




# Quantitative Research Design

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# Key Features of Quantitative Research Design: Interventions

- Key questions:
  - ✓ Will there be an intervention?
  - ✓ What **specific design** will be used?
- Broad design options:
  - ✓ Experimental (randomized control trial)
  - ✓ Quasi-experimental (controlled trial without randomization)
  - ✓ Nonexperimental (observational study)



# Key Features of Quantitative Research Design: Comparisons

- Key question:
  - ✓ **What type of comparisons** will be made to illuminate relationships?
- Some design options:
  - ✓ **Within-subjects design**: Same people are compared at different times or under different conditions
  - ✓ **Between-subjects design**: Different people are compared (e.g., men and women)



## Other Key Features of Quantitative Research Design

- Control over confounds
  - ✓ **How** will confounding variables be controlled?
  - ✓ Which **specific** confounding variables will be controlled?



## Other Key Features of Quantitative Research Design (cont.)

- Masking/blinding
  - ✓ From whom will critical information be withheld to avert bias?
- Time frames
  - ✓ **How often** will data be collected?
  - ✓ **When**, relative to other events, will data be collected?





## Other Key Features of Quantitative Research Design (cont.)

- Relative timing
  - ✓ When will information on independent and dependent variables be collected—looking forward or backward in time?
- Location
  - ✓ **Where** will the study take place?



# Causality



# Causality

- Many (if not most) quantitative research questions are about **causes** and **effects**
- Research questions that seek to illuminate causal relationships need to be addressed with appropriate designs.





# Examples

- Does a telephone therapy intervention for patients with prostate cancer cause improvements in their psychological distress and coping skills? ([intervention question](#))
- Do birthweights under 1,500 g *cause* developmental delays in children? ([prognosis question](#))
- Does cigarette smoking *cause* lung cancer? ([etiology/harm question](#))



# The Counterfactual Model of Causality

- A **counterfactual** is what would have happened to the same people exposed to a “cause” if they simultaneously were **not** exposed to the cause.
- An **effect** represents the difference between what actually did happen when exposed to the cause and what would happen with the counterfactual condition
- “If *A* had not occurred, *C* would not have occurred”.



# Probability

- Address relative rather than absolute causality
- **For example**, smoking is a cause of lung cancer, but not everyone who smokes develops lung cancer, and not everyone with lung cancer was a smoker



# Criteria for Causality

- Three key criteria for making causal inferences:
  - ✓ The cause **must precede the effect** in time.
  - ✓ There **must be a demonstrated association** between the cause and the effect.
  - ✓ The relationship between the presumed cause and effect **cannot be explained by a third variable or confounder**; another factor related to both the presumed cause and effect cannot be the “real” cause.



# Additional Criteria for Causality

- Additional criterion in health research:
  - ✓ **Biologic plausibility**: The causal relationship should be consistent with evidence from basic physiologic studies.





# Research Questions & Research Design

- Different designs are appropriate for different questions
- **Experimental designs** offer the strongest evidence of whether a cause (an intervention) results in an effect (a desired outcome)
  - ✓ That's why they are high on evidence hierarchies for questions about causes and effects





# Experimental Design



# Experimental Design

- **Intervention (Manipulation)**: The researcher does something to some subjects, introduces an **intervention** (or **treatment**)
- **Control**: The researcher introduces controls, including the use of a control group counterfactual
- ***Randomization***



# Example

- Investigating the effect of physical exertion on mood in healthy young adults
- One experimental design for this research problem is a **pretest–posttest design (or before–after design)**.



## Characteristics of a True Experiment

- **Randomization** (also called **random assignment**): The researcher assigns subjects to groups **at random**.
  - ✓ Typical assignment is to an **experimental group** or a **control group**.
  - ✓ The purpose is to make the groups equal with regard to **all other factors** except receipt of the intervention.



# Randomized Two-Group Design

- 2 levels
- Sample from population: RA into 2 groups:  
hold extraneous variables constant

R            X1            O

R            X2            O

R = random assignment

X = intervention

O = Observation





# Experimental Designs

- **Posttest-only (or after-only) design**

- ✓ Outcome data collected only after the intervention
- ✓ Symbolic representation:

R X O

R O

- R = Randomization;
- X = Receipt of intervention;
- O = Observation/measurement of dependent variable





## Experimental Designs (cont.)

- **Pretest–posttest (before–after) design**

- ✓ Outcome data collected both at **baseline** and after the intervention

- ✓ Symbolic representation:

R O1 X1 O2

R O3 X2 O4

- ✓ Adding a pretest adds another level of control but also additional threats of which to be careful (e.g., testing)

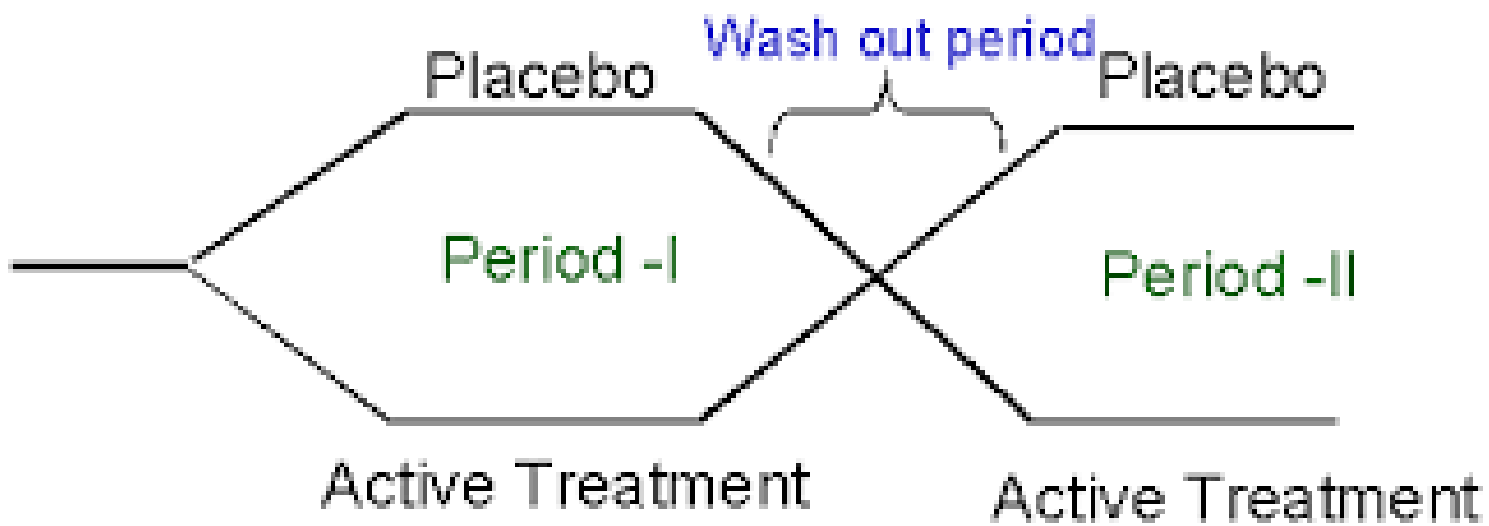
# Experimental Designs (cont.)

- **Crossover design**

- ✓ Subjects are exposed to 2+ conditions in random order
- ✓ Subjects serve as their own control.
- ✓ Symbolic representation:

R   O1    $X_A$    O2    $X_B$    O3

R   O4    $X_B$    O5    $X_A$    O6



Crossover design



## Experimental Condition

- Must be designed with sufficient intensity and duration that effects might reasonably be expected

Attention must be paid to **intervention fidelity** (or treatment fidelity), that is, whether the treatment as planned was actually delivered and received



## Control Group Conditions (Counterfactuals)

- **No intervention** is used; control group gets no treatment at all
- **“Usual care”**: standard or normal procedures used to treat patients
- An **alternative intervention** is used (e.g., auditory vs. visual stimulation)
- A **placebo** or pseudointervention, presumed to have no therapeutic value, is used
- **A lower dose or intensity of treatment or only portions** of it are administered



## Control Group Conditions (cont.)


- **Attention control**: extra attention, but not the active ingredient of the intervention
- **Delayed treatment (“wait-listed controls”)**—the intervention is given at a later date.

✓ Symbolic representation:

R   O   X   O   O

R   O   O   X   O





# Advantages and Disadvantages of Experiments

- **Advantages:** most powerful for detecting cause and effect relationships
  - ✓ **Generalizable!**
- **Disadvantages:** often not feasible or ethical, Hawthorne effect (knowledge of being in a study may cause people to change their behavior.), often expensive



# Quasi-Experimental design



# Quasi-Experiments

- Involve an intervention but lack either randomization or control group
- Two main categories of quasi-experimental designs:
  - ✓ **Nonequivalent control group designs**
    - Those getting the intervention are compared with a nonrandomized comparison group
  - ✓ **Within-subjects designs**
    - One group is studied before and after the intervention.



# Quasi-Experiments

- The hallmark of strong quasi-experiments is the effort to introduce some controls, such as **baseline measurements**



## Nonequivalent Control Group Designs

- If preintervention data are gathered, then the comparability of the experimental and comparison groups at the start of the study can be examined
  - ✓ **Nonequivalent control group pretest–posttest design**
  - ✓ Symbolic representation:

$O_1$      $X$      $O_2$

$O_1$              $O_2$





## Nonequivalent Control Group Designs (cont.)

- Without preintervention data, it is risky to assume the groups were similar at the outset
  - ✓ **Nonequivalent control group posttest only** is much weaker.
  - ✓ Symbolic representation:

$$\begin{array}{l} X \quad O_1 \\ \quad O_1 \end{array}$$





## Example of a nonequivalent control group design

- Jones and colleagues (2007) used a nonequivalent control group before–after design to test the effectiveness of the Deaf Health Heart Intervention in increasing self-efficacy for heart health behaviors in deaf adults
- Participants in Tucson, who received the intervention, were compared with similar adults from Phoenix who did not receive it.



## Within-Subjects Quasi-Experiments

- **One-group pretest–posttest designs** typically yield extremely weak evidence of causal relationships.

✓ Symbolic representation:

$$O_1 \times O_2$$



## Within-Subjects Quasi-Experiments

- **Time series designs** gather pre-intervention and post-intervention data over a longer period.
- It's comprised of one group because of unavailability of a control group
  - ✓ Symbolic representation:  
 $O_1 O_2 O_3 O_4 X O_5 O_6 O_7 O_8$



# Example Time series

- ✓ For example, the director of the “Institute of Child Health and Development” wanted to improve the situation of the employee by applying continuing education programs
- ✓ The dependent variables are employee turnover, number of sick leaves, and absentee rate
- ✓ No other institute have similar characteristics, so no control group is available.



# Example Time series

- The researcher in this case collects data related to the dependent variables for about six months continuously
- then apply the educational programs which take another six months
- then data related to the independent variables will be collected again.
- If the rate of turn over & number of sick leaves and absentee rate were reduced then the continuing programs are good solution for improving the situation of the employee






# Example Time series

Infection rates for surgery( $X$ ) are collected for 3 months

- and then a new cleaning procedure ( $T$ ) is introduced.
- Infection rates are collected for 3 months thereafter to see if there are any differences over time



## Advantages & Disadvantages of Quasi-Experiments

- May be easier and more practical than true experiments, **but**
  - ✓ They make it more difficult to infer causality
  - ✓ Usually there are several alternative **rival hypotheses** for results



# Non-experimental design



# Nonexperimental Studies

- If researchers do not intervene by controlling independent variable, the study is nonexperimental (observational)
- Not all independent variables (“causes”) of interest to nurse researchers can be experimentally manipulated.
  - ✓ For example, gender cannot ever be manipulated.
  - ✓ Smoking cannot **ethically** be manipulated
  - ✓ Do birthweights under 1,500 grams cause developmental delays in children?



# Types of Nonexperimental Studies

## Correlational designs:

- Explanatory research
- Process of identifying specific constructs / variables that will be measured and compared to another construct or variable
- An examination of the relationship between variables leading to uni / bi / multivariate analysis
- This relationship is then examined as a strong or weak relationship
- A **correlation** is an association between variables and can be detected through statistical analysis
- (e.g., people's height and weight).





## Correlational designs

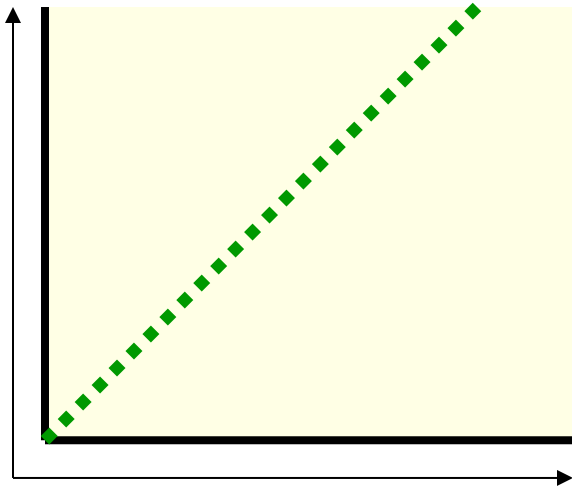
- The researcher is not testing whether one variable causes another variable but whether the variables related; that is, as one variable change, does a related change occur in the other variable?
- The researcher is interested in **quantifying the magnitude or strength** of the relationship between the variables.
- The positive or negative **direction** of the relationship is also a central concern of the researcher for a complete explanation of the correlation coefficient
- **Correlation does not prove causation**



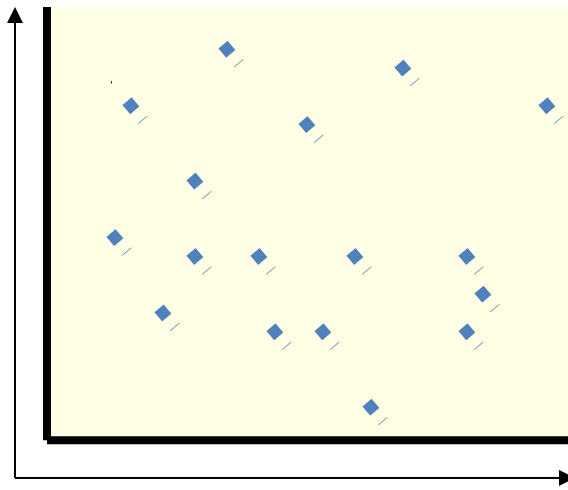
# Correlational Research

- Interpretation:
  - ✓ Positive
  - ✓ Negative
  - ✓ No relationship vs nonlinear relationship
  - ✓ Scatterplot

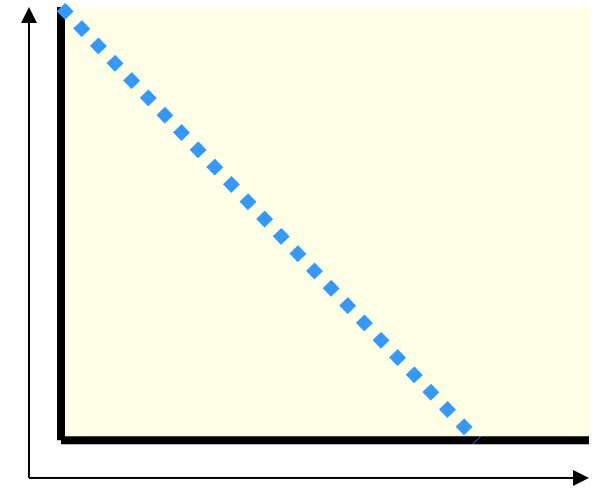
# Example of Relationship: Predicting Behavior



Perfect positive correlation (+1.00)



No relationship (0.00)



Perfect negative correlation (-1.00)



## Types of Nonexperimental Studies (cont.)

- In a **prospective** correlational design, a potential cause in the present (e.g., experiencing vs. not experiencing a miscarriage) is linked to a hypothesized later outcome (e.g., depression 6 months later).
- This is called a **cohort study** by medical researchers
- Prospective designs are stronger than retrospective designs in supporting causal inferences, but neither is as strong as experimental designs



## Retrospective Designs

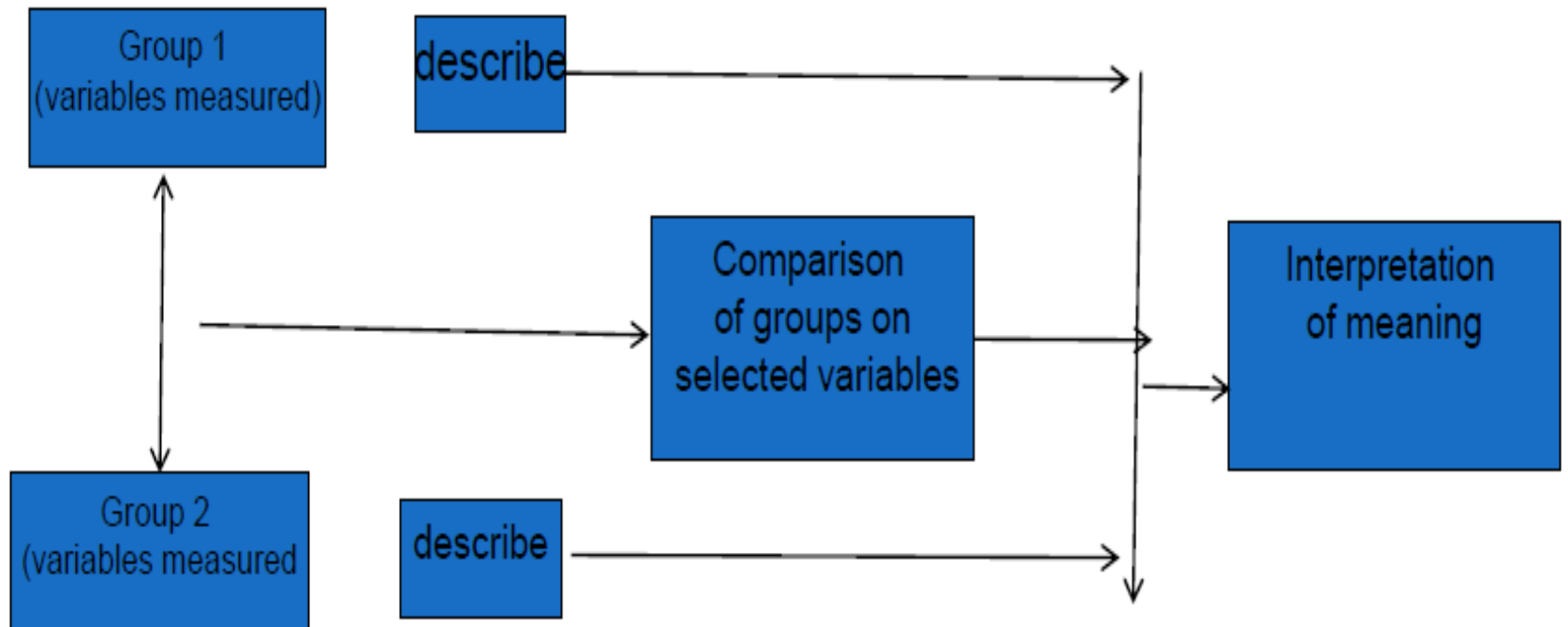
- In a **retrospective** correlational design, an outcome in the present (e.g., depression) is linked to a hypothesized cause occurring in the past (e.g., having had a miscarriage).
- One retrospective design is a **case–control design** in which “cases” (e.g., those with lung cancer) are compared to “controls” (e.g., those without lung cancer) on prior potential causes (e.g., smoking habits).





# Descriptive Research

- Not all research is cause probing
- Some research is **descriptive** (e.g., ascertaining the prevalence of a health problem)
- Studies that summarizes the status of phenomena
- Other research is **descriptive correlational**: the purpose is to describe whether variables are related, without ascribing a cause-and-effect connection
- A comparative descriptive design compares descriptive data obtained from each group and compares it in quantitative and outcomes studies.





## **Advantages & Disadvantages of Nonexperimental Research**

- Does not yield persuasive evidence for causal inferences, but efficient way to collect large amounts of data when intervention and/or randomization is not possible



# Time Dimension in Research Design



# Time Dimension in Research Design

- **Cross-sectional design:** Data are collected at a single point in time
- Observes cohorts of people at different ages for particular variable
- Advantages:
  - ✓ more efficient use of resources
- Disadvantages:
  - ✓ Unequal groups



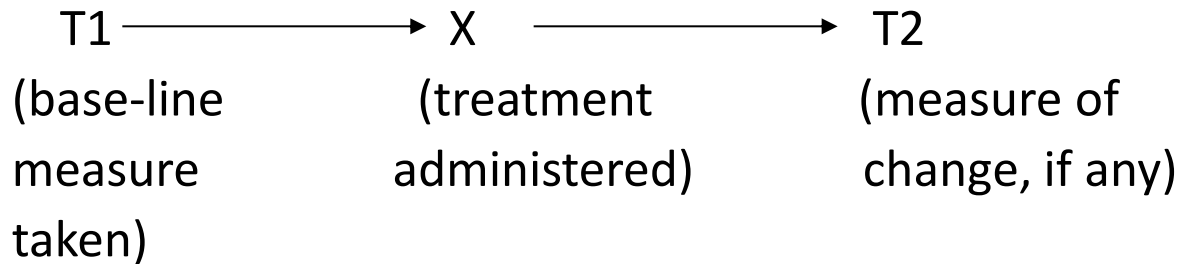


## Time Dimension in Research Design (cont.)

- **Longitudinal design:** Data are collected two or more times over an extended period
- Longitudinal designs are better at showing patterns of change occurring over time and at clarifying whether a cause occurred before an effect (outcome)
- A challenge in longitudinal studies is **attrition** **تناقص** or the loss of participants over time



# Longitudinal design



**Follow-up studies:** A study undertaken to determine the outcomes of individuals with a specified condition or who have received a specified treatment.



## Example of a follow-up study

- Lauver and colleagues (2007) did a follow-up study of cancer survivors at 4 weeks and after radiation or chemotherapy treatment to examine patterns of stress and coping.



# Control



# Controlling the Study Context

- Controlling external factors
  - ✓ Achieving **constancy of conditions**
  - ✓ Control over environment, setting, time
  - ✓ Control over intervention via a formal protocol:  
**intervention fidelity**





# Controlling Participant Factors

- Randomization
  - ✓ Subjects as own controls (crossover design)
- Homogeneity (restricting sample i.e. females only)
- Matching
- Statistical control (e.g., **analysis of covariance**)



# Randomization

- a table of random numbers to randomize
- <https://www.randomizer.org/>



# Homogeneity

- In which only subjects who are homogeneous with respect to confounding variables are included in the study
- If gender were a confounding variable, we might recruit only men (or women) as participants
- One problem is **limited generalizability**



## Example of control through homogeneity

- Ngai and colleagues (2010) studied factors that predicted maternal role competence and satisfaction among mothers in Hong Kong.
- Several variables were controlled through homogeneity, including **ethnicity** (all were Chinese), **parity** (all primiparous), and **marital status** (all were married).



# Matching

- Using information about subject characteristics to form comparable groups
- Case-control designs
- Drawbacks





## Example of control through matching

- Talashek and colleagues (2006) compared **inner-city teenagers who were pregnant** or **never-pregnant** to examine factors that might predict pregnancy status.
- Although homogeneity controlled participants' area of residence (living in an inner city), matching was used to control the teenagers' age & ethnicity.



# Statistical control

- Analysis of covariance controls by statistically removing the effect of confounding variables on the outcome
- Confounding variables that need to be controlled —variables that correlate with the outcomes— should be identified through a literature review



End of Presentation