

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS AND FINAL RESULTS OVERVIEW INCLUDING HETEROGENEITY OF TREATMENT EFFECTS

I. STATISTICAL ANALYSES

The primary outcome of interest is the sustained virological response (SVR) rate in the two study arms (i.e., facilitated telemedicine compared with usual care) as well as the comparison of the SVR rates between the two arms. Other outcomes of interest include: 1) treatment initiation rates as measured by the proportion of individuals who take an initial medication dose; 2) treatment completion rates; 3) patient satisfaction with the telemedicine-based hepatitis C virus (HCV) care scores using the adapted Patient Satisfaction Questionnaire ^{1,2}; and 4) reinfection rates.

For an explanation of the study scope, aims, setting, description of the population, and implementation strategies, please see ³. We analyzed treatment initiation and completion rates graphically. Details on the analysis of patient satisfaction scores are reported below as are the analysis of reinfections. We have followed the CONSORT statement for reporting of stepped wedge trials ⁴.

la. Primary Aim Analysis Plan

la1. Data Collection: Per guidance of the New York State Office of Addiction Services and Supports (OASAS), HCV antibody levels are assessed on admission to the opioid treatment program (OTP) and on an annual basis. Thus, we obtained a list of potentially eligible participants who were then approached regarding study entry. If HCV seropositive individuals consented to study participation, they were scheduled for a screening visit where the laboratory parameters mentioned in Table 1 were obtained. Those individuals who had detectable serum HCV RNA were enrolled in the study and had their levels of fibrosis and inflammation subsequently assessed.

Table 1: Laboratory parameters collected at Baseline

Lab test	Reason
HCV antibody	Assess exposure to HCV
HCV RNA	Assess active HCV infection
HCV genotype	Assess type of hepatitis C
CBC	Assess hemoglobin concentration
CMP	Assess metabolic, renal, hepatic parameters
INR	Assess coagulation parameters
Toxicology screen	Assess use of illicit substances
HIV antibody	Assess exposure to HIV
HBV surface antigen	Assess exposure to HBV
HBV surface antibody	Assess immunity to HBV
FibroSure [®]	Assess liver fibrosis and inflammation levels
HIV RNA	Assess active HIV infection
CD4 cell count	Assess immune system status in HIV infection

Abbreviations: CBC, complete blood count; CMP, complete metabolic panel; HCV, hepatitis C virus; INR, international normalized ratio; HBV, hepatitis B virus; HIV, human immunodeficiency virus; RNA, ribonucleic acid

la2. Missing data: Missing data can occur in any study design and with any data source. In clinical trials, missing data often arise when participants drop out of the study before its conclusion ⁵. Li et al (2014) indicate that the single best

33 approach to deal with missing values is to prospectively prevent their occurrence ⁶. To this end, the study personnel
34 attempted to minimize the amounts of missing values by following the study participants closely. The case managers
35 were provided with a list of strategies to avoid missing values, and issues surrounding missing data were reviewed
36 weekly during conference calls.

37
38 Specifically, the following strategies were implemented to limit the amount of missing data. Adherence to the treatment
39 schedule was monitored very closely by the case managers at each site. At the level of the overall study, the Biostatistics
40 and Data Management Team monitored the trial weekly. Study participants were informed at the consent stage of the
41 importance of completing all surveys, and case managers facilitated their completion by administering the surveys
42 onsite within the OTP. During the time of Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic restrictions and because
43 recruitment had been completed, the impact of COVID-19 on the study was minimal. Additional strategies we
44 implemented included frequent reminders to study participants for study visits, education of participants of the
45 importance of continuous engagement, keeping participant contact information current, providing monetary incentives
46 to participants, utilizing OTP staff support to promote participant engagement, and collecting information on
47 participants at risk of dropout.

48
49 To adequately address statistical challenges around missing data, we collected detailed information on the reasons for
50 missingness when missing data occurred. Whenever a participant discontinued all or some type of study participation,
51 we documented the following: 1) the reason for discontinuation, 2) type(s) of participation that the discontinuation
52 involved, and 3) who decided to discontinue the participant from the study. For example, in the case of ongoing non-
53 adherence with OTP attendance requirements or prolonged absence from the OTP, such as in the case of incarceration,
54 the OTP may “administratively discontinue” an individual. If a study participant was discontinued from the OTP, their
55 study participation ceased. Therefore, opportunities for follow up blood draws and obtaining study-related information
56 were not possible.

57
58 When we encountered missing data, we took the following steps. 1) We filed a report documenting the occurrence of
59 missing data, its potential resolution, and the expected resolution date. 2) The case manager at each site investigated
60 whether data retrieval was possible. If not retrievable, we supplemented the report with the reasons for missing data.
61 We requested that each site report the percentage of missing data for each participant on a weekly basis.

62
63 The above strategies severely limited the quantity of missing data. When we encountered missing data, the explanations
64 that accompanied the missing data guided the adjudication of the missing data mechanism. We used valid statistical
65 methods, such as multiple imputation, to impute missing data. In our study, the maximum percentage of missing data is
66 5.814%, and the missing mechanism is missing at random. To perform multiple imputation, we used Multivariate
67 Imputation by Chained Equations (MICE) since the estimated intra-cluster correlation is 0.099, sufficiently low to allow
68 the use of MICE. We generated 20 imputed data sets that were used in the analysis ^{7,8}.

69
70 A recent publication from the Center for Disease Control and Prevention illustrated that the prevalence of initiation of
71 HCV treatment with a direct acting antiviral within 360 days of the first positive HCV RNA among those with Medicaid,
72 Medicare, and private insurance was 23%, 28% and 35%, respectively ⁹. Anticipating that we would achieve similar
73 results to those mentioned above, we had pre-specified in the protocol that participants who did not initiate treatment
74 within five months of screening would be considered as treatment failures. Thus, these participants were designated as
75 SVR = 0, indicating that an SVR was not achieved if they had not uptake HCV treatment within the first five months of
76 receiving a referral. Furthermore, in chronic HCV infection, spontaneous resolution occurs at 0.36% per person-years of
77 follow up ¹⁰. This percentage is so low that it indicates that it is highly unlikely that spontaneous resolution would occur
78 in our study participants with chronic HCV infection who did not initiate treatment during the allotted 5-month period.
79 All remaining participants initiated treatment. Once participants initiated treatment, only 5.8% of participants
80 discontinued treatment prematurely. In these instances, we used multiple imputation to provide an SVR result.

81
82 The missing mechanism is assumed to be missing at random (MAR), and Table 2 presents the variables that are affected
83 by missingness as well as the percentage of missing values.

84
85
86
87 **Table 2: Variables with Missing Values and Percentage of Missingness.**

Variable	# of missing observations (percentage)
DAST-10	20 (3.32%)
APRI	12 (1.99%)
Prescription drug use for nonmedical reasons	21 (3.49%)
Illegal drug use	21 (3.49%)
SVR	35 (5.81%)

88 Abbreviations: DAST-10-Drug Abuse Screening Test; APRI-Aspartate aminotransferase to platelet ratio index; SVR-
89 sustained virologic response.

90
91 We imputed missing data using MICE (R Software, Version 3.15.0), with a publication date of 11/19/2022 for the MICE
92 software version we used. For additional information on the methods the software uses for data imputation, please see
93 ^{7,8}. To impute the missing SVR values, we built a logistic regression model that included variables thought to affect
94 missingness and potentially satisfy the MAR assumption. Furthermore, we took account of the clustering by
95 incorporating the site as a fixed effect. Details on the selection of these variables are provided in the draft final research
96 report. We developed the imputation models according to the recommendations of Azur et al (2011) ¹¹. Diagnostic
97 plots, such as boxplots, are also used to evaluate the agreement between imputed and observed data ¹².

98
99 We performed analysis using the 20 imputation data sets and summarized the relevant results using Rubin's rules for
100 combining estimates and standard errors. This method also computes the relevant confidence intervals. For details,
101 please see Schafer (1997) ¹³. To estimate the effect of facilitated telemedicine, we used two methods of analysis.
102 Generalized linear mixed effects models, adjusted for the time effect, are used in an intention-to-treat analysis. An
103 alternative robust, nonparametric, within period, cluster-level method is also used ¹⁴. Furthermore, we provide graphical
104 analysis that corroborates our discussion on selection bias in cluster randomized trials. If data configurations in which
105 the outcome is determined by specific combinations of the covariates occur, these configurations generate
106 nonconvergence; in this case, we used exact inference methods.

107 I2 Secondary Aim Analyses

108
109 I2a Heterogeneity of Treatment Effects: Analysis of heterogeneity of the intervention effect, that is, estimation of
110 the intervention effects in subgroups, can be challenging (see ¹⁵). We defined "a priori subgroups of interest", at the
111 request of the sponsor, by the following variables: 1) comorbid medical conditions (specifically anxiety and depression),
112 2) liver fibrosis stage (binary with one level including F3, F3-F4, and F4 participants versus all other stages), 3) location of
113 residence (specifically urban/rural classification). Our goal is the identification of whether or not these factors influence
114 the decision to initiate and adhere to HCV treatment in the telemedicine and usual care arms.

115
116 The percentage of people with opioid use disorder with comorbid medical conditions ranges from 20% to 85% based
117 upon findings reported by others ^{15,16}. We included depression and anxiety disorders as a specific diagnosis among
118 those with co-morbid conditions since the prevalence varies from 24.5% to greater than 50% ¹⁵⁻¹⁷. The sample size of our
119 study was sufficient to permit stratification by the comorbid conditions variable to allow exploratory analyses.

120
121 Despite the tremendous therapeutic advances in HCV treatment over the past several years, fibrosis stage remains an
122 important factor to explore for its importance as a determinant of successful HCV cure. We based our estimates of
123 advanced fibrosis and cirrhosis from our previous study ¹⁸ in which the percentage of participants with advanced fibrosis
124 (F3 and F3-F4) was 16% and 12% had cirrhosis (F4). Correspondingly, we estimated that 28% of the participants in each
125 study arm would have advanced fibrosis or cirrhosis, thereby permitting evaluation of the variable's influence on
126 virologic outcomes. We also evaluated the percentage of study participants residing in urban or rural areas.

Univariate subgroup analyses were conducted by incorporating a treatment by factor interaction in all relevant models adjusted for time. Forrest plots provide a visualization of the results. Details are provided in the final report. As our secondary analyses are largely exploratory, we followed Wang et al. (2007) in interpreting and reporting the results¹⁹.

Figure 1 presents the time-adjusted log-odds ratios for the subgroups of interest and their associated 95% confidence intervals. Note that all results are in favor of the intervention (i.e., facilitated telemedicine). The 95% confidence interval that corresponds to rural classification is based on the use of methods that can accommodate data configurations that result in infinite estimates of the intervention effect (nonconvergence). These methods generally generate wide confidence intervals, so they are exact inference methods. In our case, these data configurations were created because arm membership (i.e., whether participants were in the facilitated telemedicine or referral arms) for rural participants determined the clinical outcome. Additionally, all interaction effects illustrated in Figure 1 are nonsignificant at the $\alpha = 0.05$ level.

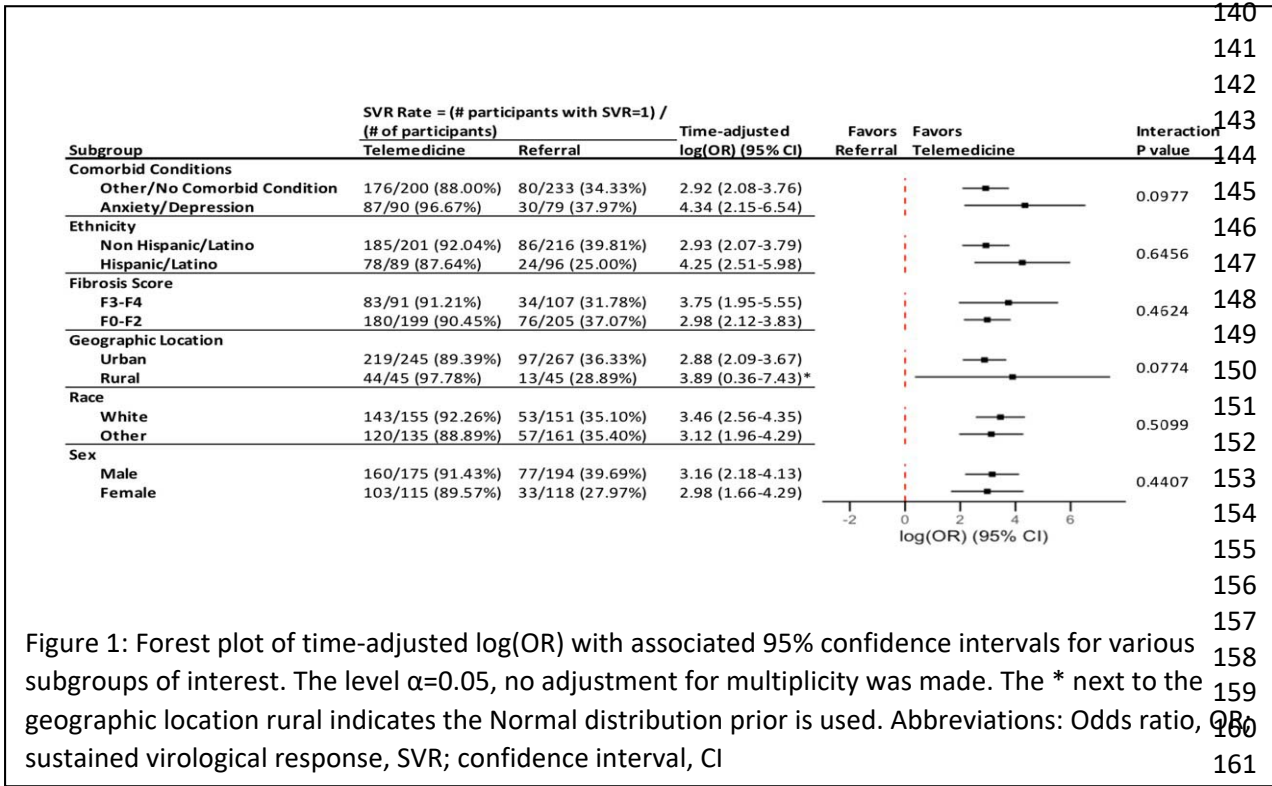


Figure 1: Forest plot of time-adjusted log(OR) with associated 95% confidence intervals for various subgroups of interest. The level $\alpha=0.05$, no adjustment for multiplicity was made. The * next to the geographic location rural indicates the Normal distribution prior is used. Abbreviations: Odds ratio, OR; sustained virological response, SVR; confidence interval, CI

I2b Patient Satisfaction Analysis: Our mixed-methods analysis of patient satisfaction with HCV treatment delivery comparing in-person and telemedicine has recently been published²⁰. Generalized linear mixed models were used to account for the time effect on the Patient Satisfaction Questionnaire that was administered at two timepoints, incorporating adjustments for the clustering effect and the study arm. We modeled the survey response rate as a function of demographic and other relevant covariates.

I2c Analysis of Reinfection Study: An exploratory aim of the trial was the follow up of study participants for up to 24 months after achieving an SVR to evaluate for HCV reinfection. We compared the reinfection rates between the usual care and telemedicine arms by calculating the cumulative incidence density for both arms.

Study participants were followed for up to two years after achieving an SVR to assess for reinfection. There were a total of 3 reinfections in the referral arm with a total follow up period of 93.2 person-years. In the telemedicine arm, there were a total of 10 reinfections with a total of 361.0 person-years of follow up. The overall incidence density rate was 2.86 per 100 person years of follow up with a rate of 2.77 per 100 person years of follow-up in telemedicine and a rate of 3.29 in referral.

178 A.2.3 Exploratory Analysis

179
180 Distribution of all variables was examined using graphical methods and descriptive statistics. Continuous variables are
181 presented by their means and standard deviations or medians and associated interquartile ranges. Categorical variables
182 are presented by the associated counts and percentages. Distributional assumptions were checked via boxplots, qq-plots
183 or other appropriate graphical techniques, and outliers were identified via the aforementioned graphical analysis. All
184 statistical analyses were conducted using SAS (SAS Institute, Cary, NC) and/or R. The estimated intraclass correlation
185 coefficient (ICC) was .099.

186
187 Demographic description of the population was provided in terms of characteristics such as age, gender, race, and
188 ethnicity. Other variables that contributed to the descriptions included residence type (i.e., urban versus rural), Drug
189 Abuse Screening Test (DAST)-10 scores²¹, and variables incorporated within the NIDA Quick Screen questionnaire²². We
190 also incorporated variables collected on methadone and HCV adherence.

191 **References**

- 193 1. Marshall GN, Hays RD. The patient satisfaction questionnaire short-form (PSQ-18). RAND, Santa Monica, CA;
194 1994.
- 195 2. Yip M, Chang AM, Chan J, MacKenzie AE. Development of the telemedicine satisfaction questionnaire to
196 evaluate patient satisfaction with telemedicine: a preliminary study. *J Telemed Telecare*. 2003;9(1):46-50.
197 doi:10.1258/135763303321159693
- 198 3. Talal AH, Markatou M, Sofikitou EM, et al. Patient-centered HCV care via telemedicine for individuals on
199 medication for opioid use disorder: Telemedicine for Evaluation, Adherence and Medication for Hepatitis C
200 (TEAM-C). *Contemp clin trials*. 2022;112:106632. doi:10.1016/j.cct.2021.106632
- 201 4. Hemming K, Taljaard M, McKenzie JE, et al. Reporting of stepped wedge cluster randomised trials: extension of
202 the CONSORT 2010 statement with explanation and elaboration. *BMJ*. 2018;363:k1614. doi:10.1136/bmj.k1614
- 203 5. Little R, Cohen M, Dickersin K, et al. The design and conduct of clinical trials to limit missing data. *Stat Med*.
204 2012;31(28):3433-3443.
- 205 6. Li T, Hutfless S, Scharfstein DO, et al. Standards should be applied in the prevention and handling of missing data
206 for patient-centered outcomes research: a systematic review and expert consensus. *J Clin Epidemiol*.
207 2014;67(1):15-32. doi:10.1016/j.jclinepi.2013.08.013
- 208 7. Van Buuren S, Groothuis-Oudshoorn K. MICE: Multivariate imputation by chained equations in R. *J Stat Softw*.
209 2011;45:1-67. doi:<https://www.jstatsoft.org/article/view/v045i03>
- 210 8. Schafer JL, Olsen MK. Multiple imputation for multivariate missing-data problems: A data analyst's perspective.
211 *Multivariate Behav Res*. 1998;33(4):545-71. doi:10.1207/s15327906mbr3304_5
- 212 9. Thompson WW, Symum H, Sandul A, et al. Vital signs: hepatitis C treatment among insured adults - United
213 States, 2019-2020. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep*. 2022;71(32):1011-1017. doi:10.15585/mmwr.mm7132e1
- 214 10. Bulteel N, Partha Sarathy P, Forrest E, et al. Factors associated with spontaneous clearance of chronic hepatitis C
215 virus infection. *J Hepatol*. 2016;65(2):266-72. doi:10.1016/j.jhep.2016.04.030
- 216 11. Azur MJ, Stuart EA, Frangakis C, Leaf PJ. Multiple imputation by chained equations: what is it and how does it
217 work? *Int J Methods Psychiatr Res*. 2011;20(1):40-9. doi:10.1002/mpr.329
- 218 12. Zhao Y. Diagnostic checking of multiple imputation models. *ASTA Adv Stat Anal*. 2022;106(2):271-286.
- 219 13. Schafer JL. *Analysis of incomplete multivariate Data*. Chapman & Hall/CRC; 1997.
- 220 14. Thompson JA, Davey C, Fielding K, Hargreaves JR, Hayes RJ. Robust analysis of stepped wedge trials using
221 cluster-level summaries within periods. *Stat Med*. 2018;37(16):2487-2500. doi:10.1002/sim.7668
- 222 15. Varadhan R, Segal JB, Boyd CM, Wu AW, Weiss CO. A framework for the analysis of heterogeneity of treatment
223 effect in patient-centered outcomes research. *J Clin Epidemiol*. 2013;66(8):818-25.
224 doi:10.1016/j.jclinepi.2013.02.009
- 225 16. El-Serag HB, Kunik M, Richardson P, Rabeneck L. Psychiatric disorders among veterans with hepatitis C infection.
226 *Gastroenterology*. 2002;123(2):476-82. doi:10.1053/gast.2002.34750

- 227 17. Ho SB, Brau N, Cheung R, et al. Integrated care increases treatment and improves outcomes of patients with
228 chronic hepatitis C virus infection and psychiatric illness or substance abuse. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol.*
229 2015;13(11):2005-14 e1-3. doi:10.1016/j.cgh.2015.02.022
- 230 18. Talal AH, Andrews P, Mcleod A, et al. Integrated, co-located, telemedicine-based treatment approaches for
231 hepatitis C virus management in opioid use disorder patients on methadone. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2019;69(2):323-331.
232 doi:10.1093/cid/ciy899
- 233 19. Wang R, Lagakos SW, Ware JH, Hunter DJ, Drazen JM. Statistics in medicine--reporting of subgroup analyses in
234 clinical trials. *N Engl J Med.* 2007;357(21):2189-94. doi:10.1056/NEJMs077003
- 235 20. Talal AH, Sofikitou EM, Wang K, Dickerson S, Jaanimagi U, Markatou M. High satisfaction with patient-centered
236 telemedicine for hepatitis C virus delivered to substance users: a mixed-methods study. *Telemed J E Health.*
237 2023;29(3):395-407. doi:DOI:10.1089/tmj.2022.0189
- 238 21. Skinner HA. The drug abuse screening test. *Addict behav.* 1982;7(4):363-71. doi:10.1016/0306-4603(82)90005-3
- 239 22. National Institute on Drug Abuse. NIDA Drug Screening Tool. Available at:
240 <https://archivesdrugabusegov/nmassist/> Accessed July 3, 2021.
- 241