

AOTA'S EVIDENCE EXCHANGE GUIDELINES TO CRITICALLY APPRAISED PAPER (CAP) WORKSHEET

Sign in the OASIS Submission Site to view the CAP Worksheet.

Critically Appraised Papers (CAPs) are at-a-glance summaries of the methods, findings and study limitations of selected individual articles. Readers, including practitioners, researchers, students, and educators, turn to CAPs for a detailed appraisal of an individual research study. Reviewing a CAP can also help the reader decide if it would be useful to examine the full article.

The following criteria must be considered prior to selecting an article for appraisal and development of a Critically Appraised Paper (CAP) to be submitted to the Evidence Exchange:

- The article is an original quantitative research/study that describes an intervention within the scope of occupational therapy practice.
- The article was published in a peer-reviewed journal within 10 years of date of submission.
- The article is Level I (limited to randomized controlled trials), II, or III evidence. Only intervention studies will be considered. CAPs submitted on systematic reviews, assessment tools and measures, meta-analyses, descriptive studies, single-subject design, case reports, or expert opinions will not be accepted into the Evidence Exchange.
- The CAP cannot duplicate an article currently included in the Evidence Exchange. Additionally, more than one student from the same academic program cannot submit a CAP on the same article. To confirm that a CAP has not been previously published on your article of interest, check the [Accepted CAPs](#) list.

In addition, the following criteria must be met:

- The CAP must be formatted on the most up-to-date CAP Worksheet posted on the OASIS Submission Site. CAPs submitted using an older version of the CAP Worksheet will be rejected by the Evidence Exchange.
- The CAP Worksheet must be submitted as a clean copy Microsoft Word document. Track changes and comments must be removed before submission.
- All sources must be appropriately paraphrased and cited. If plagiarism is identified, the CAP will be rejected by the Evidence Exchange.
- Direct quotes should be kept to a minimum. And if direct quotations are used, proper APA citations must be followed.
- Content should directly follow the CAP Worksheet Guidelines and address the questions posted in the Guidelines
- If information requested is not reported or not applicable to the article, please indicate so in your response and provide a rationale as needed.
- All acronyms must be spelled out when used for the first time.*
- CAP Worksheet must be previewed for errors in syntax and spelling.*
- The DOI number for the original article must be provided in the Citation section. All submission must include an electronic version of the original article.
- Any additional articles referred to (cited) in the CAP need to be included on the Reference list (include DOI number) using APA format (6th edition).

- If you are a student submitting a CAP, a faculty advisor must provide support throughout the CAP development process, including reviewing all CAPs prior to submission. Only high quality CAPs that have been completed with support of a faculty advisor should be submitted to the Evidence Exchange.
- CAPs that are conditionally accepted will be returned to submitters with the expectations that revisions will be addressed and returned based on reviewer feedback. CAPs that have not been revised and resubmitted will not be accepted for inclusion in the Evidence Exchange.

* Refer to Author Style Guidelines for additional information

CITATION AND DOI NUMBER

Using APA format (6th edition), include full title, all authors (last name, initials), full journal title, year, volume #, and page #s. Include the DOI number (Digital Object Identifier) for the original article. Numbers are often listed at the end of a reference in a reference list. An example citation:

Simmons, C. D., Griswold, L. A., & Berg, B. (2010). Evaluation of social interaction in occupational engagement. *American Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 64(1), 10–17.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.5014/ajot.64.1.10>

CLINICAL BOTTOM LINE

This section is critical to the reader and should include a brief description of the intervention and discussion of how the evidence can be used to inform and guide occupational therapy practice (i.e., within the scope of traditional or emerging practice) AND how practitioners can use the evidence relative to the target population and practice setting. Keep these points in mind as you are developing this section:

- Are the recommendations stated in practical terms – i.e., are they ready to implement? Stating that the evidence has an “impact” or “effect” on practice is insufficient. Telling the reader how the evidence can be used is valuable.
- Do the limitations of the study affect the strength of the evidence? (i.e., type of study design, level of evidence, identified study limitations, internal validity rating, to what population results may generalize)? Include implications identified by the author and any additional implications that you judge to be appropriate to clinical practice, program development, education and training, and research.
- Are the findings generalizable? Please keep in mind that you are reviewing only one article and that the implications should reflect only this single study.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVE(S)

List the objective(s) of the study. The objectives are usually stated briefly in the abstract of the article, and again in more detail in the introduction. They may be phrased as a statement “To evaluate or test the effectiveness of...”. Please phrase in your own words. This should be no more than a brief sentence or two.

DESIGN TYPE

List specific type of study design from the article. While many research articles include the study design, some do not, and determining the design and level of evidence may not be clear-cut. Use the description of the study procedure to guide the decision on design and level of evidence. See Appendix for further explanation of study design types.

LEVEL OF EVIDENCE (adapted from Sackett, D.L., Rosenberg, W.M., Muir Gray, J.A., Haynes, R.B. & Richardson, W.S. (1996). Evidence-based medicine: What it is and what it isn't. *British Medical Journal*, 312, 71-72).

- Level I: Systematic reviews, meta-analyses, randomized controlled trials
- Level II: Two groups, nonrandomized studies (e.g., cohort, case-control)
- Level III: One group, nonrandomized (e.g., before-and-after, pretest and posttest)
- Level IV: Descriptive studies that include analysis of outcomes (single subject design, case series)
- Level V: Case reports and expert opinion that include narrative literature reviews and consensus statements

PARTICIPANT SELECTION

How were participants selected to participate? Describe sample selection procedures.

Inclusion criteria: What criteria did the researchers use to select participants (e.g., diagnosis, severity level, age)?

Exclusion criteria: What criteria did the researchers use to limit the study population (e.g., severity level, age)?

PARTICIPANT CHARACTERISTICS *(Complete boxes on worksheet as noted)*

INTERVENTION(S) AND CONTROL GROUPS *(Completed for each study group)*

Brief description of the intervention: Provide a brief description of the intervention including the location of the study. It must answer the “what?” and “how?” of the intervention.

How many participants in the group?

Where did the intervention take place? Was intervention received at home or in an institution? Was it the same for different groups of subjects if there was more than one intervention group?

Who delivered? Who provided the intervention? Was it different for intervention and control groups?

How often? How often did the intervention take place and what was the length of the individual intervention session (e.g., twice weekly for 30 minutes per session)?

For how long? How long did the intervention last (e.g., 3 months)

INTERVENTION BIASES

Contamination: This occurs when participants of the control group inadvertently received the intervention; thus, the difference in outcomes between the two groups may be reduced. This favors the control group.

Co-intervention: Participants receiving another form of intervention at the same time as the study intervention can influence the results in either direction. For example, taking medication while receiving or not receiving intervention could favor the results for participants in either group. The reader must consider if the other, or additional, intervention could have positively or negatively influenced the results.

Timing of intervention: Consider whether the intervention was provided over a short or extended period of time. For example:

- If the intervention was provided over an extended period of time, aging can be considered a timing factor.
- In the case of children, maturation alone could be a factor in improvements seen.
- If the intervention was very short in duration, there may not have been sufficient time for a noticeable effect in the outcomes of interest. This would favor the control group.

Site of intervention: Where an intervention took place can influence the results. For example, an intervention program carried out in a person's home may result in a higher level of satisfaction that favors the intervention group. The site of intervention should be consistent among all groups.

Use of different therapists to provide intervention: If different therapists were involved in providing the intervention(s) under study to the different groups of participants, the results could be influenced in one direction. For example, one therapist could be more motivating or positive than another; hence, the group that she worked with could demonstrate more favorable outcomes. Therapist involvement should be equal and consistent among all intervention groups.

Baseline equality: Intervention and control groups should be equal on important participant characteristics (e.g., age, gender, severity of disability) and outcome measures (dependent variables) at study outset. If not, differences should be dealt with appropriately in data analysis.

MEASURES AND OUTCOMES

Outcomes are the variables or issues of interest to the researcher. They represent the product or results of the intervention or exposure. Many studies include numerous outcome measures. For the purpose of the CAP, **only** include measures relevant to occupational therapy practice. Complete the following for each measure:

Name of test/measure and what is measured: Example: McGill Pain Questionnaire (pain intensity and pain perception)

What outcome is measured: Name of the measure and brief description of the outcome measured

Is the measure reliable (as reported in the article)? Reliability refers to whether a measure was giving the same information over different situations. The two most common forms of reliability are (1) test–retest reliability—the same observer gets the same information on two

occasions separated by a short time interval, and (2) interrater reliability—different observers get the same information at the same time.

Is the measure valid (as reported in the article)? Validity asks whether the measure assesses what it is intended to measure. Consider if the measure includes all of the relevant concepts and elements of the outcome (content validity) and if the authors report that the measure has been tested in relationship to other measures to determine any relationship (criterion validity). For example, a “valid” ADL measure includes all relevant elements of self-care and has been tested with other measures of daily living activities and self-care functioning to determine that the relationship between the measures is as expected.

When is the measure used? It is important to note if outcomes were measured pre- and post-intervention, and whether short-term and/or long-term effects were considered.

MEASUREMENT BIASES

When evaluating measurement biases inherent in the study, you can consider reporting on the outcome measures as a group, taking into account each outcome measure.

Were the evaluators blind to treatment status? Evaluators who are aware of which group a participant was allocated to or which intervention a participant received can influence the results by giving the participant, or group of participants, a more or less favorable evaluation. It is usually the intervention group that is favored. This should be considered when the evaluator was part of the research or intervention team.

Was there recall or memory bias? This can be a problem if outcomes were measured using self-report tools, surveys, or interviews that require the participant to recall past events. Often a person recalls fond or positive memories more than negative ones, which can favor the results of the study.

RESULTS

List key findings based on study objectives. Key findings should include change (or lack of change) in outcomes relevant to occupational therapy practice and comparability of groups (as appropriate). Include statistical significance where appropriate ($p > .05$) and effect size if reported.

Was this study adequately powered (large enough to show a difference?) While a p -value that is greater than .05 indicates that there is no statistically significant difference between groups, in some research studies no difference is noted because the sample size is small. In this situation, one surmises that if the groups had been larger, there would be a statistically significant difference.

Were the analysis methods appropriate? Did the authors justify/explain their choice of analysis methods? Do they appear to be appropriate for the study and the outcomes? You need to consider the following:

- The purpose of the study—Is it comparing two or more interventions or examining the correlation between different variables of interest? Different statistical tests are used for comparison and correlation.
- The outcomes—If there is only one outcome measured that compares two different

interventions, a simple statistical test (e.g., a *t*-test) will probably be sufficient. However, with a larger number of outcomes involving different types of variables, more complex statistical methods, such as analysis of variance (ANOVA) or regression analysis, are usually required.

Were statistics appropriately reported? Refer to narrative in article as well as tables.

Was participant dropout less than 20% in total sample and balanced between groups? If dropout was greater than 20% and there was an unbalance between groups, attrition may be a concern. Consider reasons for attrition if reported by researchers.

What are the overall study limitations? The limitations can be a summary of the limitations discussed in the article and others that the reviewer finds to be important. Study limitations should not only address the strength of evidence but also how the study procedures attempted to control for potential biases. Consider if the study design is appropriate for the level of knowledge on the topic.

CONCLUSIONS

The discussion section of the article should outline clear conclusions from the results. As you are developing this section, consider the following:

- Conclusions should be relevant and appropriate, given the study methods and results. For example, the investigators of a well-designed RCT study using sound outcome measures could state that the results are conclusive that intervention A is more effective than intervention B for the study population.
- Strong conclusions cannot always be made. For example, studies with methodological limitations or biases (e.g., lack of a control group, unreliable measures) make it difficult to “prove” or conclude that it was the intervention alone that influenced the outcome(s). In these situations, the authors may only conclude that the results demonstrated a difference in the specific outcomes measured in this study for the clients involved.
- The results may not be generalizable to other populations. Therefore, further study or research should be recommended.
- Determine if study results address the study objectives (or hypotheses) by means of presenting the study outcomes and corresponding statistical analyses.
- Please note that this section is not a duplicate from the clinical bottom line. Information about how the evidence can be used to inform and guide occupational therapy practice should be included in the clinical bottom line section of the CAP.

Adapted from: Law, M. (2002). *Evidence-based rehabilitation: A guide to practice*. Thorofare, NJ: Slack.

APPENDIX: STUDY DESIGN TYPES AND ISSUES

DESIGN ISSUES

There are many different types of research designs. The most common types in rehabilitation research are included. The essential features of the different types of study designs are outlined to assist in determining which were used in the study you are reviewing. Some of the advantages and disadvantages of the different types of designs are outlined to assist in determining the appropriateness of the design for the study being reported.

DESIGN TYPES

For purposes of the Evidence Exchange, CAPs are to be submitted on articles with Level I (limited to randomized controlled trials only), II, or III evidence. Only intervention studies will be considered. CAPs submitted on systematic reviews, assessment tools and measures, meta-analyses, descriptive studies, single-subject design, case reports, or expert opinions will not be accepted into the Evidence Exchange.

Level I

Systematic Reviews

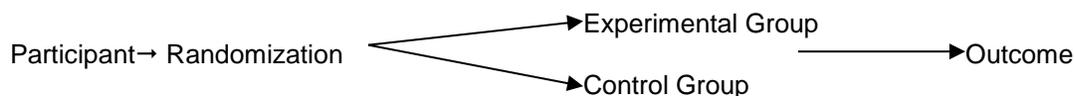
Systematic reviews provide summaries of evidence-based health care. According to Cook et al. (1997), “A systematic review involves the application of scientific strategies, in ways that limit bias, to assembly, critical appraisal, and synthesis of all relevant studies that address a specific clinical question” (Cook, M. D., Mulro, C. D., & Haynes, R. B. (1997). Systematic reviews: Synthesis of best evidence for clinical decision. *Ann Intern Med*, 126(5), 376–380.

Meta-analysis

Meta-analyses are a specific subset of systematic review that statistically combines data from many studies to find a common effect. The meta-analysis’s power comes from the ability to statistically digest many different studies and emerge with a final assessment of their common effect.

Randomized Controlled Trial

- Randomized controlled trial or randomized clinical trial (also referred to as Experimental or Type 1 study); RCTs also encompass other methods, such as crossover designs.
- The essential feature of an RCT is that a set of clients/subjects are identified and then randomly allocated (assigned) to two or more different intervention “groups.” One or more group of clients receives the intervention of interest (often a new intervention) and another group is the “control” group, which usually receives no intervention or standard practice. Random allocation to different intervention groups allows comparison of the client groups in terms of the outcomes of interest because randomization strongly increases the likelihood of similarity of clients in each group. Thus, the chance of another factor (known as a confounding variable or issue) influencing the outcomes is greatly reduced.
- The main disadvantage of RCTs is the expense involved, and in some situations it is not ethical to have “control” groups of clients who do not receive intervention. For example, if you were to study the effectiveness of a multidisciplinary inpatient program for post-surgical patients with chronic low back pain, it may be unethical to withhold intervention in order to have a control group.
- RCTs are often chosen when testing the effectiveness of an intervention, or to compare several different forms of intervention.



- It is a relatively inexpensive way to explore an issue, but there are many potential problems (flaws) that make it very difficult to conclude what factor(s) are responsible for the outcomes.

Participants with outcome of interest → Assessment of previous exposure to intervention or casual factor → Compare between groups

Participants without outcome of interest

>-----Retrospective Measurement-----Time

Example: If an occupational therapist wants to understand why some clients of a day care program attended an optional daily activity program on a regular basis while other clients did not attend, a case control design could be used to explore differences between the two groups of clients in relation to age, gender, interests, background, and current living situation.

**Level III
Nonrandomized**

Before-After Design (also known as Pretest and Posttest)

- Before-after design is usually used to evaluate a group of clients involved in an intervention.
- The evaluator collects information about the initial status of a group of clients in terms of the outcomes of interest and then collects information again about the outcomes after intervention is received.
- This is a useful design when you do not wish to withhold intervention from any clients. However, with no “control” group, it is impossible to judge if the intervention alone was responsible for any changes in the outcomes. Changes could be due to other factors such as disease progression, medication use, lifestyle, or environmental changes.

Participants →→ Assessment →→ Intervention →→ Outcome

Time-----Prospective----->

Example: The level of caregiver strain following placement of an elderly family member with dementia in adult day care was evaluated using a before-after design. Outcomes of caregiver strain and burden of care were measured in 15 subjects before and after the day care placement (Graham, 1989).

Cross-Sectional Design

- This design involves one group of people, and evaluation of the whole group is carried out at the same time.
- This design is often used to explore what factors may have influenced a particular outcome in a group of people. It is useful when relatively little is known about an issue/outcome.
- Surveys, questionnaires, and interviews are common methods used in cross-sectional studies. They are relatively inexpensive and easy, as evaluation takes place at one point in time.

Participants with condition of interest → → → Information about clinical outcome

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