 - Excluded only if contraindicated
 - Typical Practice settings
- Outcome measures
 - Explanatory trials
 - Intermediate outcomes; understand biologic basis for response
 - Pragmatic trials
 - Represent full range of health gains
- Whether it worked, not why it worked

Assessing Trial Pragmatism

 Table 1. Nine Dimensions for Assessing the Level of Pragmatism in a Trial, as Proposed in the Pragmatic–Explanatory

 Continuum Indicator Summary 2 (PRECIS-2) Tool.*

| Dimension | Assessment of Pragmatism | |
|--|---|--|
| Recruitment of investigators and participants | | |
| Eligibility | To what extent are the participants in the trial similar to patients who would receive this intervention if it was part of usual care? | |
| Recruitment | How much extra effort is made to recruit participants over and above what would be used in the usual care setting to engage with patients? | |
| Setting | How different are the settings of the trial from the usual care setting? | |
| The intervention and its delivery within the trial | | |
| Organization | How different are the resources, provider expertise, and organization of care delivery in the intervention group of the trial from those available in usual care? | |
| Flexibility in delivery | How different is the flexibility in how the intervention is delivered from the flexibility anticipated in usual care? | |
| Flexibility in adherence | How different is the flexibility in how participants are monitored and encouraged to adhere to the intervention from the flexibility antici- pated in usual care? | |
| The nature of follow-up | | |
| Follow-up | How different is the intensity of measurement and the follow-up of participants in the trial from the typical follow-up in usual care? | |
| The nature, determination, and analysis of outcomes | | |
| Primary outcome | To what extent is the primary outcome of the trial directly relevant to participants? | |
| Primary analysis | To what extent are all data included in the analysis of the primary outcome? | |

* Information in the table is adapted from Loudon et al.²²



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