

Introduction to Drug Utilization Research

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This session was developed on behalf of the **ISPE Drug Utilization Special Interest Group** by

- Associate Professor Lisa Pont (University of Technology Sydney, Australia)
- Professor Katja Taxis (University of Groningen, Netherlands)
- Associate Professor Bjorn Wettermark (Karolinska Institute, Sweden)

This session

- What is Drug Utilization Research (DUR)?
- How does DUR relate to pharmacoepidemiology?
- DUR Conceptual Framework
- Types of DUR research

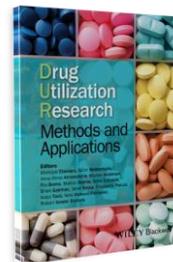
Drug Utilization Research

"The marketing, distribution, prescription, and use of drugs in a society, with special emphasis on the resulting medical, social and economic consequences" (WHO 1977)



Current definition

"An eclectic collection of descriptive and analytical methods for the quantification, the understanding and the evaluation of the processes of prescribing, dispensing and consumption of medicines, and for the testing of interventions to enhance the quality of these processes." (Wettermark and Vander Stichele, 2008)



Pharmacoepidemiology

Study of the use and effects of drugs in large numbers of people (Strom)

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Pharmacoepidemiology

Safety Outcomes Population

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Drug utilization research

Medicines characteristics Health system characteristics Disease characteristics Safety Outcomes Intervention studies Patient characteristics Prescriber characteristics

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Data sources

Primary data

- Patients
- Health care providers
- Prescriptions, dispensing records
- Medical records

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Data sources

Secondary data

- Aggregate data
 - sales data
- Individual-level data:
 - electronic health records
 - pharmacy dispensing data
 - reimbursement data
 - patient registries

Population health survey data





Groupwork: Data sources within Africa

- What data sources do you work with or are aware of?
 - What population do they cover?
 - What information do they include/not include?
 - What is the process for gaining access to them?
 - What is the data quality?
 - What are their strengths and weaknesses?



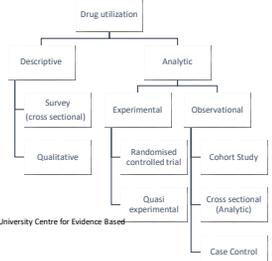

Taxonomy and terminology

- Classification systems
- Drug
 - World Health Organisation ATC classification
- Disease
 - ICD, SNOWMED
- Measurement units
 - Defined daily dose (DDD)
 - Users

Usage pattern definitions




Study designs in drug utilization



```

    graph TD
      DU[Drug utilization] --> D[Descriptive]
      DU --> A[Analytic]
      D --> SC[Survey (cross sectional)]
      D --> Q[Qualitative]
      A --> E[Experimental]
      A --> O[Observational]
      E --> RCT[Randomised controlled trial]
      E --> QE[Quasi experimental]
      O --> CS[Cohort Study]
      O --> CSA[Cross sectional (Analytic)]
      O --> CC[Case Control]
    
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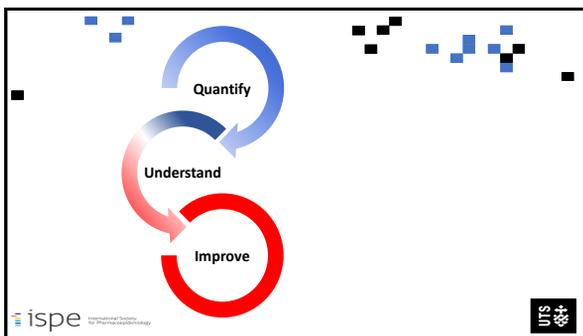
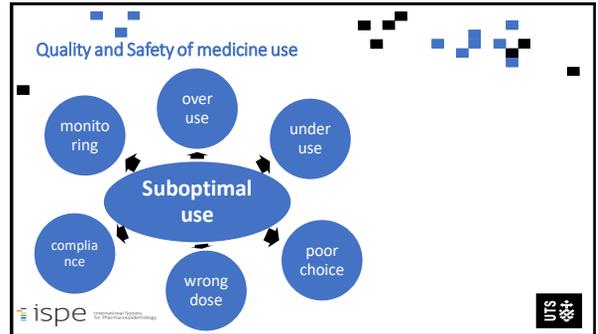
Adapted from Oxford University Centre for Evidence Based Medicine




Conceptual Framework
Drug Utilization Research



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Conceptual Framework

To quantify, understand and improve drug use and health outcomes

Micro level

- Person
- Patient, prescriber, health care professional

Macro level

- Health System
- Clinic, hospital, region, country

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DUR and the conceptual framework

Quantify Understand Evaluate Improve

Prescribing				
Dispensing				
Consumption				

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Archives of Gerontology and Geriatrics

Archives of Gerontology and Geriatrics

A longitudinal study of constipation and laxative use in a community-dwelling elderly population

Bary L. Werth¹, Kylie A. Williams², Lisa G. Post³

Laxatives used

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Use of antibacterial fixed-dose combinations in the private sector in eight Latin American Countries between 1999 and 2009

Private-sector sales data, based on information from manufacturers, retail wholesalers and, for some countries, pharmacies, IMS Health

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Outpatient antibiotic use in Europe and association with resistance: a cross-national database study

Goossens et al. Lancet 2005

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Antimicrobial prescribing in South Africa using a large pharmacy database: A drug utilisation study

Ilse Truter

To cite this article: Ilse Truter (2018) Antimicrobial prescribing in South Africa using a large pharmacy database: A drug utilisation study. *Truter*. *Southern African Journal of Infectious Diseases*, 30(2), 52-56, DOI: 10.1080/22120003.2018.1504181

Antimicrobial Class	Average Cost per Product per Patient (R)
Anti-viral agents	104.87
Antiparasitics	104.87
Anti-mycotics & antifungals	12.36
Anti-folate agents	22.19
Other anti-infective agents	11.94
Quinolones	11.94
Penicillins	8.81
Anti-tubercular agents	18.12
Macrolides	11.27
Tetracyclines	13.07
Anti-pseudomonal agents	12.14
Sulfonamide combinations	22.89
Chloramphenicol	11.94

Figure 3: Average cost per product per patient in each antimicrobial class

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DUR and the conceptual framework

Quantify Understand Evaluate Improve

	Quantify	Understand	Evaluate	Improve
Prescribing		●		
Dispensing		●		
Consumption		●		

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Measuring anticholinergic drug exposure in older community-dwelling Australian men: a comparison of four different measures

Lisa C. Pong,^{1,2} Johannes T. H. Nielsen,^{1,2,3} Andrew J. Mulvihill,⁴ Stephanie Corfield,^{1,2} Lewis Chan,⁴ Robert G. Cumming,^{1,2} & Rajita Faria^{1,2}

Agreement between anticholinergic drug exposure scales (Cohen's κ , 95% confidence interval) in the classification of anticholinergic exposure

Anticholinergic Risk Scale (ARS)	Anticholinergic Drug Scale (ADS)	Anticholinergic/Cognitive Burden Scale (ACS)
Anticholinergic Risk Scale (ARS)	0.263 (0.226, 0.300)	
Anticholinergic Drug Scale (ADS)		0.628 (0.593, 0.664)
Anticholinergic Cognitive Burden Scale (ACS)	0.247 (0.208, 0.286)	0.110 (0.064, 0.156)
Drug Burden Index - Anticholinergic (DBI-ACS)	0.237 (0.192, 0.282)	0.119 (0.064, 0.174)

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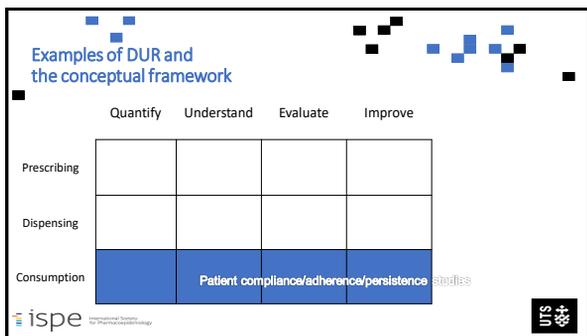
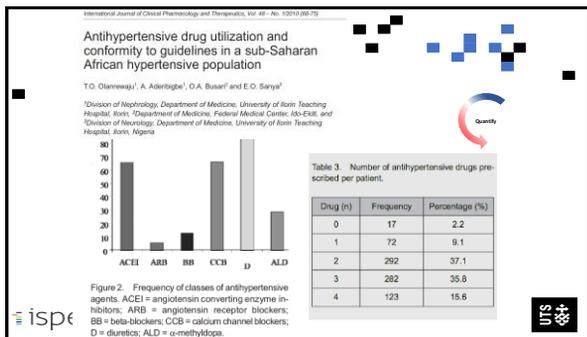
Measuring anticholinergic drug exposure in older community-dwelling Australian men: a comparison of four different measures

Figure 1: Scatter plot showing agreement between measures. The larger the grey area, the less agreement between the two scales that the medication appears to be.

Agreement between measures (Cohen's κ , 95% confidence interval)	Anticholinergic Drug Scale (ADS)	Anticholinergic/Cognitive Burden Scale (ACS)
Anticholinergic Drug Scale (ADS)		0.628 (0.593, 0.664)
Anticholinergic/Cognitive Burden Scale (ACS)	0.237 (0.192, 0.282)	0.119 (0.064, 0.174)

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A new taxonomy for describing and defining adherence to medications

BJCP British Journal of Clinical Pharmacology

A new taxonomy for describing adherence

Norman Ivers, Kanta Premaratne, Rebecca Daniels, Mohd Haniffa, Jeffrey R. Anonson
BJCP Practice 7, 14

Adherence to medications: Persistence (red pills) / Non-persistence (white pills)

Management of adherence: Initiation / Discontinuation

Health care/Prescribing policy

First prescription, First dose, Last dose, End of prescribing

Time

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Brief Review

Measuring, Analyzing, and Managing Drug Adherence in Resistant Hypertension

Michael Rosendor, George Weisberg, Henry Douglas-Blackie, John Douglas-Blackie
Hypertension 2013;61:418-423

Kaplan-Meier plots of the time course of adherence parameters of 36 907 patients prescribed oral medications for one of a variety of medical conditions in 95 studies during the first year of electronic monitoring of the patients' dosing histories.

Perfect adherence
Decrease in adherence due to discontinuation of treatment (ongoing treatment)
Decrease in adherence due to discontinuation of treatment (ongoing treatment)
% of patients who discontinued therapy
% of patients who discontinued therapy

Time (days)

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American Heart Association

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Examples of DUR and the conceptual framework

	Quantify	Understand	Evaluate	Improve
Prescribing			[X]	
Dispensing			[X]	
Consumption			[X]	

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Safety of opioid patch initiation in Australian residential aged care

Research

DATA ANALYSIS
Hypertension 2013;61:418-423

2. Analgesic use prior to patch initiation

Analgesic	Percentage
Fentanyl (n=137)	9%
Buprenorphine (n=459)	6%
Opioid-naïve*	34%
Opioid-tolerant*	49%
Opioid-tolerant*	61%
Opioid-tolerant*	45%

* P < 0.05 for difference between fentanyl and buprenorphine initiators (χ² test)

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International Journal of Clinical Pharmacy (2018) 40:428–435
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s11096-017-0583-7>

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Antihypertensive-related adverse drug reactions among older hospitalized adults

Tariq M. Alhawassi^{1,2}, Ines Krass², Lisa G. Pont²

Received: 2 May 2017 / Accepted: 20 December 2017 / Published online: 1 February 2018
 © Springer International Publishing AG, part of Springer Nature 2018

1 in 10 experienced older persons experienced an ADR either leading to or during their hospital admission that was potentially related to their antihypertensive medication




Frontiers in Pharmacology

Changes in Prescribing Symptomatic and Preventive Medications in the Last Year of Life in Older Nursing Home Residents

Helen G. van der Meer^{1*}, Kees Toes¹ and Lisa G. Pont²

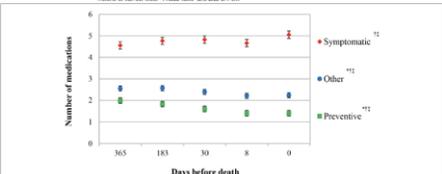


FIGURE 2 | Number of symptomatic, preventive, and other medication in the last year of life. Estimated marginal means (EMMs), adjusted for number of bed days in facility, age², and number of medication at 365 days before death².




Examples of DUR and the conceptual framework

	Quantify	Understand	Evaluate	Improve
Prescribing			Prescribing quality indicators	
Dispensing				
Consumption				




Examples of DUR and the conceptual framework

	Quantify	Understand	Evaluate	Improve
Prescribing				Intervention studies
Dispensing				
Consumption				






Research
Effect of humour therapy on psychotropic medication use in nursing homes

MARIKE VALKEN & JORDANA DE PLAT UP (PROSODY) HOME NALCOLSO
 MARIKE VALKEN (PROSODY) IN HOME NALCOLSO
 MARIKE VALKEN & MERT FRANKI DURING A PLAY UP (BODIPY) HOME NALCOLSO
 MARIKE VALKEN WITH HER FRIENDS (LYNNE NALCOLSO)

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Research
Effect of humour therapy on psychotropic medication use in nursing homes

Australian Journal on Ageing, Vol 35 No 4 December 2016, 27-32
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Table 1: Prevalence (%) of psychotropic medication use in Australian nursing homes before Play Up program and after Play Up program

	Any psychotropic	Antipsychotics	Benodiazepines	Antidepressants
Pre-Play Up (n = 381)	169 (45.0%)	94 (25.0%)	63 (17.0%)	65 (18.0%)
Post-Play Up (n = 381)	151 (40.0%)	82 (22.0%)	52 (14.0%)	65 (18.0%)
Change (%)	-10.0%	-7.0%	-3.1%	-1.1%
P value	0.002*	0.004*	0.001*	0.289

*Indicates significant decrease (P < 0.05) in prevalence from pre to post-Play Up period.

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Discontinuation of inappropriate medication in nursing home residents (DimNHR study)

FOR HOW MANY RESIDENTS CAN WE DISCONTINUE 1 OR MORE INAPPROPRIATE MEDICATIONS?

INTERVENTION GROUP
 39.3%

CONTROL GROUP
 24.5%

Wouters et al, 2014; Wouters et al, Ann Int Med, in press

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Reducing the anticholinergic and sedative load in older patients on polypharmacy by pharmacist-led medication review: A randomized controlled trial

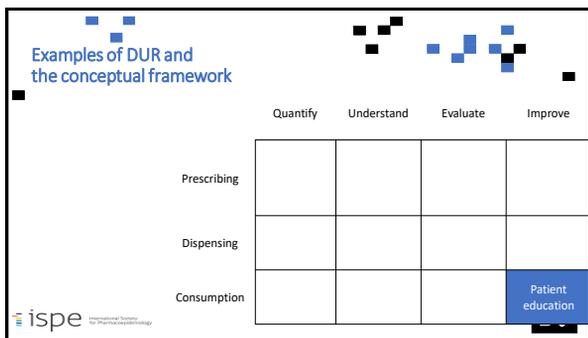
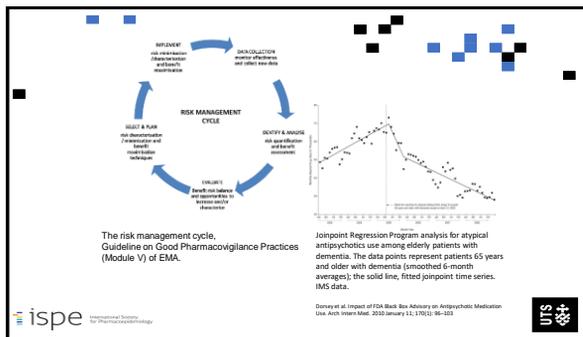
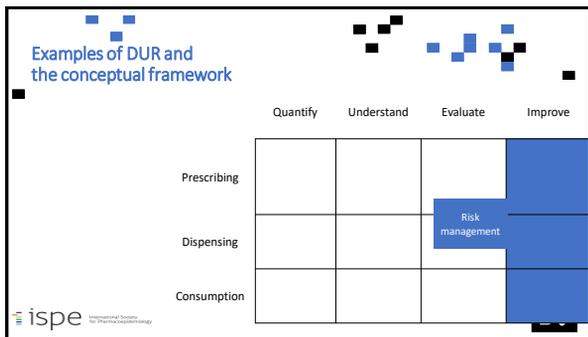
Helene G. van der Meer¹, Hans Wouters¹, Lisa G. Pont², Katja Taxis¹

BMJ Open

Table 2 Primary outcome - Proportion of patients having a decrease in DBI ≥ 0.5

	Proportion with decrease of DBI ≥ 0.5 (%), n	Odds ratio (95% CI)	p-value
Intention to treat (n=157)	17.3% (13)	1.04 [0.47-2.64]	0.927
Per protocol analysis (n=145)	18.5% (12)	1.09 [0.45-2.63]	0.857

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PATIENT VOICE

Amplifying the voice of ME/CFS and Fibromyalgia patients in a noisy world

Debate & Analysis
Solutions to problematic polypharmacy: learning from the expertise of patients

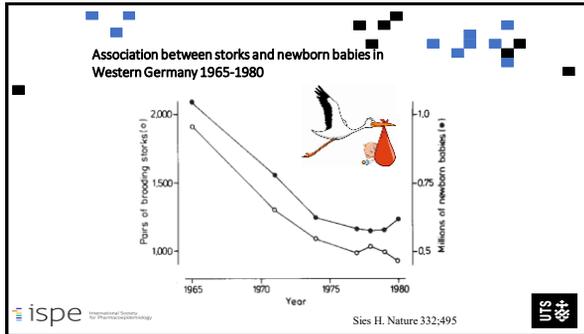
British Journal of General Practice, June 2017

health: Lay knowledge, social movements and the use of medicines: Personal reflections

Nicky Britton and Kath Maguire
University of Essex, UK

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Final thoughts

- **Drug utilization research**
- explores **practice based issues**
- using **varied methodologies and data sources**
- putting the **prescriber, supplier and consumer at the centre** of the research
- to **inform and improve** health practice, policy and patient outcomes.

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Resources

The resources section displays four book covers: 'Pharmacoepidemiology' (showing people in a clinical setting), 'Guidelines for ATC classification and DDD assignment (2018)', 'Introduction to Drug Utilization Research' (showing pills), and 'PHARMACO EPIDEMIOLOGY and Therapeutic Risk Management' (showing a grid of images).

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Drug Utilization Research Methods and Applications

The book cover features a colorful background of various pills and capsules.

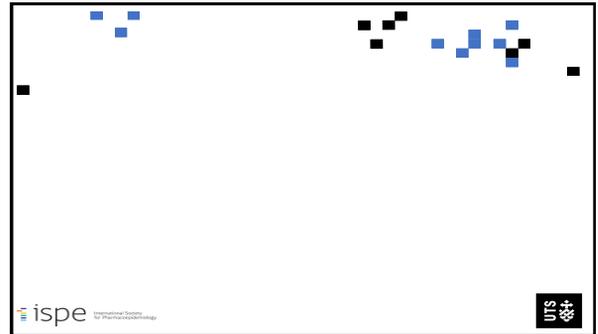
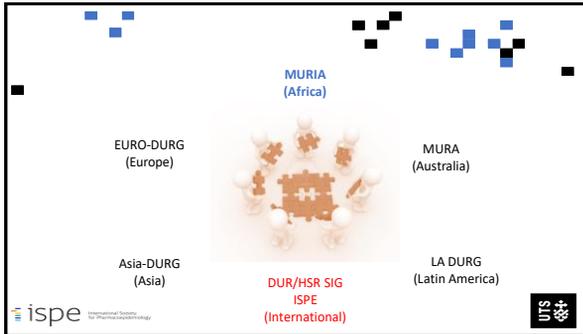
Monique Elseviers, Björn Wettermark, Anna Birna Almaradóttir, Morten Andersen, Rita Benko, Marion Bennie, Irene Eriksson, Brian Godman, Janet Krka, Elisabetta Poluzzi, Kaja Taxa, Vera Vlahovic-Palcevska, Robert Vander Stichele

Drug Utilization Research (DUR) is an eclectic scientific discipline, integrating descriptive and analytical methods for the quantification, understanding and evaluation of the processes of prescribing, dispensing and consumption of medicines and for the testing of interventions to enhance the quality of these processes. The discipline is closely related and linked mainly to the broader field of pharmacoepidemiology, but also to health outcomes research, pharmacovigilance and health economics.

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SESSION 2

- Study designs in DUR
- Considerations when choosing a study design
- Bias and confounding in DUR

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- Drug utilization studies can be conducted using a wide variety of study designs.
- All methodologies have their advantages and limitations,
- Researchers must select the most appropriate method for the questions they want to investigate.

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Considerations when choosing a study design

Choice of method influenced by:

- Research question
- Ethical principles
- Type of data available
- Budget
- knowledge and skills of those undertaking the research
- Risk of systematic and non systematic error

Problems with DUR studies



"I think you should be more explicit here in step two."

Groupwork: study design

- What study designs have you worked with?
 - What were there strengths?
 - What challenges did you face?

Study designs used in DUR

Qualitative study

Quantitative study

Interrupted
time series



Cohort study

Validation
study

Case-control
study

Ecological study

Cross-sectional study



Quantitative designs

- Quantification of data (measure, count, summarize...)
- Hypotheses testing
- Causal relationship between measurable variables
- Results with some degree of confidence

Qualitative designs

- Looking for the quality of events
- Exploration of social phenomena
- Gaining insight in the context
- Giving emphasis to the meanings, experiences, and views of participants

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Example: patient compliance



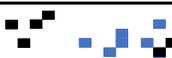
- Quantitative
Quantification, relations, significance
- What is the frequency of non-compliance?
- Relationship between age and non-compliance?

- Qualitative
Exploration, meaning, understanding
- What are the barriers to compliance?
- What are the thoughts among GPs on non-compliance in patients with chronic treatment?

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Aims of qualitative research



- before quantitative work – to explore unfamiliar topics, concepts and variables
- To understand the context of quantitative findings or relating some aspects of behaviours to the wider context
- for in-depth studies of particular topics

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Do patients' expectations influence their use of medications?

Qualitative study

Lisa Dolovich, Ph.D. MSc, Kathryn Hair and MSc, Connie Sellers, Lynette Lafield, MSc, Anne Lee, MSc, Mitchell Leveson and MSc, Steve Ross

Good grief! Eight pills for supper, wonderful! [sarcastic tone] But then I look at it the other way and I say, "Well, without those 8 pills, I can't go for a walk, I can't do the shopping." You're grateful in many ways that the medications are there. (A011-155)

The birth control pill makes it so that I can sort of function in society. Without it, it gets to a point where the frequency of changing a feminine hygiene product would interfere with class or work. So, again, it's something that sort of keeps me a member of society. (B111-81)

Dolovich et al. Can Fam Physician 2008

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Whose Job Is It Anyway? Swedish General Practitioners' Perception of Their Responsibility for the Patient's Drug List

Pia Bastholm Rahmner, MD^{1,2*}
 Linné C. Carlsson, MD, PhD^{1,2*}
 Inger Johansson, MD, PhD^{1,2}
 Tobias Rosander, MD, PhD^{1,2}
 Ulrik Tesson, MD, PhD^{1,2}

Figure 1. Outcome space of internal relationship between 3 categories: the GPs' collective approach to managing responsibility for patient drug lists.

Category B. Different but shared responsibility between GP and patient	Category C. GP is responsible for all prescribed drugs
Category E. The patient is responsible for drug intake, but transfer between prescribers	Category B. GP is mainly responsible for self-prescriptions and how these drugs interact with the current patient drug list
	Category A. GP feels an imposed responsibility from previous prescriber

GP = general practitioner.

Note: Category D is the most comprehensive; it comprises a broader understanding between B includes aspects of the other 4 categories (A, B, C, and E), as well as the patient perspective on drug therapy. In various GPs, responses represent a more restricted understanding in category A, often excluding aspects from other categories.

Bastholm Rahmner et al. Ann Fam Med 2010



Qualitative study methods in DUR

Observation
In depth interviews
Focus groups




Qualitative analysis in DUR

- Thoughts and opinions collected verbatim
- Thematic analysis
- May use pre-defined themes or determine themes from the data



Quantitative study designs

Descriptive

- How are drugs used?
- What do drug utilization patterns look like?



Analytical

- What is the effect of drug therapy?
- What has caused the drug use?
- What are characteristics of patients, doctors for particular drug

Interventional

- What is the effectiveness of different interventions to change drug utilization



Descriptive studies

- Studies identifying patterns or trends in drug utilization without having any comparison (control) group that may allow for inferences to be drawn about causal associations.
- Good descriptive reporting answers five basic W: who, what, why, when, where and a sixth: so what?
- Two major types
 - Cross sectional studies
 - Longitudinal studies
repeated cross sectional studies
cohort followed over time

Cross sectional studies

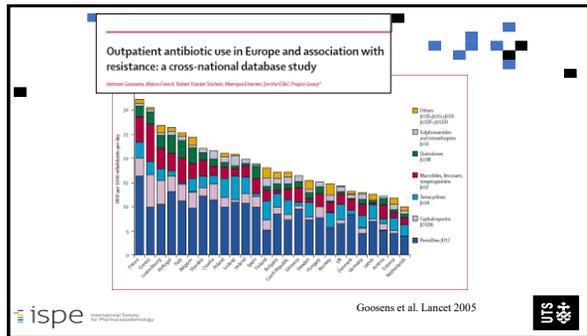
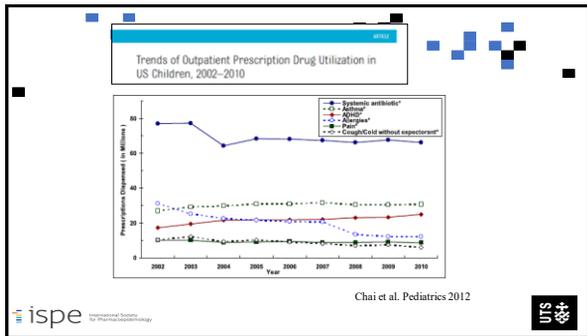
- we measure the frequency of a particular exposure and / or outcome(s) in a defined population *at a particular point in time.*

Strengths of cross sectional studies

- relatively easy and economical
- provide important information on the distribution and burden of exposures and outcomes.
- valuable for health-service planning.

Weaknesses of cross sectional studies

- Cross-sectional studies measure prevalent rather than incident cases.
- limited value for investigating aetiological relationships.
- It can be difficult to establish the time-sequence of events in a cross-sectional study. (reverse causality)



Sex Differences in Inappropriate Drug Use: a Register-Based Study of Over 600,000 Older People

Parameter	Women, n (%)		Men, n (%)	
	n	%	n	%
>1 Indications of inappropriate drug use	95,613	24.6	49,787	19.3
Types of inappropriate drug use				
Anticholinergic drugs	33,858	9.7	16,307	6.4
antihypertensives	11,350	2.9	6,356	2.5
nonselective monoamine oxidase inhibitors	8,775	2.3	2,646	1.0
hydroxyzine	7,225	1.9	3,700	1.5
Long-acting benzodiazepines (Seroquel)	25,559	6.7	11,080	4.3
Benzodiazepines	10,431	2.7	4,886	1.9
antipsychotics	15,384	4.0	4,257	1.7
antidepressants	6,159	1.6	2,269	0.9
>3 Psychotropic drugs	35,882	9.2	14,523	5.6
Potentially harmful drug-drug interactions	26,030	6.7	18,486	7.2
Aspirin plus NSAIDs	16,140	4.2	11,050	4.3
Aspirin plus warfarin	1,803	0.5	1,800	0.7
Warfarin plus NSAIDs	1,349	0.3	1,307	0.5

Parameter	Odds Ratio (95% CI)	
	Unadjusted	Adjusted ^a
>1 Indications of inappropriate drug use	1.38 (1.35 to 1.38)	1.34 (1.33 to 1.35)
Anticholinergic drugs	1.48 (1.37 to 1.49)	1.39 (1.27 to 1.52)
antihypertensives	1.33 (1.15 to 1.53)	1.12 (1.04 to 1.21)
nonselective monoamine oxidase inhibitors	2.23 (2.13 to 2.33)	2.08 (1.97 to 2.19)
hydroxyzine	1.27 (1.22 to 1.32)	1.11 (1.07 to 1.15)
Long-acting benzodiazepines	1.59 (1.55 to 1.62)	1.49 (1.42 to 1.49)
Benzodiazepines	1.23 (1.20 to 1.44)	1.22 (1.20 to 1.23)
antipsychotics	1.59 (1.53 to 1.66)	1.48 (1.38 to 1.59)
antidepressants	1.60 (1.51 to 1.69)	1.61 (1.53 to 1.71)
>3 Psychotropic drugs	1.70 (1.67 to 1.74)	1.50 (1.47 to 1.53)
Potentially harmful drug-drug interactions	0.93 (0.91 to 0.95)	0.81 (0.81 to 0.82)
Aspirin plus NSAIDs	0.97 (0.94 to 0.99)	0.88 (0.86 to 0.91)
Aspirin plus warfarin	0.47 (0.43 to 0.50)	1.42 (1.39 to 1.45)
Warfarin plus NSAIDs	0.84 (0.83 to 0.85)	0.89 (0.88 to 0.90)

n = 600,420
^aAdjusted for age, education, and number of drugs.

Johnell et al. Ann Pharmacother 2009

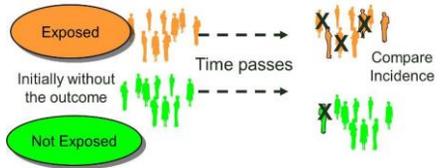
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- ### Analytic studies
- Studies designed to reach causal inferences about hypothesized relationships.
 - Require a design that will permit an evaluation of the causal effect association between exposure and outcome
 - Different types
 - (Ecological studies)
 - Cohort studies
 - Case-control studies
 - Case cross-over studies
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Cohort studies

- Select a study population or cohort of people who **do not initially have the outcome of interest**.
- We then classify the members of the cohort according to whether they have been **exposed** to the potential risk factor or not.
- We then follow the entire cohort over time
- At study end, compare the incidence of the **outcome(s)** in the exposed individuals with the incidence in those not exposed.

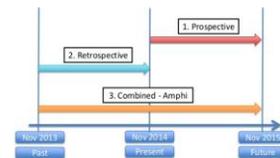
Cohort studies



Cohort studies

- Prospective
 - Identify group without the outcome,
 - determine exposure status
 - and then follow them forward in time
- Retrospective cohort
 - Go back in time (eg using administrative data)
 - Identify group without outcome
 - Determine exposure status
 - Follow them forward in time

Types of cohort study



Dubetopgä (2009) 52:1745-1754
DOI: 10.1007/s00125-009-1444-2

ARTICLE

Insulin glargine use and short-term incidence of malignancies—a population-based follow-up study in Sweden

J. M. Jonasson · R. Ljung · M. Tälläck · R. Haglund · S. Gudbjörnsson · G. Steineck

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Cohort study-Strengths

- Less recall bias—**exposure is measured at the start of the study**, before the outcome occurs
- Can determine **causality**—the time sequence of events should be clear in a cohort study, minimising the possibility of reverse causality
- Can study **multiple outcomes**
- Suitable for rare exposures using appropriately selected populations.

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Cohort study-weaknesses

- prospective cohorts are **slow and potentially expensive**
- they are **inefficient for rare diseases**
- Retrospective cohort studies depend upon pre-existing records of exposure being available and reliable
- exposure status may change during study
- **differential loss to follow-up** may introduce bias
- in long term cohort studies may be hard to ensure that diagnostic criteria remain consistent

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Bias in cohort studies

- Selection bias in **cohort** studies may arise if the comparison groups (exposed and unexposed) are not truly comparable. This could arise because of
 - poor choice of the unexposed group, or
 - differences in follow-up between the comparison groups

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Case control studies

- start by identifying individuals with the **outcome** of interest (cases)
- Then compare them to individuals without this outcome (controls)
- Exposure defined retrospectively after outcome status determine
- Allow calculation of odds ratio

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bmj.com

Use of single and combined antithrombotic therapy and risk of serious upper gastrointestinal bleeding: population based case-control study

Jesper Hallas, Michael Dall, Alin Andrius, Birthe Seggaard Andersen, Claus Aggkilde, Jøse Møller Hansen, Morten Andersen and Annette Touberg Lassen

BMJ 2006;333:726. originally published online 19 Sep 2006. doi:10.1136/bmj.39447.697558.AE

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Table 2. Crude and adjusted odds ratios for association between use of antithrombotic drug and serious upper gastrointestinal bleeding.

	Cases (exposed/unexposed)	Controls (exposed/unexposed)	Crude odds ratio (95% CI)	Adjusted odds ratio (95% CI)*
Single drug regimen, current use				
Aspirin alone	190/900	4123/50 498	2.4 (2.0 to 2.8)	1.8 (1.5 to 2.1)
Clopidogrel alone	15/190	203/50 498	3.1 (1.7 to 5.6)	1.8 (1.3 to 2.4)
VKA alone	56/190	1227/50 498	3.2 (1.7 to 5.4)	1.8 (1.3 to 2.3)
Dipyridamine alone	36/190	798/50 498	3.4 (1.7 to 6.3)	1.9 (1.3 to 2.6)
Two drug regimen, current use				
Aspirin and clopidogrel	13/190	49/50 498	12.8 (6.0 to 26)	7.4 (5.3 to 10)
Aspirin and VKA	16/190	114/50 498	8.4 (4.2 to 16)	5.3 (3.9 to 7.2)
Dipyridamine and aspirin	44/190	72/50 498	3.1 (2.0 to 4.7)	2.3 (1.7 to 3.1)
Past use				
Aspirin	108/896	3990/44 968	1.5 (1.2 to 1.8)	0.9 (0.7 to 1.2)
Clopidogrel	4/99	111/48 947	3.8 (0.7 to 19)	0.8 (0.5 to 1.2)
Dipyridamine	2/99	152/48 946	3.8 (0.2 to 78)	0.4 (0.1 to 1.6)
VKA	48/946	1020/47 800	2.4 (1.9 to 3.0)	1.8 (1.3 to 2.4)

VKA, vitamin K antagonist.

*Adjusted for previous discharge diagnosis of peptic ulcer, acute ulcer bleeding, chronic obstructive lung disease, ischemic heart disease, alcohol alcohol diagnosis or drug use, or liver disease or renal failure; for oral anticoagulant prior evaluation; and for concurrent use of non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, antiplatelet drugs, herbal products, intracranial infections, venous thrombotic disorders, or systemic corticosteroids.

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Case control strengths

- can be carried out rapidly and relatively cheaply (compared to cohort studies)
- are useful for studying rare diseases
- can be used to study diseases with long periods of time between the exposure and outcome
- can study multiple exposures for a single outcome

Case control weaknesses

- are prone to selection bias
 - Especially for controls
- are prone to information bias
 - exposure status is determined after the outcome has occurred
- cannot establish the sequence of events: the exposure may be a consequence rather than a cause of the outcome (*reverse causality*)
- are not suitable for studying rare exposures
- cannot usually be used to estimate disease incidence or prevalence

Bias in Case control studies

- In **case-control** studies, bias arises if
 - cases selected for the study are not representative of all eligible cases, or
 - controls are not representative of the population which produced the cases.

Cohort vs case-control

- Cohort studies
 - Case-control studies
- Pros**
- Can calculate absolute risk
 - Establish time-relation
 - Multiple outcomes
- Cons**
- Loss of follow up
 - Large studies need for rare diseases
- Pros**
- Rare outcomes (if you don't have the data)
 - Multiple exposures
- Cons**
- Difficult to find a control
 - risk for recall-bias

Time series analyses

FIGURE 1 Time series analysis

Grimshaw et al. Fam Pract 2000

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ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Impact of Restricted Reimbursement on the Use of Statins in Finland A Register-Based Study

Mariikainen et al. Med Care 2010

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RCT – the golden standard

Scandinavian Journal of Primary Health Care, 2012, No. 3-4

informa
healthcare

ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Drug treatment in the elderly: An intervention in primary care to enhance prescription quality and quality of life

INGER NORDIN OLSSON¹, REBECCA RUNNAMO^{1,2} & PETER ENGELDT¹

Journal of Antimicrobial Chemotherapy

Can a multifaceted educational intervention targeting both nurses and physicians change the prescribing of antibiotics to nursing home residents? A cluster randomized controlled trial

Eva Petersson¹, Ann Hanley¹, Signe Miklöf² and Cecilia Ståhlby Lundberg¹

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Intervention studies in DUR

- Start with population without outcome
- Allocate subjects (individuals or clusters) to different treatment groups
- Can evaluate differences between groups to determine the effects of a treatment
- Can be used to evaluate health service interventions

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Strengths of intervention studies

- Minimize bias and confounding
- if properly randomised the intervention and control groups will be similar in all respects except the intervention.
- if the participants are "blind" to the treatment allocation, reporting bias is minimised;
- if the investigators are "blind" to the allocation, observer bias is minimised
- powerful evidence of a causal relationship between the intervention and the outcome
- multiple outcomes can be examined
- the incidence rate of the outcome can be measured

Weaknesses of intervention studies

- they are often expensive to conduct:
- May require a large study team, perhaps at several sites, and may require a long follow-up period.
- Some intervention studies impossible to conduct for ethical reasons

Validation studies

- Generate evidence that the utilization patterns observed are a good presentation of the "true" drug consumption
- Could either validate the drug exposure as recorded in a database or a survey or use drug utilization data to validate other clinical information
- May be conducted through linkage between data on drug exposure collected from different sources
- Requires a decision on which method that should be considered as the truth or "the gold standard".

Sensitivity

the ability of the method under investigation to correctly classify an individual as using the drug

Problem with...

- OTC, hospital use
- Internet pharmacies
- Purchases abroad
- "Borrowing" from relatives, neighbours



Specificity

the ability of a method to correctly classify an individual as drug-free

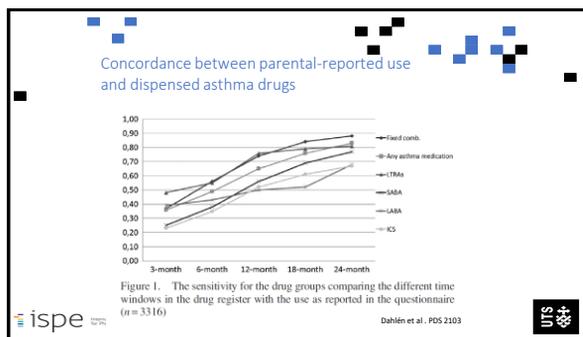
Problem with...

- Poor compliance



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Error in DUR studies

- There are three main types of error in DUR studies:
 - Random error i.e. error resulting from the effect of chance
 - Bias
 - Confounding
- These are all affected by study design

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Random error in DUR

- Random error** is also known as variability, random variation, or 'noise in the system'
- Random error occurs because the estimates we produce are based on samples, and samples may not accurately reflect what is really going on in the population at large.
- In DUR the estimates we observe might be inaccurate just based on who happened to end up in our sample

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Random error in DUR

- Random error (variability, imprecision) can be overcome by increasing the sample size.

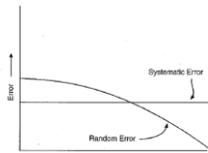


Figure 3-1. Reduction of systematic error and random error to study sizes.



Reliable
Precise
Lack of Random Error

Reliable and Valid

Valid
Lack of Systematic Error

Bias

- Bias refers to any systematic error in the design or conduct of an epidemiological study that results in an incorrect estimate of the association between exposure and outcome (risk of disease).
- When bias occurs the associations are not 'there' at all, they only exist within your study.

Bias in DUR

- in descriptive studies
 - **study population are not representative** of the population we want to describe.
- in analytical studies
 - **comparison groups are not comparable.**

Types of bias

- Selection bias
- Information bias

Selection bias

- Selection bias refers to error due to **systematic differences in characteristics** between **those who take part in a study** and **those who do not**
- the people who are selected to participate in a study are not representative of the reference population
- the comparison groups are not comparable
- Some study designs are more prone to selection bias than others

Types of selection bias

- (non) Response bias
- Self-selection bias
- Sampling bias.
- Loss to follow up bias
- Observer selection.
- Healthy worker bias
- Hospital patient bias (Berkson's bias)

Selection bias

Example

Suppose we carried out a postal survey to determine vaccination rates. People who have not vaccinated their children may be less likely to participate than those who have vaccinated their children and thus the true vaccination rate of the reference population would be underestimated.

- This would be *selection bias* because people who have vaccinated their children would be over-represented

Information bias

- Any error in the measurement of exposure or outcome that results in systematic differences in the accuracy of information collected between comparison groups.
- Information bias can be divided into two main types:
 - reporting bias
 - observer bias

Information bias

- Differential bias
 - All study participants have the same probability of bias
 - Spread evenly between study groups
 - may lead to completely wrong conclusions
- Non-differential bias
 - The spread of bias differs between study groups
 - may lead to an underestimation of the hypothesized relationship between exposure and outcome

Types of information bias

- There are two main types of information bias:
 - reporting bias
 - observer bias

Reporting bias

- Reporting bias arises:
 - when study participants with a specific health outcome report previous exposures with a different degree of accuracy to those without the outcome
 - when study participants who have experienced a specific exposure report subsequent health events with a different degree of accuracy to those who have not experienced the exposure.

Reporting bias

Example

Mothers of children born with an abnormality may have thought more about their medication use during pregnancy than mothers of children without an abnormality

This is **recall bias**

Observer bias

- When the accuracy of outcome data recorded by the investigator differs systematically between individuals in different exposure groups

Observer bias

Study nurses may be more likely to diagnose meningitis in children who have not been vaccinated than children who have been vaccinated if they believe that vaccination is protective.

Minimizing bias

- Cannot adjust for bias in analysis
- if you study the wrong people, or collect data from them in the wrong way, no amount of analysis will be able to correct it.
- Choose a study design that minimizes bias for your question
- Identify potential sources of bias at the stage of study design

Minimizing selection bias

- Ensure study participants are representative of the target population
- Response rates are as high as possible.

Minimizing information bias

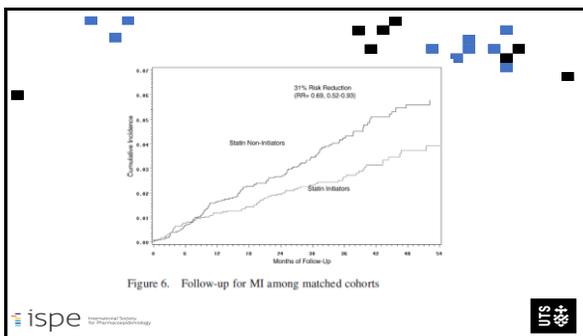
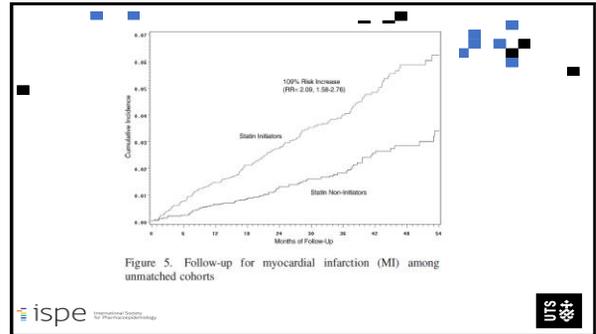
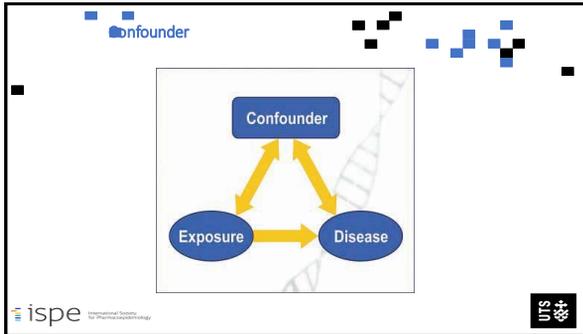
- **Avoiding information bias**
- blinding
- collecting data on exposure as near as possible to the time of exposure and before outcome known
- standardising questionnaires, measurement tools and processes and training interviewers
- good questionnaire design

Confounding

- Confounding is the situation where an observed association between an exposure and an outcome is entirely or partially due to another exposure
- Systematic error

Confounding

- May be positive or negative
- Positive confounders
 - Increase the size of the observed association
- Negative confounders
 - Decrease the size of the observed association

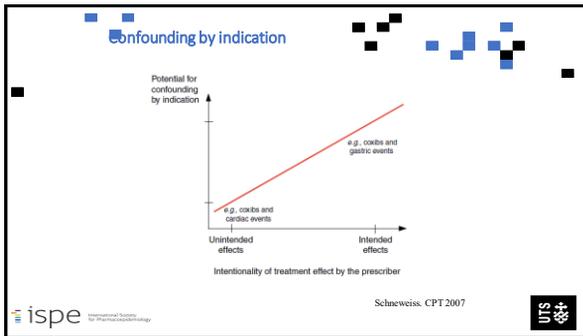


Confounding in DUR

- Common problem in DUR studies
- There is always a reason for drug prescribing
 - Potential for confounding by indication

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Confounding

- Three criteria must be met for potential confounders:
 - It must be **associated with the exposure** of interest *among the source population* (represented by the controls in a case-control study).
 - It must be a **risk factor for the outcome** of interest *among the non-exposed*.
 - It must not be **on the causal pathway** between the exposure of interest and the outcome of interest.

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Confounding

- No statistical test for confounding
- Identify potential confounders when designing studies:
 - think about exposures that are **biologically plausible** as risk factors for the disease in question
 - **Search the literature** to find out what exposures have been found to be risk factors in previous studies.

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Confounding and analysis

- Calculate crude estimates
- Adjust for potential confounders
 - Mantel Haenszel OR
 - Regression
- If adjusted estimate different to crude estimate then confounding is likely.

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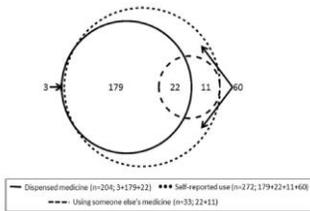
Minimizing Confounding

- Study design
 - Randomisation
 - Restriction
 - Matching
- Analysis
 - Standardization (age)
 - Stratification
 - Multivariate analysis

Designing DUR studies

- Refine the **research question**
- Select an appropriate **study design**
- Identify the **target population**
- Identify the **study population**
- **What is your selection process**
 - Purposive (high risk of bias)
 - Random (minimizes bias)
- Define **outcomes and exposures**
- Potential **confounders**
- **Design data collection**

Various ways of defining "use"



Dahlén et al. Eur J Clin Pharmacol 2016

Summary

- Drug utilization studies can be conducted using a wide variety of study designs.
- Researchers must select the most appropriate method for answering the questions they want to investigate.
- Research methods in drug utilization can broadly be categorized as either quantitative or qualitative.

Summary

- Quantitative descriptive studies identify patterns or trends in drug utilization without making inferences about causal associations.
- Quantitative analytical studies are designed to reach causal inferences about hypothesized relationships.
- A variety of study designs can be used to evaluate interventions, including quasi experimental designs (uncontrolled or controlled before-and-after studies and interrupted time series) and experimental designs, such as randomized controlled trials.