





Research Design

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Research design

- = the process in which the investigators determine how they can best answer their research questions
- Research problem 
Research design 
Data analysis

Methods of obtaining knowledge

Research Paradigms

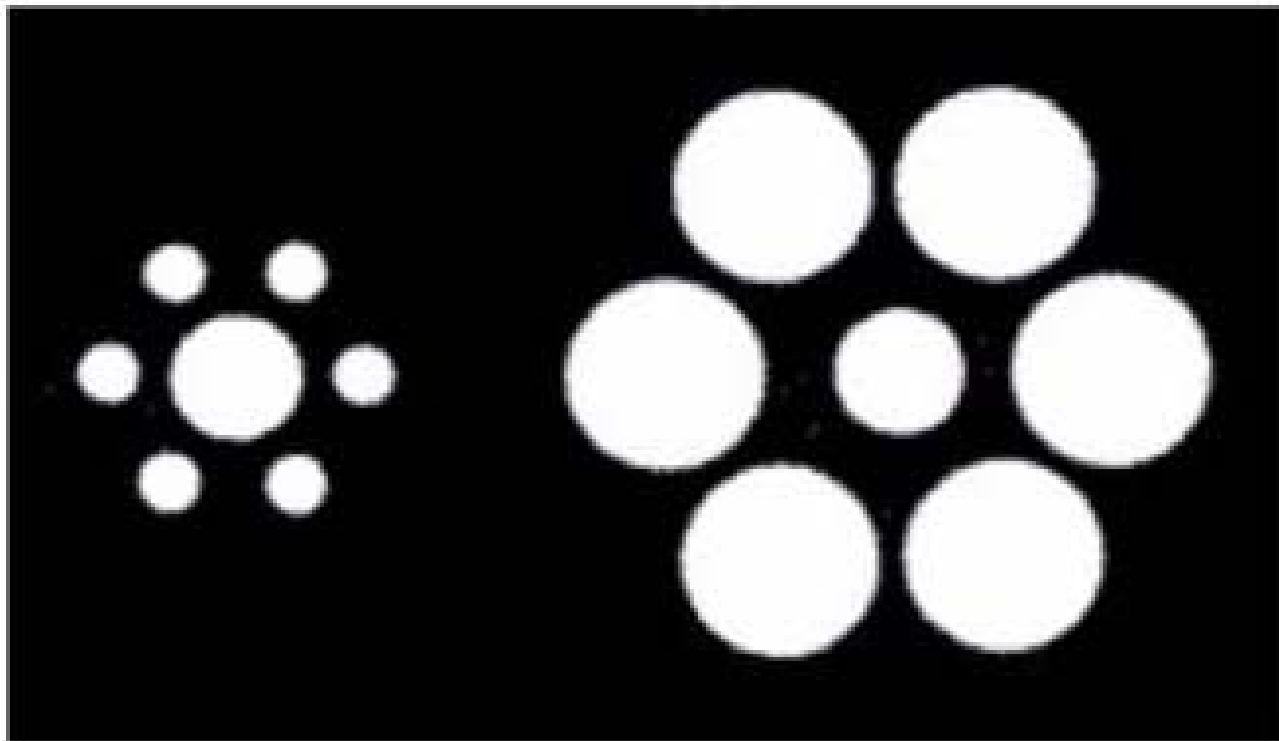
```
graph TD; A[Research Paradigms] --> B[Quantitative Paradigm: Study of groups whose treatment is manipulated]; A --> C[Qualitative Paradigm: Broad description of a phenomenon without manipulation]; A --> D[Single-system Paradigm: Individual responses to manipulation];
```

Quantitative Paradigm:
Study of groups whose treatment is manipulated

Qualitative Paradigm:
Broad description of a phenomenon without manipulation

Single-system Paradigm:
Individual responses to manipulation

Is the left center circle bigger?





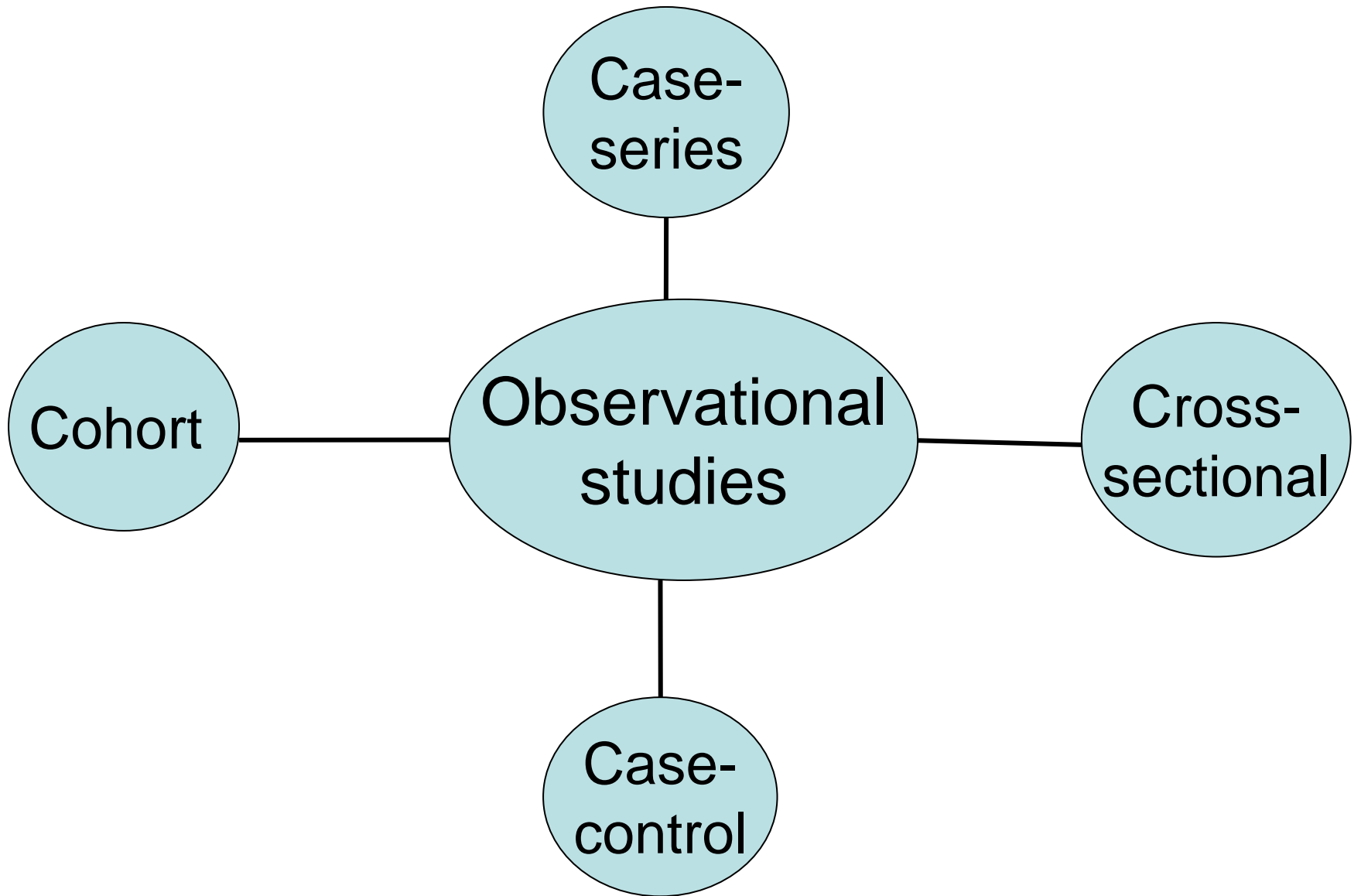
Do you see the three faces?

Study Designs

```
graph TD; A[Study Designs] --> B[Observational]; A --> C[Experimental];
```

Observational

Experimental



Case-series studies

- Simple description of interesting observations in a small number of subjects
- Generally not planned before
- Do not involve hypothesis
- Do not include control subjects

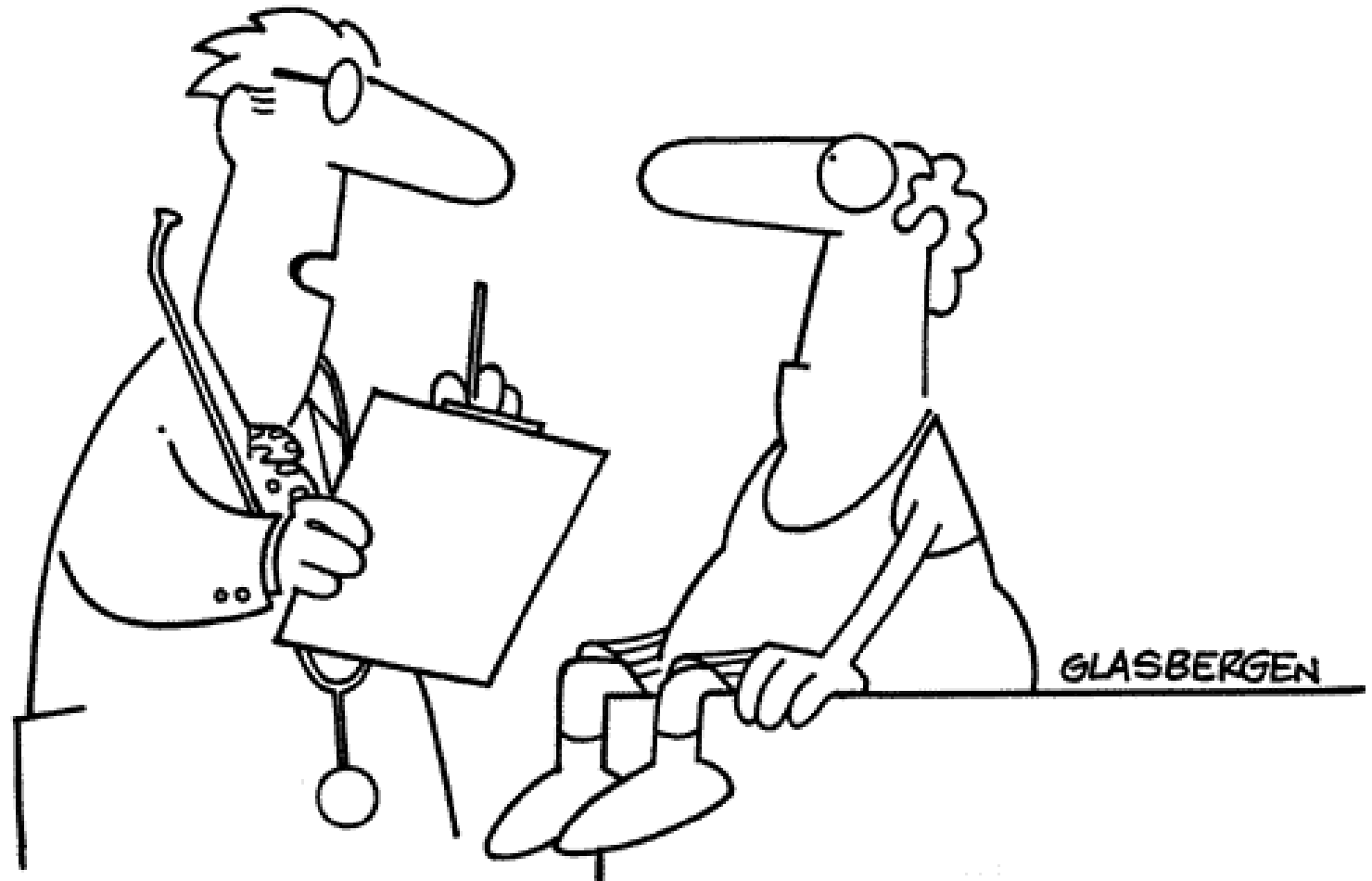
Case-series studies

Example

Wong et al. (2003). Clinical presentation and outcome of severe acute respiratory syndrome in dialysis patients. **Am J Kidney Dis** ;42:1075-1081.

Case-series studies

- Advantage:
 - easy to write
 - useful in new observations or disease
- Disadvantage:
 - subject to **bias** related to subject selection



“We can’t find anything wrong with you, so we’re going to treat you for Symptom Deficit Disorder.”

Case-control studies

- Start with the presence or absence of an outcome, and look back into the past to detect possible causes or risk factors

Cases= individuals with disease or outcome

Controls= individuals without disease or outcome

Case-control studies

Example

Mutsch et al. (2004). Use of the inactivated intranasal influenza vaccine and the risk of Bell's palsy in Switzerland. **N Engl J Med**; 350:896-903.

Cases= 250 individuals
with Bell's palsy



27% vaccinated



Controls= 722 individuals
without Bell's palsy



1% vaccinated

Case-control studies

- Advantages:
 - can be easily performed (cheap & quick)
 - useful for rare diseases
 - allow the investigation of multiple risk factors
- Disadvantages:
 - recall bias
 - can not establish cause-effect relationship

Cross-sectional studies

- Observational studies in which all the measurements are performed on a single occasion (no follow-up period)
- **Prevalence:** the proportion of the population who has the disease at one period of time

Cross-sectional studies

Example

Al-Eisa E, Egan D, & Wassersug R (2004).
Fluctuating asymmetry and low back pain.
Evolution and Human Behavior, 25: 31-37.

Cross-sectional studies

- Advantages:
 - can be easily performed (cheap & quick)
 - no follow-up loss
- Disadvantages:
 - not useful for rare disease
 - can not establish cause-effect relationship

Cohort studies

- Cohort = group of subjects that have something in common and are followed over time
- Prospective vs. Retrospective

Prospective cohort studies

- The researcher defines a sample of subjects and identifies certain risk factors (e.g., hypertension, diabetes) that may predict the subsequent outcome

Prospective cohort studies

Example

- Purpose:

to examine factors associated with the development of cardiovascular disease

Prospective cohort studies

Example

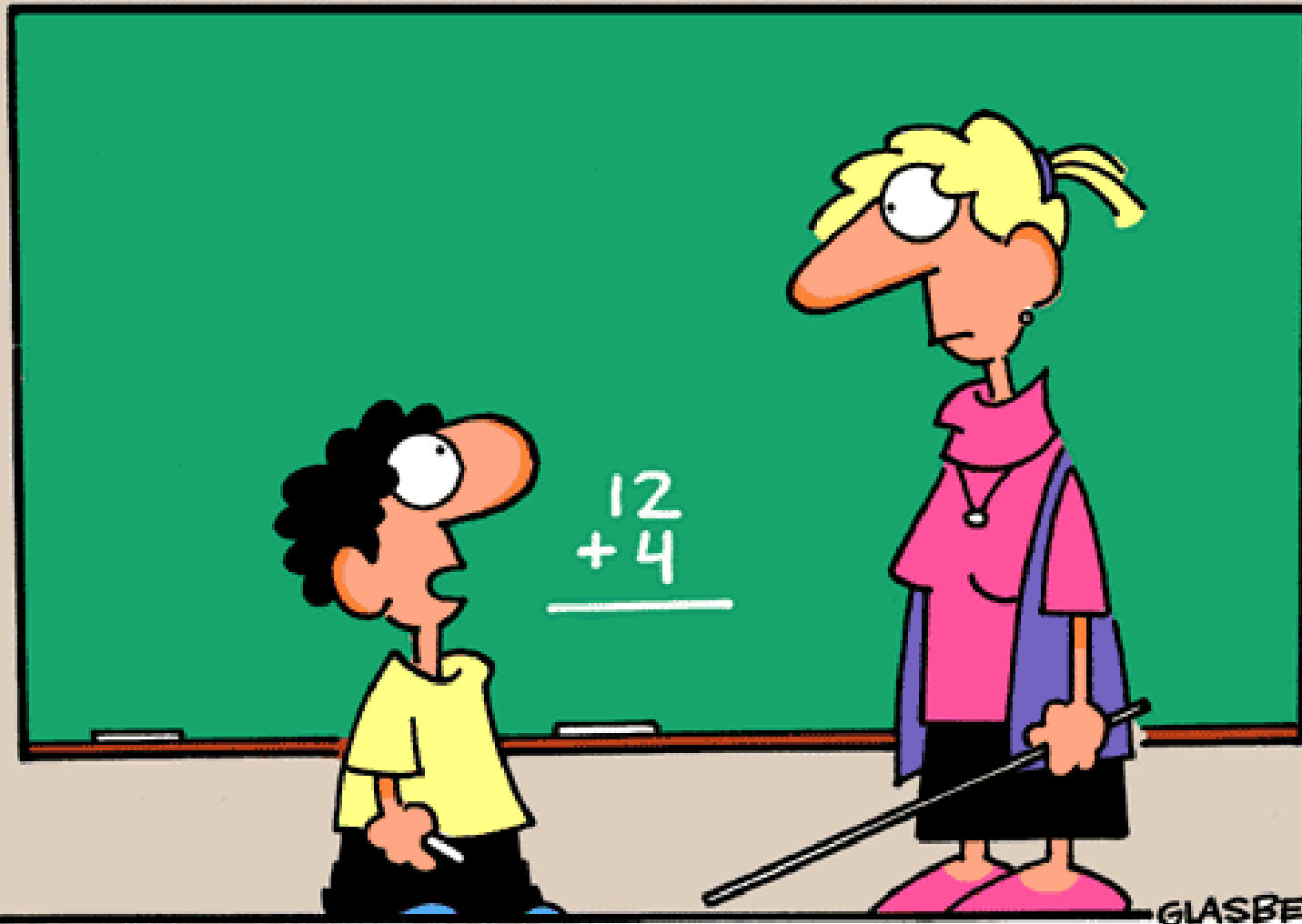
1. **Assemble the cohort:** 6000 subjects from Framingham, Massachusetts in 1948
2. **Measure potential risk factors:** diabetes, hypertension, smoking, hypercholesterolemia
3. **Follow-up and measure outcomes:** the subjects were followed for 20 years to determine the occurrence of coronary artery disease

Prospective cohort studies

- Advantages:
 - useful when experimental study cannot be conducted for ethical or practical reasons
 - information on **incidence**
 - variables are measured accurately
- Disadvantages:
 - expensive and time consuming
 - impractical for rare diseases

Retrospective cohort studies

- Starts with identifying a cohort, then collect data about predictor variables (which occurred in the past), then follow the subjects to determine the occurrence of the outcome
- Direction of inquiry is still forward in time



“Do I get partial credit for simply having the courage to get out of bed and face the world again today?”

Experimental Studies

Clinical Trials

Pre-test
(baseline)

Experimental
group

Control
group

No intervention
Sham

Post-test



Clinical Trials

```
graph TD; A[Clinical Trials] --> B[Randomization]; A --> C[Control];
```

Randomization

Control

Randomization

- = the way participants are allocated to the experimental or control groups
- To create groups that are as similar as possible

Randomization

- To ensure that the results are attributable to the intervention rather than to some other variable
(e.g., age, socioeconomic status, disease duration)

Randomization

```
graph TD; A[Randomization] --- B[Computer-generated numbers]; A --- C[Stratification]
```

Computer-generated
numbers

Stratification

Control

- Five types of control are common:
 1. Control of the implementation of the independent variable:
 - The investigator must have a rationale to govern the implementation of the variable and a mechanism to monitor the implementation

1. Control of the implementation of the independent variable

- Problem: effect of heat on R.O.M of the low back —————> The use of heat must be standardized:
 - Does heat mean hot pack, ultrasound, or other modality?
 - If hot pack, should all hot packs be the same size, or adjusted to the size of the patient?
 - If ultrasound, what is the duration and frequency? Area of application?

2. Control of subject selection

- **Inclusion / exclusion criteria:** for admission of subjects to the study
 - Example: age, gender, pain (chronic or acute)
- ***Homogeneous sample:*** tight selection criteria reducing the variability between subjects
- ***Heterogeneous sample:*** broad selection criteria increasing the variability between subjects

3. Control of extraneous variables

- **Extraneous** or ***confounding*** variables = factors that may influence the dependent variable (other than the independent variable)
 - Example: temperature, time of the day for testing, lighting, learning effect
- You must rule out the effect of the confounding variables (related to the setting & subjects)

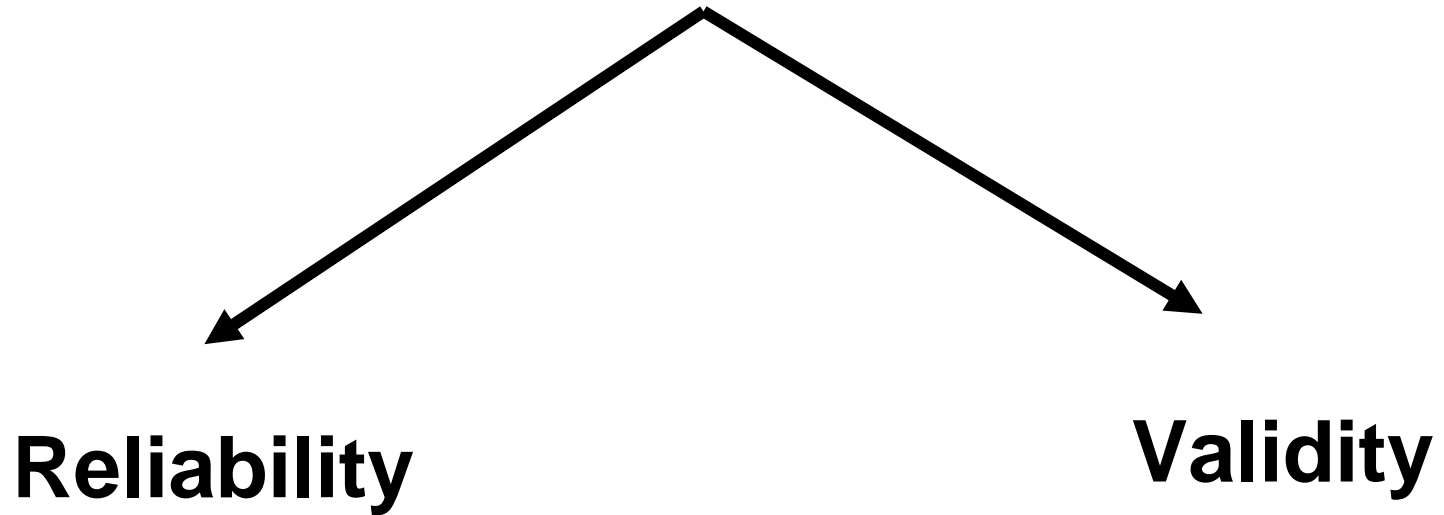
4. Control of information given to subjects & researchers

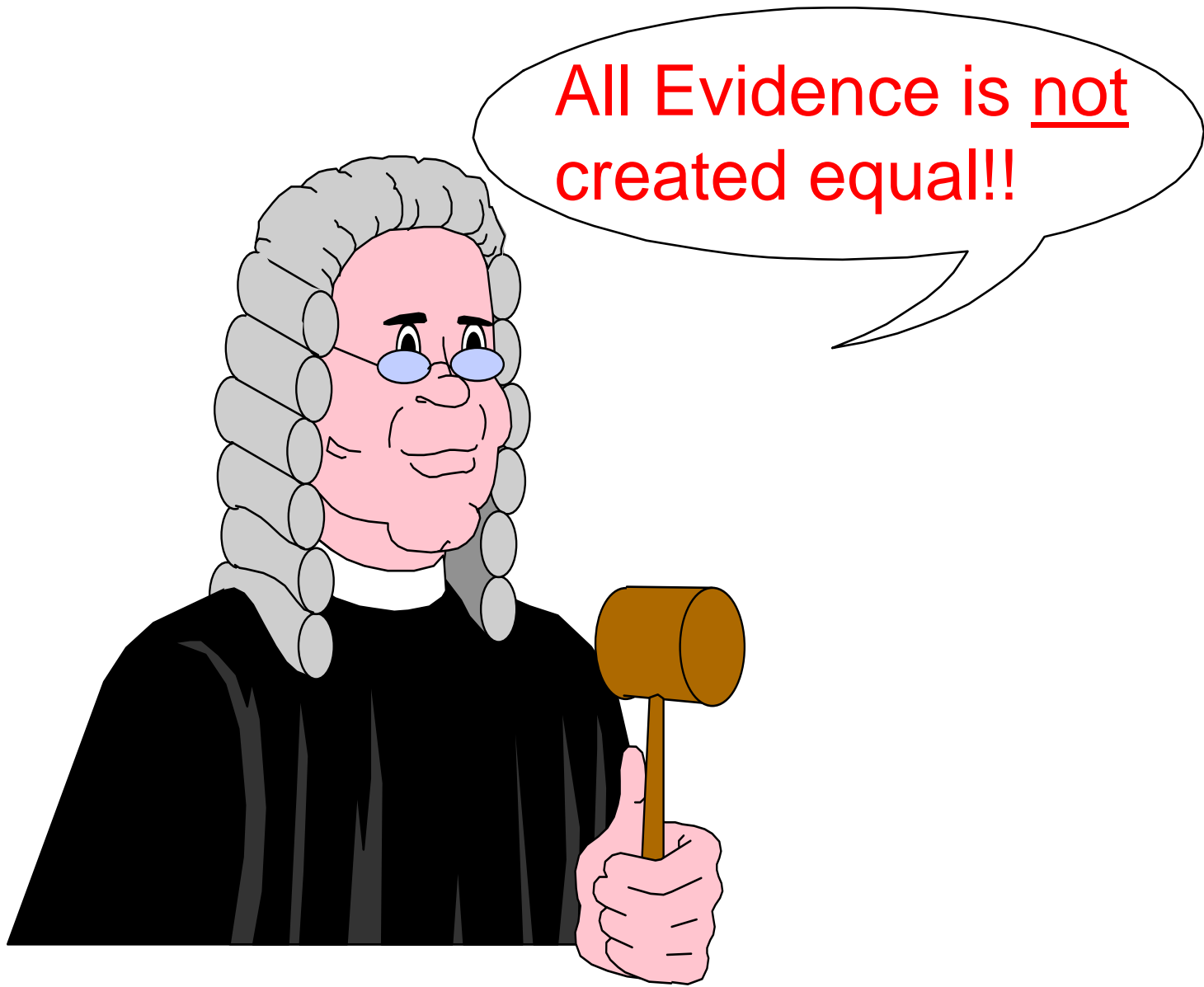
- **Incomplete information:** about the purpose of the study to control the effect of expectations (BUT be aware of ethics)
- **Subject blinding:** to withhold information about which of several treatments the patient is receiving
- **Researcher blinding:** to the treatment received by the patients, to control the effect of the researcher expectations

4. Control of information given to subjects & researchers

- **Single-blind study:** either the subject OR the researcher is blind to the treatment or group assignment
- **Double-blind study:** both subject and researcher are blind

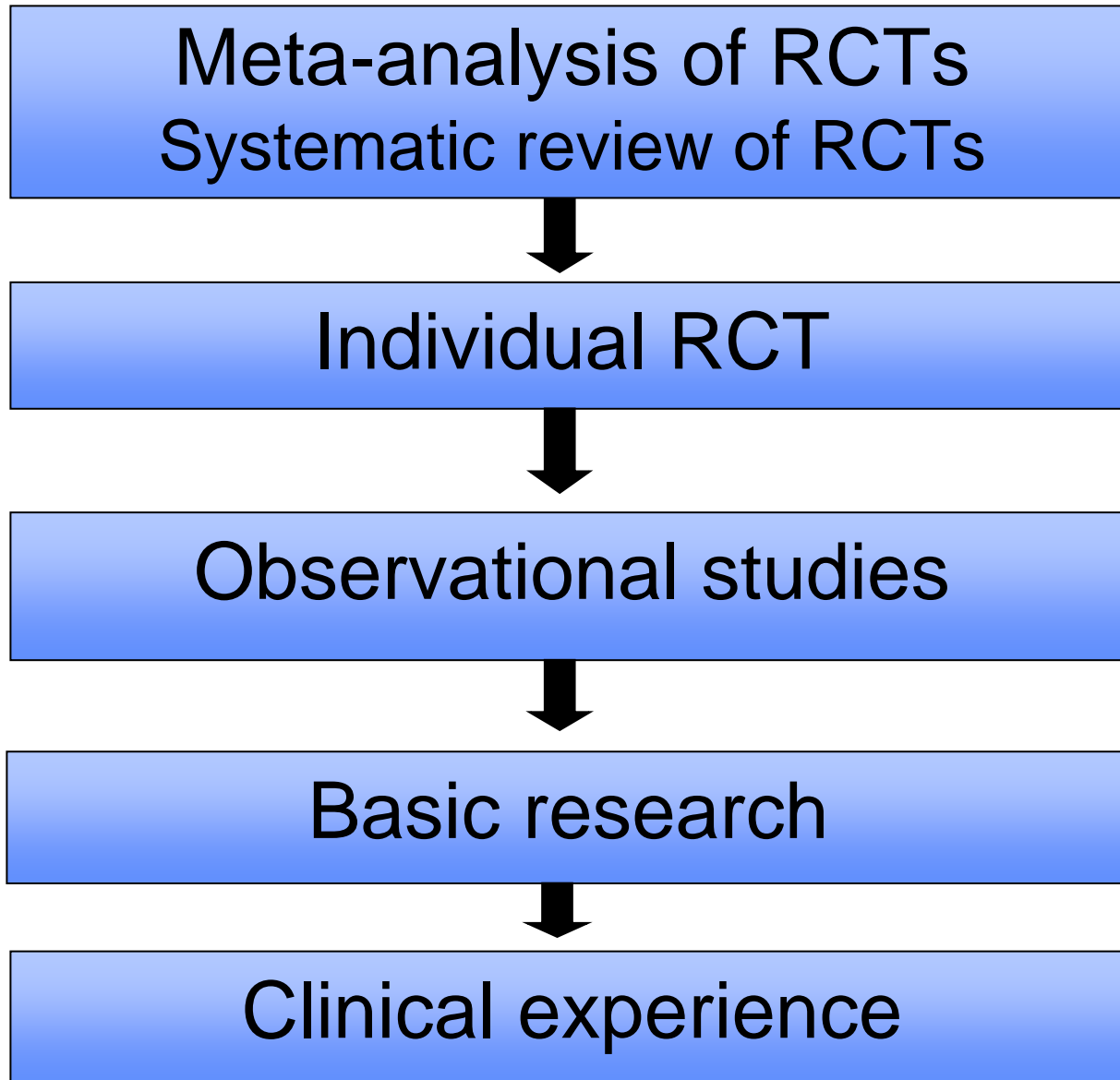
5. Control of measurement





All Evidence is not
created equal!!

Hierarchy of Evidence



THINK BIG !

start small

ACT NOW