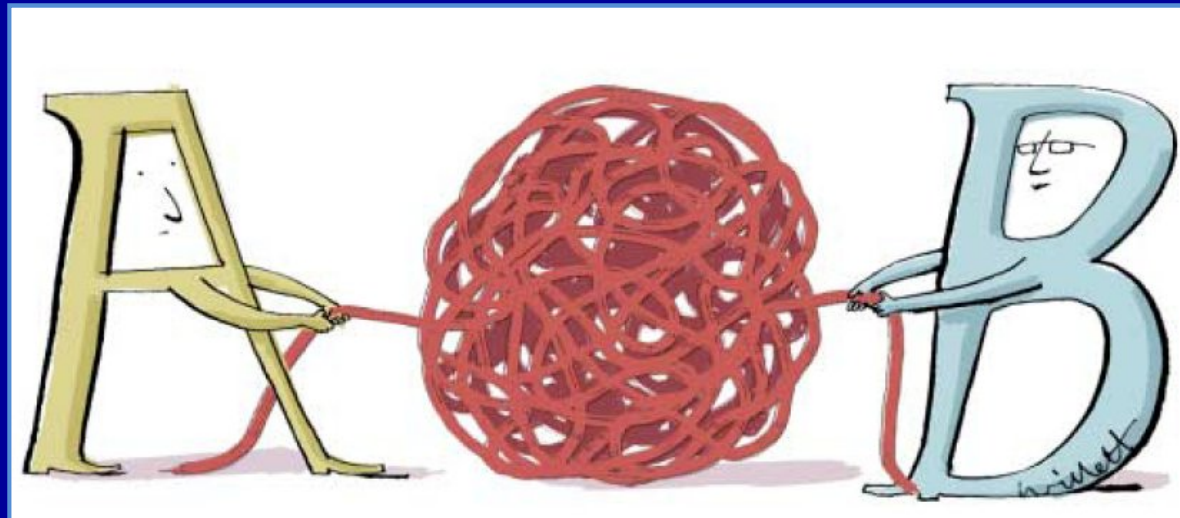


# Critical appraisal of randomized clinical trial?

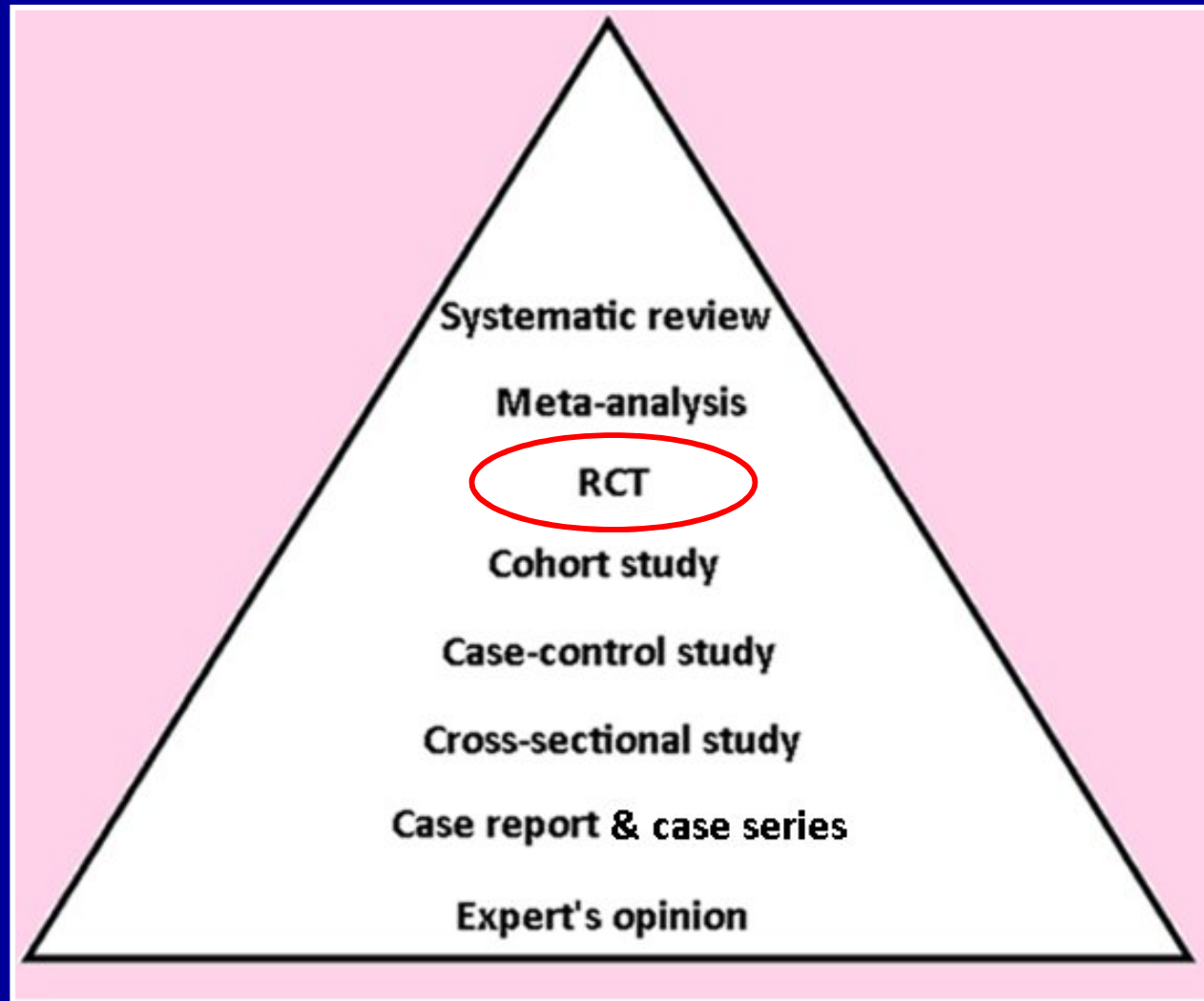


**Samir Haffar M.D.**

Assistant Professor of Gastroenterology

Al-Mouassat University Hospital – Damascus – Syria

# Hierarchy of evidence in quantitative studies



McGovern D, Summerskill W, Valori R, Levi M. Key topics in EBM.  
BIOS Scientific Publishers, 1<sup>st</sup> Edition, Oxford, 2001.

# BRITISH MEDICAL JOURNAL

LONDON SATURDAY OCTOBER 30 1948

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STREPTOMYCIN TREATMENT OF PULMONARY TUBERCULOSIS  
A MEDICAL RESEARCH COUNCIL INVESTIGATION

**Perhaps the first large-scale clinical trial using  
a properly designed randomized schema**

# Sir Austin Bradford Hill (1897-1991)



**British epidemiologist & statistician**

**The father of modern RCTs**

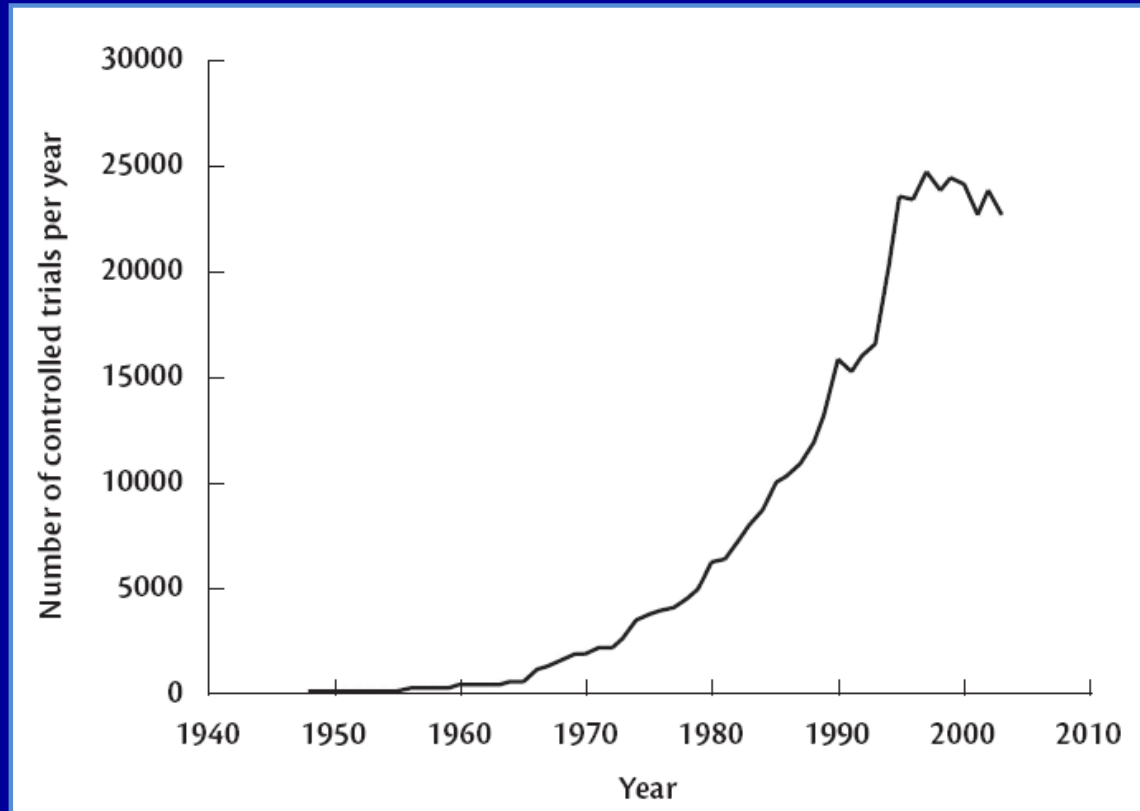
# First RCT in the United States

1951

NIH started a study of adrenocorticotrophic hormone (ACTH), cortisone & aspirin in the treatment of rheumatic heart disease\*

\* Rheumatic Fever Working Party. Circulation 1960 ; 22 : 505 – 15.

# Number of RCT per year

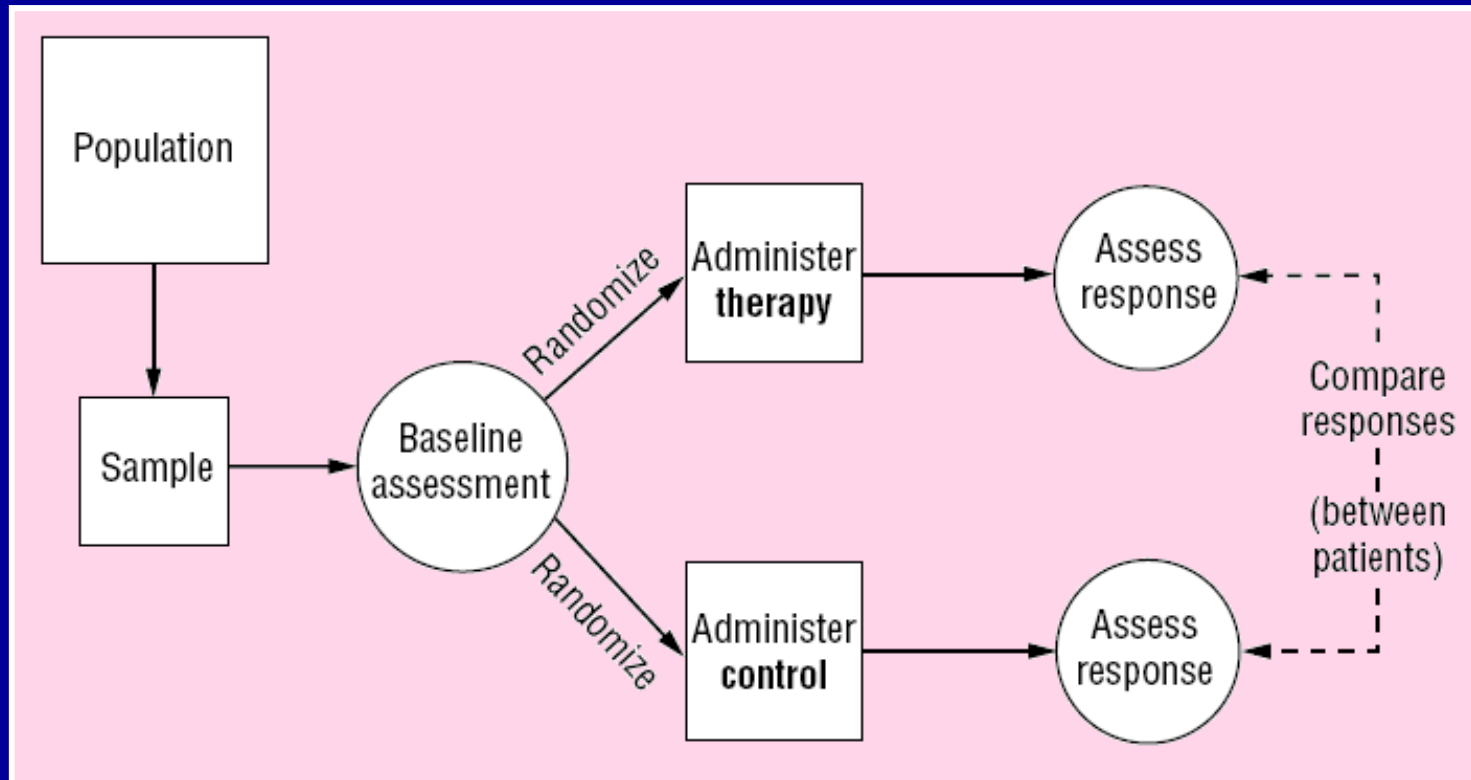


**$\approx 20,000$  trials published each year**  
 **$> 500,000$  trials in total**

Glasziou P, Del Mar C. Evidence based practice workbook.  
Blackwell Publishing, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, 2007.

# Basic structure of a RCT

## Parallel trial



Parallel trial is the most frequently used design

# Basics of RCT – 1

- **Participants**

Patients – relatives of pts – healthy volunteers – groups

- **Investigators**

People who design & carry out study & analyze results

- **Interventions**

Preventive strategies, screening, & treatments



# Basics of RCT – 2

**Control group should receive one of the following:**

**① Placebo**

Inert pills that appear identical to trial therapy

**② Gold standard therapy**

It may be unethical to treat patient with placebo

**③ New treatment**

# Basics of RCT – 3

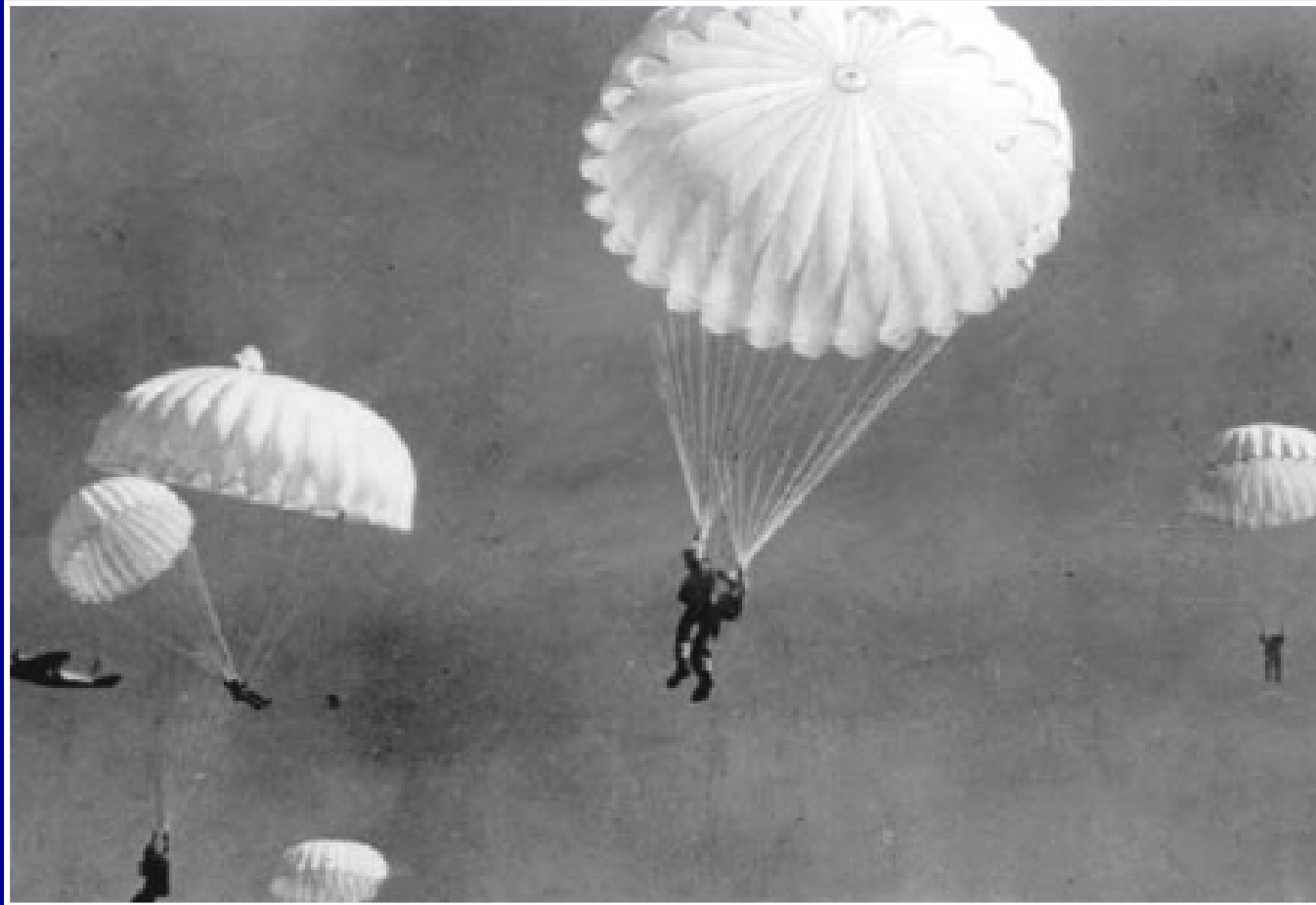
RCTs are regarded as

- **Quantitative** studies (quantified outcomes)
- Most rigorous method of **hypothesis testing**
- **Experimental** studies versus observational studies
- Gold standard to evaluate **effectiveness of interventions**

# Some historical examples of treatments with dramatic effects

- Insulin for diabetes
- Blood transfusion for severe hemorrhagic shock
- Defibrillation for ventricular fibrillation
- Neostigmine for myasthenia gravis
- Tracheotomy for tracheal obstruction
- Drainage for pain associated with abscesses
- Pressure or suturing for arresting hemorrhage

**Parachutes reduce risk of injury after gravitational challenge**  
**Their effectiveness has not been proved with RCTs**



# Ethics committee

- **Include:**

Layman, religious man, lawyers, researchers & clinicians

- **Responsibilities:**

Protect rights & welfare of research subjects

Determine if the potential benefits warrant the risks

Ensure that **informed consent** is obtained

Prevent unscientific or unethical research

# The trial team

- Principal investigator
- Trial coordinator or manager
- Trial programmer
- Data manager or clerks
- Trial statistician
  - Planning phase
  - Interim analyses
  - Final analysis
- Trial secretary



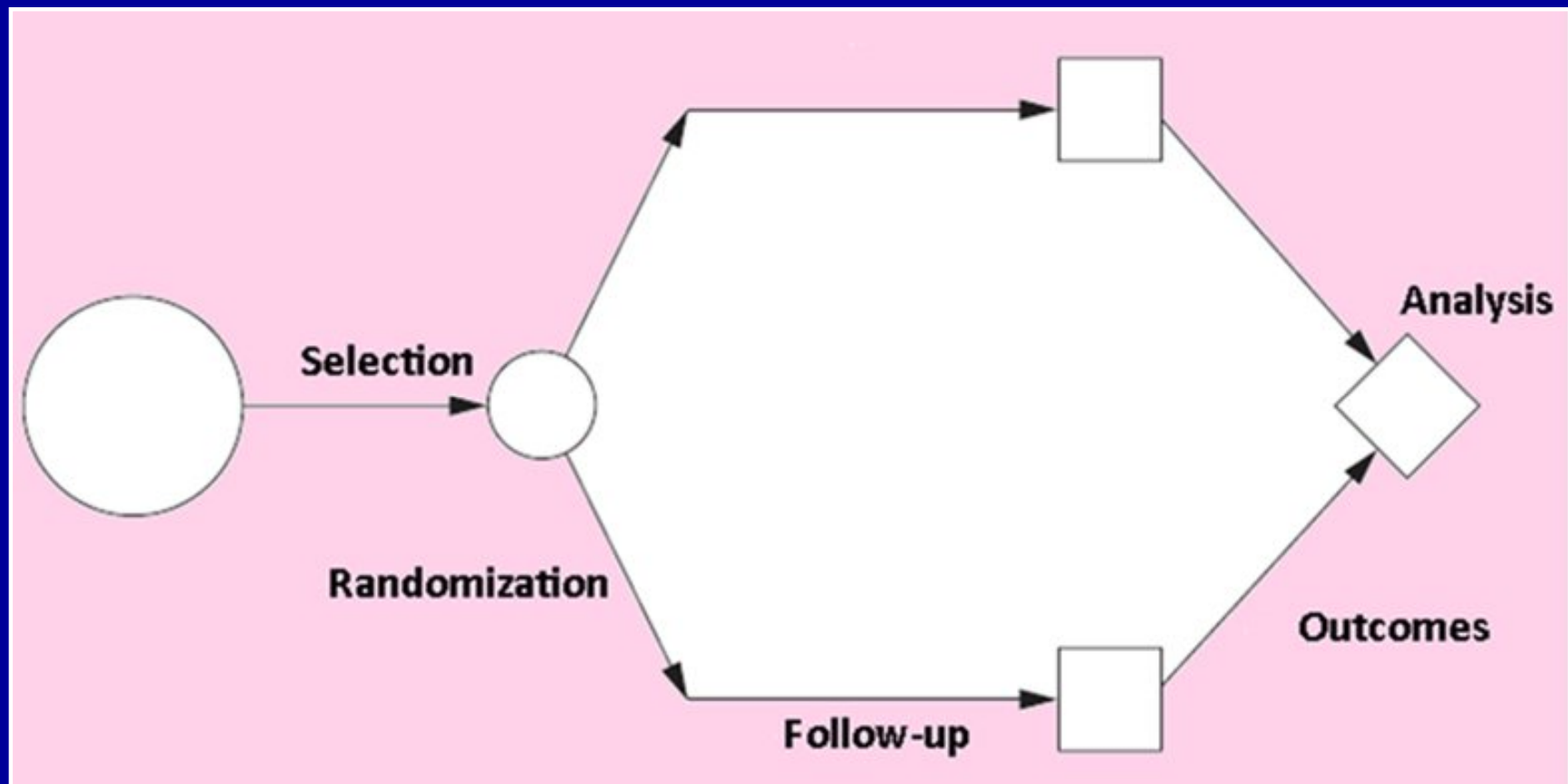
# Randomized controlled trial

- ① Sample size
- ② Randomization
- ③ Blinding (Masking)
- ④ Outcomes
- ⑤ Intention to treat analysis (ITT)
- ⑥ Measurement of treatment effect
- ⑦ Applicability of results to your patients



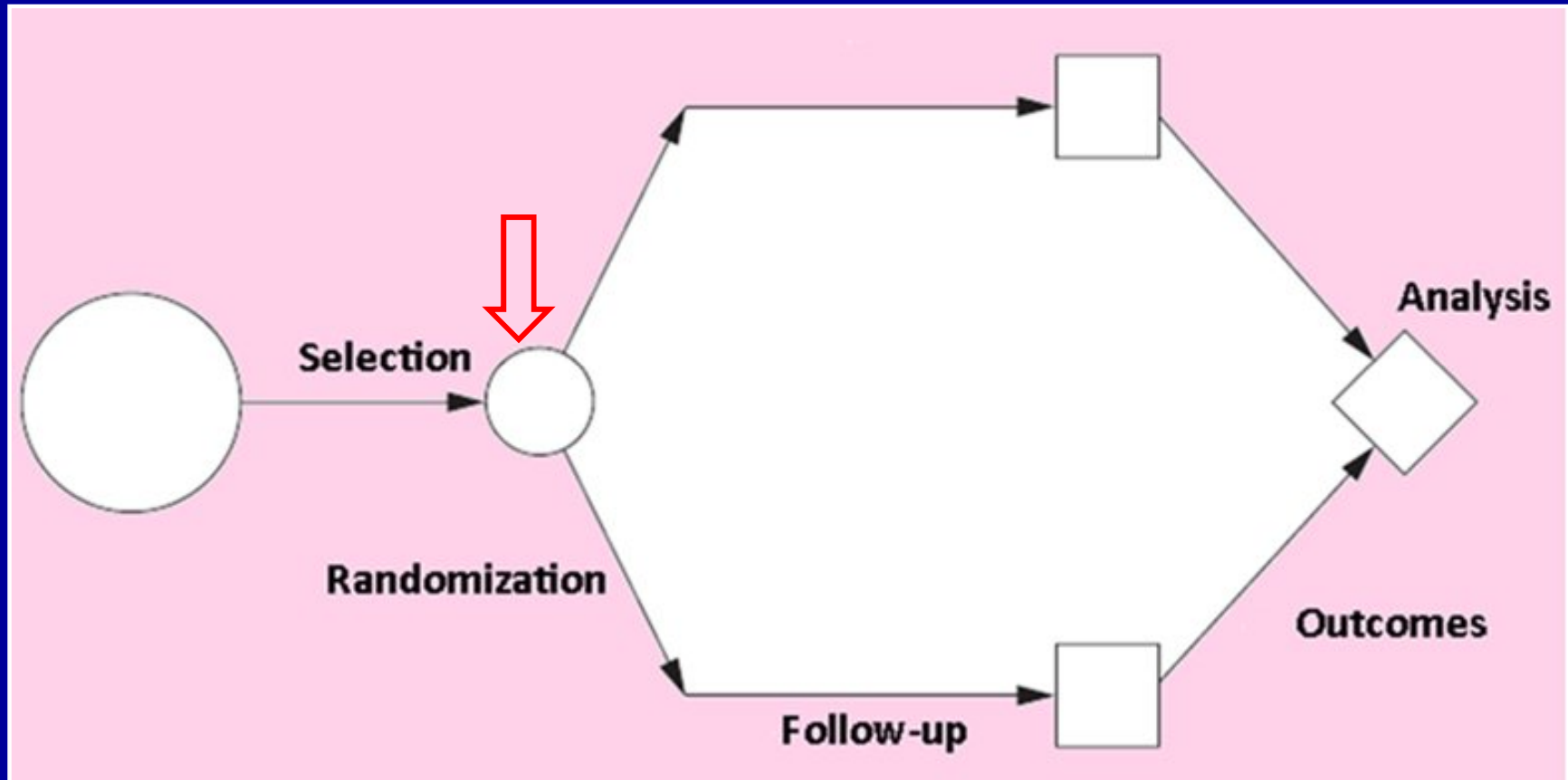
**Critical appraisal**

# Flow diagram for a RCT

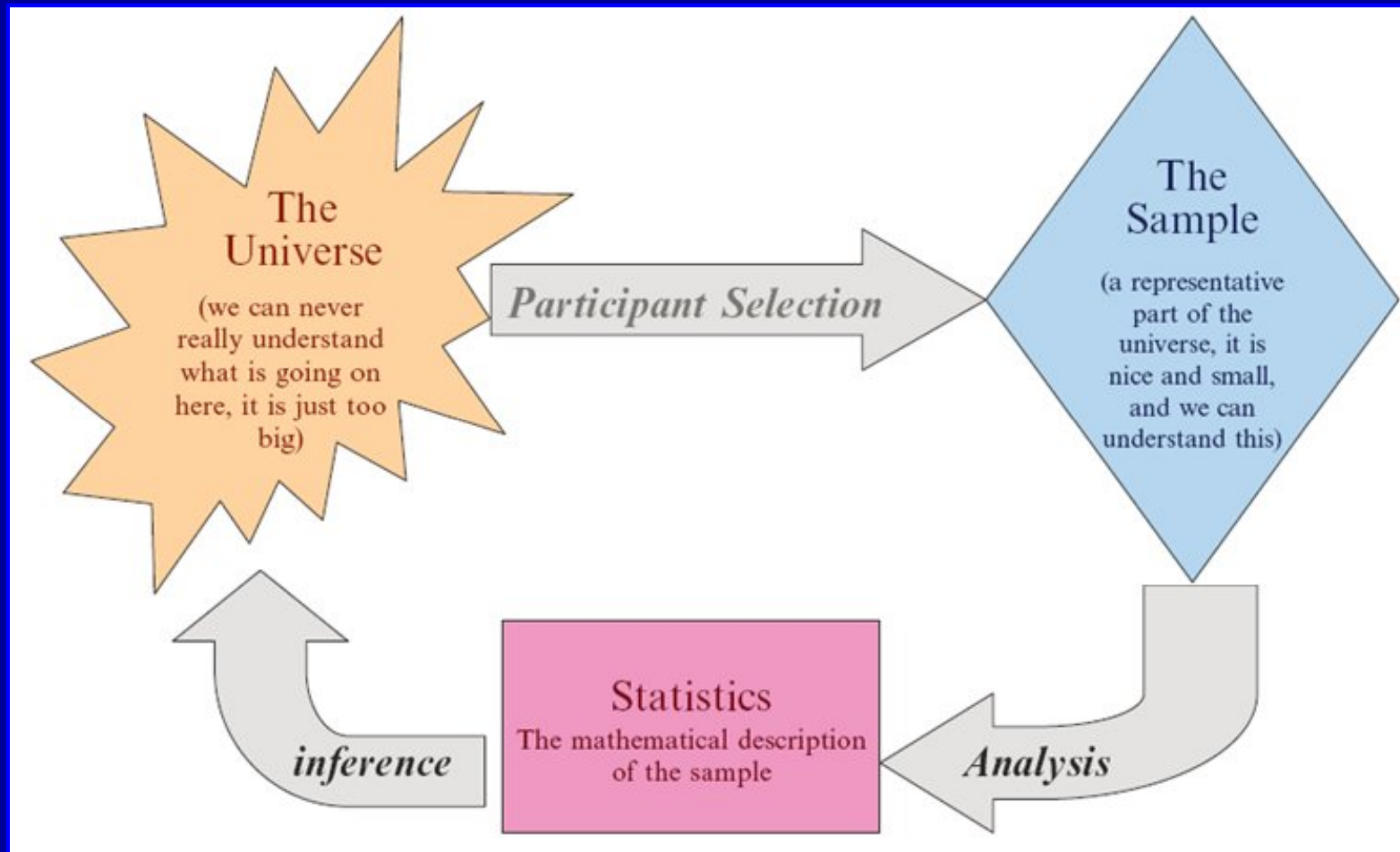




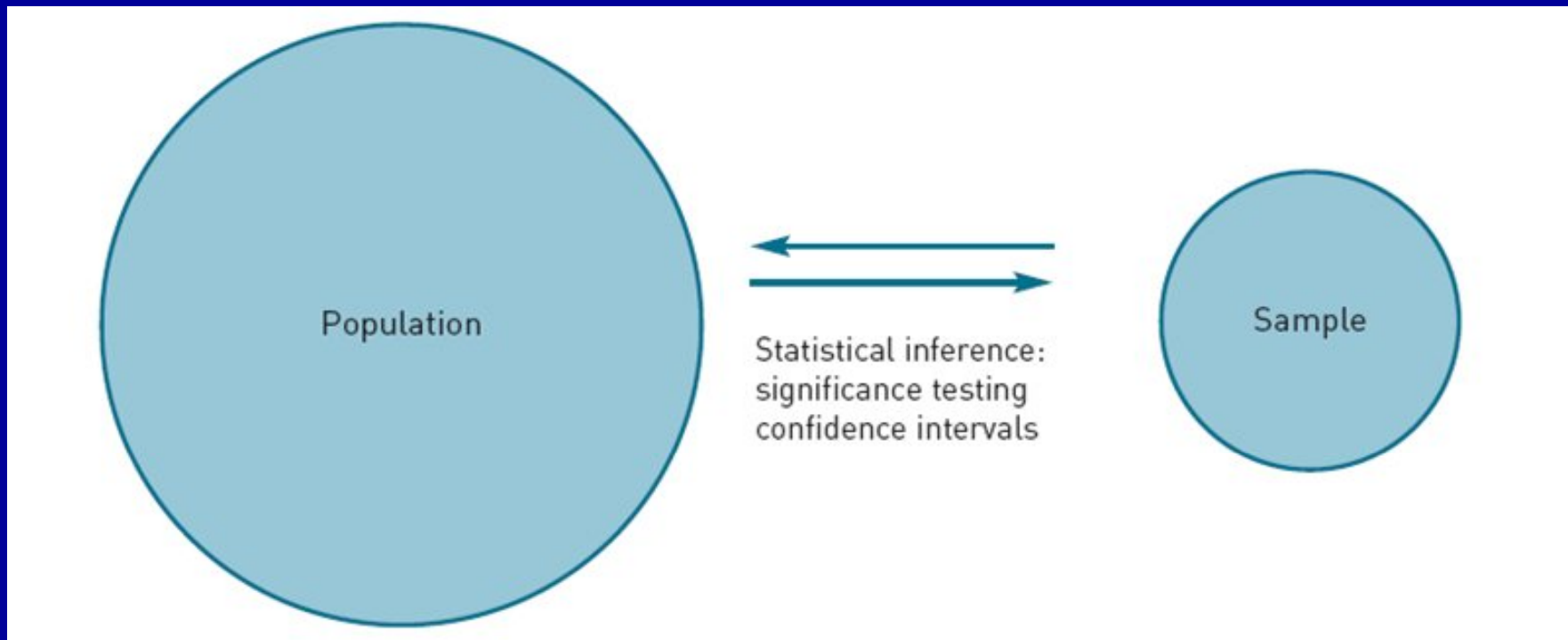
# ① Sample size in RCTs



# The “Universe” & the “Sample”



# Statistical inference

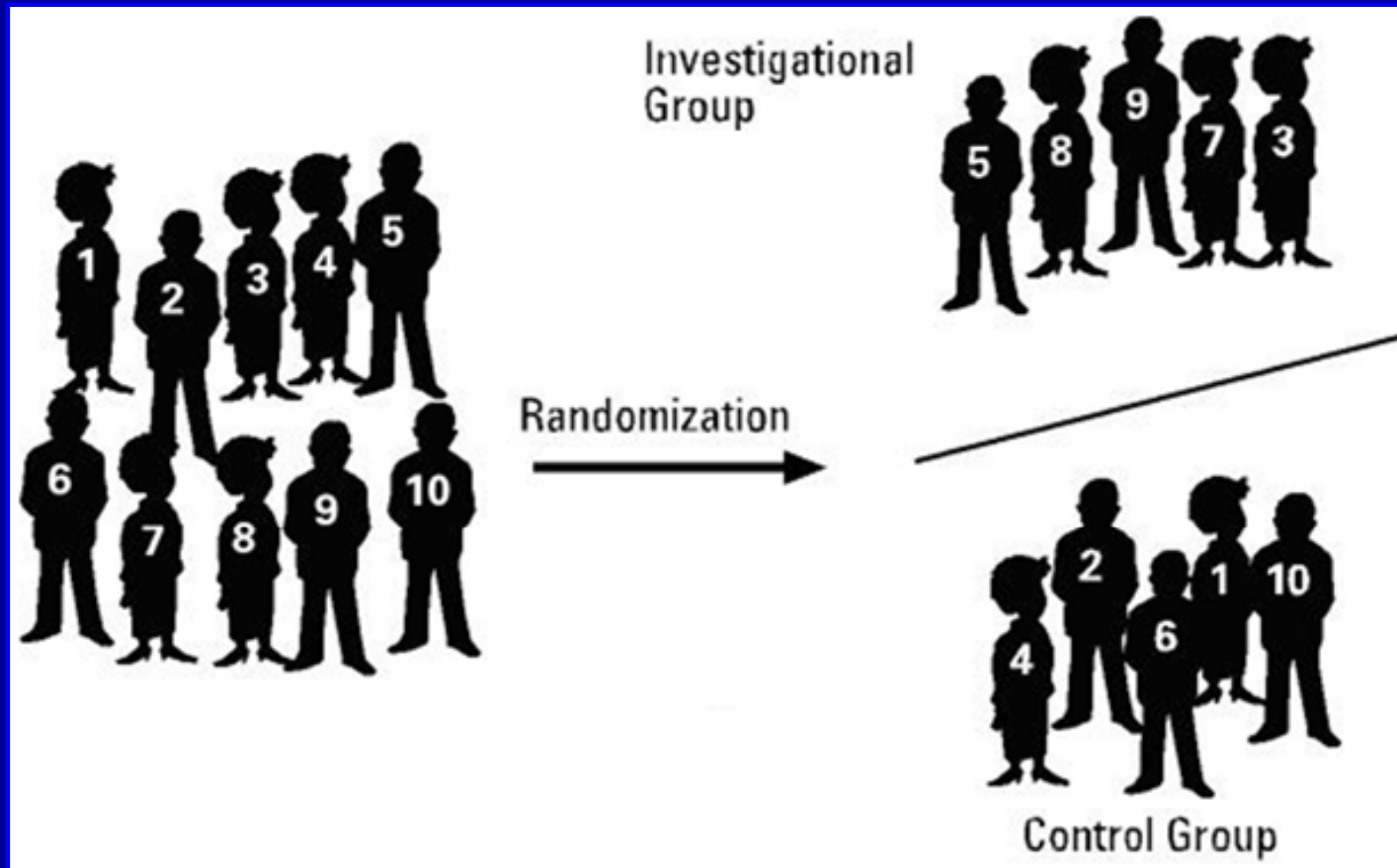


Making statistical inferences about a population from a sample by means of **significance test & CI**

# Component of sample size calculation

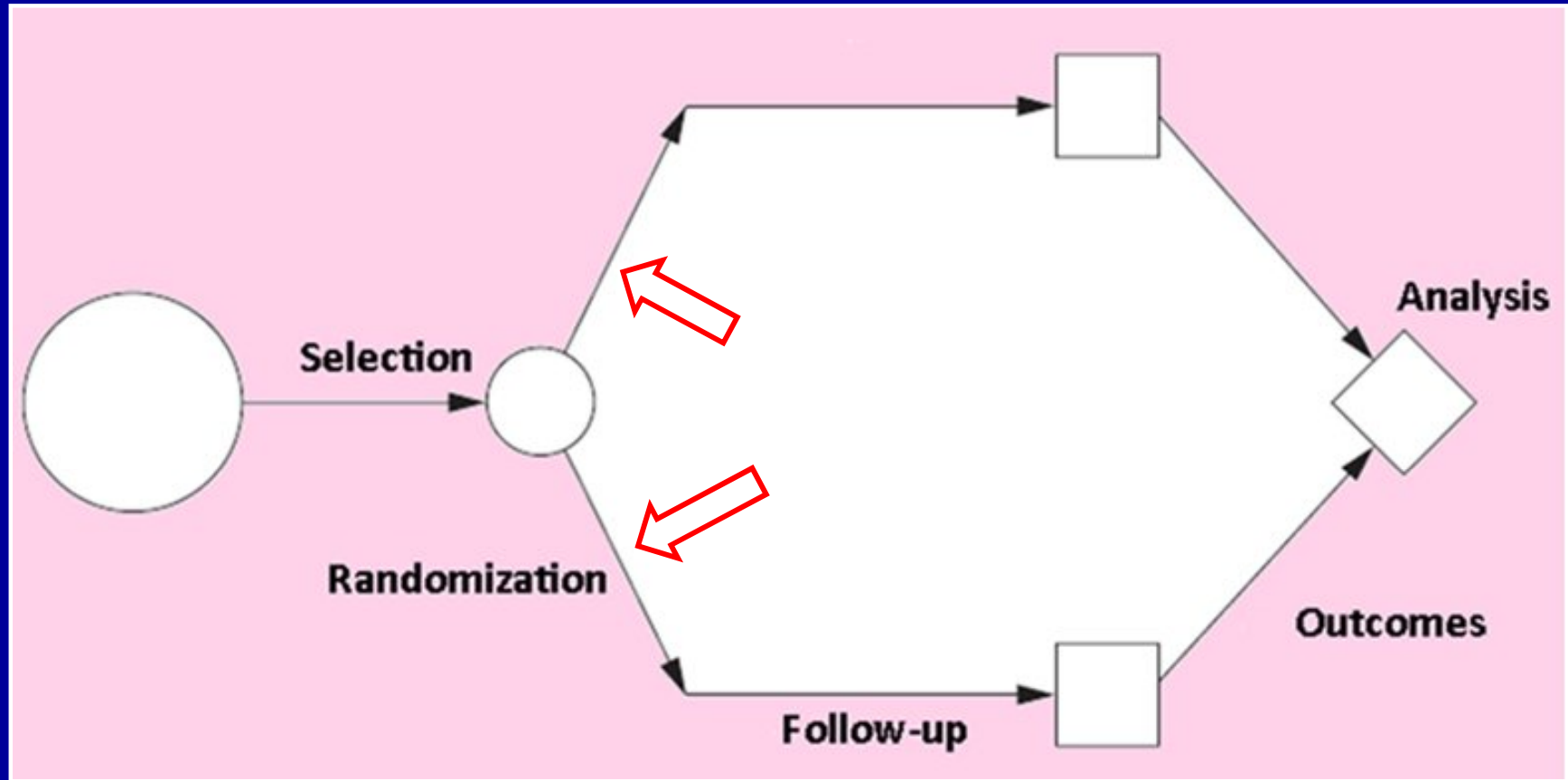
- ① **Type I error ( $\alpha$ )**                      False positive = **0.05**
- ② **Type II error ( $\beta$ )**                      False negative = **0.20**
- Power ( $1 - \beta$ )
- ③ **Event rate in control group**
- ④ **Event rate in treatment group**

## ② Randomization in RCTs



**If the study wasn't randomized  
we'd suggest that you stop reading it**

## ② Randomization in RCTs



If the study wasn't randomized  
we'd suggest that you stop reading it

# Goal of randomization

Comparable groups to known prognostic factors

## Beta-Blocker Heart Attack Trial - Baseline comparisons

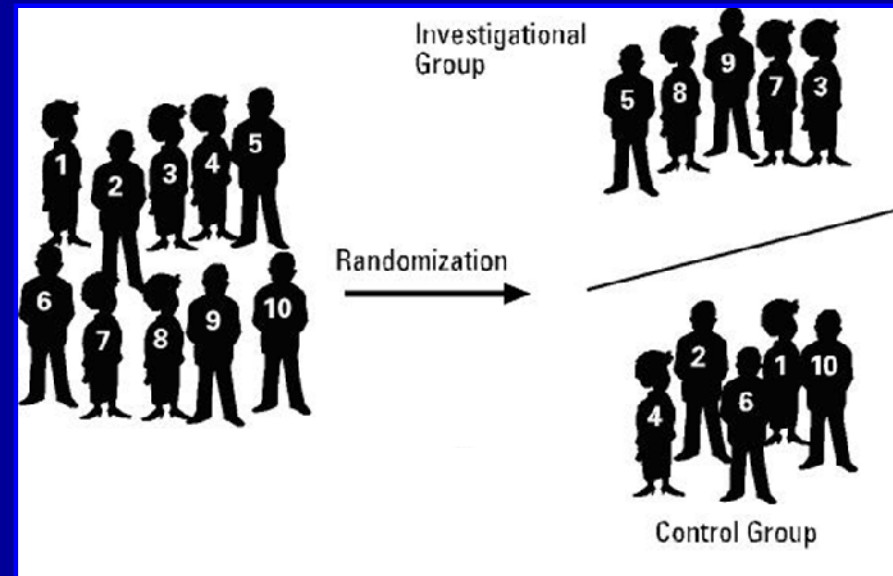
	<b>Propranolol</b> (N-1,916)	<b>Placebo</b> (N-1,921)
<b>Average Age (yrs)</b>	55.2	55.5
<b>Male (%)</b>	83.8	85.2
<b>White (%)</b>	89.3	88.4
<b>Systolic BP</b>	112.3	111.7
<b>Diastolic BP</b>	72.6	72.3
<b>Heart rate</b>	76.2	75.7
<b>Cholesterol</b>	212.7	213.6
<b>Current smoker (%)</b>	57.3	56.8

Table comparing baseline characteristics presented in RCT reports

# Randomization

- **Simple randomization**
- **Random table**
- **Block randomization**
- **Stratified randomization**
- **Minimization method**
- **Unequal randomization**
- **Allocation concealment**

**Inacceptable**



**Preferred**



## 2 principles of randomization

Regardless of the method of randomization used, investigators should follow two principles

- **First** They must define the rules that will govern allocation
- **Second** They should follow the same rules strictly throughout the whole study

# Simple randomization

## Inacceptable

- **Toss of a coin**
- **Date of birth** (even numbers to group A)
- **Hospital admission number**
- **Date seen in clinic**      Patients seen this week (group A)  
   Those seen next week (group B)

**Problems arise from openness of allocation system**

# Allocation concealment

- **Sealed opaque envelope**

Investigator open several envelopes before allocation  
Allocation seen if envelope held against bright light

- **Remote randomization (preferred)**

Assignment removed from those making assignments:  
By telephone – Over the internet

**Randomization should be distant**

**& separate from clinicians conducting the trial**

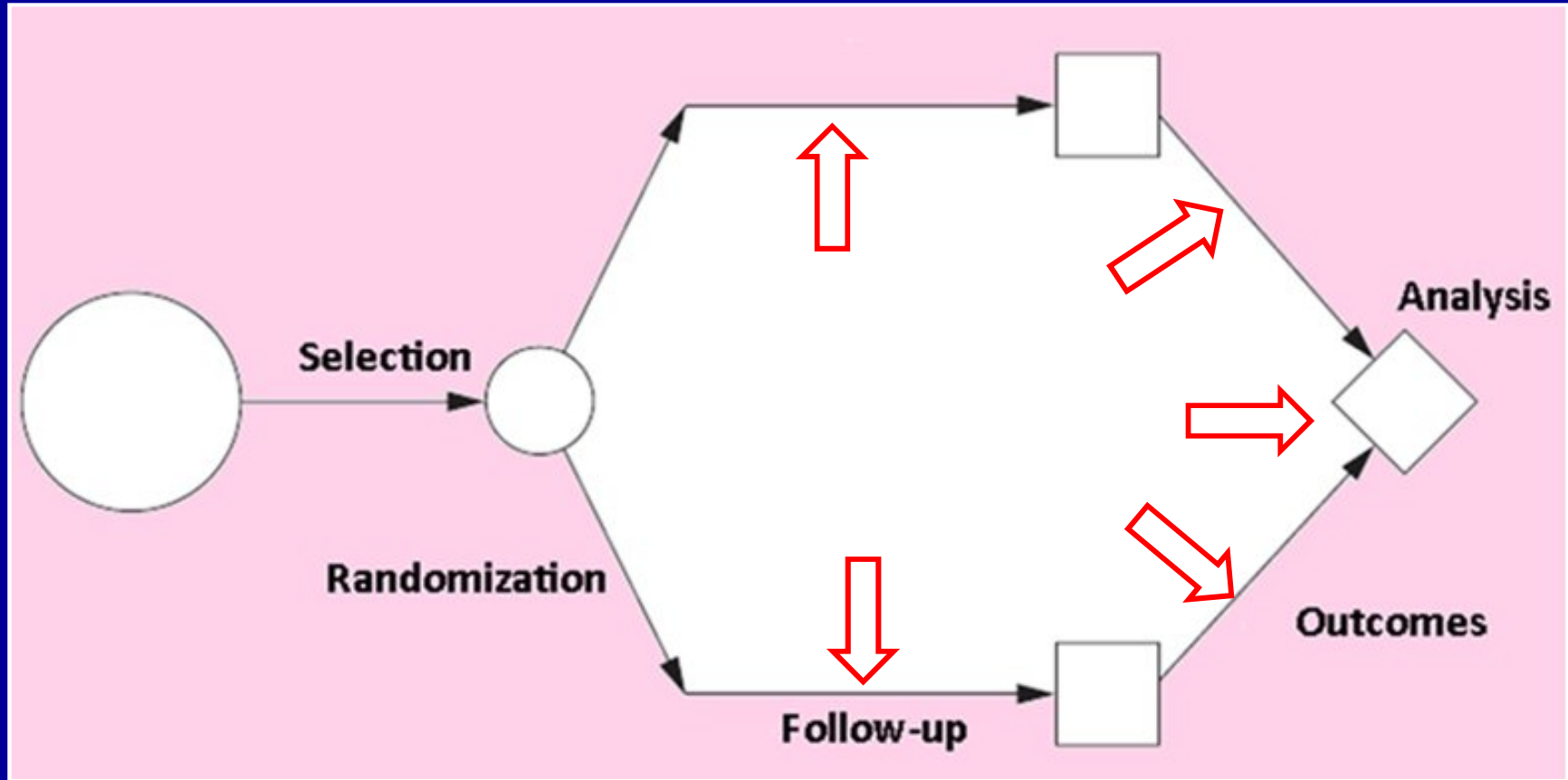
# RCT of open vs. lap appendectomy



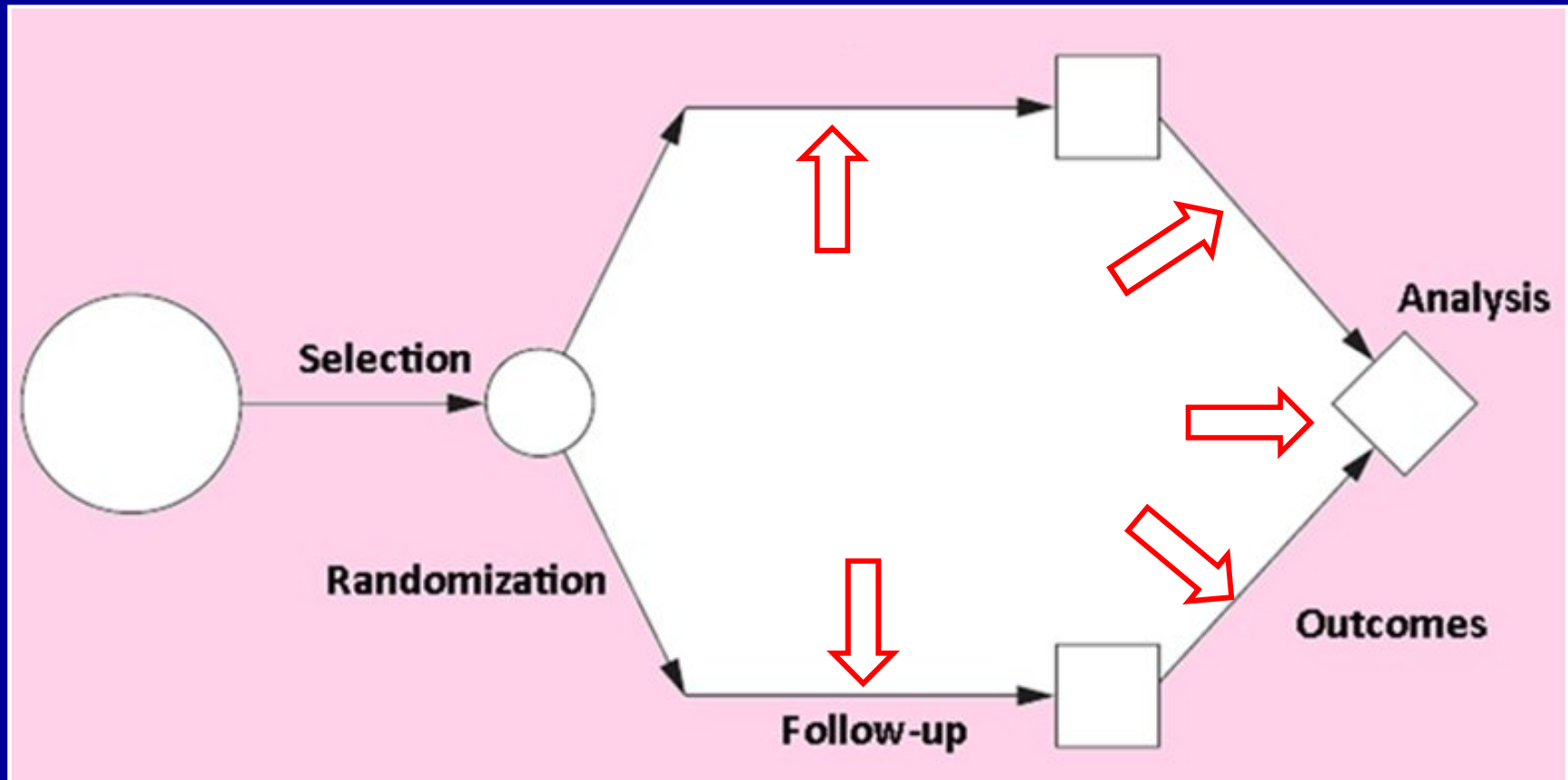
- Trial ran smoothly during the day
- Surgeon's presence required for lap procedure at night
- Residents at night held semiopaque envelopes up to light & opened first envelope that dictated open procedure
- First eligible patient in the morning allocated to lap group
- If patients seen at night sicker than those seen in the day, this behavior bias results against open procedure

**Estimates of treatment effect exaggerated  
by 40% in trials with unconcealed  
compared with concealed randomization**

# ③ Blinding in RCTs



# ③ ~~Blinding~~ /masking in RCTs



# Blinding or masking

- Keep one or more of the people involved in the trial unaware of the intervention that is being evaluated
- Purpose: decrease risk of **observation bias**

- **What matters**

Not the number of people blinded during a trial

But the number & role of those who are **not blinded**

**Blinding is not always appropriate or possible**



# Blinding or Masking

**Blinding can be implemented in at least 6 levels in RCTs**

- Participants
- Investigators who administer interventions
- Investigators taking care of the participants
- Investigators assessing the outcomes
- Data analyst
- Investigators who write results of the trial

**Usually  
the same**

# Blinding or masking

Depending on blinding extent, RCTs classified as

- **Open label (everyone aware)**
- **Single-blind**
- **Double-blind**
- **Triple-blind**
- **Quadruple-blind & so on**

**The term 'double-blind RCT', so often used  
to represent the ultimate in design to  
produce valid results, is confusing**

Jadad AR, Enkin MW. Randomized control trials.  
Blackwell Publishing, 2<sup>nd</sup> ed, 2007.

# Why is blinding so important?

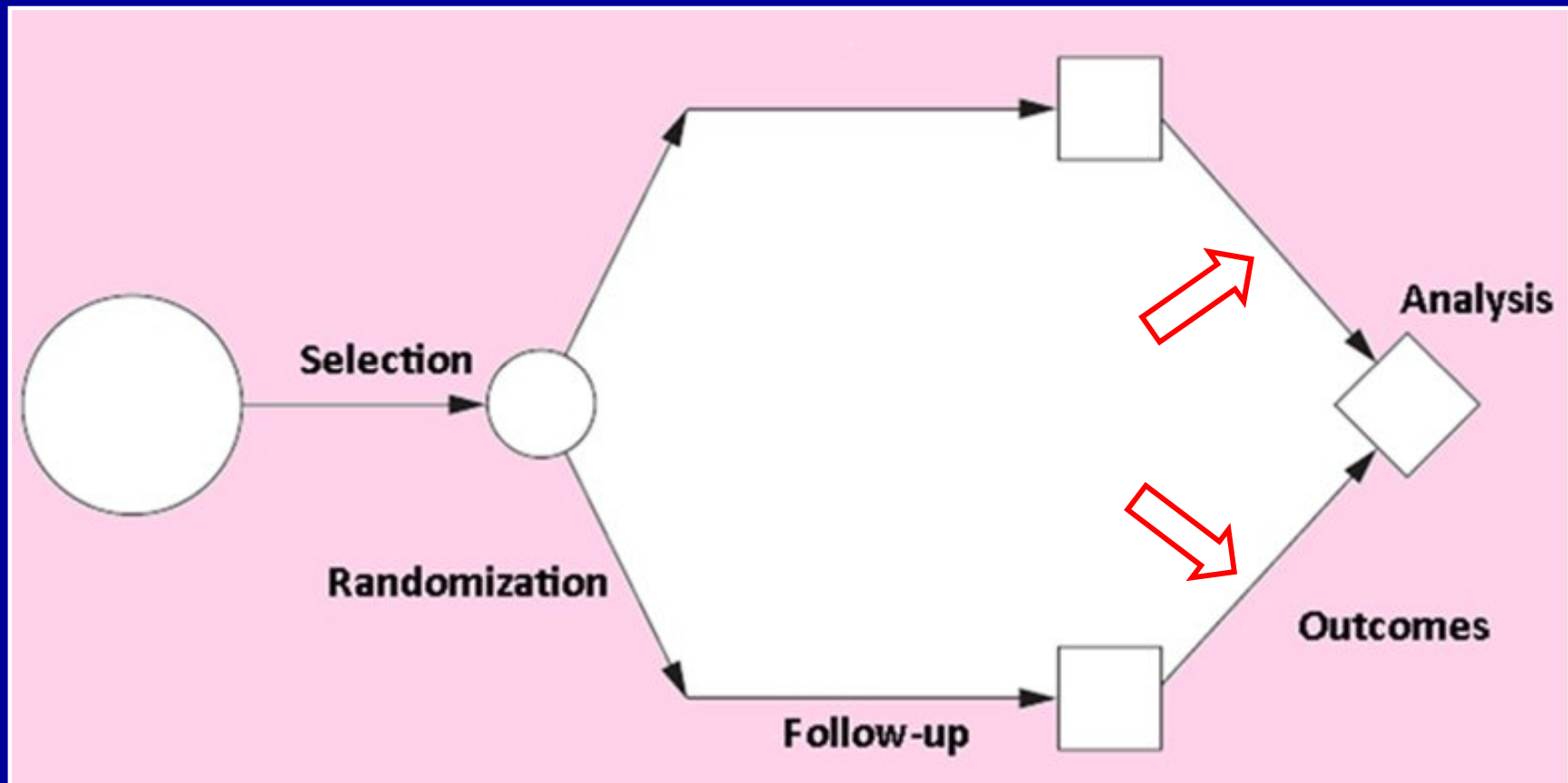
- Trials that were not double blinded yielded larger estimates of treatment effects than double blinded trials (**OR exaggerated on average by 17%**)
- Blinding is weaker than allocation concealment in preventing biases

# A humorous example of blinding/masking



Glasser SP. Essentials of clinical research. Springer, 1<sup>st</sup> edition, 2008

## ④ Outcomes in RCTs



# Outcomes in RCTs – 1

## Primary outcome

- **One primary outcome** (usually)  
Most important outcome (stroke in carotid endarterectomy)
- **Composite outcomes** (sometimes – can mislead)
  - Drug in MI: death, non fatal MI, hospitalization for ACS
  - Validity depends on similarity in patient importance, treatment effect, & number of events across components
  - Abandoned if large variations exist between components

# Outcomes in RCTs – 2

## Surrogate outcomes

Used in case of rare events of clinical importance

Studies in cytoprotection of *NSAIDs*

Endoscopic ulcers surrogates of bleeding or perforated PU

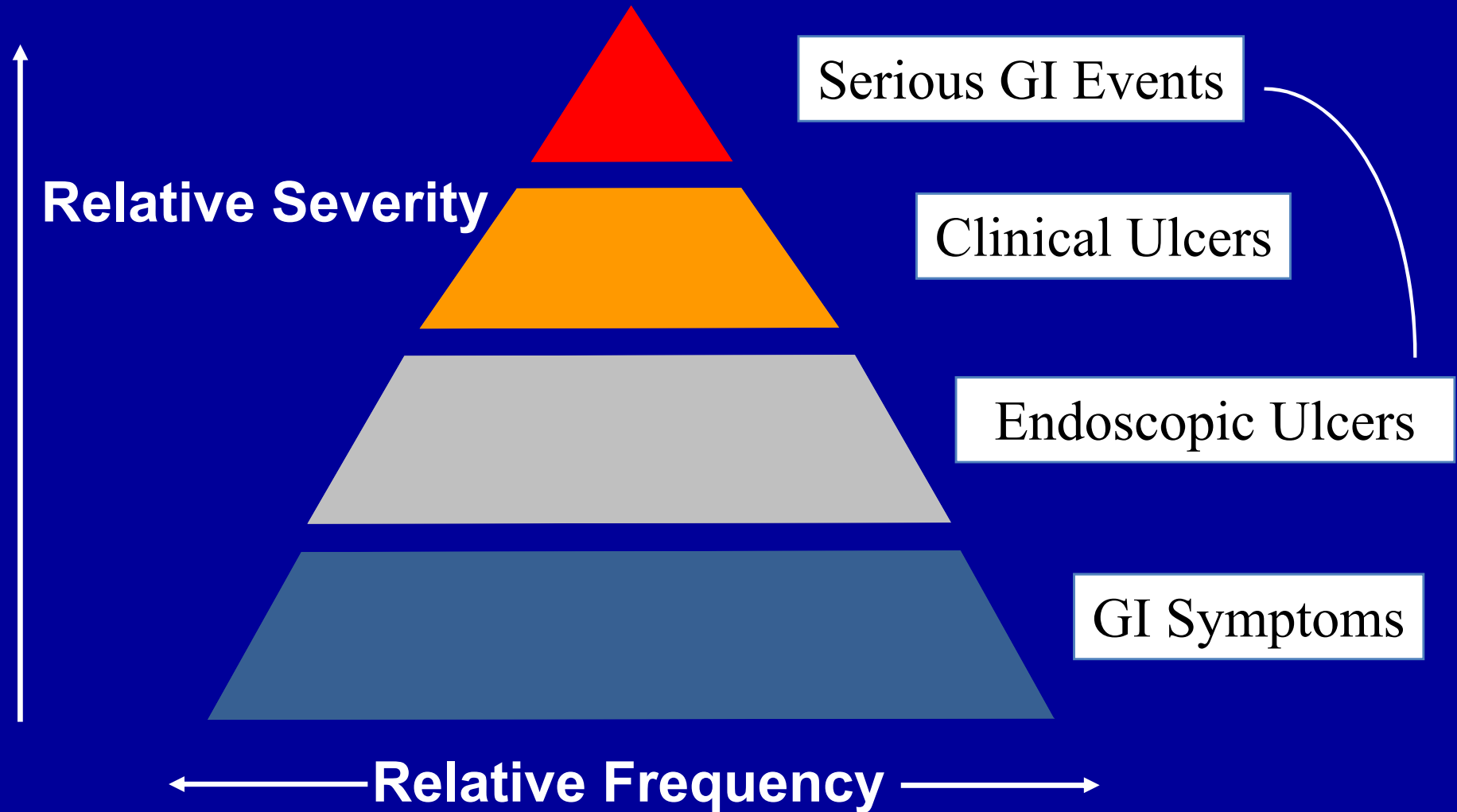
## Secondary outcomes (usually multiple)

Other variables important to research question (drugs SE)

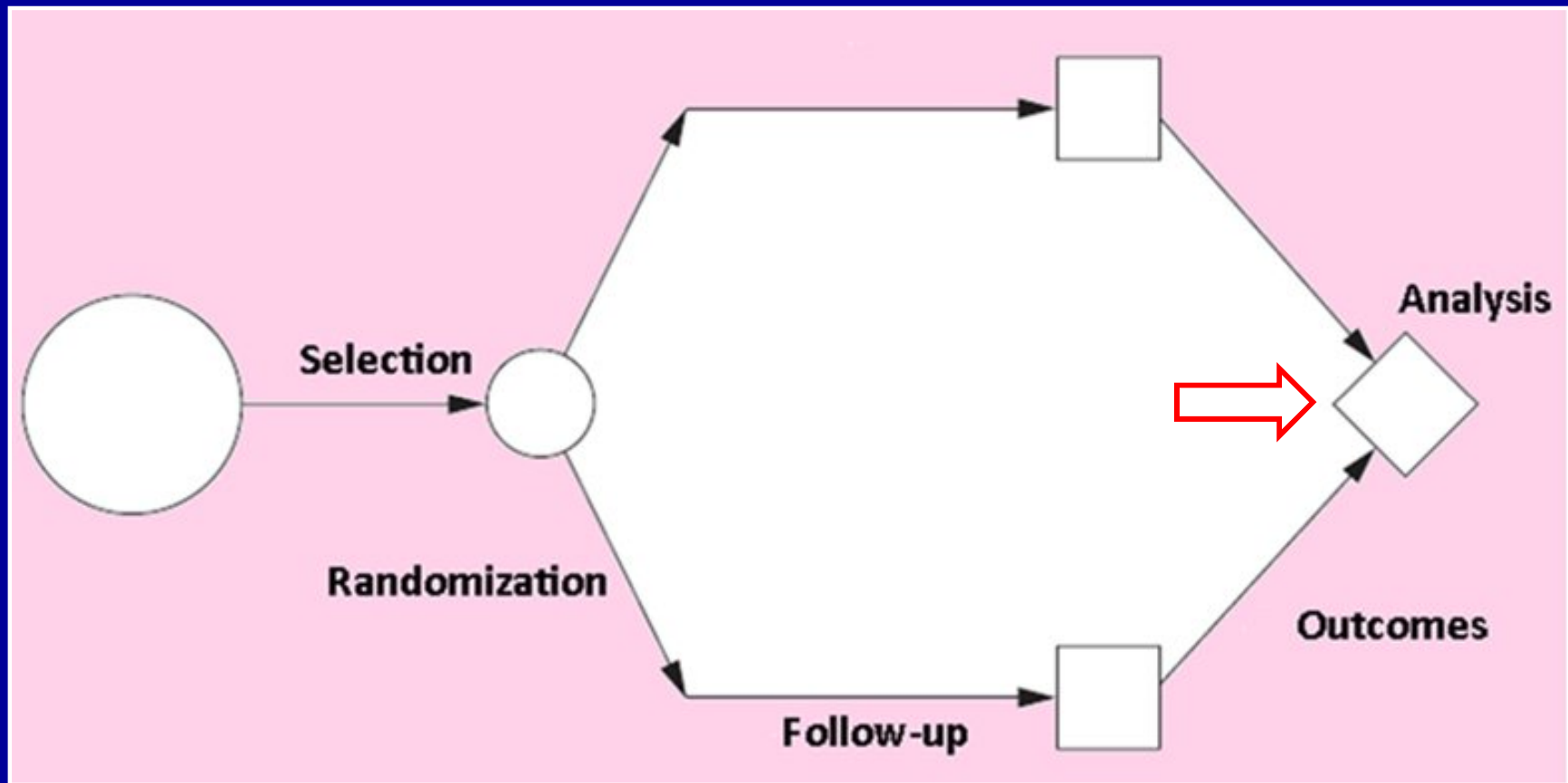
Too much emphasis if no change in primary outcome



# NSAID-related GI side effects



# ⑤ Intention to treat analysis (ITT)



# Participants who not complete the study

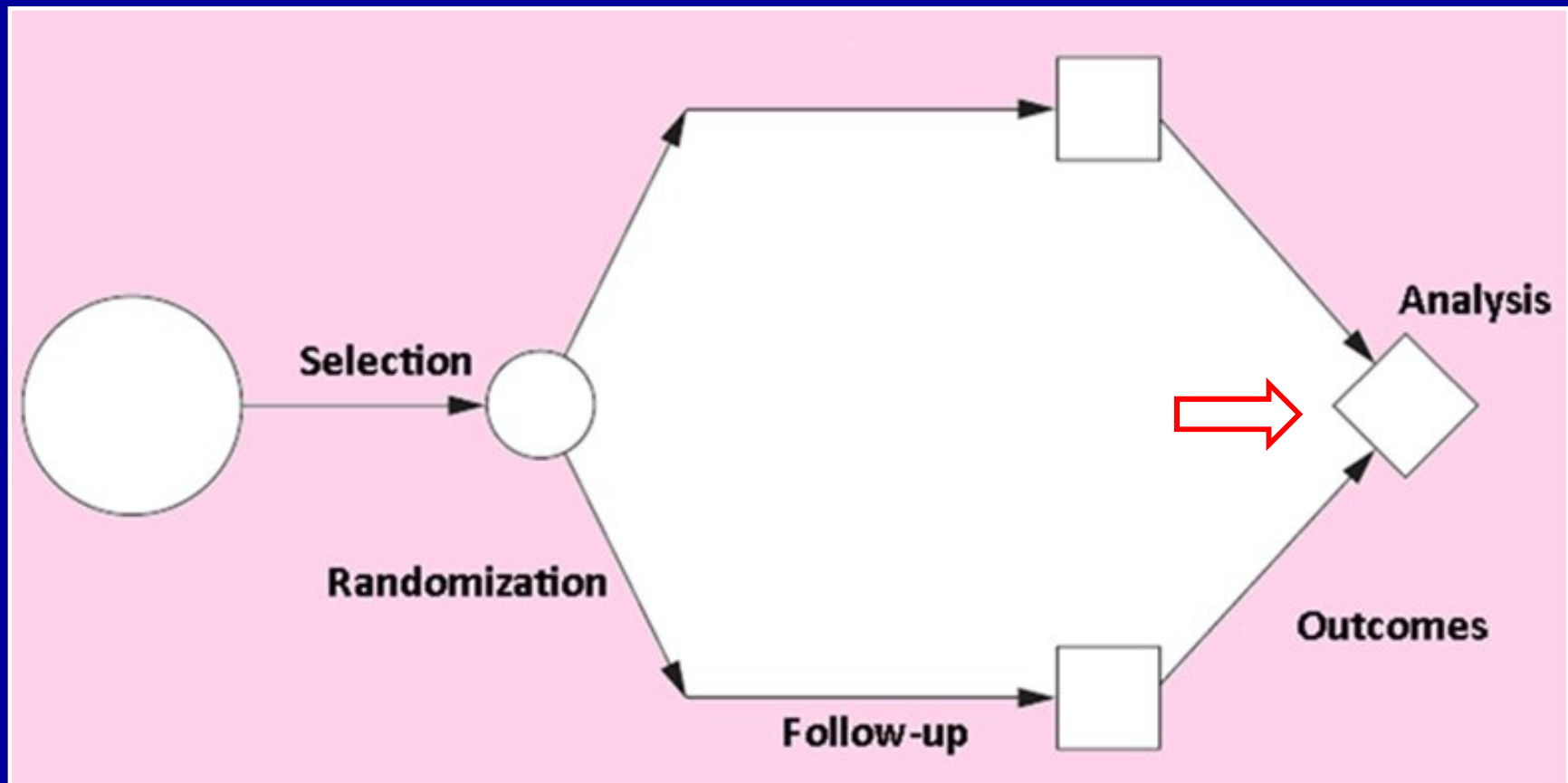
- Some participants would not complete the study because of **misdiagnosis**, **non-compliance**, or **withdrawal**
- When such patients excluded from analysis, we can no longer be sure that important prognostic factors in the 2 groups are similar which lead to potential bias
- To reduce this bias, results should be analyzed on an **'intention to treat'** basis

# Intention to treat analysis

## Form of quality control rather than analytic tool

- Strategy in conduct & analysis of RCT ensuring that all patients allocated to treatment or control groups analyzed together as representing that treatment arm whether or not they received prescribed therapy or completed study
- **Randomized participants = Analyzed participants**

## ⑥ Measurement of treatment effect



# Measurement of treatment effect in RCTs

- **p value (p)**
- **Relative Risk (RR)**
- **Odds Ratio (OR)**
- **Confidence Intervals (CIs)**
- **Number Needed to Treat (NNT)**

**Data analyzed as trial proceeds (interim analysis)  
or at the ends of the trial**

# Probability value (p Value)

- p value is probability that observed difference between 2 treatment groups might occur by chance
- Many use p value of 0.05 as cut off for significance

$p < 0.05$  Observed difference between groups is so unlikely to have occurred by chance  
Considered as **statistically significant**

$p > 0.05$  Observed difference between groups might have occurred by chance  
Considered as **not statistically significant**

# Probability value (p value)

- $p > 0.05$       **Statistically insignificant**
- $p < 0.05$       **Statistically significant**

**Statistically  
significant**

**Doesn't  
mean**



**Clinically  
significant**



# Statistical versus clinical significance

- Pentoxifylline vs placebo in PAD\* (1992)  
40 patients randomized to pentoxifylline or placebo  
Maximum pain-free walking distance longer in  
pentoxifylline group than in placebo group (**p < 0.001**)  
Conclusion: **pentoxifylline clinically effective**
- Close examination of data:  
Difference in maximum walking distance: **3.5 feet**  
Doctors & patients consider it **not clinically significant**

\* PAD: Peripheral Arterial Disease

McGovern D et al. Key topics in EBM. BIOS Scientific Publishers, Oxford, 2001.

# Risk & Relative Risk (RR)

- **Risk**

Number of patients fulfill criteria for a given end point divided by total number of patients

i.e.: Diarrhea during tt with antibiotic in 4 of 10 patients

Risk of patients:  $4 / 10 = \mathbf{0.4}$

Diarrhea in control group in 1 of 10 persons

Risk of controls:  $1 / 10 = \mathbf{0.1}$

- **Relative Risk**

Risk of patient / risk of control group

**RR:**  $0.4 / 0.1 = \mathbf{4}$

# Odds & Odds Ratio (OR)

- **Odds**

Number of patients fulfill criteria for given endpoint divided by number of patients who do not  
i.e.: Diarrhea during tt with antibiotic in 4 of 10 patients

Odds of patients:  $4 / 6 = \mathbf{0.66}$

Diarrhea in control group in 1 of 10 persons

Odds of controls:  $1 / 9 = \mathbf{0.11}$

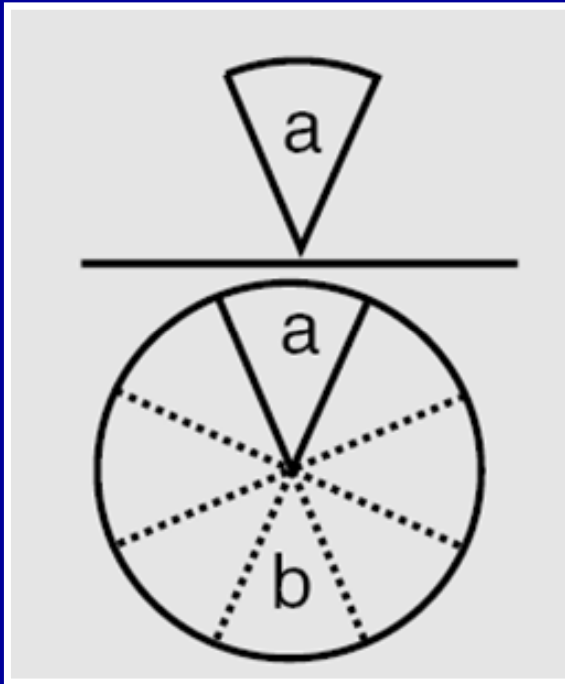
- **Odds Ratio**

Odds of patients / odds of control group

**OR** =  $0.66 / 0.11 = \mathbf{6}$

# Risk & Odds

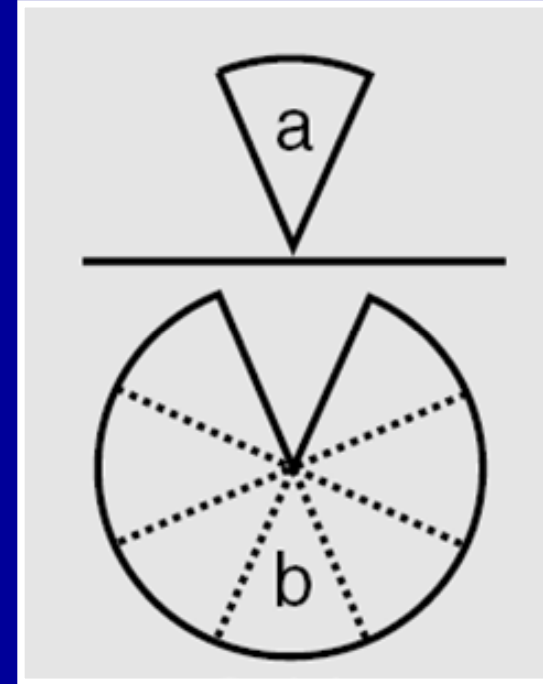
**Risk**



**a**

**a + b**

**Odds**



**a**

**b**

# Interpretation of RR & OR

**RR or OR should be accompanied by their CIs**

**RR or OR > 1**

Increased likelihood of outcome in treatment group

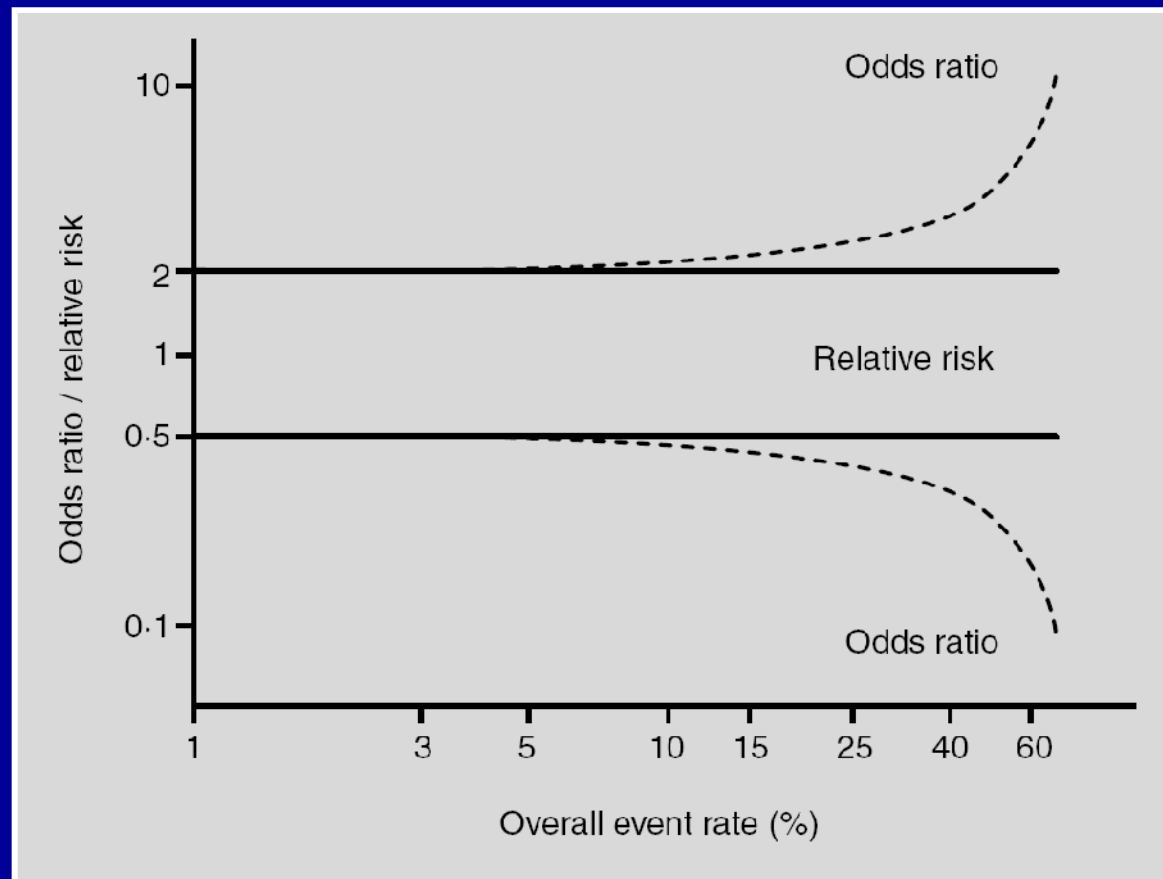
**RR or OR < 1**

Decreased likelihood of outcome in treatment group

**RR or OR = 1**

No difference of outcome between tt & control group

# Odds ratio or relative risk?



OR will be close to RR if endpoint occurs infrequently (<15%)

If outcome is more common, OR will differ increasingly from RR

Altman DG et al. Systematic reviews in health care: Meta-analysis in context.  
BMJ Publishing Group, London, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, 2001.

# Significance of CI

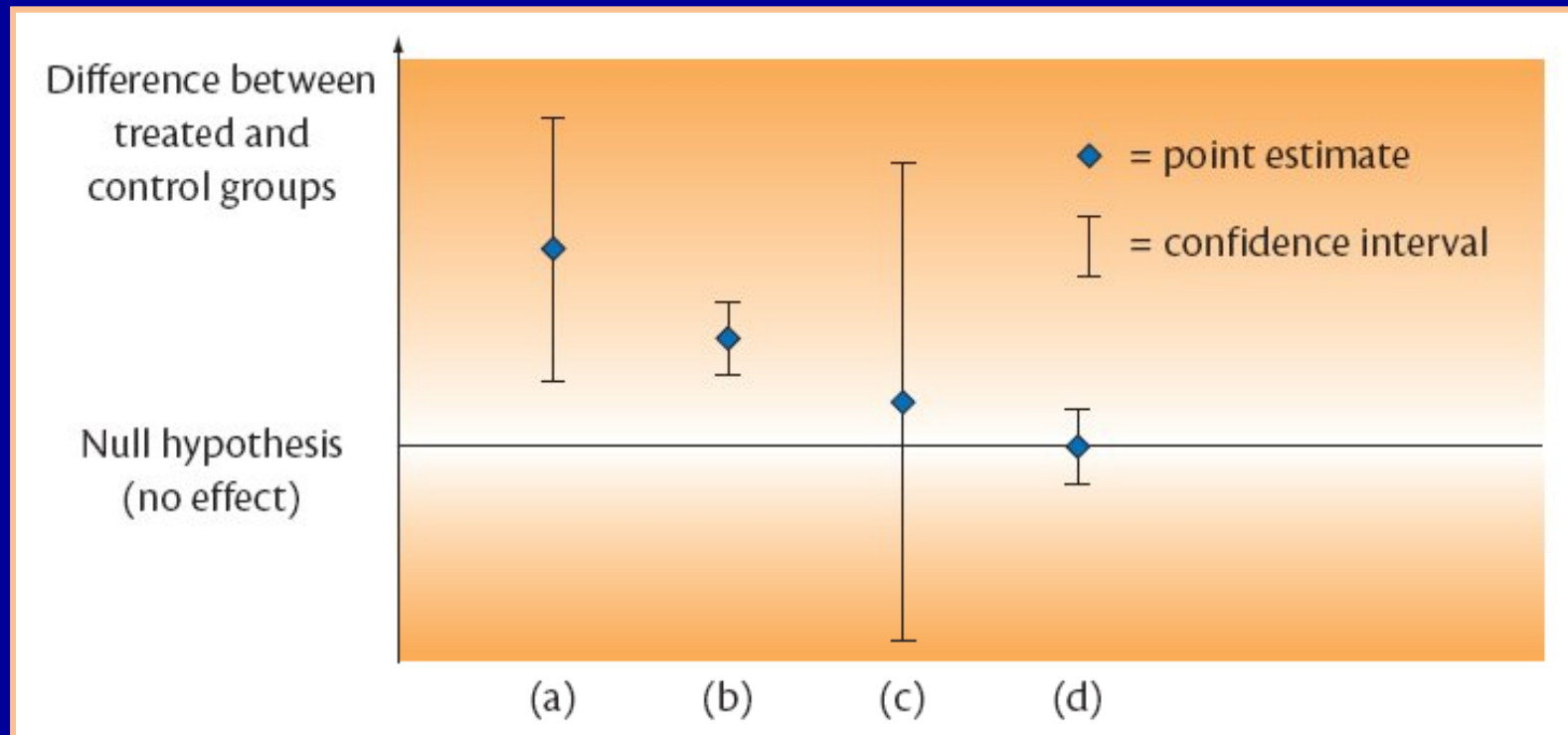
- When we test a new Crohn's disease drug on randomly selected sample of patients, the treatment effect we will get will be an estimate of the “true” treatment effect for the whole population of patients with CD in the country
- **95% CI** of estimate will be range within which we are 95% certain the true population treatment effect will lie

# Confidence intervals

<b>Value</b>	95 % CI are commonly used 90 or 99% CI are sometimes used
<b>Width of CI</b>	Indicates precision of the estimate Wider the interval, less the precision
<b>CI includes 1</b>	No statistically significant difference
<b>CI doesn't include 1</b>	Statistically significant difference

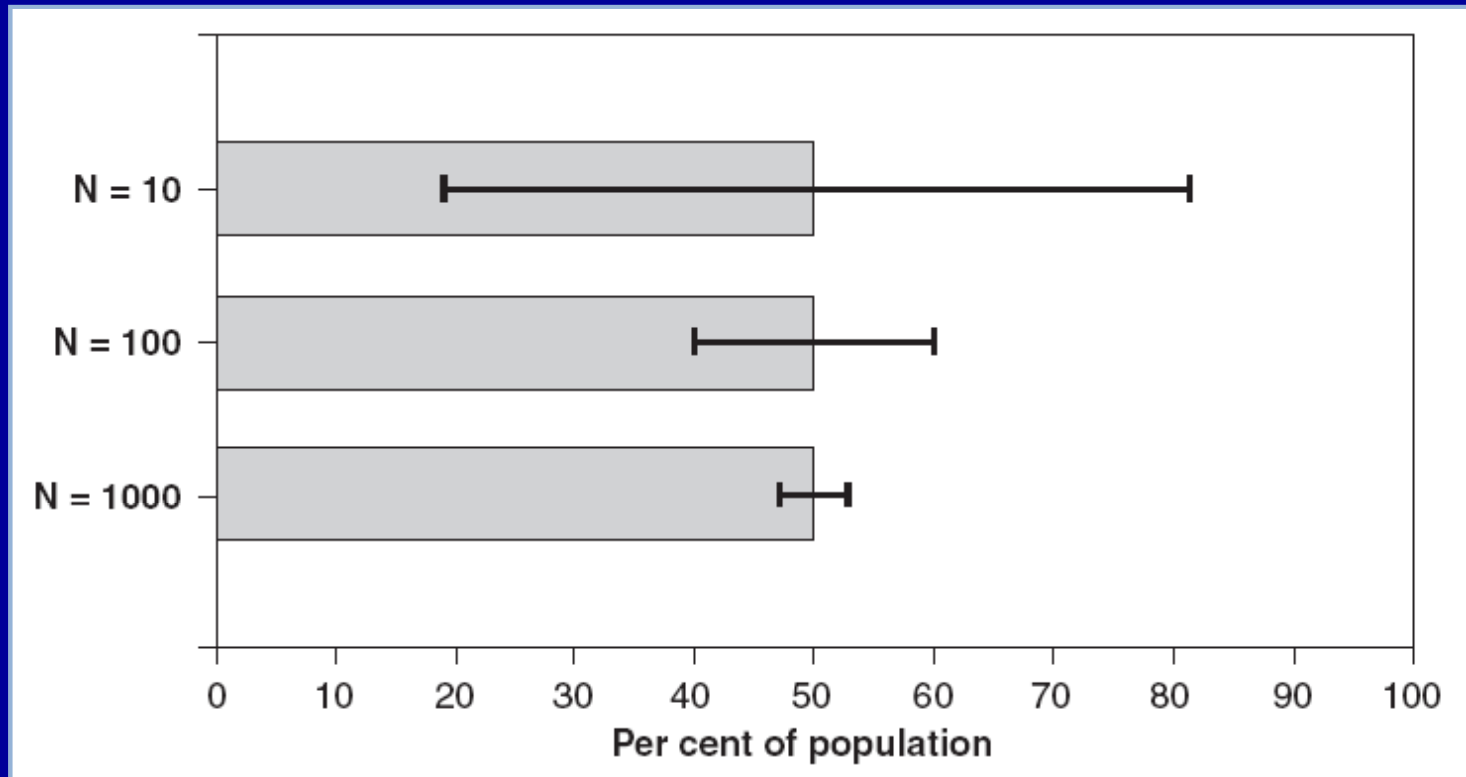


# Statistical significance & CI



- (a) Statistically significant , low precision
- (b) Statistically significant, high precision
- (c) Not statistically significant, low precision
- (d) Not statistically significant, high precision

# Influence of sample size on CI precision



Width of CI (precision of the estimate)  
decreases with increasing sample size

# Confidence interval or p value?



- Authors of articles could report both p values & CIs
- CI convey more useful information than p values
- **If only one is to be reported, then it should be the CI**
- p value is less important & can be deduced from CI

# Number Needed to Treat (NNT)

- **Relative Risk (RR)**

Risk in treatment group / risk in control group

- **Relative Risk Reduction (RRR)**

$1 - RR$

- **Absolute Risk Reduction (ARR)**

Risk in control group – risk in treatment group

- **NNT** (expressed in clinically relevant way)

$1 / ARR$

# Measurement of treatment effect in RCTs

- **p value (p)**
- **Relative Risk (RR)**
- **Odds Ratio (OR)**
- **Confidence Intervals (CIs)**
- **Number Needed to Treat (NNT)**

# Subgroup analysis

## Post-hoc analysis

- In large trials not demonstrating overall favorable trend, it is common to conduct subgroup analyses to find one or more subgroups in which treatment “really works”
- Literature is replete with unconfirmed subgroup findings
- Post-hoc results should be regarded as **inconclusive**
- May be of value for **hypothesis generation**

# ISIS-2 trial - Subgroup analysis

- Effects of streptokinase &/or aspirin on short-term mortality in patients admitted with AMI
- Mortality benefits for both active interventions
- In subgroup analyses:
  - Patients born under Zodiac signs of **Gemini & Libra**  
5% higher mortality on aspirin vs placebo
  - Patients born under **other Zodiac signs**  
30% lower mortality on aspirin vs placebo

# ISIS-2 trial

## Streptokinase &/or aspirin on AMI mortality





**It is very difficult to make a judgment if statistics used in a study are appropriate & applied correctly**

JOE, COULD YOU GET A  
SIGNIFICANT P-VALUE  
OUT OF ALL THIS ?



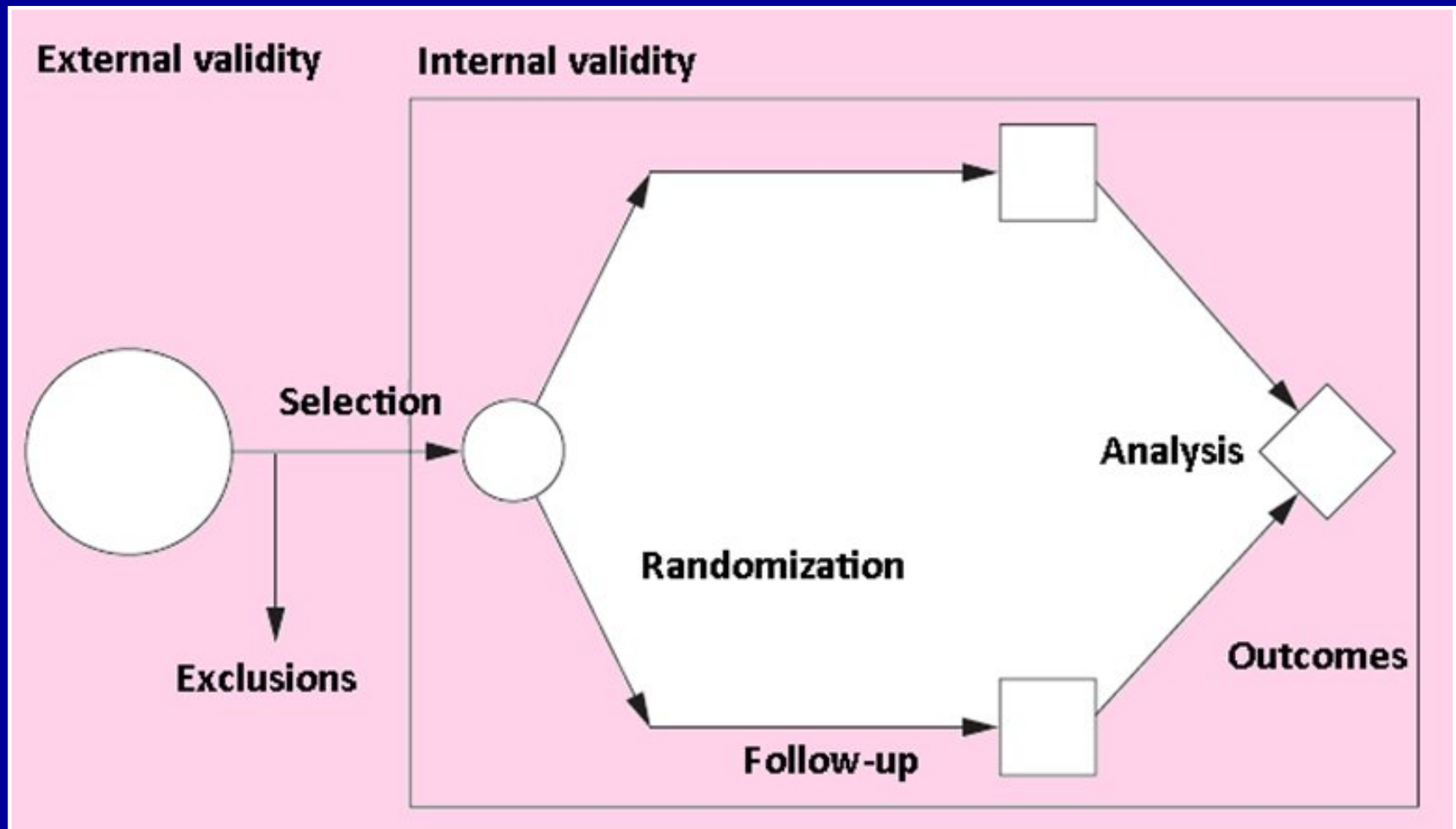
Furberg BD & Furberg CD. Evaluating clinical research.  
Springer Science & Business Media , 1<sup>st</sup> ed, 2007.

**Basic understanding of medical statistics will enable us to detect the more obvious errors**



Wang D, Bakhai A. Clinical trials: practical guide to design, analysis, & reporting. Remedica, London, 1<sup>st</sup> Edition, 2006.

# ⑦ Applicability of results to your patients



# External validity

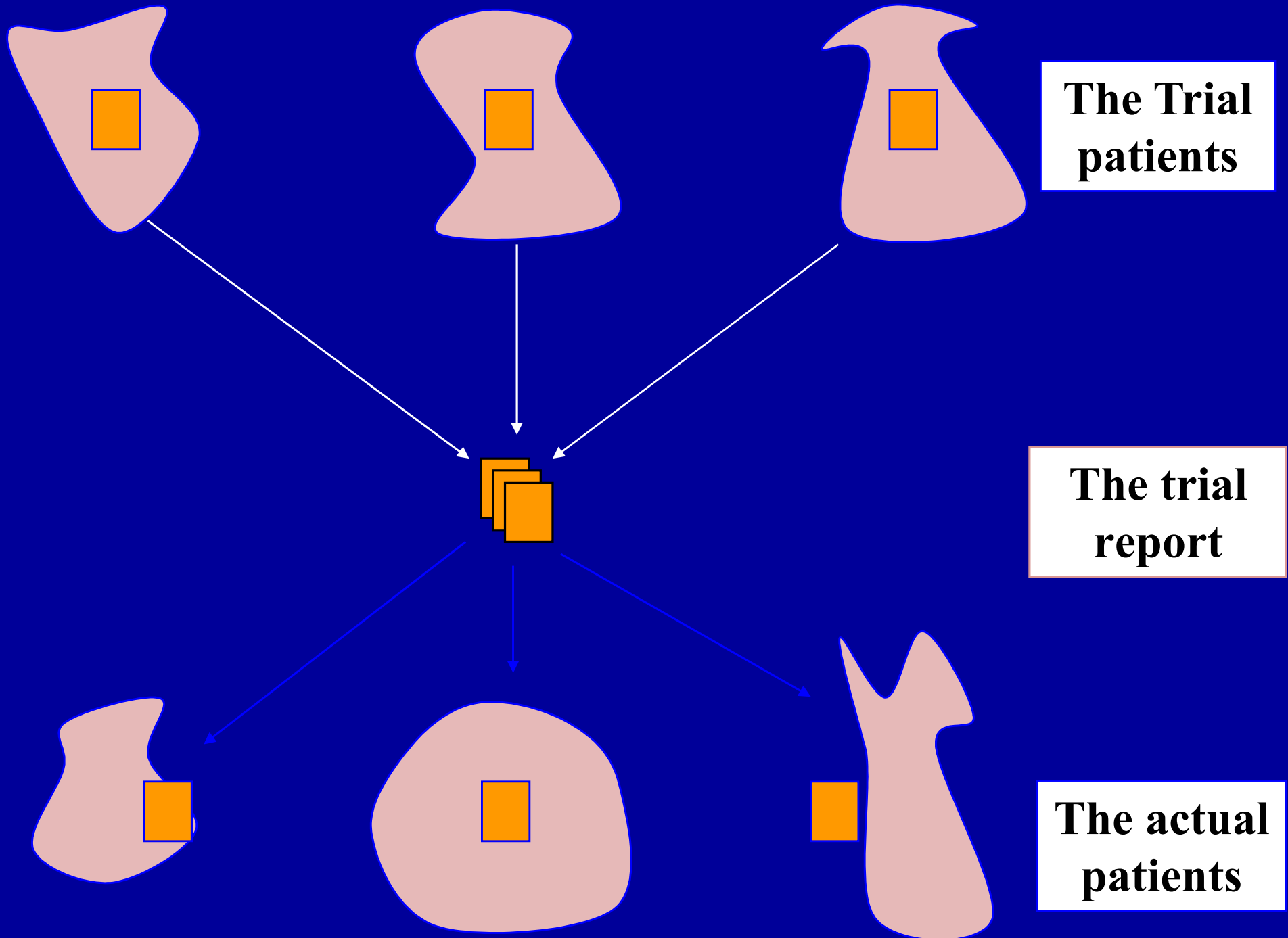
## Applicability of results to your patients

**Issues needed to consider before deciding to incorporate research evidence into clinical practice**

- Similarity of study population to your population
- Benefit versus harm
- Patients preferences
- Availability
- Costs

\* Guyatt G, et al. User's guide to the medical literature.  
Essentials of evidence based clinical practice. Mc Graw Hill, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, 2008.

# The problem of applying trial results



# Critical appraisal of a RCT



Glasziou P et al. BMJ 2004 ; 328 : 39 - 41.

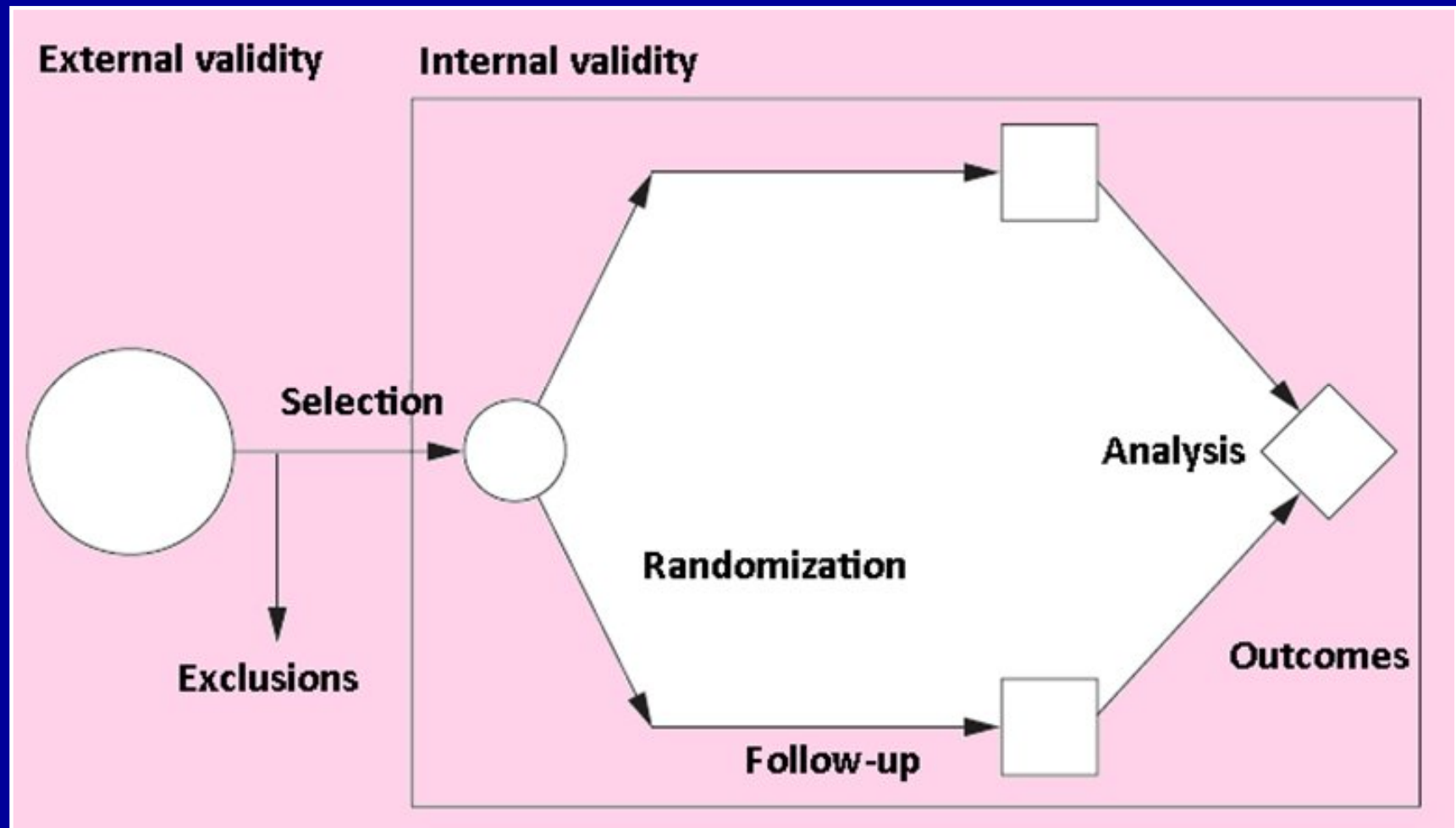


A MOTHER IS A PERFECT  
EXPERT ON HER CHILD,  
BUT MAY NOT BE THE  
MOST OBJECTIVE.

Furberg BD & Furberg CD. Evaluating clinical research.  
Springer Science & Business Media – First Edition – New York – 2007.



# Internal & external validity of a RCT



# Critical appraisal of a RCT

- **Internal validity of a trial**
  - Randomization
  - Blinding (Masking)
  - Follow-up
  - Outcomes
  - Analysis
  - Biases
- **External validity of a trial (generalizability)**
  - Applicability of results to your patients

# Bias

- Difference between the study results & the truth
- Of course, we can never know the truth, but we try to come as close as possible by performing & using well-designed & well executed studies
- **Non-systematic bias** (random error or **chance**)  
Occurs to similar extent in all subjects for both group  
Predictable – Less important than systematic bias
- **Systematic bias** (non-random error)  
Most serious type of bias: under or over-estimation

# Main types of biases in RCTs

Biases	Types
<b>During planning phase of a RCT</b>	Choice-of-question bias Regulation bias Wrong design bias
<b>During course of a RCT</b>	Selection bias Observation bias Population choice bias Intervention choice bias Control group bias Outcome choice bias
<b>During reporting of a RCT</b>	Withdrawal bias Selective reporting bias Fraud bias

# Fraud bias

## John Darsee (Harvard researcher in cardiology)

- Fabricated data in a study on dogs in 1981
- Fabricated data during his:
  - Undergraduate days [**Notre Dame University, (1966-70)**]
  - Residency & fellowship [ **Emory University, (1974-79)**]
  - Fellowship [**Brigham & Women's, Harvard, (1979-81)**]
- **> 100 papers & abstracts** most in prestigious journals
- His coauthors had too little contact with the research  
Listed over their objections (had been helpful in the past)

# Lessons learned from the Darsee's affair

- ① Little can be done to stop unscrupulous scientist even when he collaborates with knowledgeable colleagues
- ② Inability of **peer review** to detect the fraud
- ③ Need for explicit guidelines & oversight for collection, maintenance, & analysis of data in clinical trials
- ④ Focus on responsibilities & contributions of **coauthors**
- ⑤ Misconduct investigations may need to **examine a researcher's entire work** over many years

## One of the lessons learned from Darsee's case

**‘Once a crook, often always a crook’**

Darsee was found to have had a long history of faking his results in different projects & in different settings

# Existing tools to assess trial quality

- Several components grouped in

## **Scales**

Each item scored numerically

Overall quality score is generated

## **Checklists**

Components evaluated separately

No numerical scores

- Systematic search of literature in 1995 identified

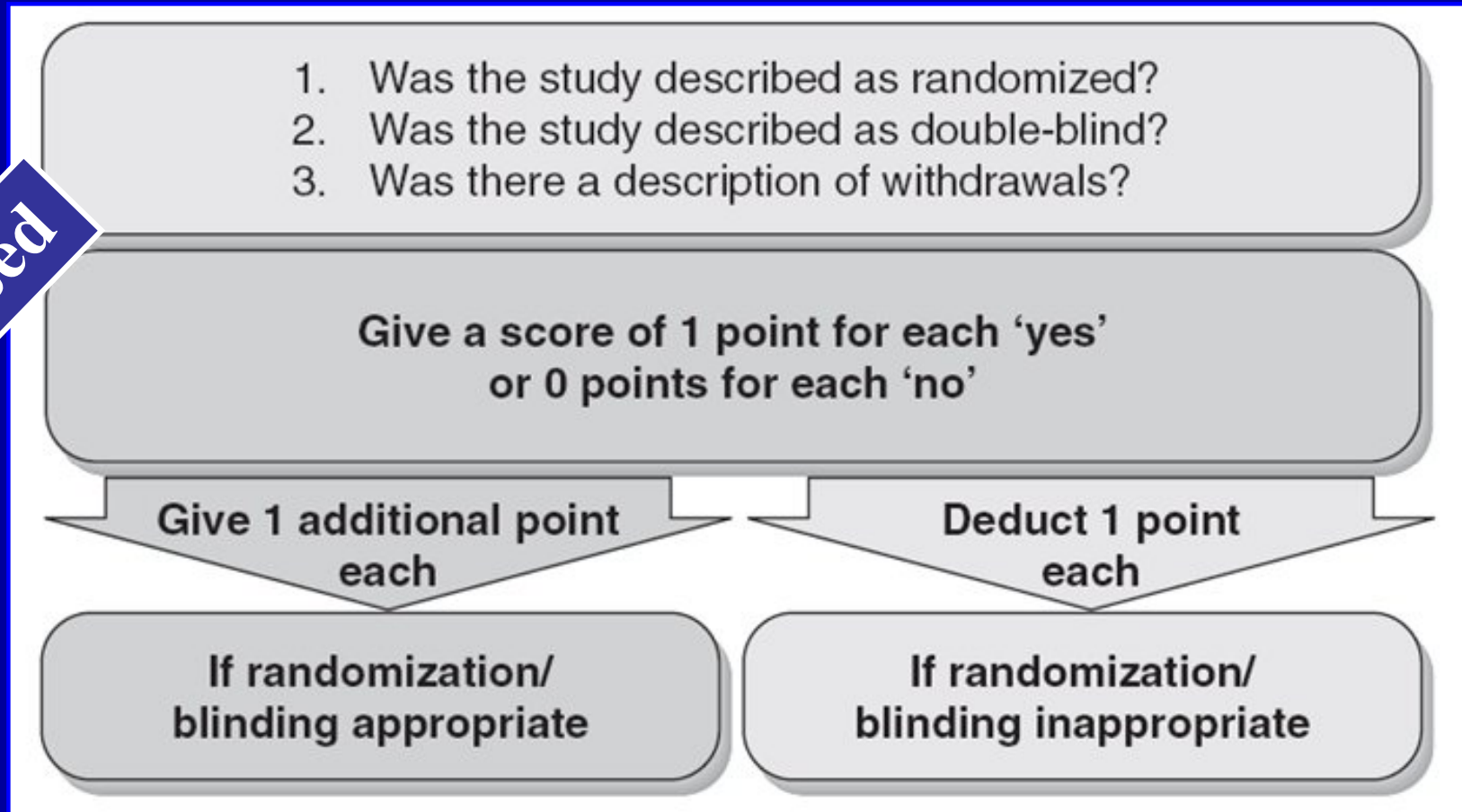
**25 scales** & **9 checklists** for assessing trial quality\*

\* Moher D et al. Controlled clinical trials 1995 ; 16 : 62 – 73.



# The Jadad scale

**Widely used**



Scores: 0 - 5 points – Poor quality if  $\leq 2$  points

Jadad AR, Enkin MW. Randomized control trials.  
Blackwell Publishing, 2<sup>nd</sup> Ed, 2007.

# Appraising a RCT (checklist) – 1

## Are the results valid?

### At start of trial

- ① Were the patients **randomized**?
- ② Was the randomization **concealed**?
- ③ Similar prognostic factors in 2 groups?

### During trial

- ④ Was trial **blinded** & to what extent?

### At end of trial

- ⑤ Was **follow-up** complete?
- ⑥ Was **ITT** principle applied?
- ⑦ Was the trial **stopped early**?

## Appraising a RCT (checklist) – 2

### What are the results?

**8-** How **large** was the treatment effect?

**9-** How **precise** was estimate of treatment effect (**CI**)?

### How can I apply the results to patient care?

**10-** Were the study patients **similar** to my patient?

**11-** Were all patient-**important outcomes** considered?

**12-** Are the likely treatment benefits worth **harm & cost**?

# Scales or checklists?

No consensus on which is preferable



	Quality assessment in systematic reviews	
	Medical journals	CDSR*
Number of SR	78 SR in 204 journals	36 SR
Checklists	20/78 (26%)	92 %
Scales	52/78 (67%)	None

•**CDSR**: **C**ochrane **D**atabase of **S**ystematic **R**eviews  
Moher D et al. Health Technol Assess 1999 ; 3 (12).

# Improving quality of reports

**RCTs**



**CONSORT\***

**Consolidated  
Standards of  
Reporting Trials**

**Meta-analysis**



**QUOROM\*\***

**Quality of  
Reporting of  
Meta-analyses**

**Diagnostic  
accuracy study**



**STARD\*\*\***

**Standards for  
Reporting of  
Diagnostic Accuracy**

\* Altman DG et al. Ann Intern Med 2001 ; 134 : 663 - 94.

\*\* Moher D et al. Lancet 1999 ; 354 : 1896 - 900.

\*\*\* Bossuyt PM et al. BMJ 2003; 326 : 41 – 44.

# CONSORT statement

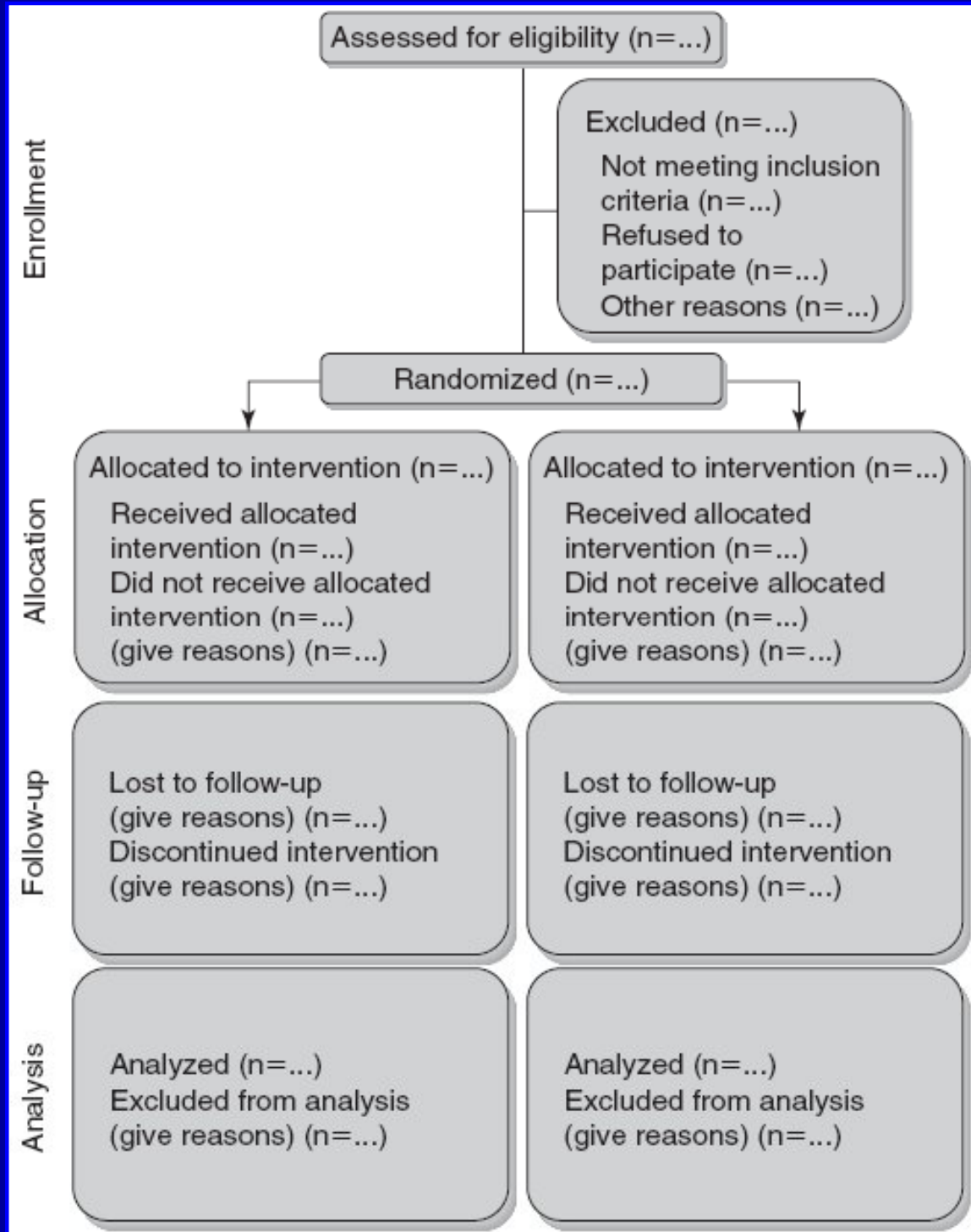
## Targeted authors of trial reports rather than readers

- **Experts** Clinical epidemiologists, journal editors, & biostatisticians published CONSORT statement
- **Aim** Improve standard of written reports of RCTs
- **Results** Latest version of CONSORT statement includes<sup>2</sup>  
**Flow diagram**: Patients progress through a trial  
**Checklist**: 22 items

<sup>1</sup> Begg C, et al. JAMA 1996 ;276 (63): 7 – 9.

<sup>2</sup> Moher D, et al. CMAJ 2004 ; 171 : 349 – 350.

# Flow diagram of a RCT



# CONSORT statement

Paper Section & Topic		Item	Descriptor	Reported on Page No
Title & abstract		1	How participants allocated to interventions	
Introduction background		2	Scientific background	
Methods	Participants	3	Criteria for participants, settings, locations	
	Interventions	4	Details of interventions for each group	
	Objectives	5	Specific objectives & hypotheses	
	Outcomes	6	Defined <b>primary &amp; secondary outcomes</b>	
	Sample size	7	How <b>sample size</b> was determined?	
	Randomization	8-9-10	<b>Allocation concealment</b> , implementation	
	Blinding (masking)	11	Whether or not blinding applied	
Statistical methods		12	<b>Statistical methods</b> used	
Results	Participant flow	13	<b>Flow diagram</b> strongly recommended	
	Recruitment	14	Periods of recruitment & <b>follow-up</b>	
	Baseline data	15	<b>Baseline characteristics</b> of each group	
	Numbers analyzed	16	No of participants in each group	
	Outcomes, estimation	17	Summary of results with <b>95% CI</b>	
	Ancillary analyses	18	Subgroup & adjusted analyses	
	Adverse events	19	<b>All important adverse events</b>	
Comment	Interpretation	20	Interpretation of the results	
	Generalizability	21	<b>External validity</b> of trial findings	
	Overall evidence	22	General interpretation of results	



# Reasons for doing RCTs

- Only study design that can prove causation
- Required by FDA (and others) for new drugs and some devices
- Most influential to clinical practice

# Disadvantages of RCTs

- Expensive: typically in \$ millions
- Time consuming: typically years
- Can only answer a single question
- May not apply to some patients in practice
- May not be practical
- Generally difficult to get funded
- Organizationally complex

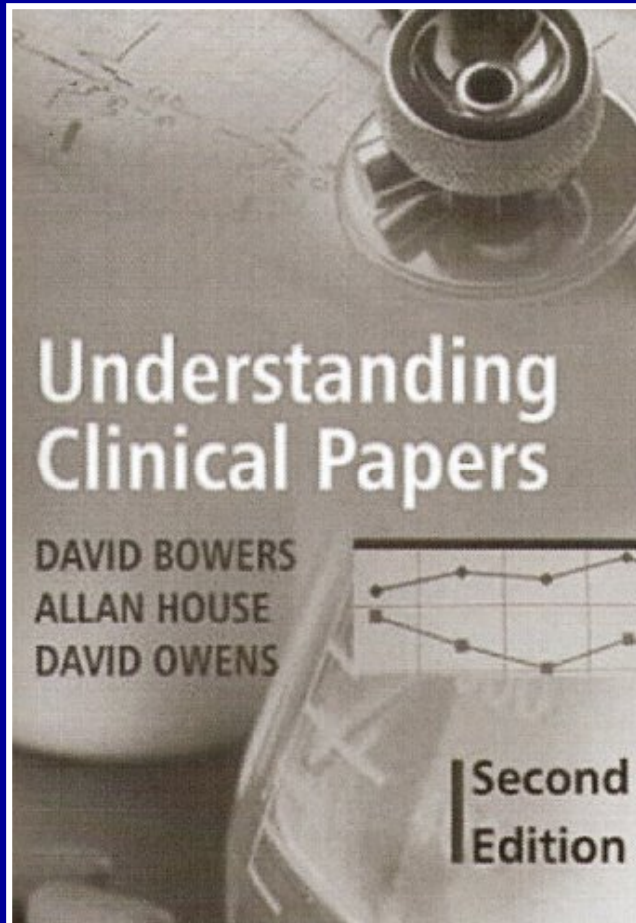
**Carefully conducted observational studies may  
provide more evidence than poor RCTs\***

**Unfortunately, a perfect trial can only  
exist in our imagination\*\***

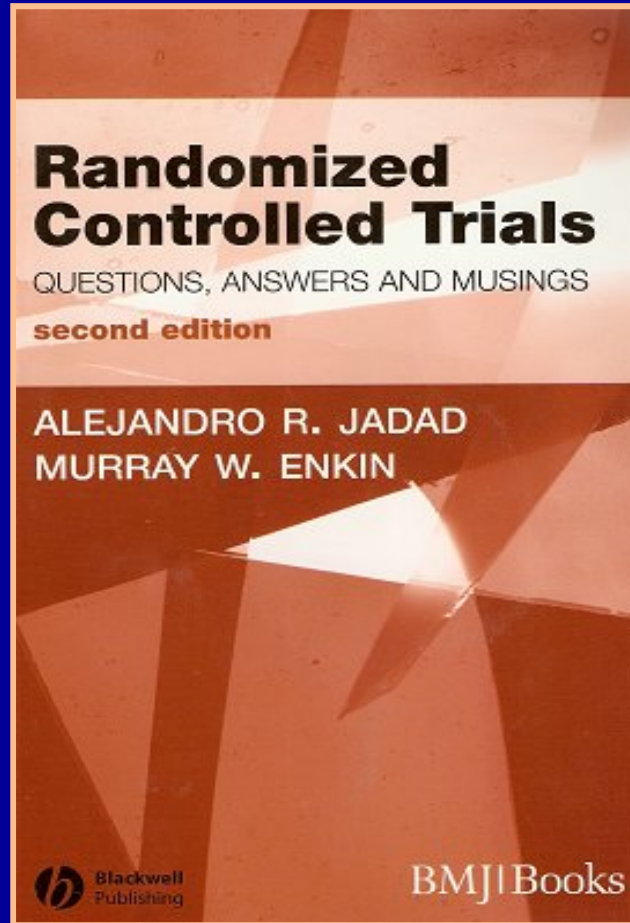
\* Guyatt G, et al. User's guide to the medical literature.  
Essentials of evidence based clinical practice. Mc Graw Hill, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, 2008.

\*\* Jadad AR, Enkin MW. Randomized control trials.  
Blackwell Publishing, 2<sup>nd</sup> ed, 2007.

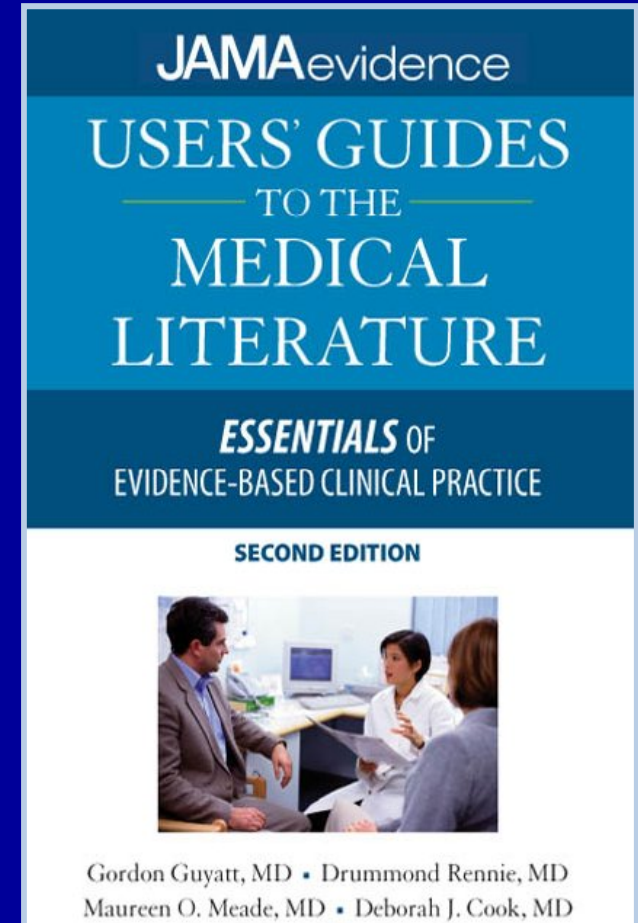
# References



John Wiley & Sons  
2006

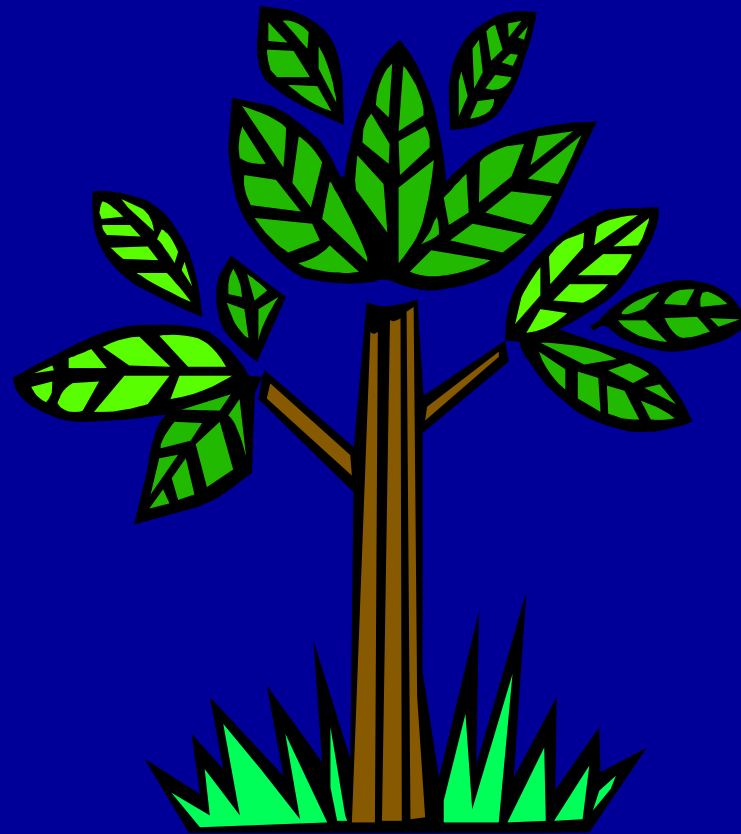


Blackwell Publishing  
2007



Mc Graw Hill  
2008

# Thank You





**Thank You**

*Thank You*

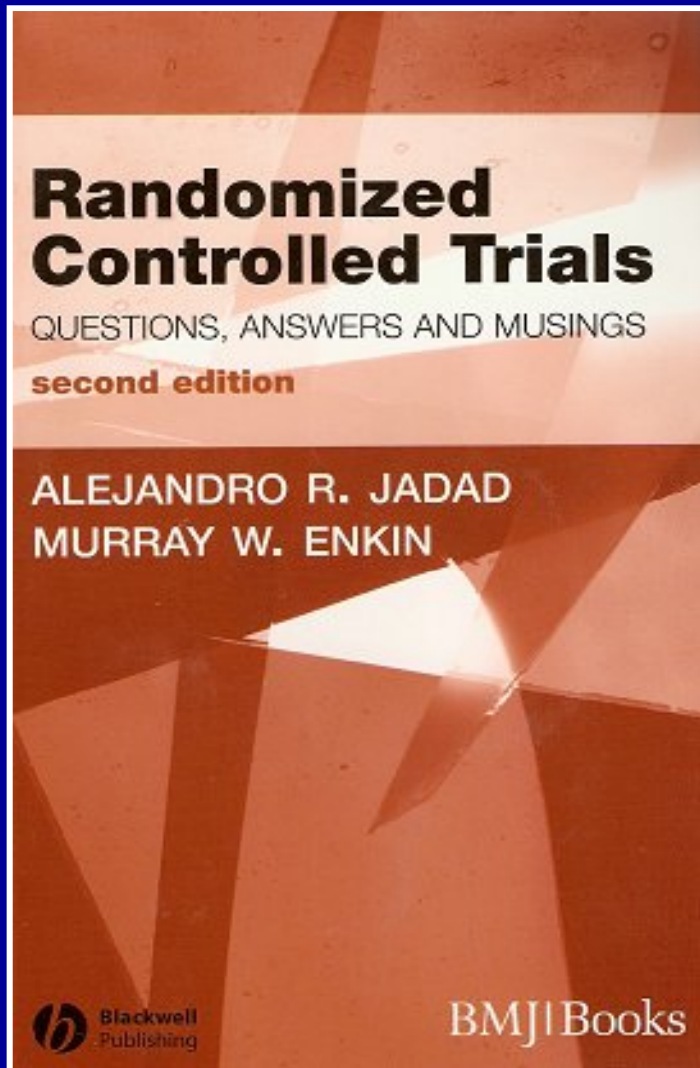


# Types of RCTs

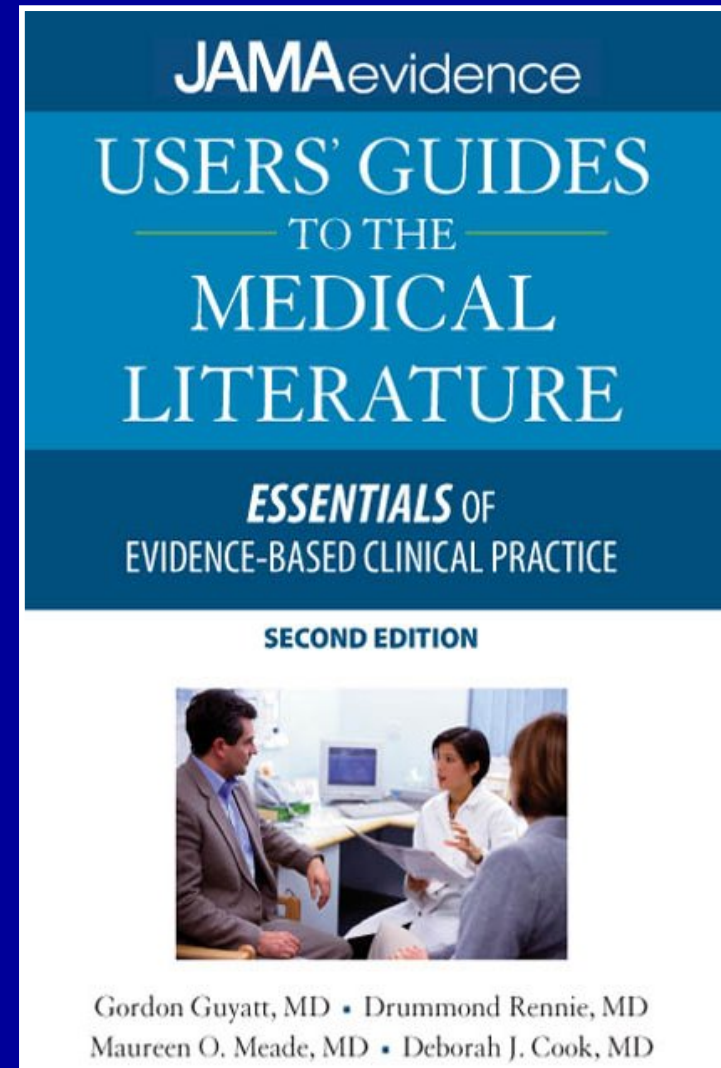
RCTs	Types
RCTs according to how participants are exposed to the interventions	Parallel trials Factorial trials Cross-over trials
RCTs exploring different aspects of the interventions they evaluate	Efficacy & effectiveness trials Equivalence trials Phase III trial
RCTs by unit of analysis	Body part Individual Group
RCTs according to the number of participants	Fixed to variable sample size N-of-1 trials to mega-trials
RCTs according to whether investigators know which intervention is being assessed	Open trials Blinded trials
RCTs that take into account non-randomized individuals & participants' preferences	Zelen's design Comprehensive cohort design Wennberg's design



# References



Blackwell Publishing  
2007



Mc Graw Hill  
2008

# Study types

```
graph TD; A[Study types] --> B[Observational]; A --> C[Interventional or experimental]; B --> D[Descriptive]; B --> E[Analytic]; D --> F["Cross-sectional<br/>Case series<br/>Case report"]; E --> G["Cohort<br/>Case-control"]; C --> H[RCT]
```

The diagram is a hierarchical flowchart. At the top is a box labeled 'Study types'. Two arrows point down from this box to 'Observational' and 'Interventional or experimental'. From 'Observational', two arrows point down to 'Descriptive' and 'Analytic'. From 'Descriptive', an arrow points down to a box containing 'Cross-sectional', 'Case series', and 'Case report'. From 'Analytic', an arrow points down to a box containing 'Cohort' and 'Case-control'. From 'Interventional or experimental', an arrow points down to a box labeled 'RCT'.

**Observational**

**Descriptive**

**Cross-sectional**  
**Case series**  
**Case report**

**Analytic**

**Cohort**  
**Case-control**

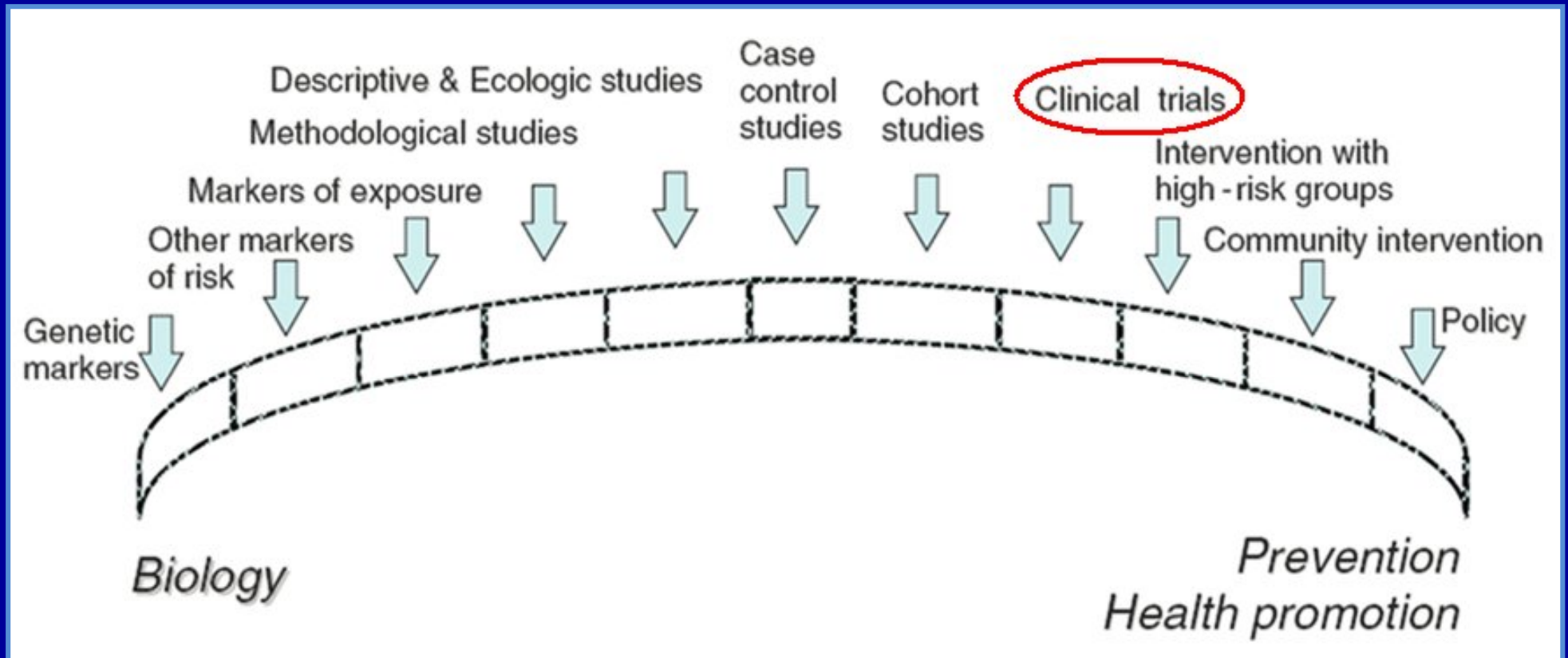
**Interventional  
or experimental**

**RCT**

# Types of RCTs

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# The clinical research bridge



The broad range that encompasses the term “clinical research”

# Table of Random Numbers

**Table C4. 1000 Random Digits**

07048	52841	54969	87057	30570	50494	29936	93967	10641	79871
09165	56926	17294	03803	31755	11321	33681	12997	17625	25954
35654	69761	83791	63371	28189	19944	04514	56533	89108	27861
79065	63956	39443	30373	55571	00919	15377	36851	28318	40846
27969	74368	77782	88616	06368	07345	00725	81221	78417	37992
47528	70548	25078	80729	27806	42877	80287	21759	61980	52447
65694	95760	64031	24046	77606	91163	51492	20958	18384	49840
24253	39427	80642	36718	92164	77732	69754	01291	53704	33054
34302	60309	27186	22418	59962	13934	67591	17476	21559	73437
76809	84341	74012	50947	83214	19967	44219	75929	13182	34858
85183	35958	04301	49628	91493	66103	65699	04241	82441	38112
27541	79187	99777	22894	83283	56218	86183	74497	21070	78935
74188	09083	54938	79920	27158	24864	31116	33173	43032	52000
13270	57457	30968	65978	67679	91216	47969	39204	46030	93954
89150	53922	40537	23169	46948	05519	72171	85417	31580	98102
49980	44551	99908	46115	92508	77184	44556	69725	42878	60298
26810	40280	15387	30976	15478	77703	34109	02682	52877	36755
35056	23942	42645	67063	44118	46433	83172	95689	60923	32769
09873	65959	77912	70059	07704	16015	57527	09818	84379	35903
40806	30051	54251	73489	47215	90651	90083	21019	63860	41369

# Random number

Numbers usually have two or more digits

- Select **starting point in the table** (beginning, end, any point of table by a pencil dropped with the eyes closed)
- Select **direction of reading table** (upward - downward)
- Odd numbers: group A – even numbers: group B  
From 01 – 49: group A, from 50 – 99: group B
- Numbers with four digits  
Select position of numbers that determine allocation  
Choose last two digits, or first two, or first & third

# Stratified randomization

- First,  
Identify prognostic factors (or ‘strata’) known to be related to outcome of the study
- Second,  
Produce separate block randomization lists for different combinations of prognostic factors

It is not practical to stratify on more than one or perhaps two variables

# Chemotherapy of breast cancer

- **Important prognostic factors:**

**Number of metastatic LN: absent,  $< 4$ ,  $\geq 4$**

- **Set of blocks could be generated as follow:**

**Breast cancer & no metastatic LN**

**Breast cancer &  $< 4$  metastatic LN**

**Breast cancer &  $\geq 4$  metastatic LN**



**Separate block randomization lists for different combinations of prognostic factors**



# Minimization Method - 1

**3 stratification factors: sex (2), age (3), disease stage (3)**

		<b>Treatment A</b>	<b>Treatment B</b>
Sex	Male	16	14
	Female	10	10
Age	< 40	13	12
	41 – 60	9	6
	> 60	4	6
Disease	Stage I	6	4
	Stage II	13	16
	Stage III	7	4
Total		26	24

50 patients enrolled  
the 51<sup>st</sup> patient is male, age 63, & stage III

# Minimization Method - 2

Consider lines from the precedent table for that patient's stratification levels only

	Treatment A	Treatment B	Sign of difference
Male	16	14	+
Age $\geq$ 60	4	6	-
Stage III	7	4	+
Total	27	24	2 A, 1 B -

# Minimization Method - 3

**2 possible criteria**

Count only the sign of the difference in each category

Treatment t A is “ahead” in 2 categories out of 3

Assign patient to treatment B

Add the total overall categories (27 As vs 24 Bs)

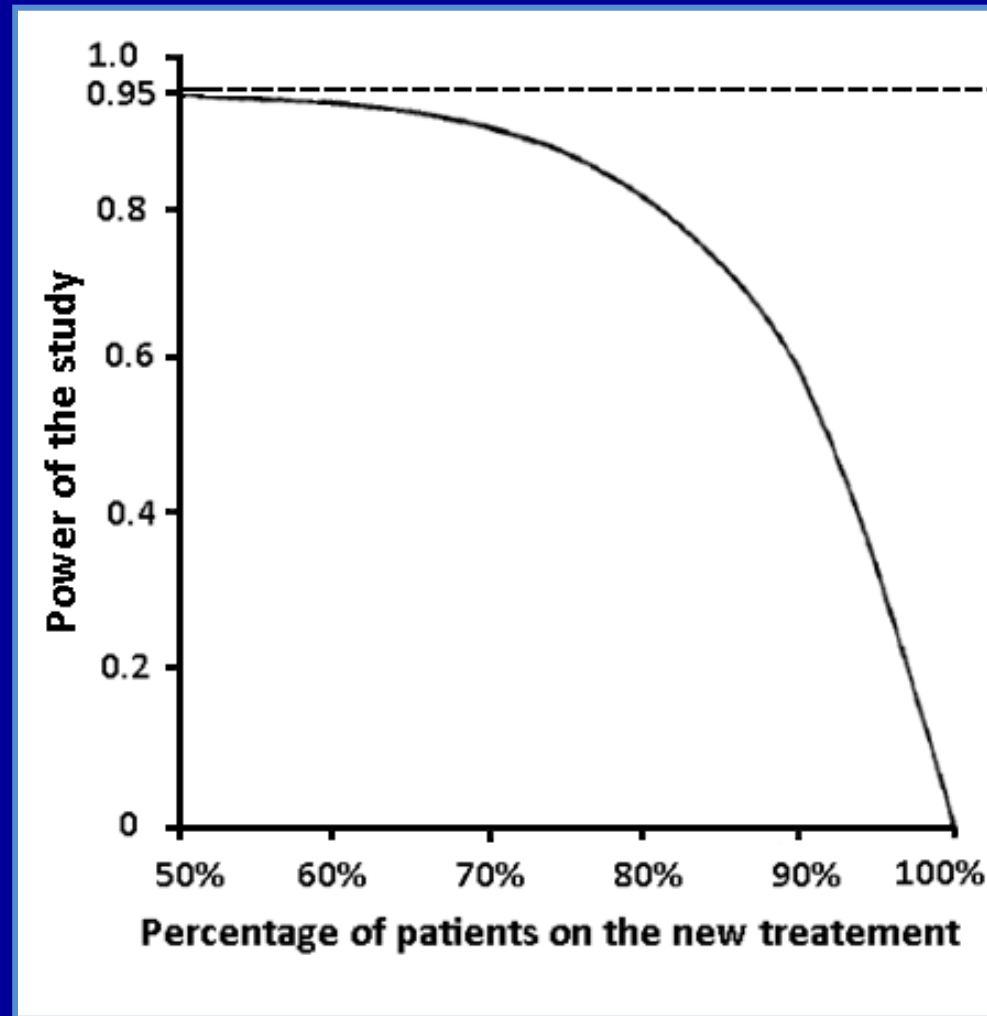
Treatment A is “ahead,” assign patient to treatment B

**Usually agree**

# Unequal randomization

- Trial comparing a new treatment against a standard one
- Investigator more interested in obtaining information about the new treatment than for the old, where such characteristics are likely to be well known
- **Unbalanced design**  
Allocating larger number of patients to new treatment group  
Power decreases slowly as proportion of new tt increases

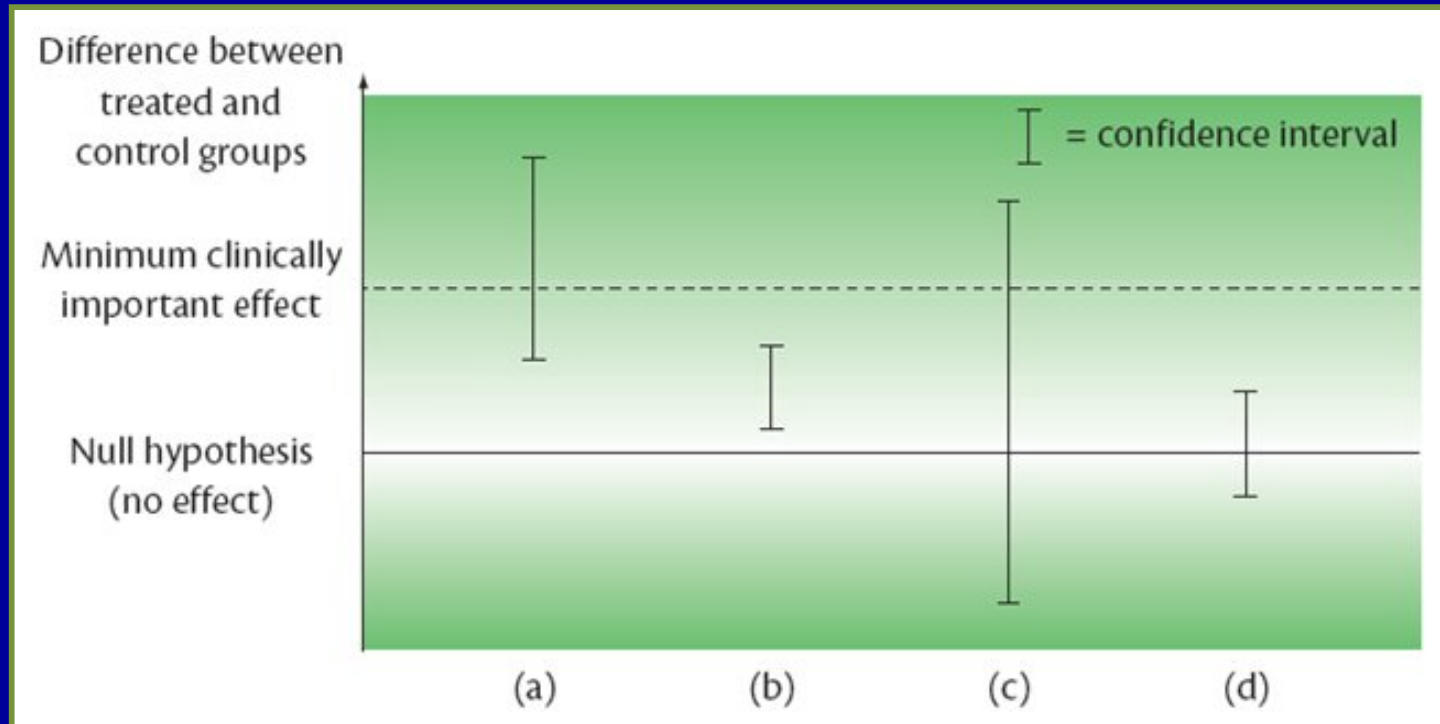
# Unequal randomization & power



Reduction in power of a trial as proportion of new tt increased

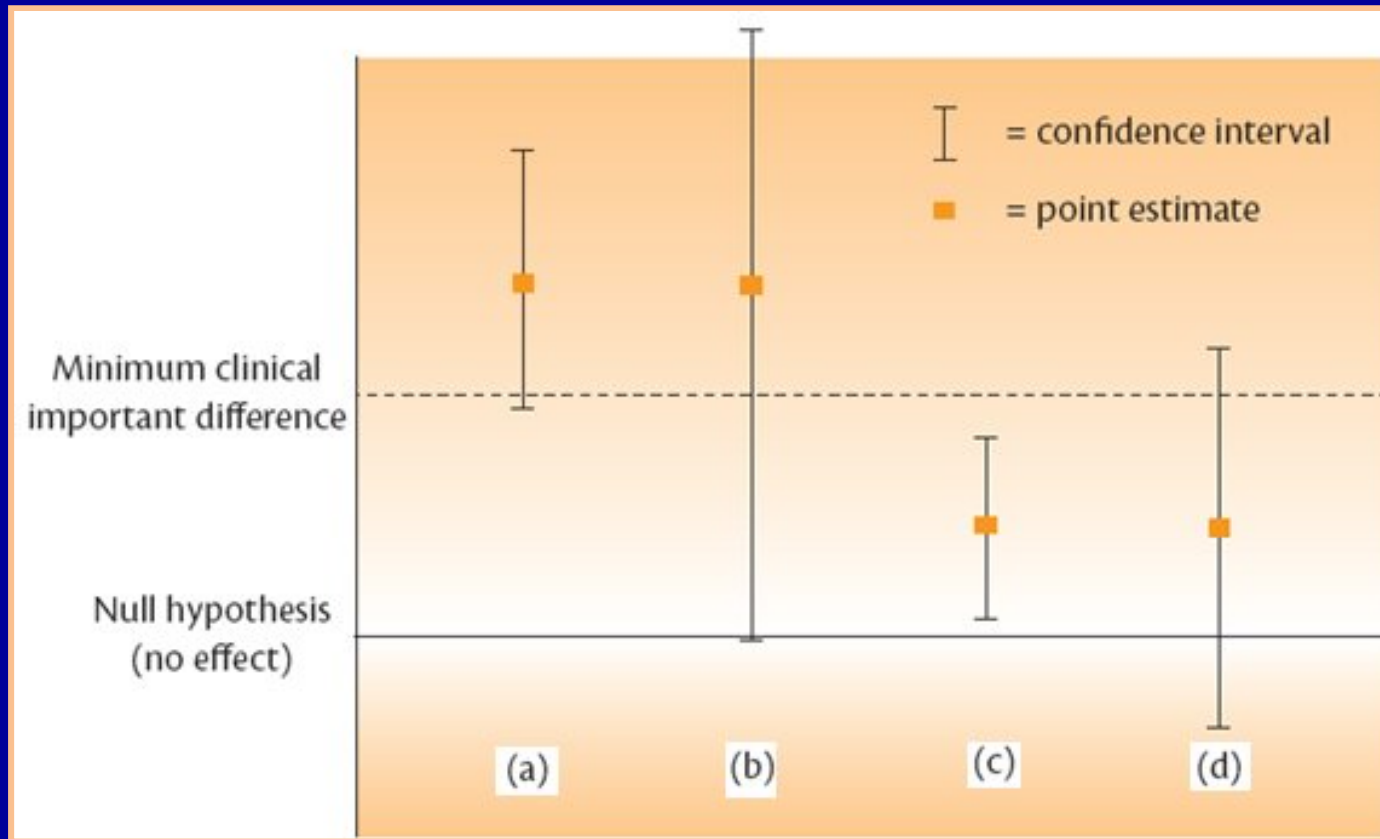
Everitt BS, Pickles A. Statistical aspects of the design & analysis of clinical trials. Imperial College Press, London, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, 2004.

# Statistical & clinical significance in CI



- (a) Statistically significant – clinically important
- (b) Statistically significant – not clinically important
- (c) Not statistically significant – inconclusive
- (d) Not statistically significant – true negative

# Statistical & clinical significance of CI



- (a) Statistically significant, clinically important
- (b) Not statistically significant, clinically important
- (c) Statistically significant, not clinically important
- (d) Not statistically significant, not clinically important

# Main types of biases in RCTs

Biases	Types
During the planning phase of a RCT	Choice-of-question bias Regulation bias Wrong design bias
During the course of a RCT	Selection bias Observation bias Population choice bias Intervention choice bias Control group bias Outcome choice bias
During the reporting of a RCT	Withdrawal bias Selective reporting bias Fraud bias
During the dissemination of a RCT	Publication bias Language bias Time lag bias

Jadad AR, Enkin MW. Randomized control trials.  
Blackwell Publishing, 2<sup>nd</sup> ed, 2007.



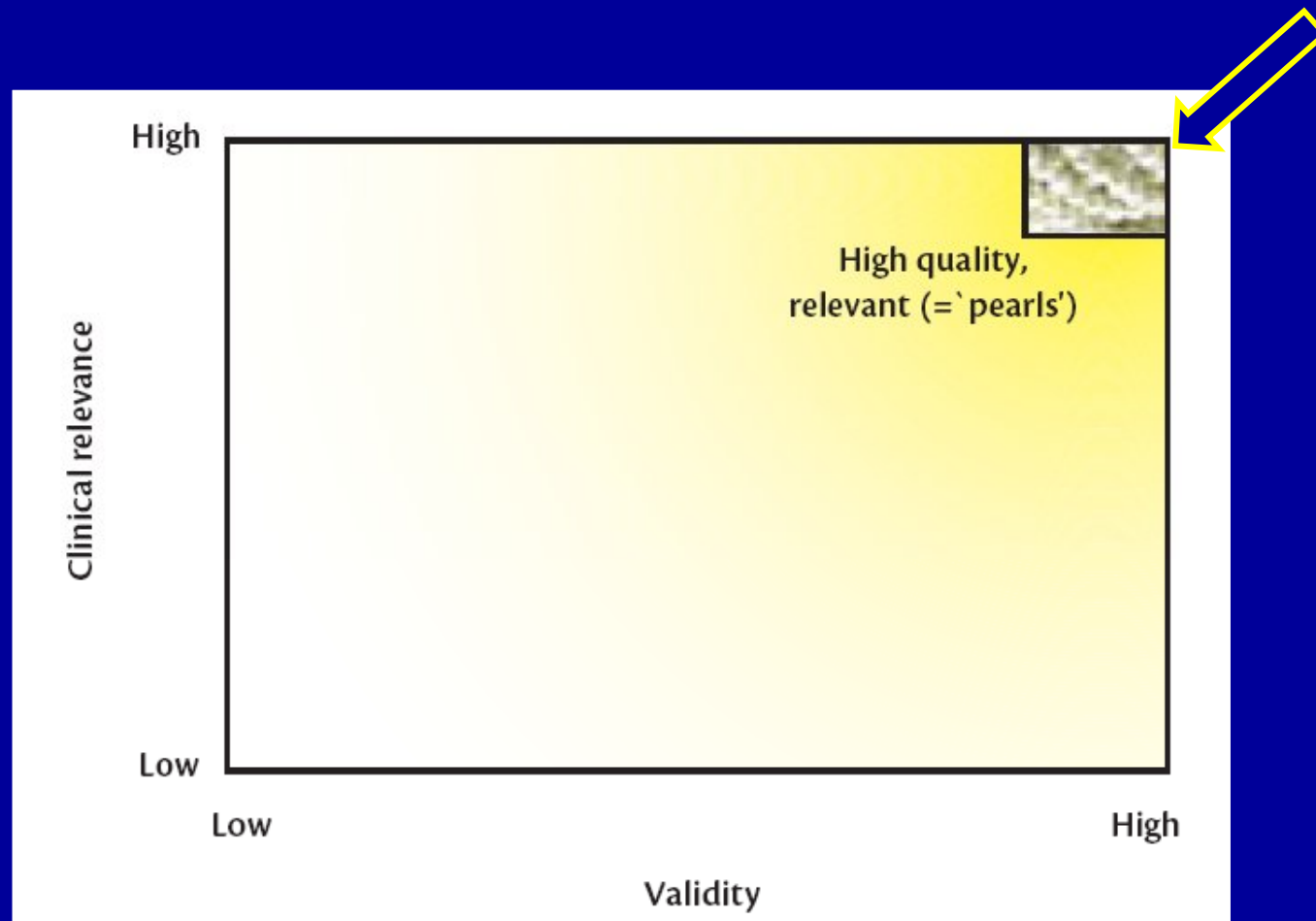
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# Trials of different phases in development of drug

Phase	Objective
<b>I</b>	Earliest types of studies Small numbers of healthy subjects Pharmacodynamics, pharmacokinetics & toxicity
<b>II</b>	Carried out in patients Find best dose of drug & to investigate safety
<b>III</b>	Major trials aimed at demonstrating efficacy Registration of a new product will be based on
<b>IV</b>	Carried out after registration of a product Marketing purposes Gain broader experience with using the new product

# High quality/relevant data – Pearls



**Pearls selected from the rest of lower quality literature**

# Ways to reduce bias in studies of therapy

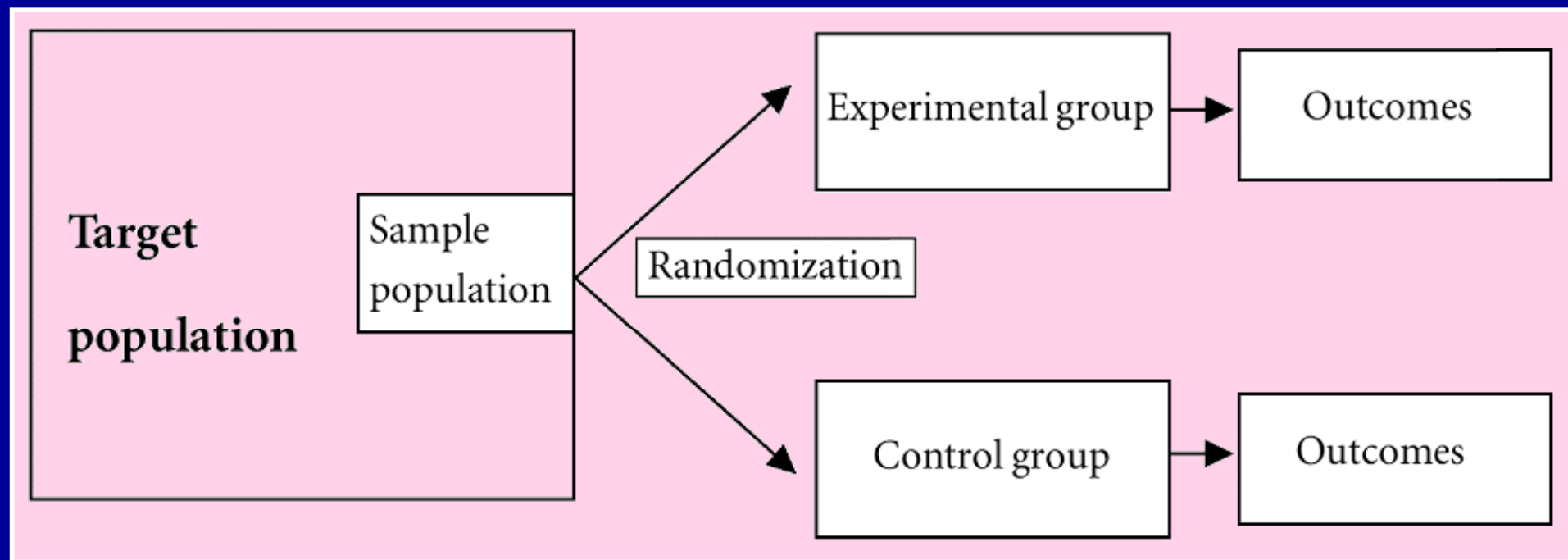
Source of Bias	Strategy to reduce Bias
<b>① Differences at the start of study</b>	
Control & tt group differ in prognosis	Randomization ± stratification
<b>② Differences as study proceeds</b>	
Placebo effects	Blinding of patients
Cointervention	Blinding of caregivers
Bias in outcome assessment	Blinding of outcome assessors
<b>③ Differences at completion of study</b>	
Loss to follow-up	Ensure complete follow-up
Stopping study early (large effect)	Complete study as inially planned
Patient not receiving assigned tt	Adhere to ITT principle

# Some historical examples of treatments with dramatic effects

- Insulin for diabetes
- Blood transfusion for severe hemorrhagic shock
- Defibrillation for ventricular fibrillation
- Neostigmine for myasthenia gravis
- Tracheotomy for tracheal obstruction
- Drainage for pain associated with abscesses
- Pressure or suturing for arresting hemorrhage

# Basic Structure of a RCT

## Parallel Trial



**Most frequently used design**

# Appraising a RCT (10 questions)

- Did the study ask a clearly focused question?
- Was the study an RCT and was it appropriately so?
- Were participants appropriately allocated to intervention and control groups?
- Were participants, staff, and study personnel blind to participants' study groups?
- Were all the participants who entered the trial accounted for at its conclusion?
- Were participants in all groups followed up and data collected in the same way?
- Did the study have enough participants to minimise the play of chance?
- How are the results presented and what are the main results?
- How precise are the results?
- Were all important outcomes considered and can the results be applied to your local population?

Critical Appraisal Skills Program. Appraisal tools.

Oxford, UK, <http://www.phru.nhs.uk/casp/rcts.htm> (accessed 8 December 2004).

# First RCT in the United States

1951

NIH started a study of adrenocorticotropic hormone (ACTH), cortisone & aspirin in the treatment of rheumatic heart disease\*

\* Rheumatic Fever Working Party. *Circulation* 1960 ; **22** : 505 – 15.



# Ethical principles of research

- All research should be approved by an **ethics committee**
- Study will justify any risk or inconvenience to the subjects
- Researchers are informed of study purpose & must have training to conduct the study with high degree of scientific integrity
- Subjects must be free to withdraw consent at any time & withdrawal must not influence their future treatment
- Subjects must be provided with information on purpose, demands of the protocol prior to their given **informed consent**

---

Nuremberg Code (1946 – 1947)

Declaration of Helsinki (World Medical Association 1964 → 2002)

# Trials in the next 50 years

Much simpler & much larger

- **Large simple RCT**

Moderate but worthwhile benefits will appear

Randomize many thousands in breast & intestinal cancer

Randomize tens of thousands in stroke & heart disease

- Design trials that are extremely **simple & flexible**

Simplify entry criteria by use of **uncertainty principle**

Simplify treatments

Simplify enormously data requirements

# The Uncertainty Principle

- A patient can be **entered** if, and only if, the responsible clinician is substantially uncertain which of the trial treatments would be most appropriate for that patient
- A patient **should not be entered** if responsible clinician or patient are, for any medical or non-medical reasons, reasonably certain that one of treatments that might be allocated would be inappropriate for this patient

# Why a RCT?

- Main purpose is to prevent selection bias by distributing characteristics of patients that may influence the outcome randomly between the groups, so that any difference in outcome can be explained only by treatment
- Thus, there will be balancing of baseline differences between intervention groups that may affect outcome such
  - Age
  - Sex
  - Disease activity
  - Duration of disease

# Patients not adhered to allocated management

- **Per protocol analysis**

Excluding participants from analysis

Those who adhere tend to do better than who do not

Destroys comparison afforded by randomization

- **Intention-to treat bias**

If effective treatment & substantial nonadherence  
underestimates magnitude of treatment effect

Using protocol ensuring maximal adherence

**Run-in periods:** exclude nonadherents before R

# Blinding

Sometimes called masking

- **Single blind** Only patients or only investigators are ignorant of assigned treatment
- **Double blind** Patients & investigators are ignorant of assigned treatment
- **Triple blind** Patients, investigators & data evaluators are ignorant of assigned treatment

# History of Streptomycin – 1

- Nov 1943** Isolated by Albert Schatz – PhD student  
Pr Waksman – Rutgers University -NJ  
Developed by the American firm Merck
- 1945** Feldman showed effect on TB in guinea pigs  
Merck invested \$3.5m in new plant  
10 other firms tried to produce the drug
- July 1946** Feldman visited Britain at instigation of MRC  
Persuasive presentations in Oxford & London  
Ministry of Supply asked MRC to plan CT

# History of Streptomycin – 2

- Oct 1946** Creation of SPM Clinical Trials Committee  
Marshall (chairman), Philip Hart (secretary)  
Bradford Hill (Statistician-Random allocation)
- Nov 1946** 50 kg to British government at \$ 320.000  
Only hope to obtain SPM through MRC  
BBC broadcast many emergency appeals  
Black market emerged
- 1948** BMJ report  
Pains to defend use of untreated control group



# Why is blinding/masking so important

- Vitamin C trial for prevention & treatment of common cold
- Conducted among employees at NIH
- Many of enrollees could not resist temptation to analyze the content of their blinded study medications
- Among participants who did not break the blind, mean duration of colds was similar in the two groups
- Among participants who knew they were taking vit C reported shorter cold durations than those who knew they took placebo

# Treatment Allocation by Minimization

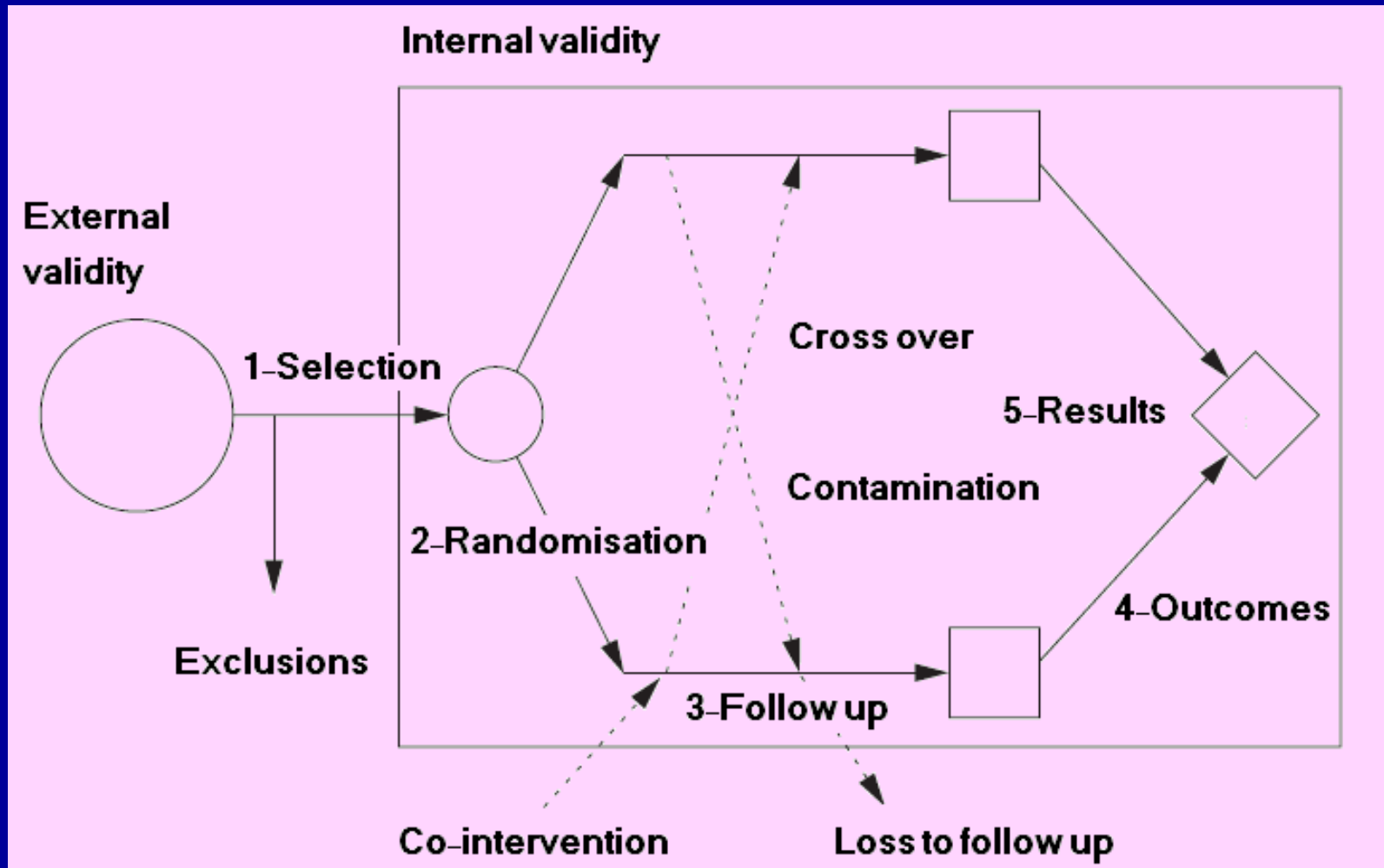
## Different principle from randomization

- First described by Taves in 1974\*
- First participant is allocated at random  
For each subsequent participant, we determine which treatment lead to better balance between groups
- Ensure excellent balance between groups for several prognostic factors even in small samples
- Possible by hand or software (minim\*\*, free program)

\* Taves DR. Clin Pharmacol Therap 1974; 15 : 443 - 453

\*\* <http://www-users.york.ac.uk/zmb55/guide/minim.htm>

# Sources of Bias in RCTs



# Wrong or Unreliable Therapeutic Answers

**Wrong therapeutic answers are generated by:**

- Nonrandomized “outcomes research”
- Small randomized studies
- Small meta-analyses
- Statistically inappropriate analyses
- Large scale randomized evidence  
Selective emphasis on particular trials or subgroups

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underestimates magnitude of treatment effect

Using protocol ensuring maximal adherence

**Run-in periods:** exclude nonadherents before R

# Blinding

Sometimes called masking

- **Single blind** Participants don't know details of treatment  
Researchers do
- **Double blind** Both participants & data collectors  
are ignorant of assigned treatment
- **Triple blind** Participants, data collectors, & data  
evaluators are all blinded

**Production of streptomycin  
was technically difficult**



Porter RW. Chemical Engineering 1946 (Oct).

# History of streptomycin

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Developed by American firm Merck
- **1945**  
10 other firms tried to produce SPM
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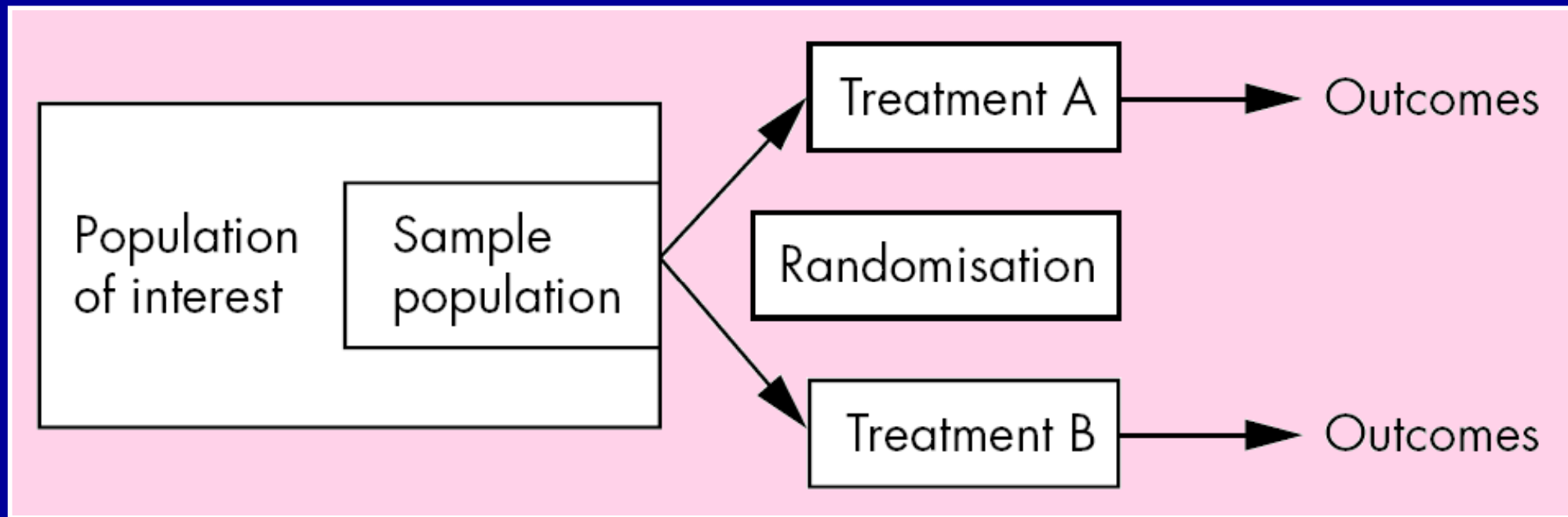
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Underestimates magnitude of treatment effect

Using protocol ensuring maximal adherence

**Run-in periods:** exclude nonadherents before randomization

# Basic Structure of a RCT Parallel Trial



Each group exposed only to one of study interventions  
Most frequently used design

# Ways to reduce bias in studies of therapy

## Differences at the start of trial

Difference in prognostic factors	Randomization & stratification
----------------------------------	--------------------------------

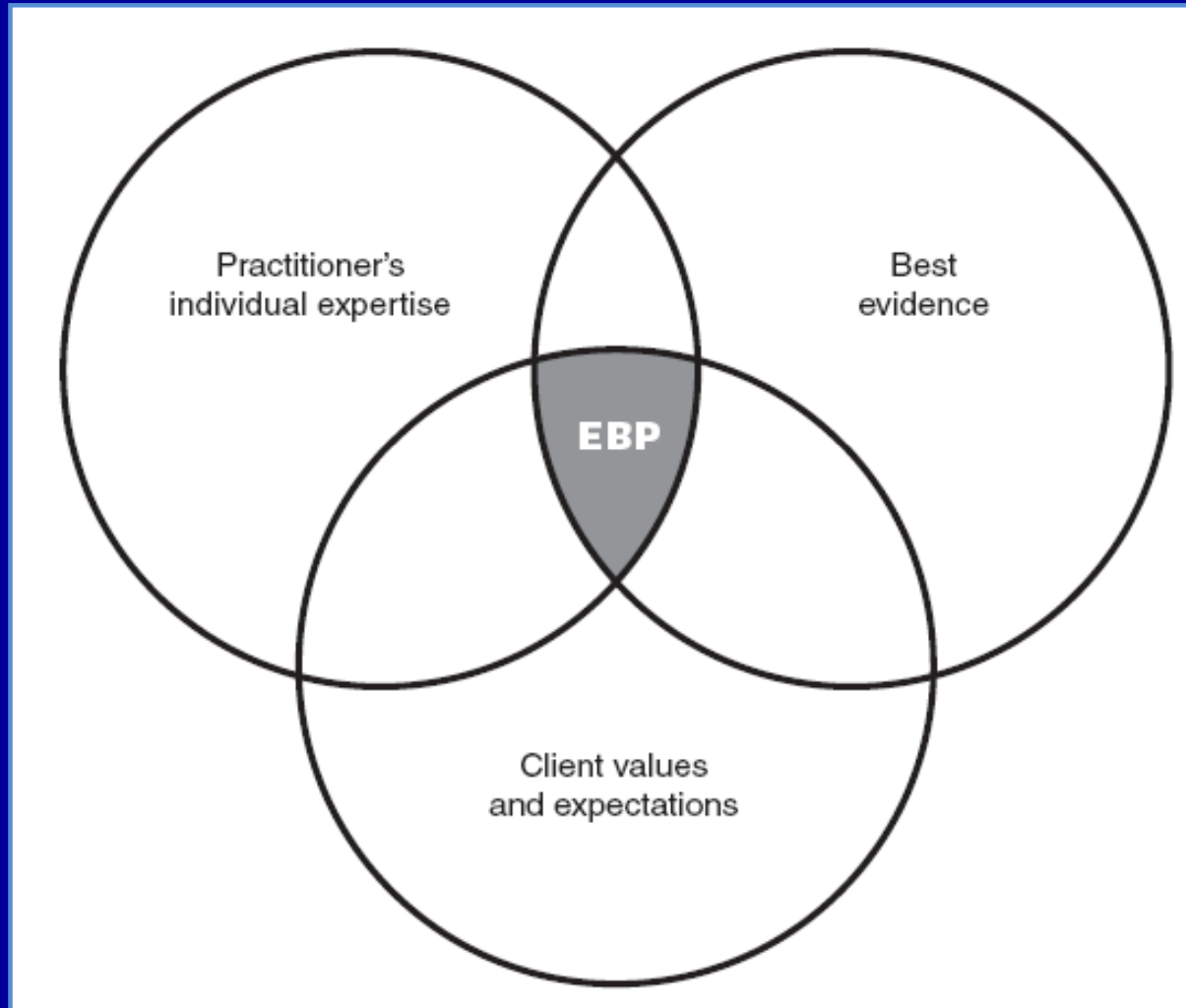
## Differences as trial proceeds

Placebo effects	→	Blinding of patients
Cointervention	→	Blinding of caregivers
Bias in outcome assessment	→	Blinding of outcome assessors

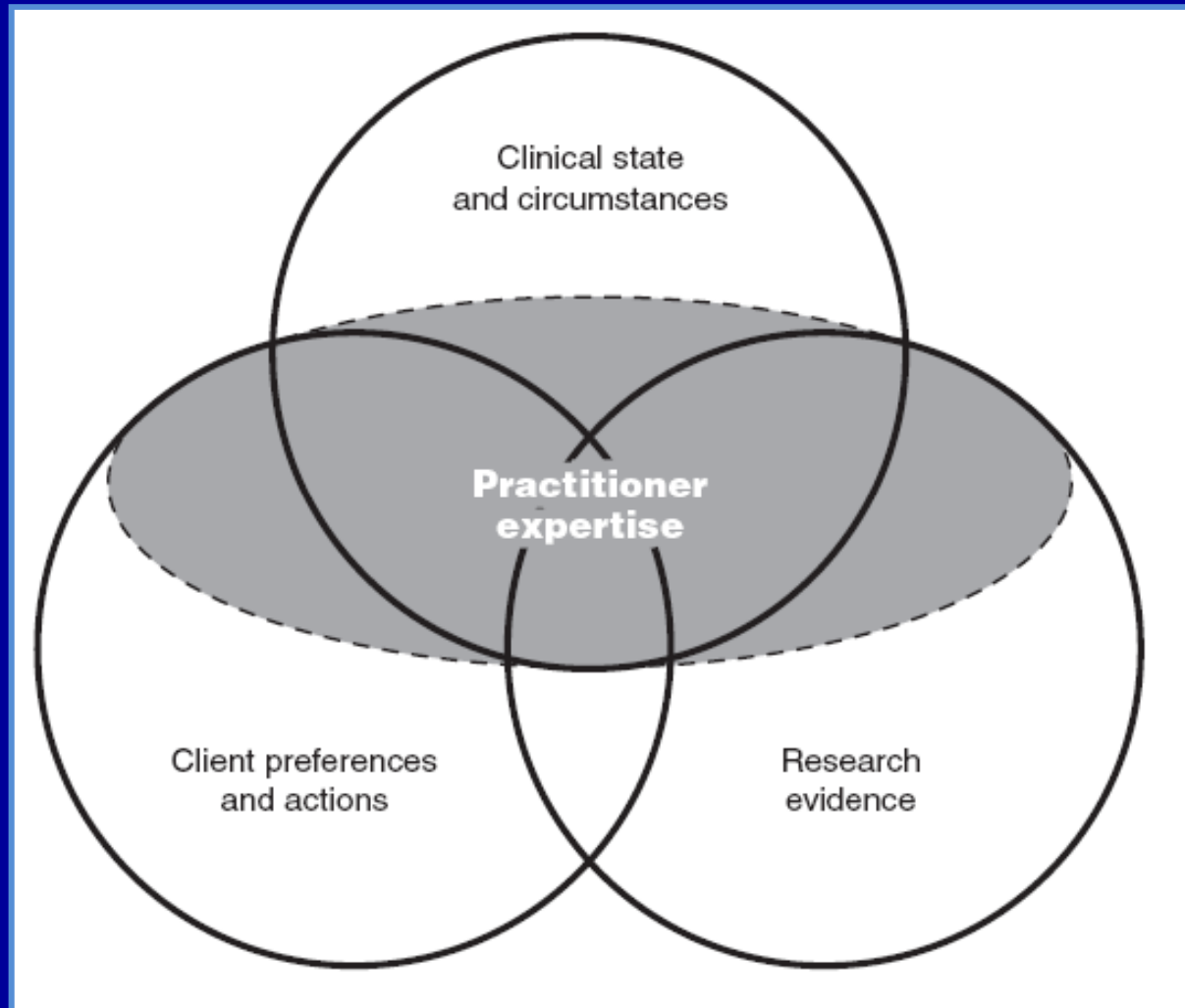
## Differences at end of the trial

Loss to follow-up	→	Ensure complete follow-up
Stopping study early	→	Complete study as planned
Pts not receiving assigned tt	→	ITT principle

# Original EBP model

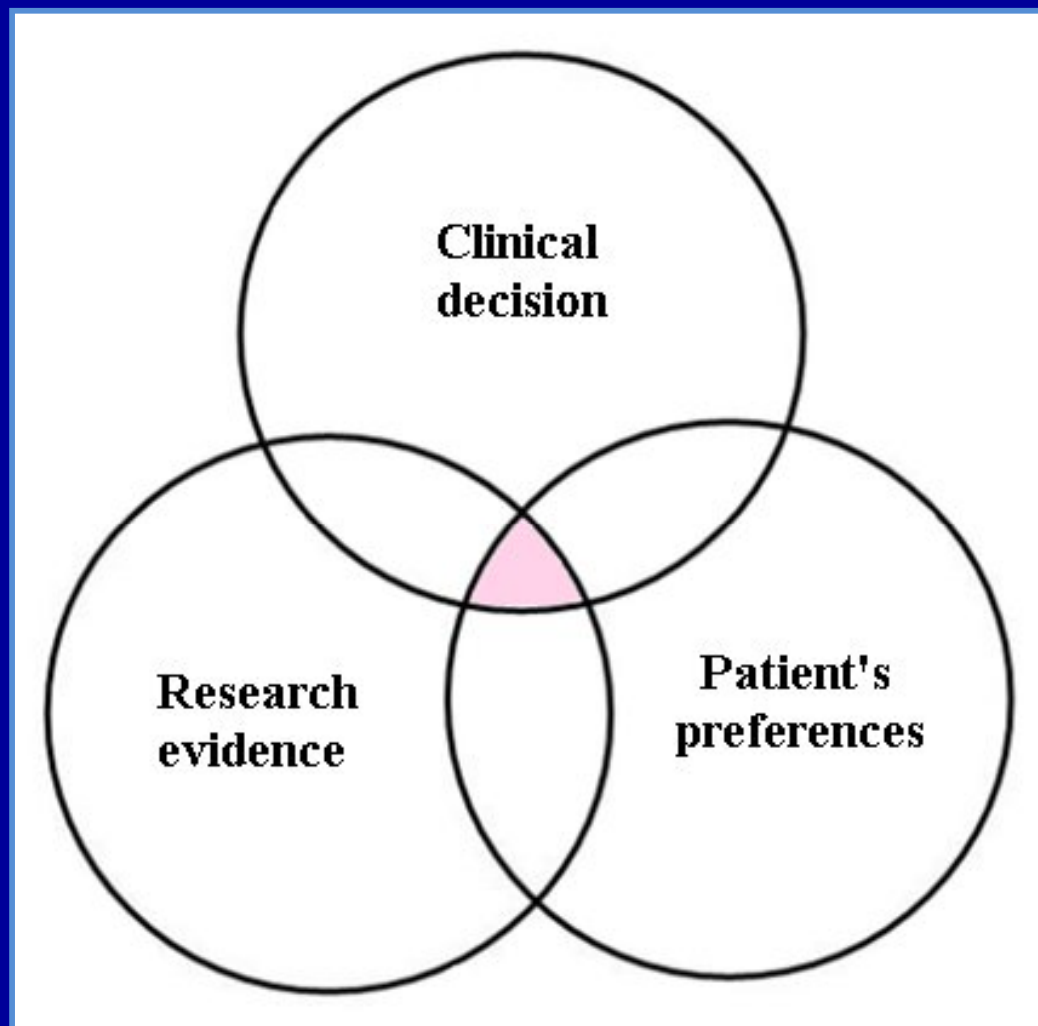


# Newer EBP model



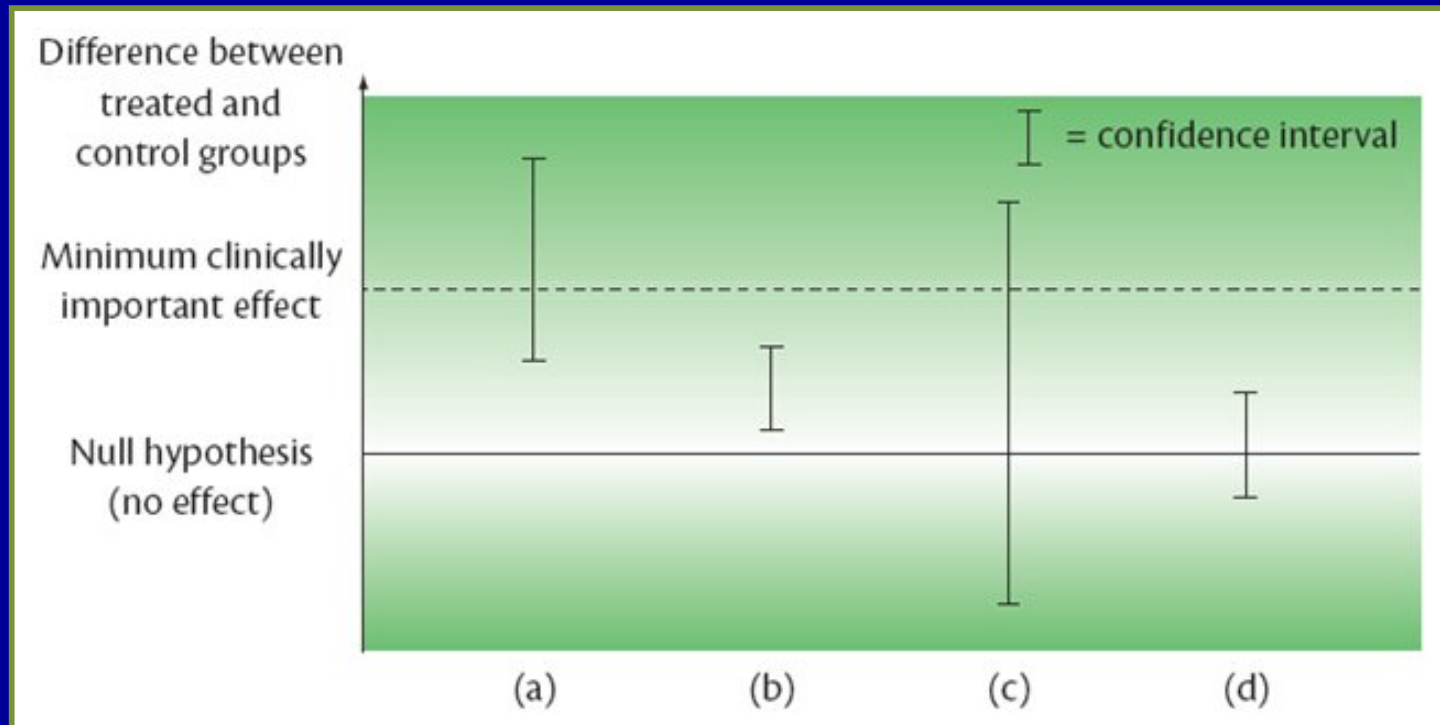
Haynes R t al. British Medical Journal, 2002 ; 324 : 1350.

# Basic elements of clinical decision making



**BMC Health Services Research 2002, 2:3**

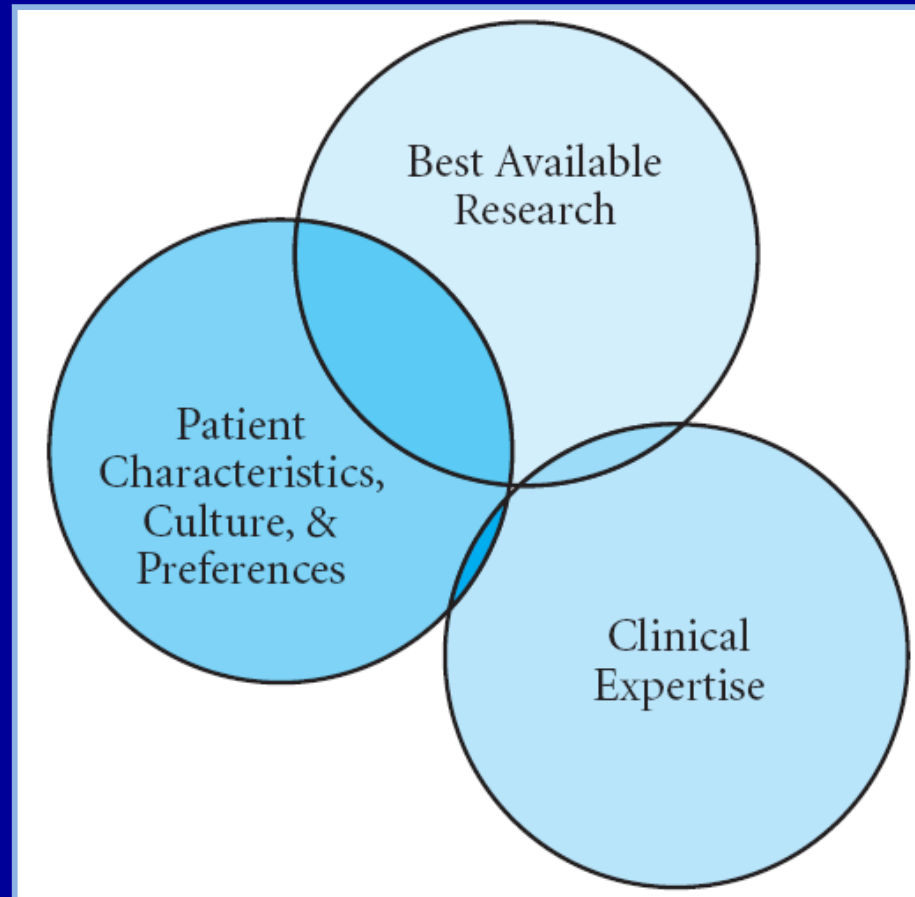
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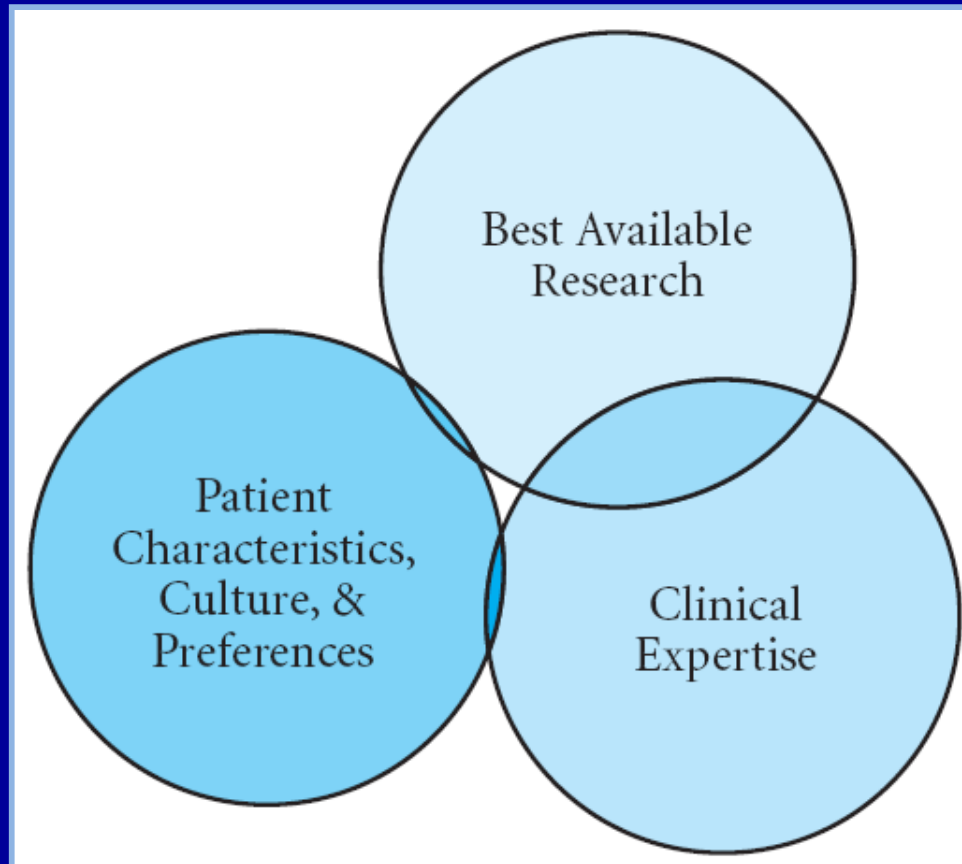
# The 3 EBP components



Minimal overlap with clinical expertise

Clinician's guide to evidence-based practices.  
Norcross JC et al. Oxford University Press, New York, 2008.

# The 3 EBP components



Minimal overlap with patient preferences & culture

Clinician's guide to evidence-based practices.  
Norcross JC et al. Oxford University Press, New York, 2008.

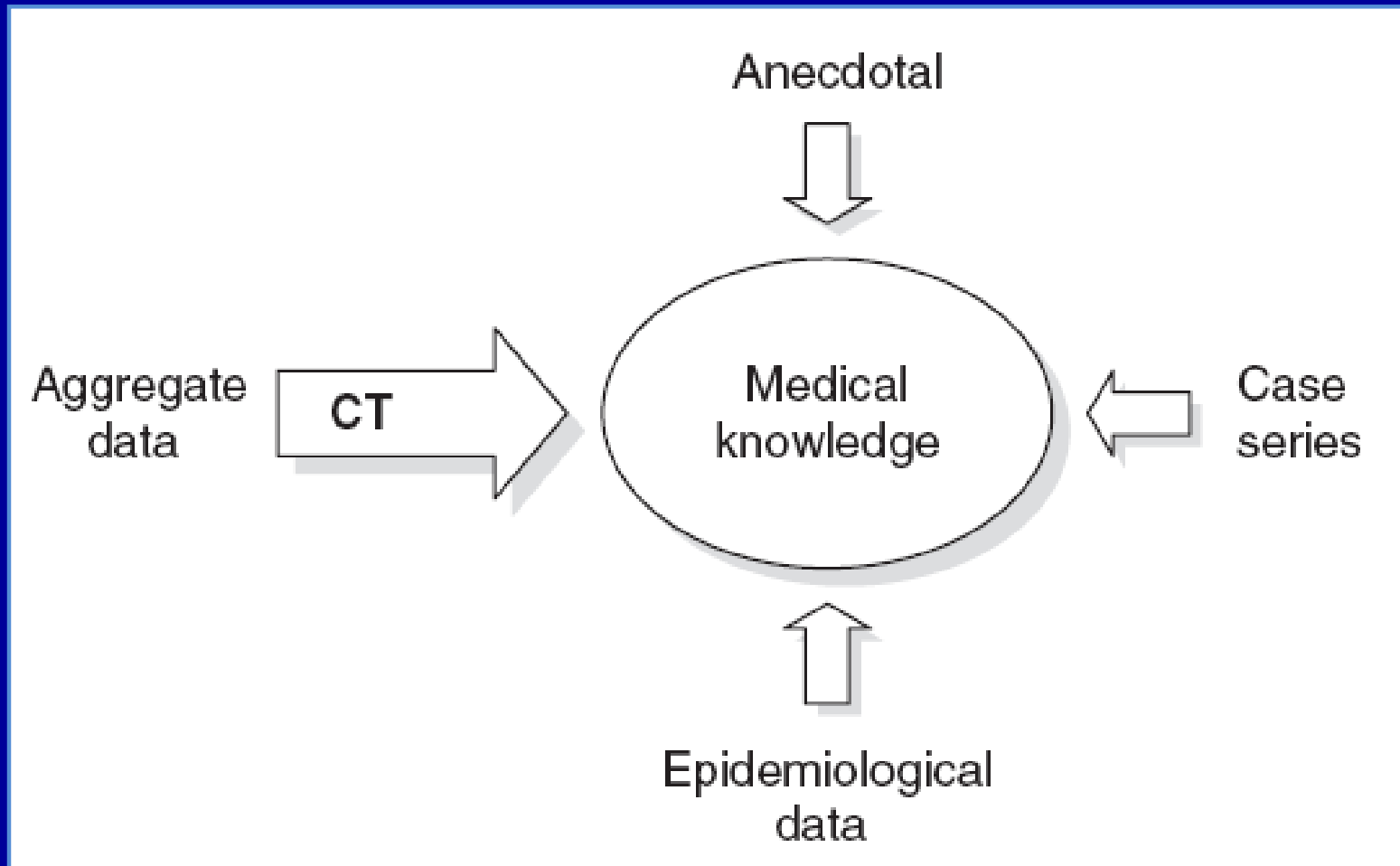
# The 3 EBP components



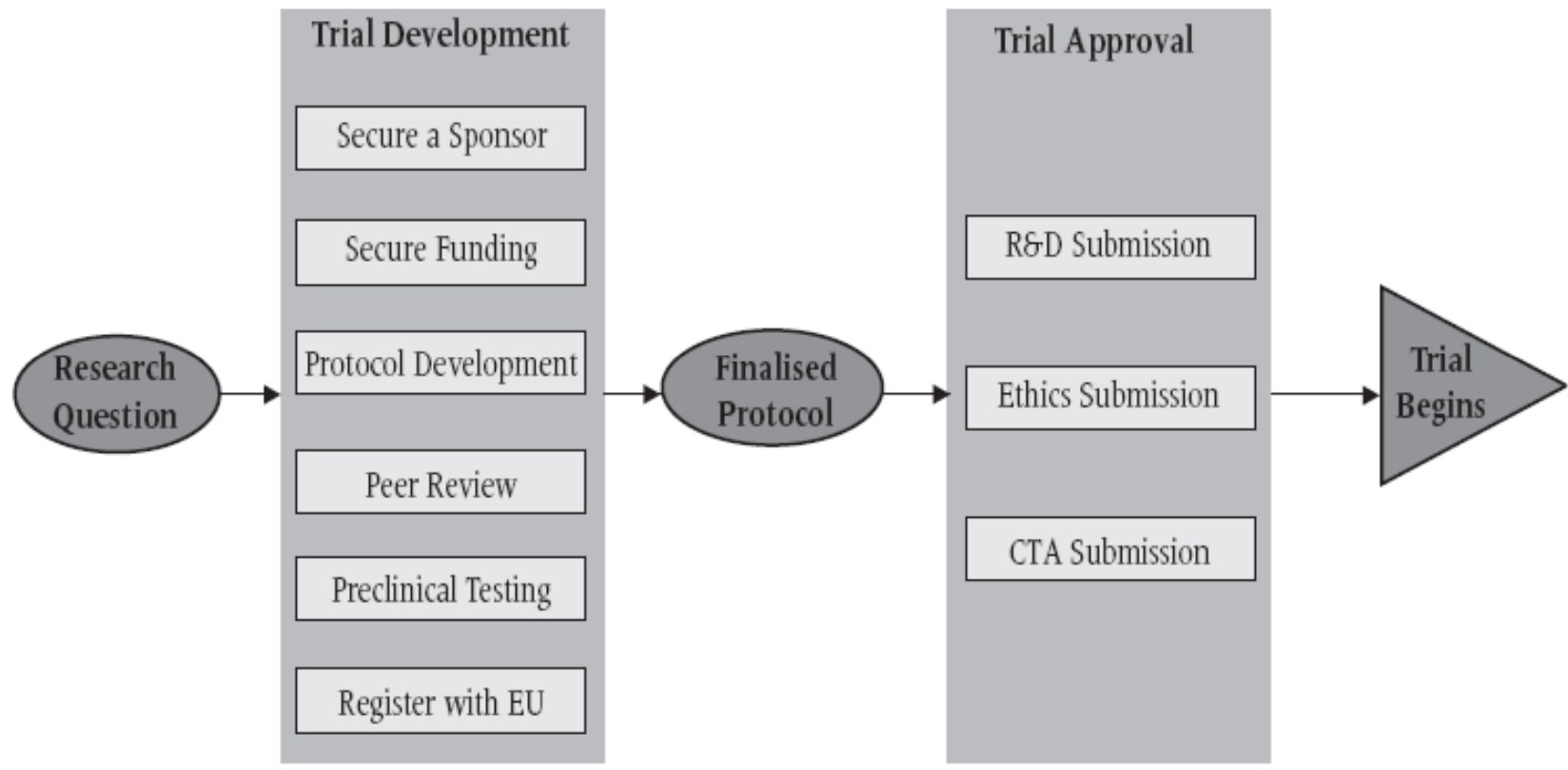
Minimal overlap with available research

Clinician's guide to evidence-based practices.  
Norcross JC et al. Oxford University Press, New York, 2008.

# Sources of medical knowledge

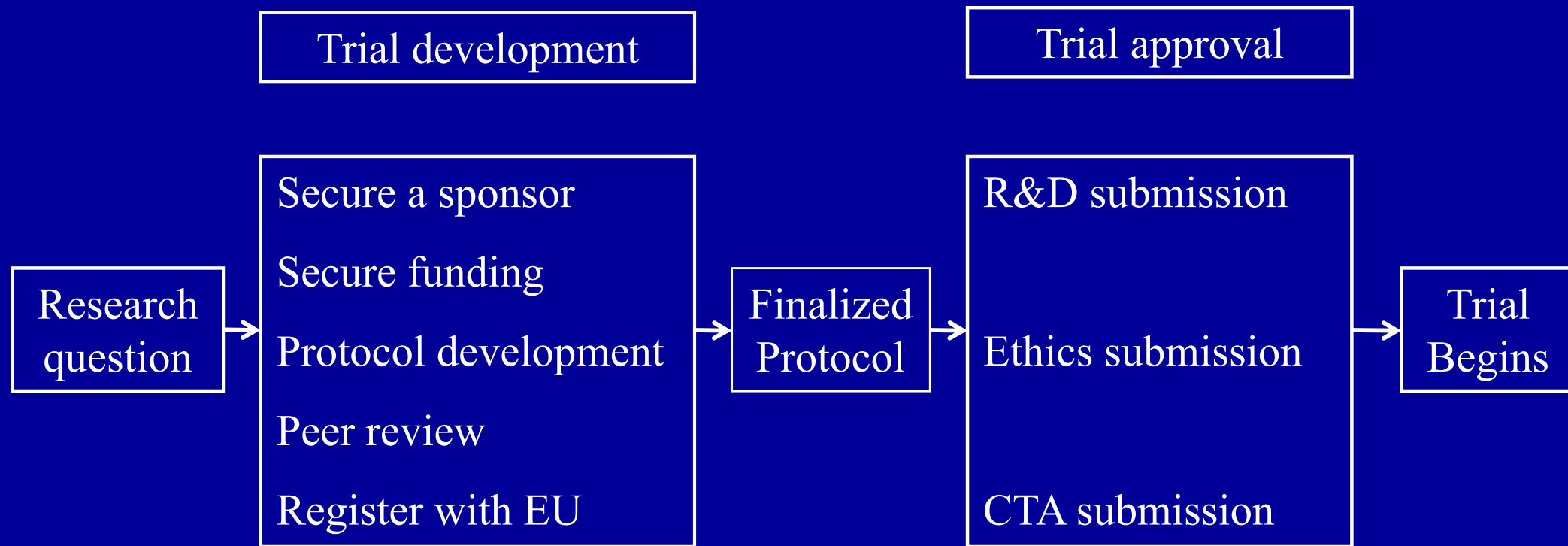


Chin R, Lee BY. Principal & practice of clinical trial medicine. AP

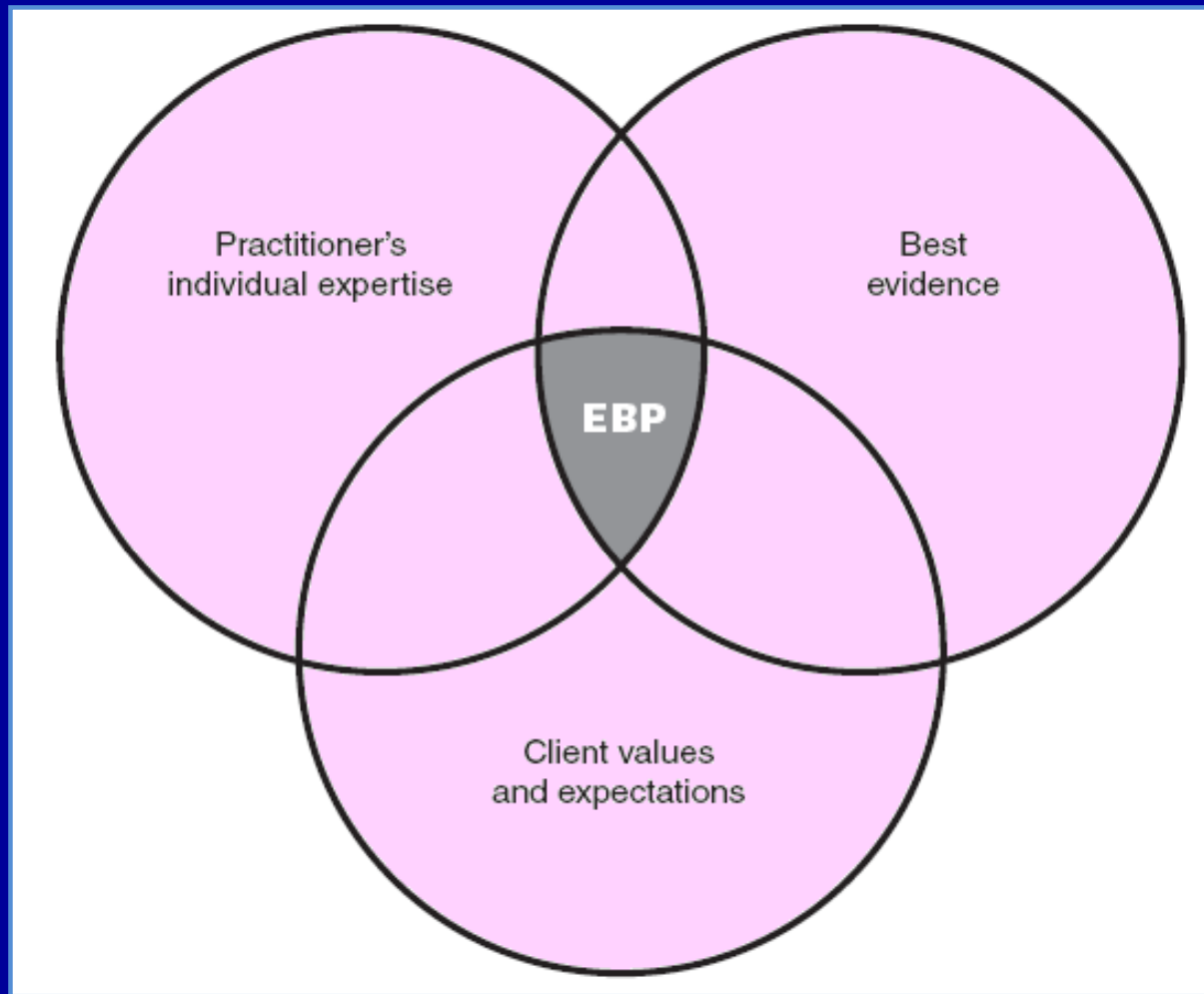


R & D: Research & Development Committee

# Development & approval of clinical trials



# The 3 EBP components



Major convergence between the 3 components

Rubin A. Practitioner's guide to using research for EB practice.  
John Wiley & Sons, 2007

**Clinical epidemiology**



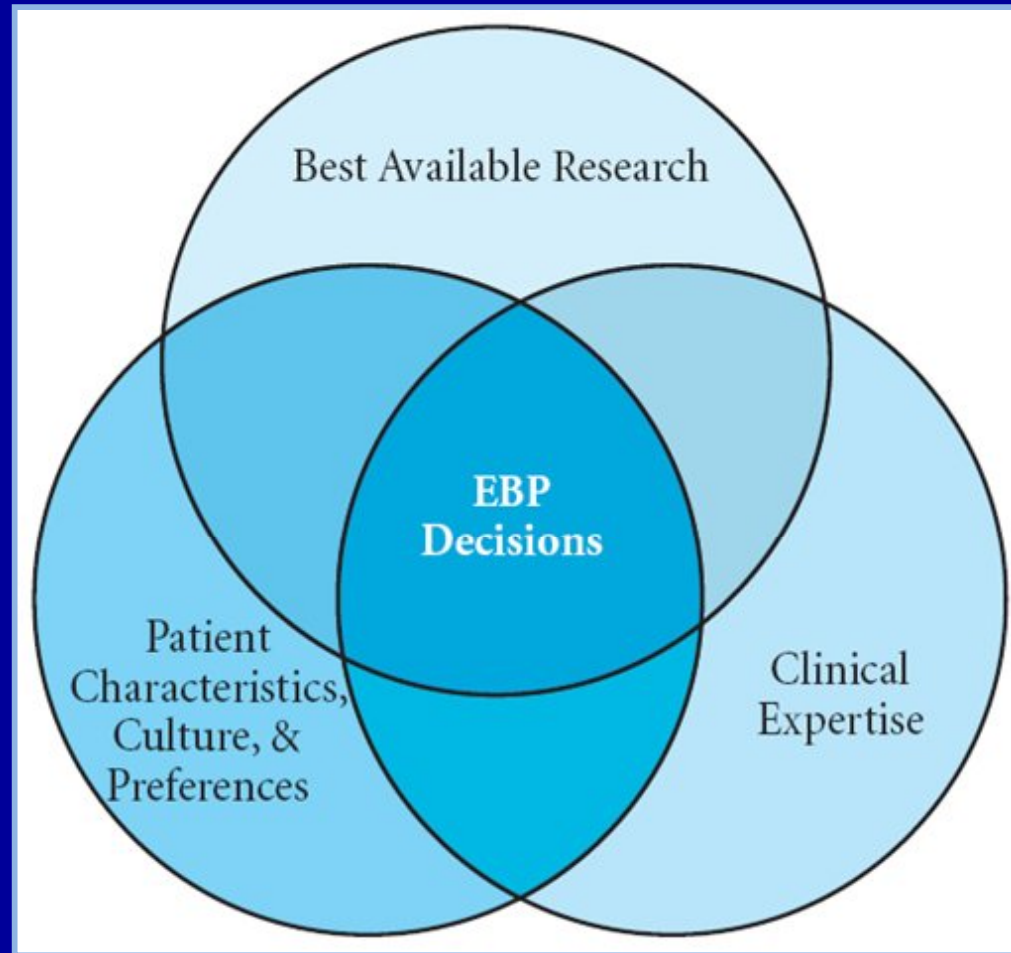
**Evidence-based medicine**



**Evidence-based practice**



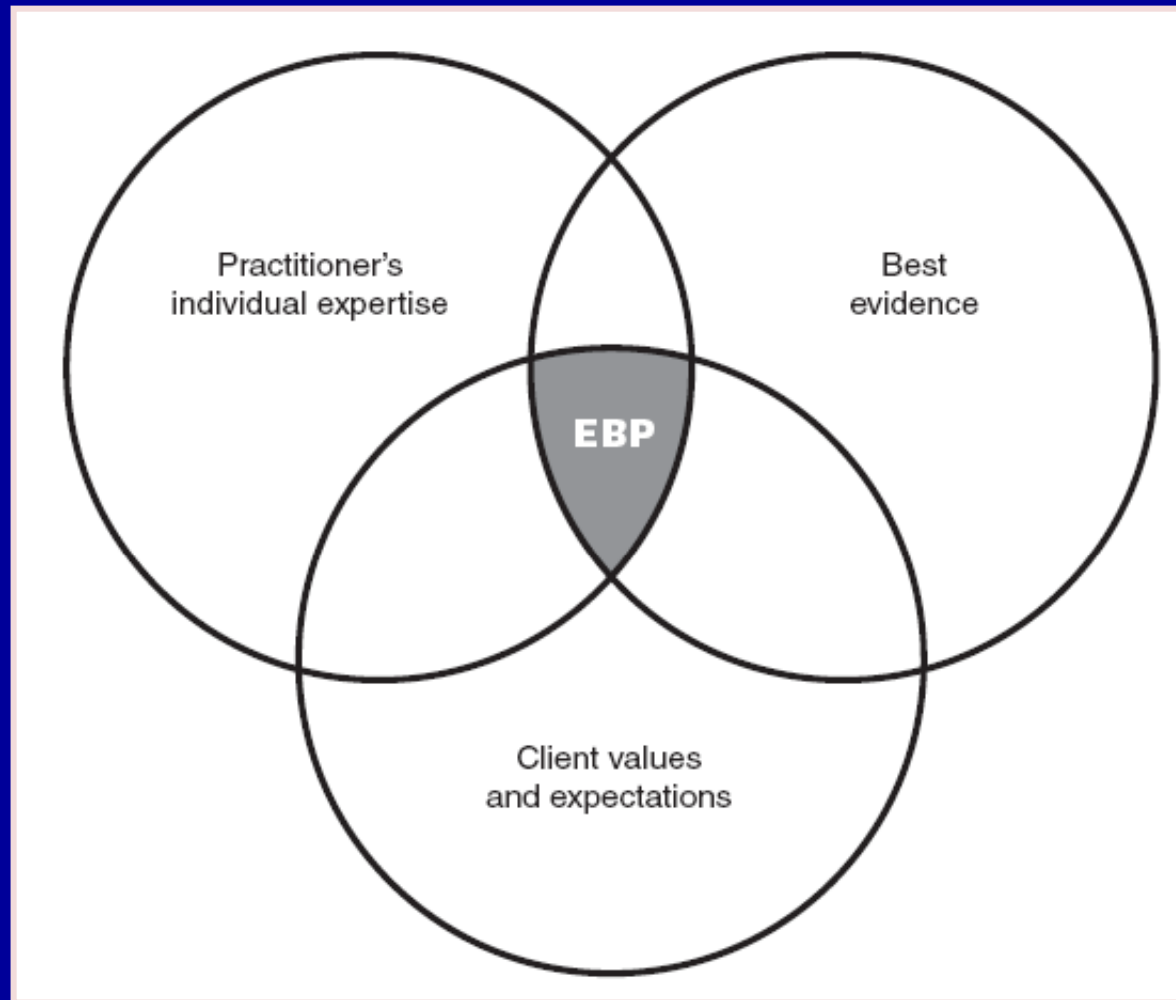
# The 3 EBP components



Major convergence between the 3 components

Clinician's guide to evidence-based practices.  
Norcross JC et al. Oxford University Press, New York, 2008.

# The 3 EBP components



Major convergence between the 3 components

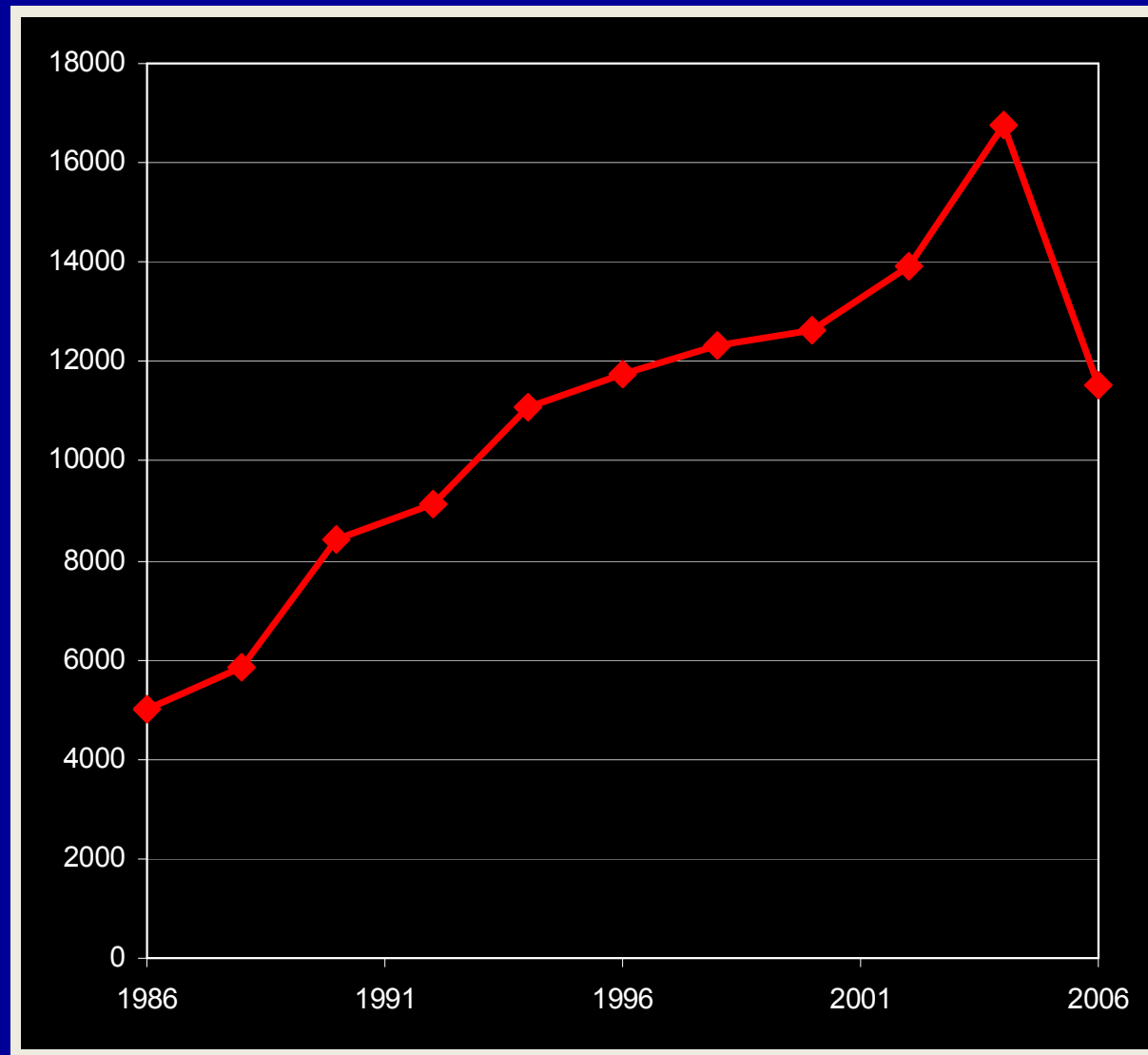
Rubin A. Practitioner's guide to using research for EB practice.  
John Wiley & Sons, 2007

# Trial design

- **Systematic review**
- **Meta-analysis**
- **Randomized controlled trial**
- **Cohort study**
- **Case control study**
- **Cross-sectional study**
- **Case series & case report**

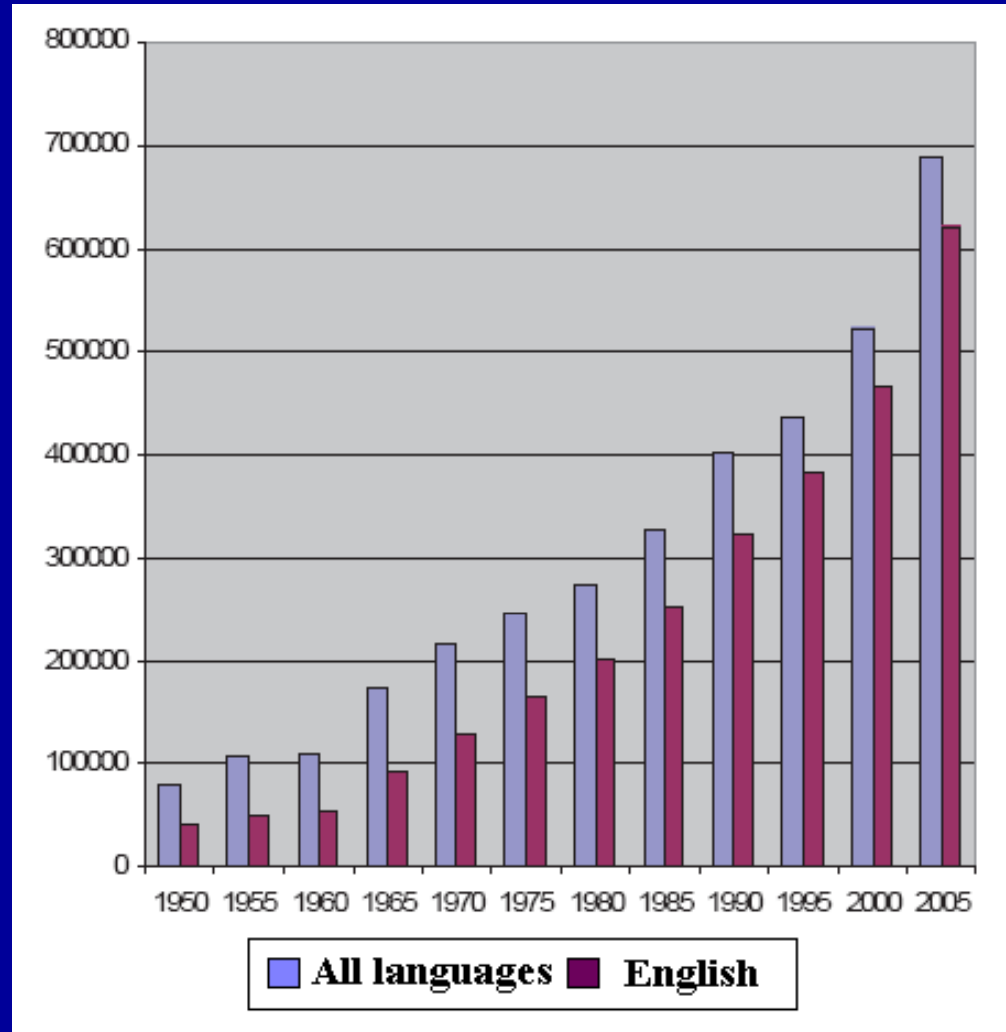
} **Based on RCTs**

# Number of randomized trials published\*



\* Based on Medline search restricted to “Randomized clinical trials”

# Annual addition of articles to PubMed



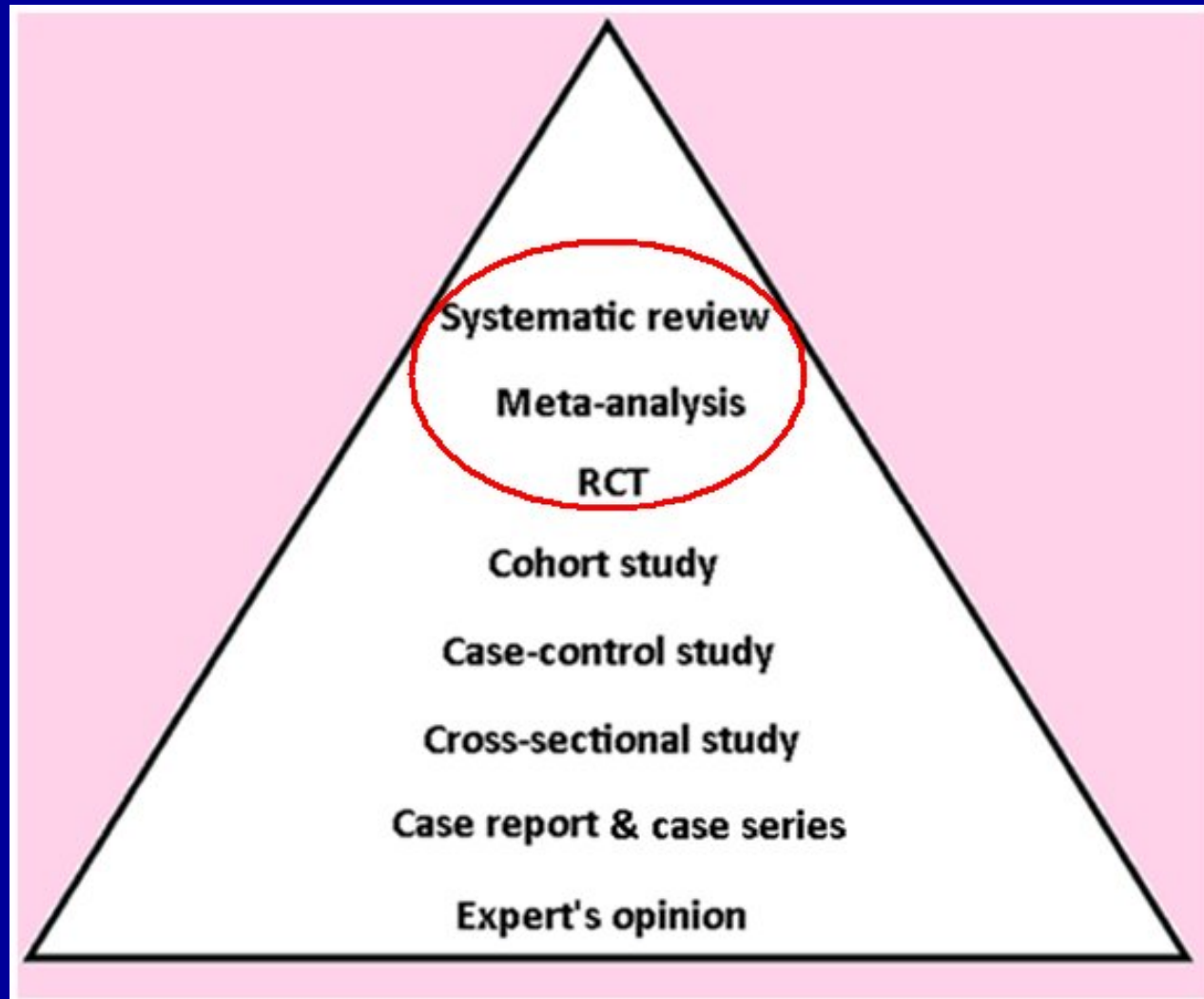
50 years ago: majority of articles published in non-English  
Currently: 90% of articles published in English

De Brún C et al. Searching skills toolkit: Finding the evidence.  
John Wiley & Sons, West Sussex, 1<sup>st</sup> edition, 2009.

# Sealed opaque envelope



# Hierarchy of evidence in quantitative studies



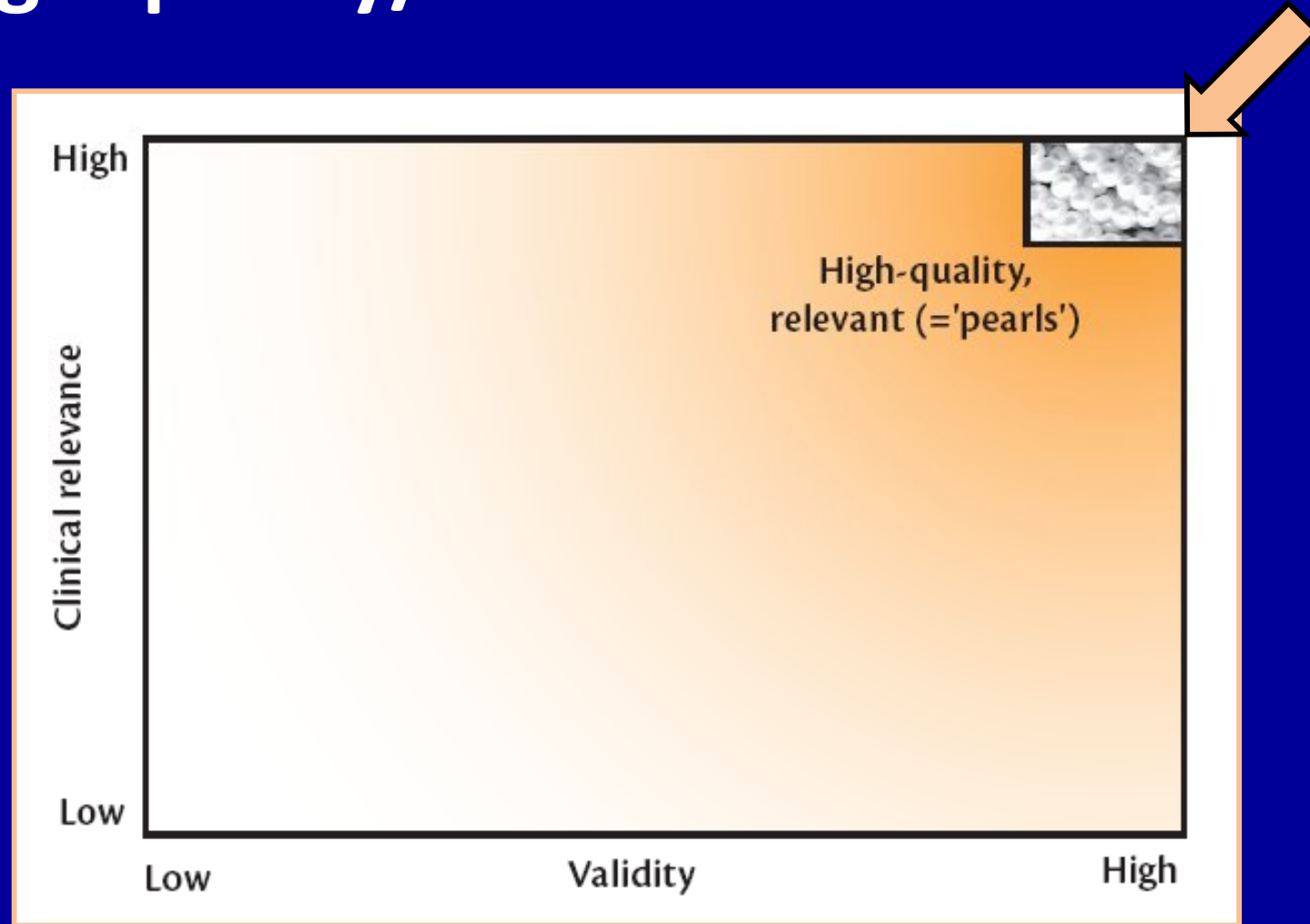
McGovern D, Summerskill W, Valori R, Levi M. Key topics in EBM.  
BIOS Scientific Publishers, 1<sup>st</sup> Edition, Oxford, 2001.

# What is bias?

- **Tendency of an estimate to deviate in one direction from a true value** (underestimation or overestimation)
- More commonly **unintentional**, & often **unrecognized** even by researchers themselves



# High quality/relevant data – Pearls



Finding high-quality evidence is like searching for ‘rare pearls’

Glasziou P, Del Mar C. Evidence based practice workbook.  
Blackwell Publishing, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, 2007.

# Study types

```
graph TD; A[Study types] --> B[Observational]; A --> C[Interventional or experimental]; B --> D[Descriptive]; B --> E[Analytic]; D --> D1["Cross-sectional<br/>Case series<br/>Case report"]; E --> E1["Cohort<br/>Case-control"]; C --> F[RCT]
```

The diagram is a hierarchical flowchart on a dark blue background. At the top is a white box labeled 'Study types'. Two arrows point down from this box to two more white boxes: 'Observational' on the left and 'Interventional or experimental' on the right. From 'Observational', two arrows point down to 'Descriptive' and 'Analytic'. From 'Descriptive', three arrows point down to 'Cross-sectional', 'Case series', and 'Case report'. From 'Analytic', two arrows point down to 'Cohort' and 'Case-control'. From 'Interventional or experimental', one arrow points down to 'RCT'.

**Observational**

**Interventional  
or experimental**

**Descriptive**

**Analytic**

**Cross-sectional**

**Case series**

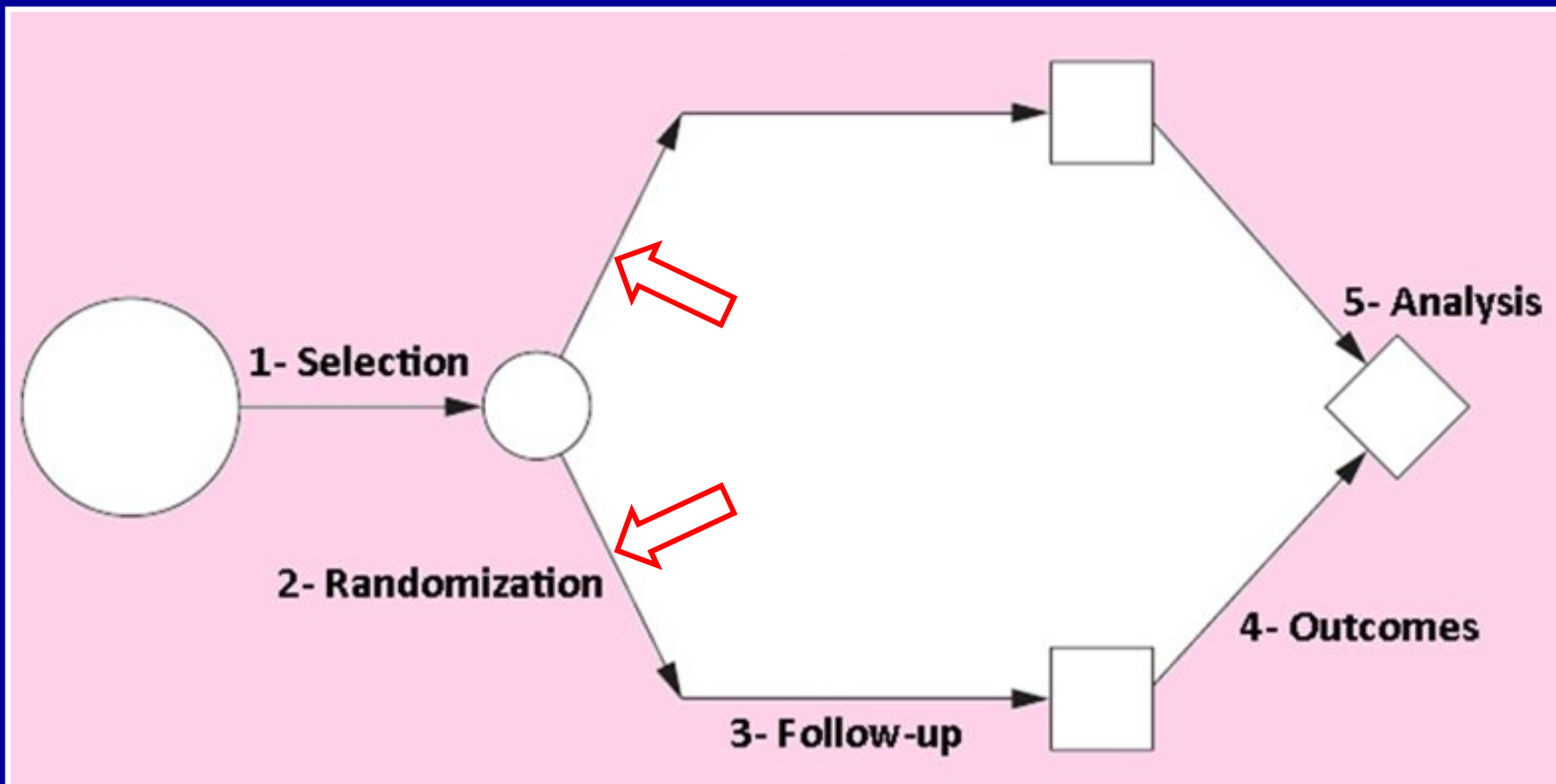
**Case report**

**Cohort**

**Case-control**

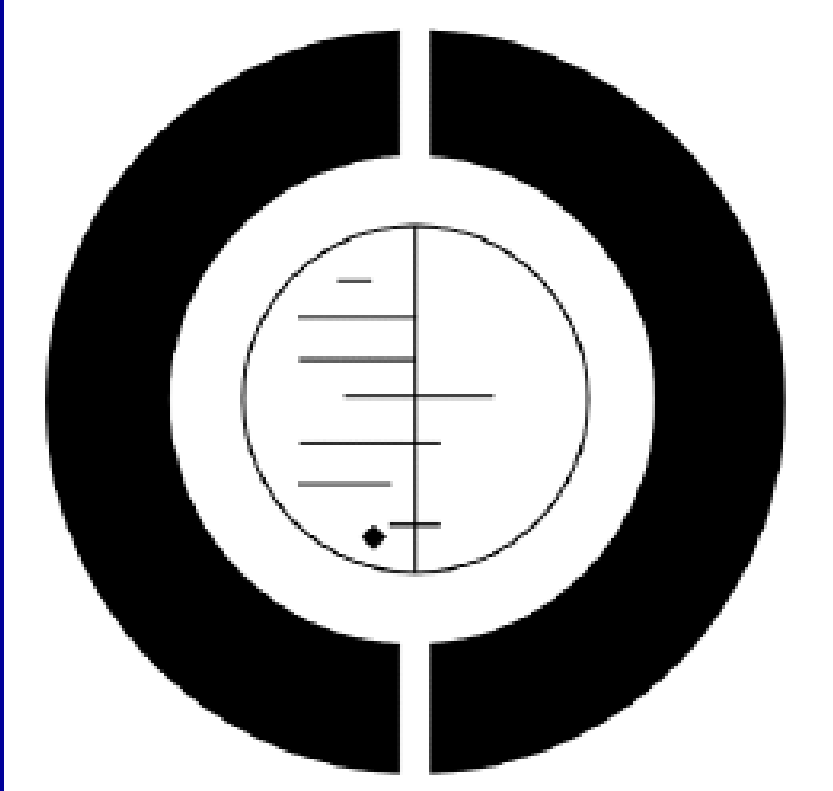
**RCT**

# Randomization in RCTs



# Sir Austin Bradford Hill

- Studied medicine when World War 1 intervened
- Pilot in the World War 1
- Contracted TB: 2 years hospital -2 years convalescence
- Took a degree of Economics by correspondence
- **1922** Attended statistical lectures by Karl Pearson
- **1933** Reader in Epidemiology & Vital Statistics
- **1947** Professor of Medical Statistics
- **1950-52** President of the Royal Statistical Society



# High quality/relevant data Pearls

**If it is not valid**



**It is of no value**

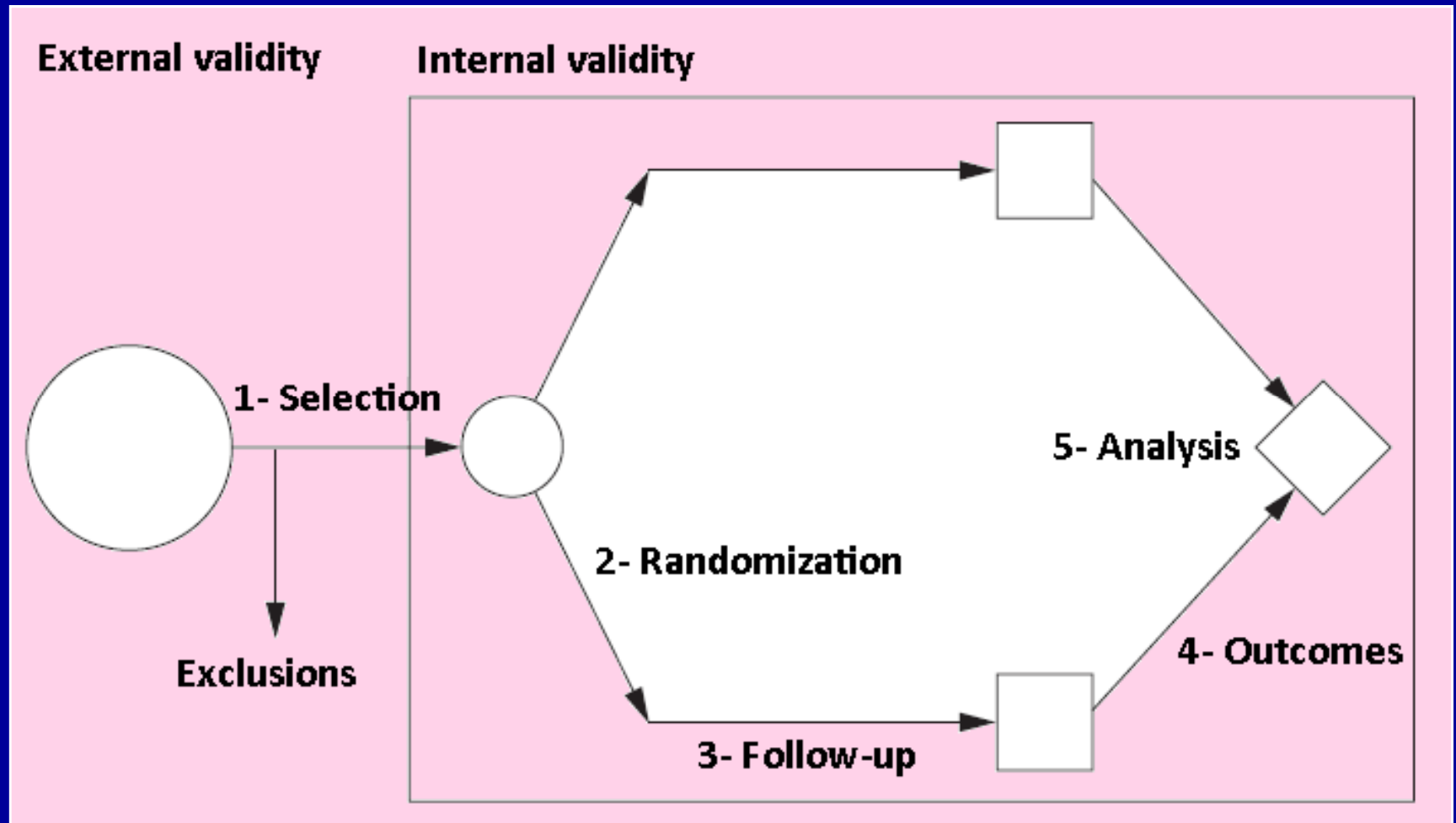
**If it is not relevant**



**It is of no value**

- If the study wasn't randomized, we'd suggest that you stop reading it and go on to the next article in your search

# Internal & external validity of a RCT





# ISIS-2 trial

## Streptokinase &/or aspirin on AMI mortality

### Post-hoc analysis

#### Zodiac signs of Gemini & Libra

5% higher mortality on aspirin  
compared to placebo

#### Other Zodiac signs

30% lower mortality on aspirin  
compared to placebo



# Steps of EBM

**① Ask**



# Steps of EBM

## ② Acquire



# Steps of EBM

## ③ Appraise



# Critical appraisal of a RCT



Glasziou P et al. *BMJ* 2004 ; 328 : 39 - 41.

# Steps of EBM

## ④ Apply

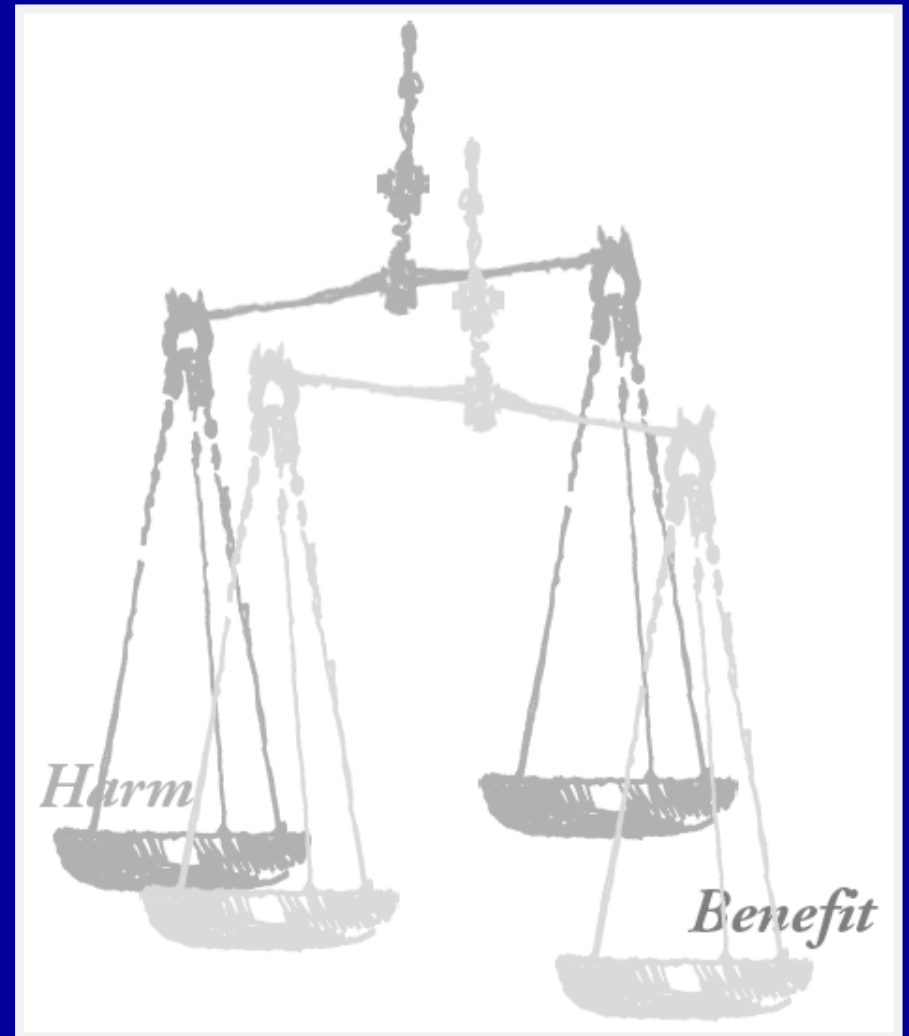


# Benefit versus harm

**“All that glisters is not gold”**

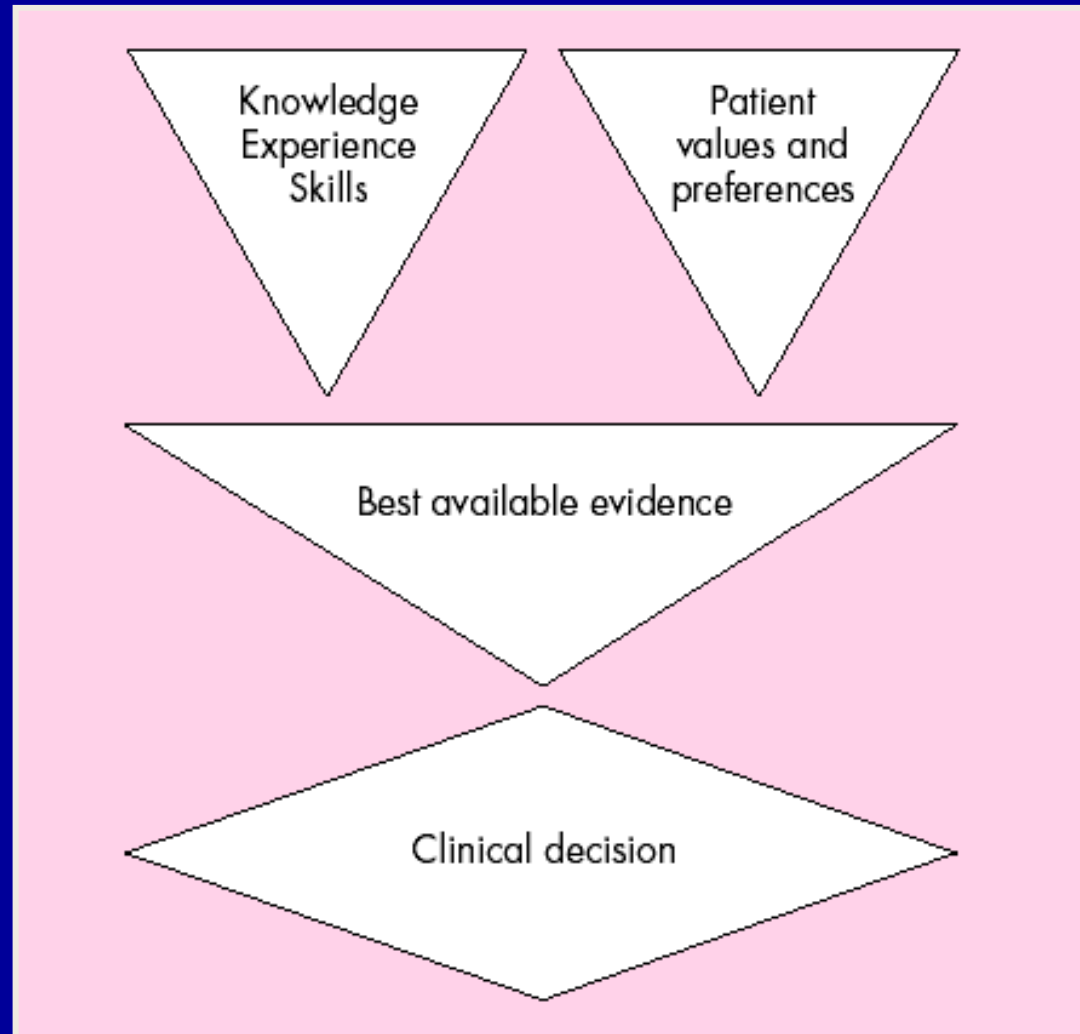
**W. Shakespeare**

**In “The Merchant of Venice”**



Furberg BD & Furberg CD. Evaluating clinical research.  
Springer Science & Business Media – First Edition – New York – 2007.

# Flow chart of evidence based practice



Akobeng AK. Arch Dis Child 2005 ; 90 : 840 – 844.



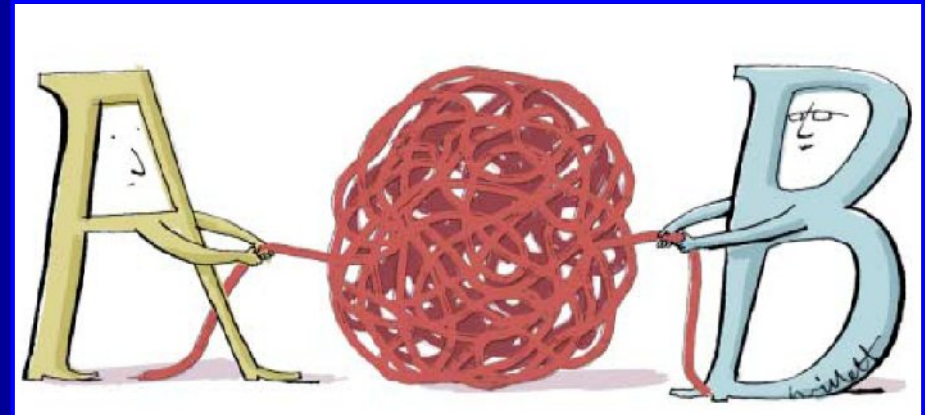
This so-called Hawthorne effect refers to tendency of people to alter their behavior when they are subject to special attention in a research setting

# Sir Austin Bradford Hill

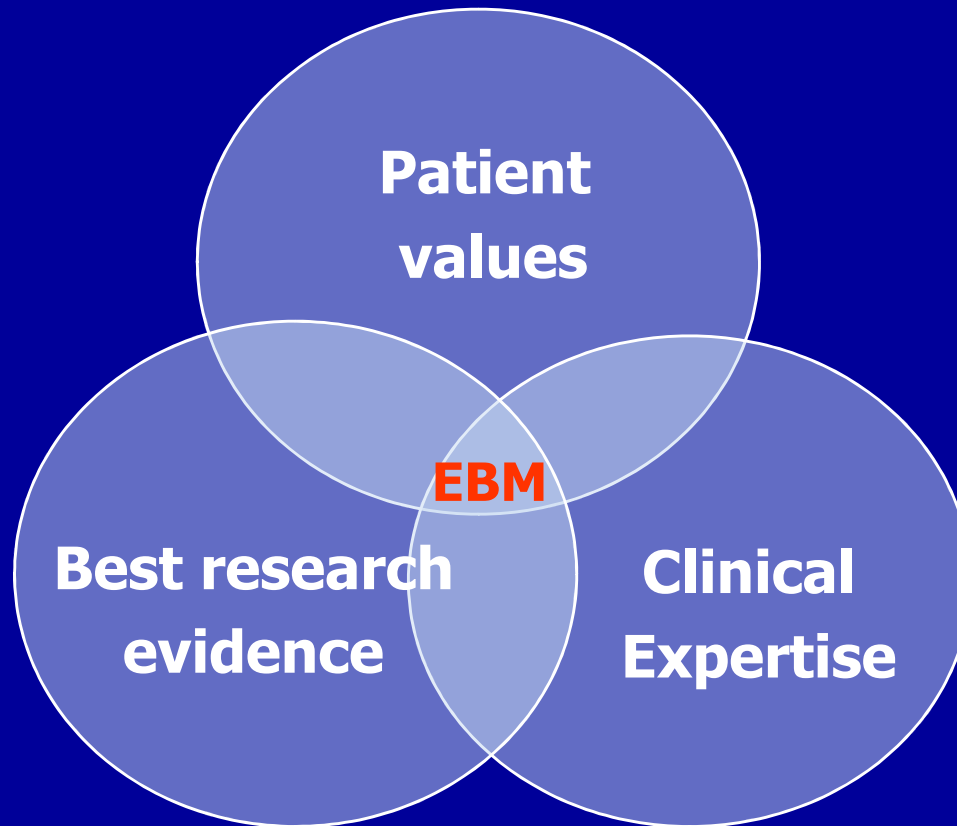
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# Randomization

- **Simple randomization**
- **Random table**
- **Block randomization**
- **Stratified randomization**
- **Minimization method**
- **Unequal randomization**
- **Allocation concealment**



# The 3 components of EBP



“EBM is the integration of best research evidence with clinical expertise & patient values”

- *David Sackett*

# Study types

```
graph TD; A[Study types] --> B[Observational]; A --> C[Interventional or experimental]; B --> D[Cohort study]; B --> E[Case-control study]; B --> F[Cross-sectional study]; B --> G[Case series & case report]; C --> H[RCT]
```

The diagram is a hierarchical flowchart. At the top is a box labeled 'Study types'. Two arrows point down from this box to two separate boxes: 'Observational' on the left and 'Interventional or experimental' on the right. From the 'Observational' box, four arrows point down to a larger box containing a list of study types: 'Cohort study', 'Case-control study', 'Cross-sectional study', and 'Case series & case report'. From the 'Interventional or experimental' box, one arrow points down to a box labeled 'RCT'.

**Observational**

**Cohort study**

**Case-control study**

**Cross-sectional study**

**Case series & case report**

**Interventional  
or experimental**

**RCT**

# Trial designs

- **Systematic review**
- **Meta-analysis**

**Secondary research**

- **Randomized clinical trial**
- **Cohort study**
- **Case control study**
- **Cross-sectional study**
- **Case series & case report**

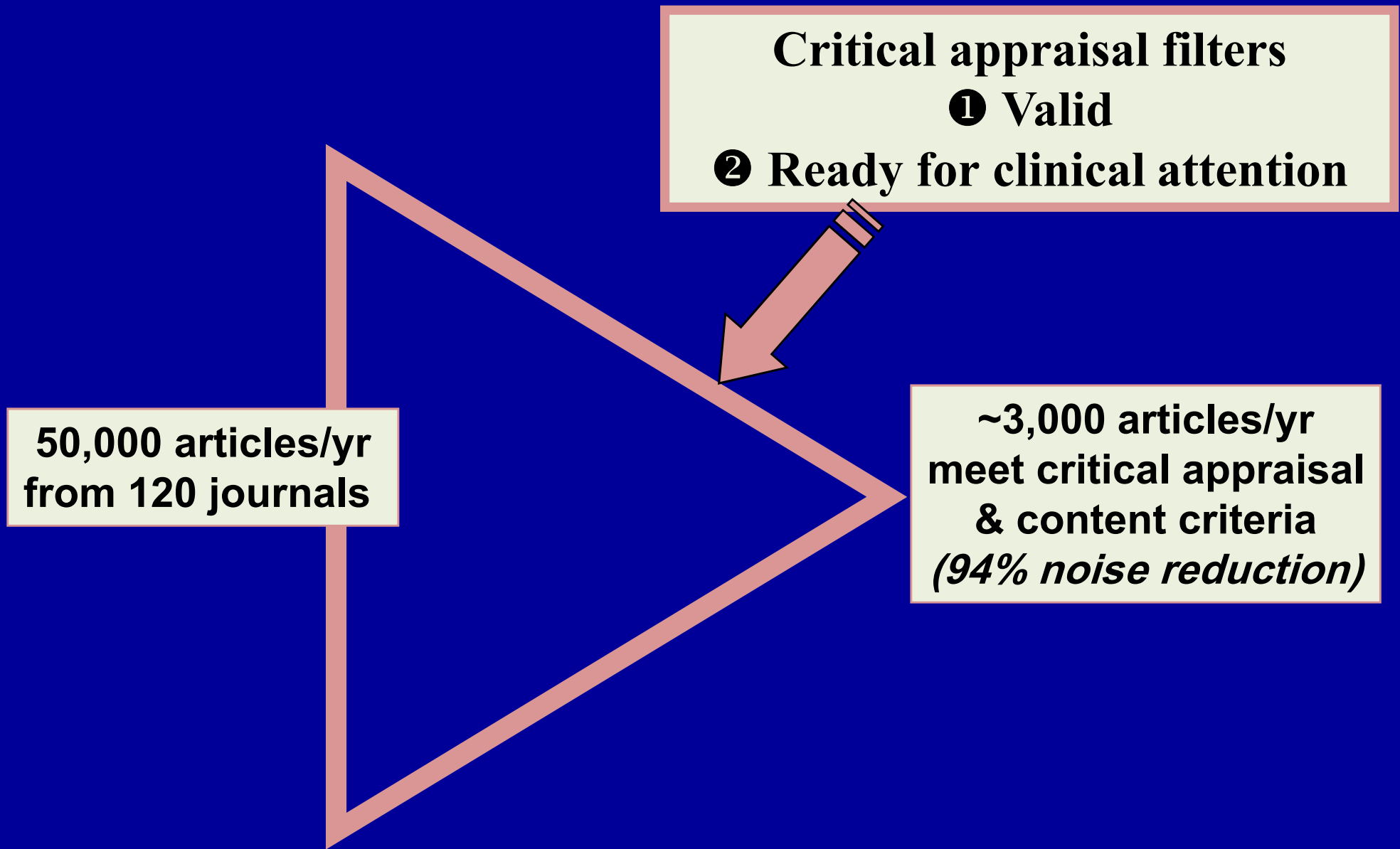
**Primary research**

# History of randomization

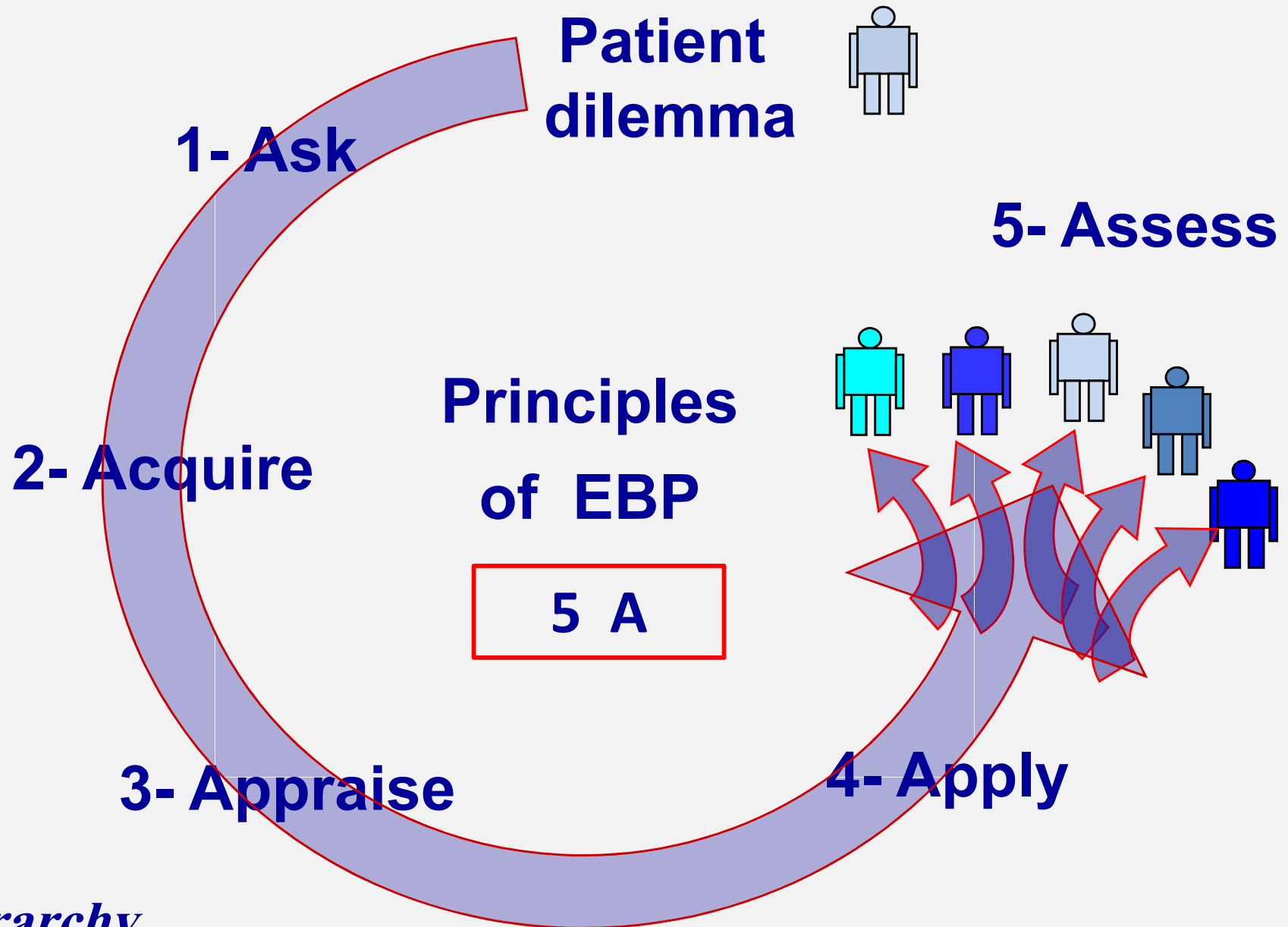
## Sir Austin Bradford Hill

- Desirability to use randomization in clinical medicine when he published articles on medical statistics in **1937**
- He didn't recommend randomization of individuals, because he might scared doctors off any use of concurrent controls
- In **1946**, when he judged the time was right, he recommended randomization of individual patients & this rapidly gained acceptance among medical scientists

# McMaster PLUS project – First level







*Hierarchy of evidence*

*Evidence alone does not decide  
Combine with other knowledge & values*

# RCTs as the subject of research

- Important research efforts have used RCTs as the subject rather than the tool of research
- These studies aim to improve the design, reporting, dissemination, & the use of RCTs in health care

# Sample size formula for binary outcomes

( $\alpha = 0.05$ ,  $\beta = 0.10$ , equal number in each group)

$$N = \frac{10.51 [(R + 1) - p_2 (R^2 + 1)]}{p_2 (1 - R)^2}$$

N	Sample size in each of the groups
p1	Event rate in treatment group (not in formula)
p2	Event rate in control group
R	Risk ratio (p1/p2)

If  $p_1 = 6\%$   
 $p_2 = 10\%$   
 $R = 6\% / 10\% = 0.60$



N = 962

# Variable in the sample size formula

$\alpha$ (Type I error)	Power ( $1 - \beta$ )		
	0.80	0.90	0.95
0.05	7.58	10.51	13.00
0.01	11.68	14.88	47.82

Being a statistician means never having to  
say you are certain

Anon

Hand DJ. Statistics: a very short introduction.  
Oxford University Press, Oxford, 1<sup>st</sup> edition, 2008.

# High quality/relevant data

## Pearls

**If not valid**



**No value**

**If not relevant**



**No value**



# Sir Austin Bradford Hill

- Studied medicine when World War 1 intervened
- Pilot in the World War 1
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# First properly RCTs

	<b>Immunisation against whooping cough *</b>	<b>Streptomycin for pulmonary TB **</b>
<b>Authors</b>	MRC	MRC (D'arcy Hart)
<b>Statistician</b>		Bradford Hill
<b>Started</b>	Months before Nov 1946	Nov 1946
<b>Reported</b>	1951	Oct 1948
<b>Journal</b>	BMJ	BMJ

\* Medical Research Council Whooping-Cough Immunization Committee.  
The prevention of whooping cough by vaccination. BMJ 1951 ; i : 1463 - 71.

\*\* Medical Research Council Streptomycin in Tuberculosis Trials Committee.  
Streptomycin treatment for pulmonary tuberculosis. BMJ 1948 ; ii : 769 - 82.



# Hawthorne effect

- Employees of Hawthorne Works of Western Electric Company in Chicago participated in a study to evaluate effect of **light levels on work performance**
- Surprisingly, work **performance increased**, regardless of whether level of light at workplace was increased, kept constant, or decreased.
- **Special attention** given to workers participated in the study explains improvement in overall performance