

## Methodological Progress Note: Interrupted Time Series

Sanjay Mahant, MD<sup>1,2,3\*</sup>, Matthew Hall, PhD<sup>4</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Division of Pediatric Medicine, Department of Pediatrics, University of Toronto, Toronto, Canada; <sup>2</sup>Institute for Health Policy, Management and Evaluation, University of Toronto, Toronto, Canada; <sup>3</sup>Child Health Evaluative Sciences, Research Institute, Hospital for Sick Children, Toronto, Canada; <sup>4</sup>Research and Statistics, Children's Hospital Association, Lenexa, Kansas.

Hospital medicine research often asks the question whether an intervention, such as a policy or guideline, has improved quality of care and/or whether there were any unintended consequences. Alternatively, investigators may be interested in understanding the impact of an event, such as a natural disaster or a pandemic, on hospital care. The study design that provides the best estimate of the causal effect of the intervention is the randomized controlled trial (RCT). The goal of randomization, which can be implemented at the patient or cluster level (eg, hospitals), is attaining a balance of the known and unknown confounders between study groups.

However, an RCT may not be feasible for several reasons: complexity, insufficient setup time or funding, ethical barriers to randomization, unwillingness of funders or payers to withhold the intervention from patients (ie, the control group), or anticipated contamination of the intervention into the control group (eg, provider practice change interventions). In addition, it may be impossible to conduct an RCT because the investigator does not have control over the design of an intervention or because they are studying an event, such as a pandemic.

In the June 2020 issue of the *Journal of Hospital Medicine*, Coon et al<sup>1</sup> use a type of quasi-experimental design (QED)—specifically, the interrupted time series (ITS)—to examine the impact of the adoption of ward-based high-flow nasal cannula protocols on intensive care unit (ICU) admission for bronchiolitis at children's hospitals. In this methodologic progress note, we discuss QEDs for evaluating the impact of healthcare interventions or events and focus on ITS, one of the strongest QEDs.

### WHAT IS A QUASI-EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN?

Quasi-experimental design refers to a broad range of nonrandomized or partially randomized pre- vs postintervention studies.<sup>2</sup> In order to test a causal hypothesis without randomization, QEDs define a comparison group or a time period in which an intervention *has not* been implemented, as well as at least one group or time period in which an intervention *has* been implemented. In a QED, the control may lack similarity with the

intervention group or time period because of differences in the patients, sites, or time period (sometimes referred to as having a “nonequivalent control group”). Several design and analytic approaches are available to enhance the extent to which the study is able to make conclusions about the causal impact of the intervention.<sup>2,3</sup> Because randomization is not necessary, QEDs allow for inclusion of a broader population than that which is feasible by RCTs, which increases the applicability and generalizability of the results. Therefore, they are a powerful research design to test the effectiveness of interventions in real-world settings.

The choice of which QED depends on whether the investigators are conducting a prospective evaluation and have control over the study design (ie, the ordering of the intervention, selection of sites or individuals, and/or timing and frequency of the data collection) or whether the investigators do not have control over the intervention, which is also known as a “natural experiment.”<sup>4,5</sup> Some studies may also incorporate two QEDs in tandem.<sup>6</sup> The Table provides a brief summary of different QEDs, ordered by methodologic strength, and distinguishes those that can be used to study natural experiments. In the study by Coon et al,<sup>1</sup> an ITS is used as opposed to a methodologically stronger QED, such as the stepped-wedge design, because the investigators did not have control over the rollout of heated high-flow nasal cannula protocols across hospitals.

### WHAT IS AN INTERRUPTED TIME SERIES?

Interrupted time series designs use repeated observations of an outcome over time. This method then divides, or “interrupts,” the series of data into two time periods: before the intervention or event and after. Using data from the preintervention period, an underlying trend in the outcome is estimated and assumed to continue forward into the postintervention period to estimate what would have occurred without the intervention. Any significant change in the outcome at the beginning of the postintervention period or change in the trend in the postintervention is then attributed to the intervention.

There are several important methodologic considerations when designing an ITS study, as detailed in other review papers.<sup>2,3,7,8</sup> An ITS design can be retrospective or prospective. It can be of a single center or include multiple sites, as in Coon et al. It can be conducted with or without a control. The inclusion of a control, when appropriately chosen, improves the strength of the study design because it can account for seasonal trends and potential confounders that vary over time. The control can be a different group of hospitals or participants that are similar but did

\*Corresponding Author: Sanjay Mahant, MD; Email: sanjay.mahant@sickkids.ca; Telephone: 416-813-7654 ext 305280; Twitter: @Sanj\_Mahant; @stats\_hall.

Published online first May 19, 2021.

Received: July 24, 2020; Revised: September 14, 2020;

Accepted: September 29, 2020

© 2021 Society of Hospital Medicine DOI 10.12788/jhm.3543

TABLE. Comparison of Quasi-Experimental Study Designs<sup>a</sup>

QED type <sup>b</sup>	Description	Design can be used for natural experiments	Comments
Stepped-wedge design	<p>Intervention is rolled out over time, usually at the site level.</p> <p>Participants who initially do not receive the intervention later cross over to receive the intervention. Those who wait provide control data during the time when others receive the intervention, reducing the risk of bias due to time and time-dependent covariates.</p> <p>The study can be based on serial cross-sectional data collected by sites for different time periods (sites cross over intervention groups) or by following a cohort of the same individuals over time (individuals cross over intervention groups).</p>	No	<p>Staggered implementation of intervention allows for a longer time frame for rollout, which can be advantageous.</p> <p>All groups eventually receive the intervention.</p> <p>Implementing the intervention takes longer than with other study designs.</p> <p>There is risk of contamination in later sites.</p>
Interrupted time series	<p>Multiple observations are consecutively assessed at regular time intervals before and after the intervention within the same individual or group.</p>	Yes	<p>This can be done with or without a separate control group.</p> <p>This is often the only feasible option to study large-scale interventions.</p> <p>This requires a large number of measurements.</p>
Pre/post with nonequivalent control group	<p>A group receiving the intervention is compared with a group not receiving the intervention.</p> <p>Analysis is based on estimating the difference in the amount of change over time in the outcome between the two groups, starting with the intervention and moving forward in time.</p> <p>The two groups can also be examined from the same population using before-and-after intervention cohorts.</p>	Yes	<p>This can be more feasible because it requires a small number of time points for data collection.</p> <p>This approach is simple and has lower costs.</p> <p>Temporal biases can be substantial.</p> <p>Nonequivalent groups may not be similar in terms of important covariates.</p>
Pre/post without control group	<p>A group receiving the intervention is compared before and after the intervention is implemented.</p> <p>Analysis is based on simply estimating the difference in the outcome between the pre- and the post-groups. Unlike the interrupted time series, it does not use serial measurements over time to take into account the rate of change in the outcome in the groups.</p>	Yes	<p>This can be more feasible because it requires a small number of time points for data collection.</p> <p>This approach is simple and has lower costs.</p> <p>Temporal biases are a major issue.</p>

<sup>a</sup>Table is adapted from Handley et al.<sup>2</sup>

<sup>b</sup>Designs are ordered by methodologic strength.

Abbreviation: QED, quasi-experimental design.

not receive the intervention, or it can be a different outcome in the same group of hospitals or participants that are not expected to be affected by the intervention. The ITS design may also be set up to estimate the individual effects of multicomponent interventions. If the different components are phased in sequentially over time, then it may be possible to interrupt the time series at these points and estimate the impact of each intervention component.

Other examples of ITS studies in hospital medicine include those that evaluated the impact of a readmission-reduction program,<sup>9</sup> of state sepsis regulations on in-hospital mortality,<sup>10</sup> of resident duty-hour reform on mortality among hospitalized patients,<sup>11</sup> of a quality-improvement initiative on early discharge,<sup>12</sup> and of national guidelines on pediatric pneumonia antibiotic selection.<sup>13</sup> There are several types of ITS analysis, and in this article, we focus on segmented regression without a control group.<sup>7,8</sup>

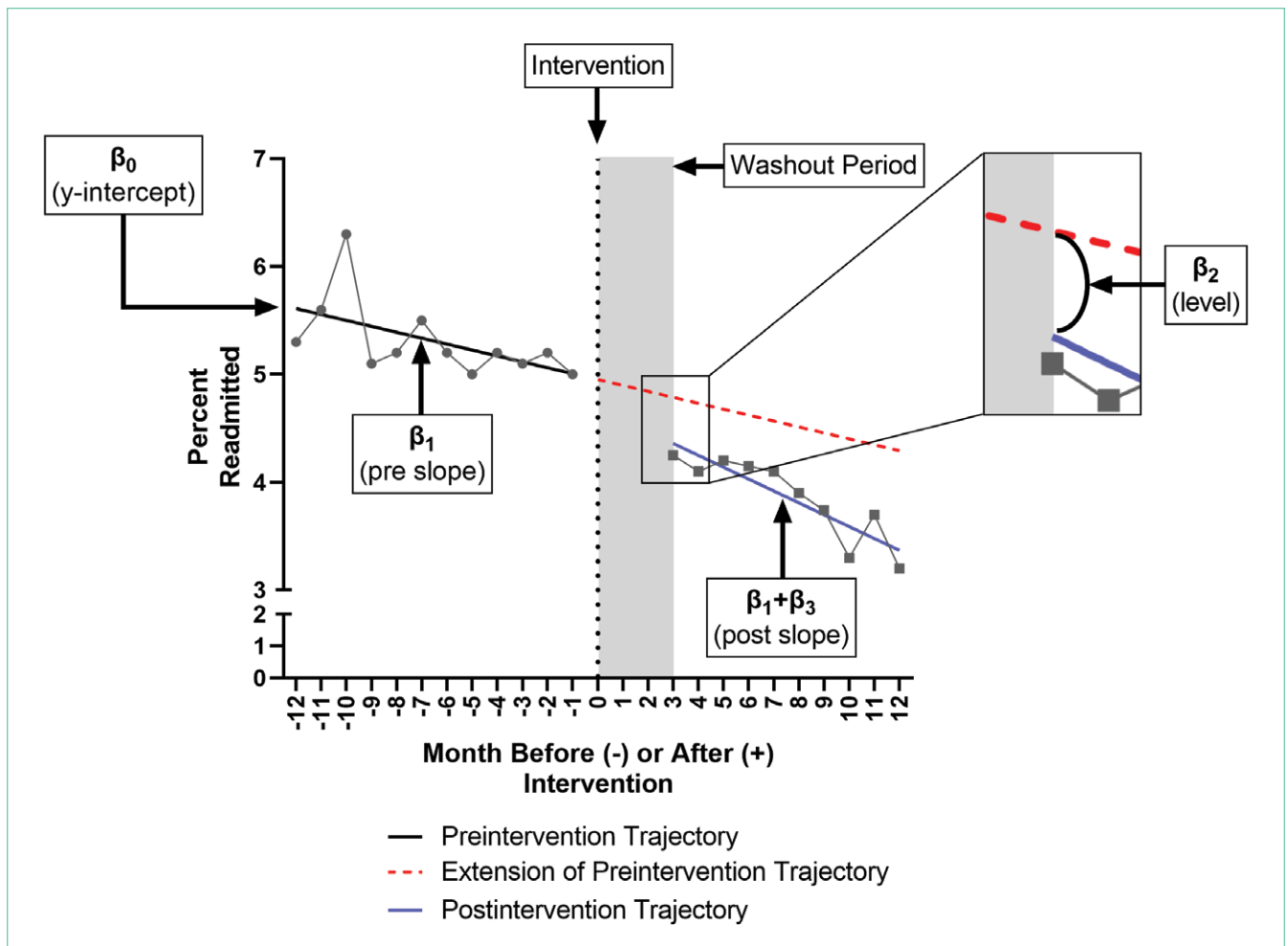
## WHAT IS A SEGMENTED REGRESSION ITS?

Segmented regression is the statistical model used to measure (a) the immediate change in the outcome (level) at the start of the intervention and (b) the change in the trend of the outcome (slope) in the postintervention period vs that in the pre-intervention period. Therefore, the intervention effect size is expressed in terms of the level change and the slope change. To function properly, the models require several repeated (eg,

monthly) measurements of the outcome before and after the intervention. Some experts suggest a minimum of 4 to 12 observations, depending on a number of factors including the stability of the outcome and seasonal variations.<sup>7,8</sup> If changes before and after more than one intervention are being examined, there should be the minimum number of observations separating them. Unlike typical regression models, time-series models can correct for autocorrelation if it is present in the data. Autocorrelation is the type of correlation that arises when data are collected over time, with those closest in time being more strongly correlated (there are also other types of autocorrelation, such as seasonal patterns). Using available statistical software, autocorrelation can be detected and, if present, it can be controlled for in the segmented regression models.

## HOW ARE SEGMENTED REGRESSION RESULTS PRESENTED?

Coon et al present results of their ITS analysis in a panel of figures detailing each study outcome, ICU admission, ICU length of stay, total length of stay, and rates of mechanical ventilation. Each panel shows the rate of change in the outcome per season across hospitals, before and after adoption of heated high-flow nasal cannula protocols, and the level change at the time of adoption.



**FIG.** The Structure of a Segmented Regression Interrupted Time Series Figure. The y-axis is the outcome (ie, readmission rate per month) and the x-axis is time (ie, each interval being a month of the study period). The shaded area between the preintervention and postintervention periods is the washout period, which is censored. The regression model has several informative parameters that are estimated from the data. The y-intercept ( $\beta_0$ ) represents the outcome at the beginning of the preintervention period.  $\beta_1$  is the slope of the regression line in the preintervention period and represents the rate of change of the outcome in this period (eg, decreasing 0.05% per month);  $\beta_2$  is the level change in the outcome at the time of the intervention (eg, decrease of 0.45%); and  $\beta_3$  is the change in the slope between the postintervention and preintervention periods (eg, -0.06% change). The postintervention slope can then be calculated as the sum of the preintervention slope ( $\beta_1$ ) and  $\beta_3$  (ie,  $\beta_1 + \beta_3 = -0.11\%$  per month). One way to express the intervention effect is to calculate the difference between the outcome at the end of the study period and what would have occurred if there were no intervention by using the extension of the preintervention trajectory.

To further explain how segmented regression results are presented, in the Figure we detail the structure of a segmented regression figure evaluating the impact of an intervention without a control group. In addition to the regression figure, authors typically provide 95% CIs around the rates, level change, and the difference between the postintervention and preintervention periods, along with *P* values demonstrating whether the rates, level change, and the differences between period slopes differ significantly from zero.

**WHAT ARE THE UNDERLYING ASSUMPTIONS OF THE SEGMENTED REGRESSION ITS?**

Segmented regression models assume a linear trend in the outcome. If the outcome follows a nonlinear pattern (eg, exponential spread of a disease during a pandemic), then using different distributions in the modeling or transformations of the data may be necessary. The validity of the comparison

between the pre- and postintervention groups relies on the similarity between the populations. When there is imbalance, investigators can consider matching based on important characteristics or applying risk adjustment as necessary. Another important assumption is that the outcome of interest is unchanged in the absence of the intervention. Finally, the analysis assumes that the intervention is fully implemented at the time the postintervention period begins. Often, there is a washout period during which the old approach is stopped and the new approach (the intervention) is being implemented and can easily be taken into account.

**WHAT ARE THE STRENGTHS OF THE SEGMENTED REGRESSION ITS?**

There are several strengths of the ITS analysis and segmented regression.<sup>7,8</sup> First, this approach accounts for a possible secular trend in the outcome measure that may have been present prior

to the intervention. For example, investigators might conclude that a readmissions program was effective in reducing readmissions if they found that the mean readmission percentage in the period after the intervention was significantly lower than before using a simple pre/post study design. However, what if the readmission rate was already going down prior to the intervention? Using an ITS approach, they may have found that the rate of readmissions simply continued to decrease after the intervention at the same rate that it was decreasing prior to the intervention and, therefore, conclude that the intervention was not effective. Second, because the ITS approach evaluates changes in rates of an outcome at a population level, confounding by individual-level variables will not introduce serious bias unless the confounding occurred at the same time as the intervention. Third, ITS can be used to measure the unintended consequences of interventions or events, and investigators can construct separate time-series analyses for different outcomes. Fourth, ITS can be used to evaluate the impact of the intervention on subpopulations (eg, those grouped by age, sex, race) by conducting stratified analysis. Fifth, ITS provides simple and clear graphical results that can be easily understood by various audiences.

## WHAT ARE THE IMPORTANT LIMITATIONS OF AN ITS?

By accounting for preintervention trends, ITS studies permit stronger causal inference than do cross-sectional or simple pre/post QEDs, but they may be prone to confounding by counterinterventions or by changes in the population composition. Causal inference based on the ITS analysis is only valid to the extent to which the intervention was the only thing that changed at the point in time between the preintervention and postintervention periods. It is important for investigators to consider this in the design and discuss any coincident interventions. If there are multiple interventions over time, it is possible to account for these changes in the study design by creating multiple points of interruption provided there are sufficient measurements of the outcome between interventions. If the composition of the population changes at the same time as the intervention, this introduces bias. Changes in the ability to measure the outcome or changes to its definition also threaten the validity of the study's inferences. Finally, it is also important to remember that when the outcome is a population-level measurement, inferences about individual-level outcomes are inappropriate due to ecological fallacies (ie, when inferences about individuals are deduced from inferences about the group to which those individuals belong). For example, Coon et al found that infants with bronchiolitis in the ward-based high-flow nasal cannula protocol group had greater ICU admission rates. It would be inappropriate to conclude that, based on this, an individual infant in a hospital on a ward-based protocol is more likely to be admitted to the ICU.

## CONCLUSION

Studies evaluating interventions and events are important for informing healthcare practice, policy, and public health. While an RCT is the preferred method for such evaluations, investigators must often consider alternative study designs when an RCT is not feasible or when more real-world outcome evaluation is desired. Quasi-experimental designs are employed in studies that do not use randomization to study the impact of interventions in real-world settings, and an interrupted time series is a strong QED for the evaluation of interventions and natural experiments.

Disclosures: The authors did not receive commercial support for the submitted work. Dr Mahant holds a grant, payable to his institution, from the Canadian Institutes of Health Research, outside the scope of the submitted work.

## References

1. Coon ER, Stoddard G, Brady PW. Intensive care unit utilization after adoption of a ward-based high flow nasal cannula protocol. *J Hosp Med*. 2020;15(6):325-330. <https://doi.org/10.12788/jhm.3417>
2. Handley MA, Lyles CR, McCulloch C, Cattamanchi A. Selecting and improving quasi-experimental designs in effectiveness and implementation research. *Annu Rev Public Health*. 2018;39:5-25. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-publhealth-040617-014128>
3. Craig P, Katikireddi SV, Leyland A, Popham F. Natural experiments: an overview of methods, approaches, and contributions to public health intervention research. *Annu Rev Public Health*. 2017;38:39-56. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-publhealth-031816-044327>
4. Craig P, Cooper C, Gunnell D, et al. Using natural experiments to evaluate population health interventions: new Medical Research Council guidance. *J Epidemiol Community Health*. 2012;66(12):1182-1186. <https://doi.org/10.1136/jech-2011-200375>
5. Coly A, Parry G. *Evaluating Complex Health Interventions: A Guide to Rigorous Research Designs*. AcademyHealth; 2017.
6. Orenstein EW, Rasooly IR, Mai MV, et al. Influence of simulation on electronic health record use patterns among pediatric residents. *J Am Med Inform Assoc*. 2018;25(11):1501-1506. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jamia/ocy105>
7. Penfold RB, Zhang F. Use of interrupted time series analysis in evaluating health care quality improvements. *Acad Pediatr*. 2013;13(6 Suppl):S38-S44. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.acap.2013.08.002>
8. Wagner AK, Soumerai SB, Zhang F, Ross-Degnan D. Segmented regression analysis of interrupted time series studies in medication use research. *J Clin Pharm Ther*. 2002;27(4):299-309. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2710.2002.00430.x>
9. Desai NR, Ross JS, Kwon JY, et al. Association between hospital penalty status under the hospital readmission reduction program and readmission rates for target and nontarget conditions. *JAMA*. 2016;316(24):2647-2656. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2016.18533>
10. Kahn JM, Davis BS, Yabes JG, et al. Association between state-mandated protocolized sepsis care and in-hospital mortality among adults with sepsis. *JAMA*. 2019;322(3):240-250. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2019.9021>
11. Volpp KG, Rosen AK, Rosenbaum PR, et al. Mortality among hospitalized Medicare beneficiaries in the first 2 years following ACGME resident duty hour reform. *JAMA*. 2007;298(9):975-983. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.298.9.975>
12. Destino L, Bennett D, Wood M, et al. Improving patient flow: analysis of an initiative to improve early discharge. *J Hosp Med*. 2019;14(1):22-27. <https://doi.org/10.12788/jhm.3133>
13. Williams DJ, Hall M, Gerber JS, et al; Pediatric Research in Inpatient Settings Network. Impact of a national guideline on antibiotic selection for hospitalized pneumonia. *Pediatrics*. 2017;139(4):e20163231. <https://doi.org/10.1542/peds.2016-3231>