

# Certificate Program in Practice-Based Research Methods

## PBRN Methods: Clustered Designs

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# PBRN Methods: Clustered Designs

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# Content

- ▶ Background: Review some common research approaches and study designs
- ▶ Clustering: a common Features of PBRN research
- ▶ Cluster Randomized Trials
- ▶ Sample size and power
- ▶ Randomization
- ▶ Data analysis
- ▶ Heterogeneity of treatment effects
- ▶ Stepped wedge designs

# Background: Review of Some Common Concepts and Study Designs

- ▶ Retrospective: start with present and look backward at subject's history (e.g. case-control)
- ▶ Cross-sectional: a snap-shot of subjects at one point in time
- ▶ Prospective: start with present and follow subjects into the future (cohort study)
  - ▶ Retrospective cohort
- ▶ Person-time studies - time to event
- ▶ Traditional randomized controlled trial (RCT)
- ▶ **Cluster randomized trial**
- ▶ **Stepped Wedge Trials**
- ▶ Related concepts:
  - ▶ The RE-AIM Framework: Reach, Effectiveness, Adoption, Implementation, Maintenance (Glasgow)
  - ▶ Comparative effectiveness and pragmatic trials
  - ▶ Implementation and dissemination



# Clustering: a common feature of PBRN Research

- ▶ Study designs can be observational or experimental
- ▶ Retrospective, cross-sectional, or prospective time frames can all be used
- ▶ Clustering, or nesting, is a common feature of PBRN research and can apply to any of the common study designs
  - ▶ Primary type of PBRN clustering usually involves patients nested within practices (sometimes patients within clinicians within practices)
  - ▶ Can include repeated observations on patients over time (longitudinal studies) as well
  - ▶ Many studies in PBRNs have both kinds of clustering
- ▶ Study design, sampling approaches, power, statistical analysis are *all* affected by clustering

# Clustered Randomized Trial (CRT)

- ▶ CRTs are a variant of the traditional randomized controlled trial
- ▶ Randomized controlled trial is classic experimental study
  - ▶ *Patients* are randomly assigned to one of two or more groups (e.g. usual care or intervention) and we observe them to see if the intervention improves outcomes
- ▶ In clustered randomized trials in PBRNs the unit of randomization is generally the practice (occasionally some geographic unit, such as communities or counties)
- ▶ Some typical reasons for cluster instead of patient level randomization
  - ▶ Interventions may target the practice/environment rather than the patient per se
  - ▶ Contamination
  - ▶ Logistical, cost, and/or ethical concerns
- ▶ CONSORT statement: see extension for CRTs
  - ▶ <http://www.consort-statement.org>



# Designing a CRT: an example

- ▶ Start with your research question
  - ▶ Design and analysis should directly address research question and be congruent with the conceptual model
- ▶ Example
  - ▶ Research questions:
    - ▶ Will a practice facilitation approach based on the chronic care model improve patient care and clinical outcomes for diabetic patients
  - ▶ Rationale for choice of study design
    - ▶ Implementing the intervention within a practice will likely affect all patients, thus contamination would be a serious problem for a traditional RCT
  - ▶ CRT hypotheses will be a little different than in a traditional RCT
    - ▶ Improvement in quality of diabetes care will be greater for patients in practices receiving the intervention than patients in usual care
    - ▶ Improvement in HbA1c will be better for patients in practices receiving the intervention than patients in usual care

# Sample Size

- ▶ How many practices? How many patients?
  - ▶ Involve a biostatistician early in the planning stage and throughout the study
- ▶ Power analyses based on number of patients have to be adjusted for clustering
- ▶ Intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) measures the similarity of patients within practices compared to patients in other practices
  - ▶ Proportion of the total variance in outcome variable(s) accounted for by clustering - often expressed as a %
- ▶ Example: For the primary outcome of HgA1c, previous work indicates that the ICC is about 5%, ICCs for process of care outcomes can be much higher, often as high as 10%
  
- ▶ References : Donner A, Klar N. *Design and Analysis of Cluster Randomization Trials in Health Research*. London, England: Oxford University Press; 2000.
- ▶ Dickinson LM, Basu A. Multilevel modeling and practice-based research. *Ann Fam Med*. 2005 May-Jun;3 Suppl 1:S52-60.



# How to determine sample sizes for CRTs

- ▶ Determine your primary outcome variables
- ▶ Obtain an estimate of the ICC (actual data, literature, this can be challenging, sometimes we just have to guess)
- ▶ Calculate the variance inflation factor (VIF):  $(1 + (m - 1)ICC)$ , where m is the number of patients per practice
- ▶ Calculate the effective sample size: divide the proposed sample size (m x number of practices) by the VIF to get the effective sample size
- ▶ Do a traditional power analysis

Practices per group	Patients per practice	ICC	VIF	Effective sample size	Effect size	power
6	50	5%	3.45	87	.43	>80%
6	50	10%	5.9	51	.56	80%
6	50	15%	8.35	36	.67	80%
6	100	10%	10.9	55	.55	>80%
10	50	10%	5.9	85	.44	>80%

# Randomization

- ▶ Now that we know how many practices/patients we need, how do we assign them to groups?
  - ▶ Often we recruit just enough practices to do the study
  - ▶ Occasionally we have the luxury of sampling practices from a larger pool: stratified sampling may help in this case
- ▶ Generally, the number of practices to be randomized is much smaller than trials in which individuals are randomized
- ▶ Heterogeneity among practices
- ▶ Individuals within practices are more similar to each other than members of other practices
- ▶ Simple randomization can result in study arms that are very different from each other, resulting in covariate imbalance between study arms
- ▶ Stratified randomization can improve balance but doesn't always solve the imbalance problem
- ▶ Minimization methods extended to CRTs



# Covariate Constrained Randomization

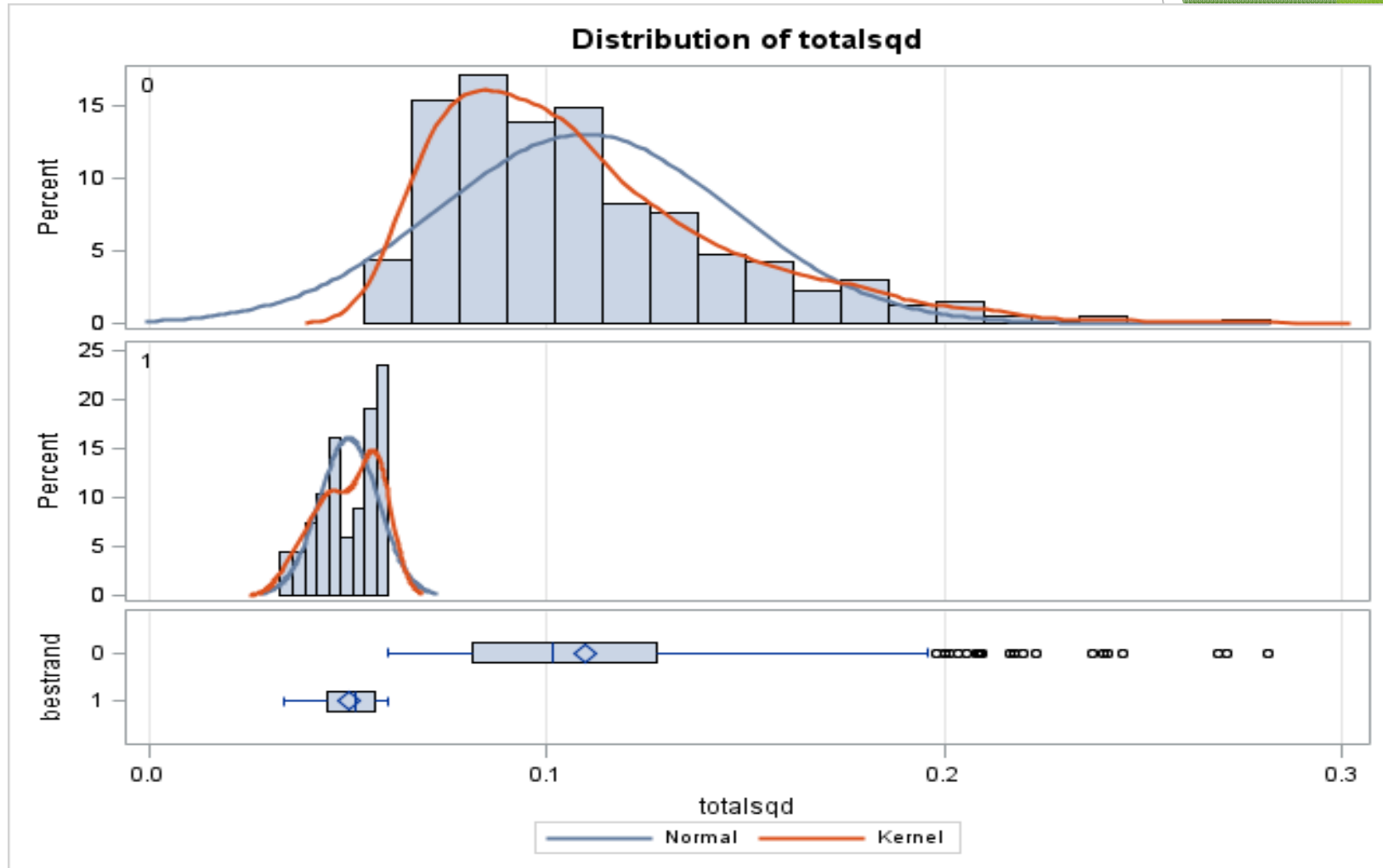
- ▶ Particularly useful for PBRNs is baseline data are available (usually summary data from practices)
- ▶ All possible randomizations of units into study groups are generated
- ▶ A balance criterion (B), defined as the sum of squared differences between study groups on relevant standardized variables, is calculated for each randomization
  - ▶  $B = (w_1(x_{11} - x_{21})^2 + w_2(x_{12} - x_{22})^2 + \dots)$
  - ▶ Where w is the weight for each selected variable, x11 is the mean for group 1, variable 1, x21 is the mean for group 2, variable 1, etc.
- ▶ Establish a criterion for maximum allowable difference between study groups and define a set of “acceptable randomizations” in which the differences between treatment groups on covariates are minimized
- ▶ A single randomization is then chosen from the set of “acceptable randomizations”
  - See Dickinson, et al, Pragmatic cluster randomized trials using covariate constrained randomization: A method for practice-based research networks (PBRNs). JABFM. 2015 Sep-Oct;28(5):663-72.

# Covariate Constrained Randomization Example: CKD Study Description

- Study objective: To test two approaches to improving care for stage 3 and 4 CKD patients in primary care practices based on the Chronic Care Model (CCM)
- Variables for Randomization aggregated to the practice level
  - Structural and sociodemographic data
    - # FTE clinicians, % African American, % Hispanic, % Medicaid or uninsured
  - Clinical data
    - % of patients with HbA1c>9, % diabetic, % stage 4 CKD, % with systolic BP>130, % with systolic BP>140
    - Mean GFR, mean HbA1c, mean systolic BP
  - Stratification variables handled as part of the procedure by restricting to randomizations with a pre-specified number in each arm by identified strata
  - ▶ Achieved balanced study arms (i.e. no significant baseline differences between study arms on aggregated practice level variables)



# Distribution of balance criterion



# Data Analysis for CRTs

- ▶ Describe the sample and address issues of external and internal validity
  - ▶ Clustering adds a level to be considered in the CONSORT diagram
    - ▶ Describe retention at both the practice and patient level
  - ▶ How representative are the patients and practices in this study of the target population? (external validity)
    - ▶ Describe practice characteristics
    - ▶ Describe patient characteristics
  - ▶ Did the randomization work?
    - ▶ Compare patients in the intervention group to controls on key variables
    - ▶ Variables that differ significantly between groups should be included as covariates in analyses
  - ▶ Analytic approaches for clustered data
  - ▶ Missingness
  - ▶ Did the intervention work?



# Did the randomization work?

- ▶ Are control and intervention groups similar on key baseline characteristics?
- ▶ Compare control and intervention groups on baseline practice and patient characteristics using t-tests and chi-square tests (unadjusted and/or adjusted)
- ▶ Example: CRT of two practice facilitation approaches to standard care for improving patient care and clinical outcomes for diabetic patients
  - ▶ Stratified randomization approach
  - ▶ Practices were similar with regard to rural vs urban location and % Medicaid
  - ▶ Patients were similar in terms of sociodemographic characteristics but differed somewhat on clinical variables
  - ▶ Baseline process of diabetes care (POC) differed between study arms
    - ▶ POC: sum of nine items from the American Diabetes Association Physician Recognition Program: HgA1c, foot exam, blood pressure, dilated eye exam, cholesterol, nephropathy screen, flu shot, nutrition counseling, and self-management support
- ▶ See Dickinson WP, et al, Practice Facilitation to Improve Diabetes Care in Primary Care: A Report from the EPIC Randomized Clinical Trial *Annals of Family Medicine*. 2014; 12(1)8-16.

# Longitudinal studies: very important to assess for mechanisms of missingness

- ▶ Simplest form of missingness is patient dropout sometime after baseline
  - ▶ For dropouts vs completers
    - ▶ Compare baseline characteristics using chi-square tests, t-tests, Kendall's tau
    - ▶ Compare values of the outcome variable at all observed timepoints
- ▶ Key terms
  - ▶ MCAR: Missing completely at random - missingness not associated with any observed variables
  - ▶ MAR: Missing at random - missingness associated with baseline or subsequent observed variables
  - ▶ MNAR: Missing not at random - missingness associated with unobserved characteristics (i.e. patient becomes very ill and drops out)
  - ▶ MCAR and MAR are “ignorable” and can be handled analytically using likelihood based models with covariates associated with missingness included
  - ▶ MCAR is “non-ignorable” and requires special approaches
- ▶ See Fairclough book for more complex situations, including non-ignorable missingness
  - ▶ Fairclough DL: Design and analysis of quality of life studies in clinical trials. New York, Chapman & Hall/CRC, 2010



# Data Analysis for CRTs

- ▶ Some common analytic methods for non-clustered data
  - ▶ Simple stats for associations: chi-square tests and t-tests (we use these to compare study groups on baseline data)
  - ▶ Multiple logistic (dichotomous outcome) or linear (continuous outcome) with categorical or continuous predictors
  - ▶ Survival analysis (e.g. Cox proportional hazards) - outcome is time to event
- ▶ Some common analytic approaches for clustered data
  - ▶ General (or generalized) linear mixed models (GLMM) (sometimes called mixed effects regression models, multilevel or hierarchical models )
    - ▶ Often used to adjust for clustering (e.g. patients within practices) or longitudinal studies with repeated measures on patients, or both
    - ▶ GLMMs are a likelihood based approach and can accommodate certain kinds of missing data as well as clustering
  - ▶ Generalized estimating equations (GEE)
    - ▶ Sometimes used instead of GLMMs, assumptions are different
  - ▶ Survival analysis (Cox proportional hazards) - clustered survival analysis can be done

# Did the intervention work?

- ▶ Since the data are clustered, general linear mixed effects models used for analysis
- ▶ Random effect for patient and practice
- ▶ Outcome: diabetes POC over time (baseline, 9 months, 18 months)
- ▶ Virtually no patient dropout
  - ▶ Patient outcomes were obtained retrospectively after the end of the study period on a random sample of patients from each practice using chart review
  - ▶ Eligibility criteria included having a visit to the practice sometime during the study period
- ▶ Covariate selection is important
  - ▶ One approach is to include all covariates associated with the outcome with p-values less than 0.15 to 0.20 in bivariate tests, along with all covariates that are clinically meaningful (e.g. gender), associated with dropout, or differ between groups



# Hierarchical and longitudinal model

- ▶ Two levels of nesting: Observations are nested within patients (baseline, 9 months, 18 months) and patients are nested within practices
- ▶ The intervention effect is actually the time\*arm term, which estimates how much patient trajectories over time differ for intervention vs controls
  - ▶ Standard care: education and resources only
  - ▶ CQI: practice facilitation using continuous quality improvement approach
  - ▶ RAP: practice facilitation using a reflective adaptive process
- ▶ Basic SAS program is a random intercepts model (it is also possible to include random slopes)

```
PROC MIXED DATA = epic.patient METHOD = ML noclprint covtest;
```

```
CLASS practice id arm time racethnicity married education comorbidity insurance;
```

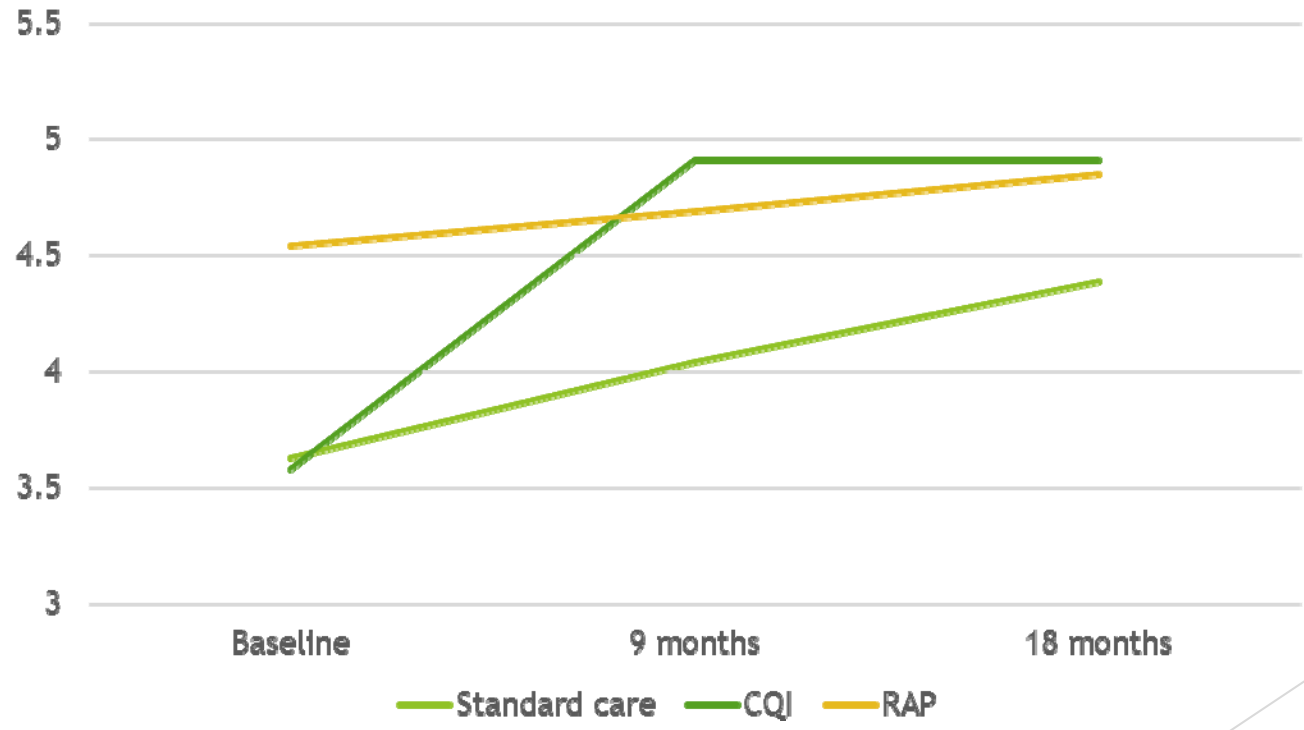
```
MODEL POCdiabetes = female age racethnicity married education comorbid insurance arm time time*arm / ddfm=betwithin solution;
```

```
random intercept /sub=id(practice) type = un;
```

```
random intercept /sub=practice type = un ;
```

```
Run;
```

# Colorado Epic Study: effectiveness of two approaches to practice facilitation on diabetes process of care



Overall test for differences in trend:  $p < .001$



# Moderation and heterogeneity of treatment effects

- ▶ Heterogeneity of treatment effects: response to intervention varies by patient or practice characteristics
  - ▶ A differential treatment effect involves a baseline moderator variable (sometimes called effect modification)
- ▶ In the diabetes study example, contextual effects of practice culture were examined\*
- ▶ Practice Culture: measured by clinician/staff survey at baseline
  - ▶ Change culture (CC): high scores are better
  - ▶ Work culture (WC): high scores are better
- ▶ We hypothesized that change culture and work culture would *moderate* intervention effectiveness on diabetes POC,
- ▶ That is, practices with higher change culture and work culture scores at baseline would respond better (i.e. improve more) to the practice facilitation intervention
- ▶ Only two study arms are shown in this example

See Dickinson LM, et al, Practice context affects efforts to improve diabetes care for primary care patients: A pragmatic cluster randomized trial. *Journal of General Internal Medicine*. 2015; 30:476-82.

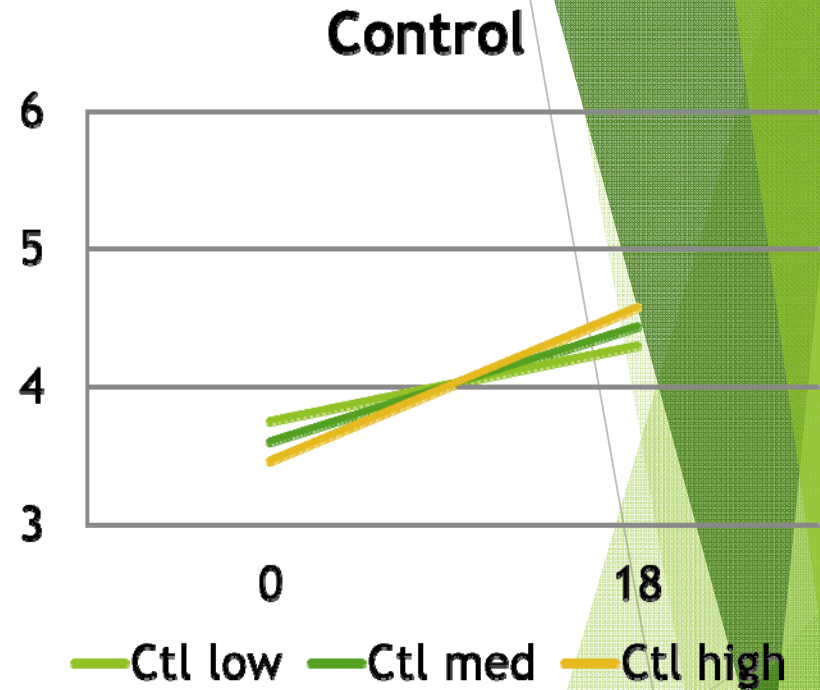
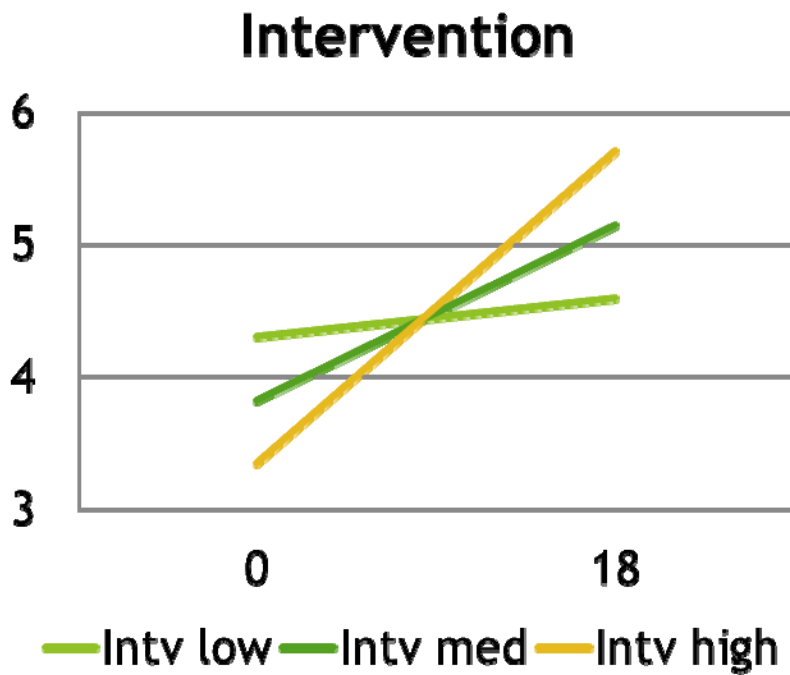
# Multilevel model with practice and patient random intercepts

- ▶ Basic SAS Code (covariates not shown):
- ▶ Moderator analysis for a longitudinal study requires:
  - ▶ All main effects of interest (WC, arm, time)
  - ▶ All relevant two-way interactions
  - ▶ The three-way interaction of interest: differential intervention effect
- ▶ SAS code is the same for practice or patient moderator but underlying statistical model is different
- ▶ WC is the average practice level score on the Work Culture subscale of the Practice Culture Assessment survey

```
PROC MIXED DATA = epic.patient METHOD = ML noclprint covtest;  
CLASS practice id arm ;  
MODEL POCdiabetes = arm time WC time*arm time*WC arm*WC arm*WC*time  
/ ddfm=betwithin solution;  
random intercept /sub=id(practice) type = un;  
random intercept /sub=practice type = un ;  
Run;
```



# Differential intervention effects by practice level baseline work culture scores



- ▶ Outcome is diabetes process of care
- ▶ Intervention effects differed by work culture:  $p < .0001$
- ▶ Greater improvement in intervention practices with higher WC scores

# Stepped Wedge Designs

- ▶ Type of crossover design that's useful when interventions likely to be effective can't be withheld from some practices
  - ▶ In practice-based research clusters are generally practices; we use the terms interchangeably here
  - ▶ Practices cross over from one condition to another at different times (0=control, 1=intervention)
  - ▶ Clusters are randomized to an intervention initiation *order*

		<u>Parallel</u>			<u>Crossover</u>			<u>Stepped Wedge</u>			
		Time			Time			Time			
			1				1	2	3	4	5
Cluster	1	1	1	Cluster	1	1	0	1	1	1	1
Cluster	2	1	1	Cluster	2	1	0	0	0	1	1
Cluster	3	0	0	Cluster	3	0	1	0	0	1	1
Cluster	4	0	0	Cluster	4	0	1	0	0	0	1

Hussey & Hughes (2007), *Contemporary Clinical Trials*, Design and analysis of stepped wedge CRT



# Stepped Wedge: Randomization and Intervention Initiation

- ▶ At the beginning of the trial, all clusters are randomized to an *order* and assigned to a step based on that order
  - ▶ In the first time block all clusters are in the control phase
- ▶ All clusters (practices) ultimately receive the intervention
  - ▶ Randomized intervention initiation order determines *when* (not if) a cluster receives the intervention By the last time block all clusters are in the intervention phase
  - ▶ By the last time block all clusters are in the intervention phase
- ▶ Traditionally, all *clusters* are recruited and enrolled at baseline and followed for the entire duration of the study (unless retrospective data are available)
- ▶ Outcomes measured for every cell (e.g. every time interval for every cluster)

# Two Key Design Variations

- ▶ Repeated cross-sectional: Clusters cross over but individuals are designated as either control or intervention, depending on point of entry
  - ▶ Individuals enrolled during the control phase for that cluster are control subjects
  - ▶ Individuals enrolled during the intervention phase for that cluster are intervention subjects
  - ▶ Control and intervention groups consist of *different* individuals
- ▶ Cohort: Clusters cross over and *individuals change* from control to intervention condition at the time of the cross-over for the cluster
  - ▶ The *same individuals* are in the control and intervention phases
  - ▶ Individuals, as well as clusters, are followed throughout the entire study period
- ▶ Both can occur in the same study



# Stepped Wedge Trials: sample size and analytic considerations

- ▶ Power analysis for stepped wedge is complex: involve your biostatistician early in planning phase
  - ▶ Greater power than a parallel group CRT but less than traditional RCT
  - ▶ Can adjust for temporal trend
  - ▶ General or generalized linear mixed models can be used for analysis
- 
- ▶ References: Hussey & Hughes (2007), *Contemporary Clinical Trials*, Design and analysis of stepped wedge CRT
  - ▶ Brown CA, Lilford RJ. [The stepped wedge trial design: a systematic review. \(link is external\)](#) BMC Med Res Methodol. 2006;6:54.
  - ▶ AHRQ Stepped Wedge webinar: <https://pbrn.ahrq.gov/events/advanced-methods-primary-care-research-stepped-wedge-design>

# Stepped Wedge Example: Implementing Networks' Self- management Tools Through Engaging Patients and Practices (INSTTEPP)\*

## ▶ Aims

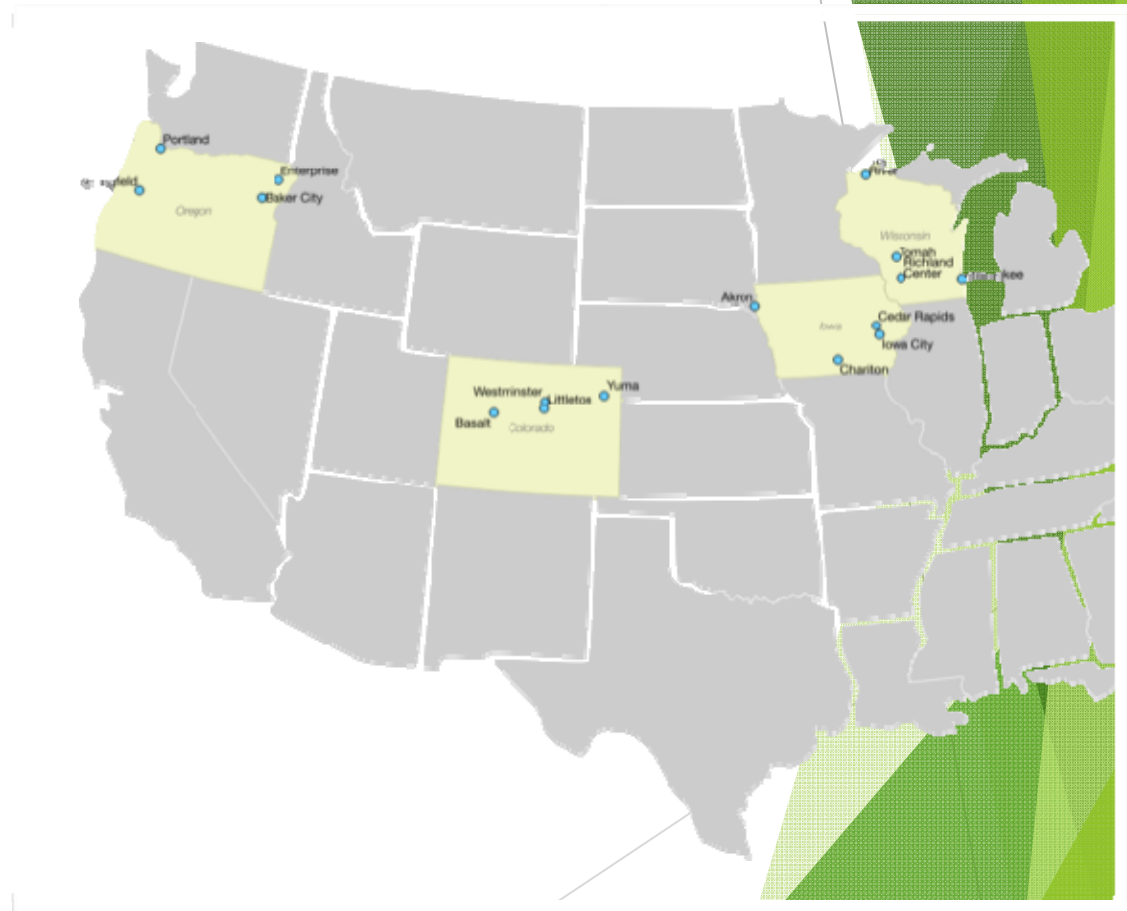
- ▶ 1. Implement the AHRQ SMS Library/Toolkit across four participating networks and 16 practices using Boot Camp Translation in a stepped-wedge design with 5 time blocks
- ▶ 2. Assess the impact of implementation on practice staff and patients engaged in chronic care management.
- ▶ 3. Identify the factors related to successful implementation

\*funded by AHRQ



# INSTTEPP

- ▶ 4 PBRN's (SNOCAP, ORPRN, WREN & IRENE)
- ▶ 16 practices
- ▶ 320 patients
- ▶ > 80 clinicians and staff



# INSTTEPP Study Design

- ▶ **Repeated cross-sectional for patients:** Surveys (Patient Activation Measure & PACIC, self-reported health) **at baseline, 1 month, and 2 months after enrollment**
  - ▶ Patients enrolled during the control phase receive usual care
  - ▶ Patients enrolled during the intervention phase receive the intervention (AHRQ SMS Toolkit), with tailored delivery for each PBRN
- ▶ **Cohort design for practice members:** Surveys (CS-PAM & Theory of Planned Behavior) **during each of the 5 time blocks**
  - ▶ Clinicians/staff are in the control condition as long as the practice is in the control phase
  - ▶ Clinicians/staff cross over to the intervention phase when the practice crosses over



**Slide 30**

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**DM1**

I don't understand this - there were 3 surveys for patients and 5 for clinicians

Dickinson, Miriam, 10/13/2015

# Results: Patient Outcomes - greater improvement in PACIC and self-reported health

	Survey	Control	Intervention	Differential Intervention Effect
<b>Patient Activation Measure</b>	1	66.72	66.07	F(,840)=0.87, p=.3515
	2	66.79	66.72	
	3	66.86	67.36	
<b>Process of Care (from PACIC)</b>	1	31.32	30.19	F(1,791)=16.75, p<.0001
	2	30.76	31.25	
	3	30.20	32.32	
<b>Self-reported health (lower score is better)</b>	1	3.17	3.35	F(1,832)=4.89, p=.0273
	2	3.16	3.25	
	3	3.16	3.16	

Adjusted for age, gender, number of chronic conditions, diabetes, chronic pain



# Summary

- ▶ Key considerations in choosing a study design
  - ▶ Research question
  - ▶ Observational or experimental
  - ▶ Time frame
  - ▶ Budget and resources
  - ▶ Logistical and/or ethical concerns
  - ▶ Clustered designs
    - ▶ Parallel vs stepped wedge
    - ▶ Implications for sample size and power
    - ▶ Implications for randomization
    - ▶ Implications for measurement (especially stepped wedge)
    - ▶ Implications for data analysis

# References

- ▶ Dickinson LM, Basu A. Multilevel modeling and practice-based research. *Ann Fam Med*. 2005 May-Jun;3 Suppl 1:S52-60.
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- ▶ Dickinson WP, et al, Practice Facilitation to Improve Diabetes Care in Primary Care: A Report from the EPIC Randomized Clinical Trial *Annals of Family Medicine*. 2014; 12(1)8-16.



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- ▶ Dickinson LM, et al, Practice context affects efforts to improve diabetes care for primary care patients: A pragmatic cluster randomized trial. Journal of General Internal Medicine. 2015; 30:476-82.
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