



PATIENT-CENTERED OUTCOMES RESEARCH INSTITUTE

# PCORI Methodology Standards: Academic Curriculum



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# Module 4: Planning a Nonexperimental Study

## Category 8: Causal Inference Methods

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# Planning a Nonexperimental Study

- When setting out to estimate a causal effect in a nonexperimental study, need to make many choices
  - ▶ Treatment and comparison conditions: What is the causal contrast of interest?
  - ▶ Population of interest
  - ▶ Outcomes and their timing
  - ▶ Dataset, study design
- Plan and pre-specify the same way it would be done in a randomized experiment

# Specifying Treatment and Comparison Conditions

- First step is to state very clearly the treatment and comparison conditions
  - ▶ What is the relevant causal contrast?
- For example, in a study of a new case management program for individuals with severe mental illness, what is the comparison condition?
  - ▶ “Usual care”?
  - ▶ A less intense intervention?
- For example, in a study of the effect of statins on acute myocardial infarction rates:
  - ▶ What is the comparison condition? No statin? No treatment? One type of statin vs. another?
  - ▶ What is the “exposure” to statins required? One prescription? 60 days? 90 days?
- One is not necessarily right or wrong; they answer different scientific questions

# Specifying the Population of Interest

- Need to be clear about who the individuals under study should be
  - ▶ Generally, those for whom the causal contrast is relevant
  - ▶ For example, individuals newly diagnosed with depression and trying to decide on treatment options
- Connect this population with the data to be examined
  - ▶ For example, don't include individuals for whom the treatment choice is not relevant
- In study reports, document clearly who is in the analysis sample

# Example: CATIE Trial

- CATIE trial on the effectiveness of antipsychotic drugs among individuals with schizophrenia
  - ▶ Individuals randomized to one of five antipsychotics (first and second generation)
- Population of interest
  - ▶ 18-65 years old
  - ▶ Diagnosed with schizophrenia, as based on DSM-IV
  - ▶ Able to take oral antipsychotic medication
  - ▶ Excluded from the trial were those who had certain co-occurring conditions or history of treatment resistance

# Use Only Covariates to Define a Population

- A population should be defined based on the characteristics measured at the time of treatment choice or before
  - ▶ Not on things that may be affected by the treatment, such as side effects, outcomes, or adherence to the intervention
  - ▶ This is true when exposure is time-varying as well
- In a prospective study, such as a randomized trial, use the time of study entry to define the study population
  - ▶ All individuals randomized should be included in the analysis
- In a retrospective study, use a defined time period prior to exposure to define the study population
  - ▶ Similar to inclusion/exclusion criteria in a randomized trial

# Define Outcomes Clearly

- Specify in advance what the outcome(s) of interest is
- Clarify timing with respect to initiation and duration of the exposure
  - ▶ Must be measured after the exposure
  - ▶ For example, the number of missed days of work after 3, 6, and 12 months following the initiation of talk therapy or medication for depression
- CATIE trial:
  - ▶ Primary outcome: discontinuation of treatment for any reason
  - ▶ Secondary outcomes: reasons for discontinuation (e.g., weight gain), symptom scores
  - ▶ Measured at 1, 3, 6, 9, 12, 15, and 18 months after randomization

# Develop Understanding of Why People Got Which Treatment

- In choosing a nonexperimental study design, it helps to understand why some people got one treatment vs. another
  - ▶ Confounding by indication?
  - ▶ Qualitative interviews can help this
- Especially, do we observe the characteristics based on which treatment choices were made?
  - ▶ Was a doctor choosing based on factors observed in the electronic health record?
  - ▶ Or was the patient choosing—potentially based on some factors we can't observe?
- Polsky et al. (*PharmacoEconomics*, 2009): value in including clinical baseline hemoglobin levels when comparing different erythropoiesis-stimulating agents
  - ▶ This is especially true if the treatment choice depends on the clinical measures

# Confounding by Indication

- A particular concern in this regard is confounding by indication
- Those given a treatment of interest may be those individuals who are the most sick/the most at risk for the outcome
- For example, blood pressure medication may look like it increases risk of heart attacks, but only because it is given to people at higher risk for heart attacks

# Document Potential Confounders and Their Timing

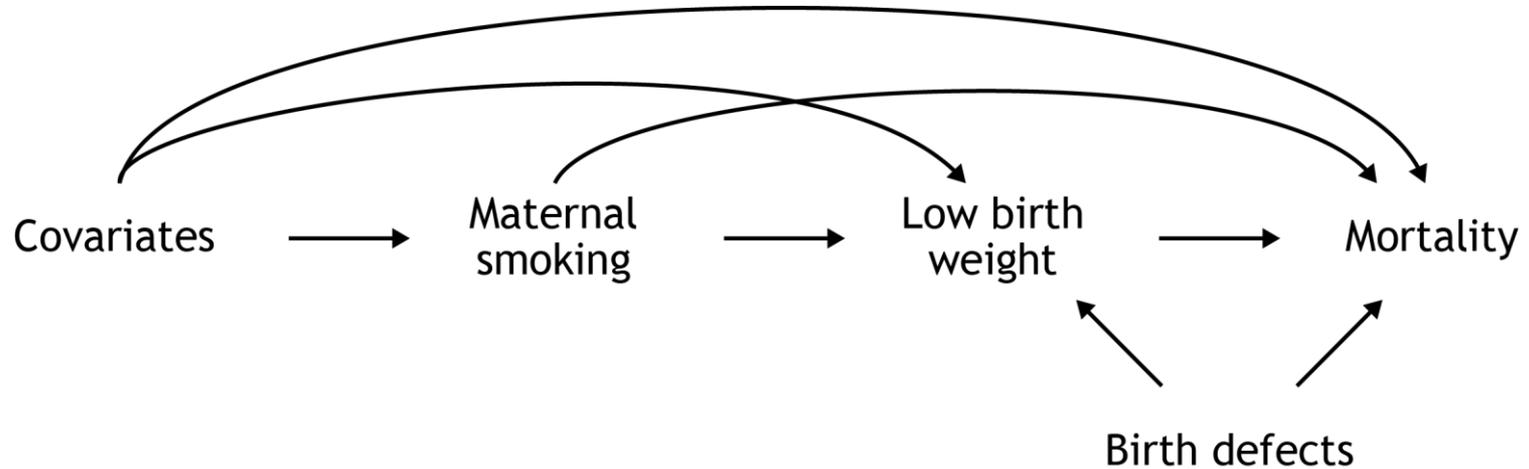
- Measure confounders before the start of the exposure
  - ▶ Also true in a setting with time-varying exposure
- Ensure not affected by exposure
- Report data on the confounders with the study results
  - ▶ For example, similarities or differences between groups

# Danger in Adjusting for Post-exposure Variables

- Adjusting for variables that may be affected by the exposure (e.g., are measured after exposure) can cause bias
- Example: conditioning on birth weight when estimating association between exposure during pregnancy and some perinatal outcome can cause bias\*
  - ▶ For example, when looking at smoking and infant mortality, conditioning on birth weight can cause the appearance of a protective effect from smoking
  - ▶ Smoking appears protective when looking at lowest birth weight babies

# Graphical Model from VanderWeele et al. (2012)

- Essentially, low birth weight babies from mothers who did and didn't smoke are likely very different from one another in lots of ways



# Choice of Study Designs and Datasets

- An understanding of the extent of confounding can help in the selection of a study design and dataset
- Do we observe most of the ways in which we think individuals in different treatment conditions differ? Or could there be strong unobserved differences?
  - ▶ Are some datasets more comprehensive in terms of having potential confounders observed?
  - ▶ If a set of observed confounders is relatively weak, methods such as instrumental variables may be more appealing
- What sorts of study designs for a nonexperimental study may be appropriate to enhance causal inferences?

# Conclusions

- When estimating causal effects in experimental or nonexperimental studies, it is important to clearly specify the population, the causal contrast of interest, the outcomes
  - ▶ Make sure that the population is not defined on the basis of post-treatment variables
- In nonexperimental studies, it may be useful to think about how the study would be designed if it were a randomized experiment