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1	<b>Title:</b> Impact of community-based chronic obstructive pulmonary disease service, a
2	multidisciplinary intervention in an area of high deprivation: A longitudinal matched
3	controlled study

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23	Keywords: COPD, Respiratory, Pulmonary Rehabilitation, Re-admission, A&E attendance,
24	Community Care Multidisciplinary
25	

- 26 Manuscript word count: 4811
- 27 Abstract word count: 197
- 28 Number of references: 45

#### 29 ABSTRACT

Objective: To examine the effects of a consultant-led, community-based chronic obstructive
 pulmonary disease (COPD) service, based in a highly deprived area on emergency hospital
 admissions.

Design: A longitudinal matched controlled study using difference-in-differences analysis to
 compare the change in outcomes in the intervention population to a matched comparison
 population, five years before and after implementation.

**Setting:** A deprived district in the North West of England between 2005 and 2016.

37 Intervention: A community-based, consultant-led COPD service providing diagnostics,

treatment and rehabilitation from 2011–2016.

Main outcome measures: Emergency hospital admissions, length of stay per emergency
admission, and emergency re-admissions for COPD.

41 **Results:** The intervention was associated with 24 fewer emergency COPD admissions per

42 100,000 population per year (95%CI -10.6 to 58.8, p=0.17) in the post-intervention period,

43 relative to the control group. There were significantly fewer emergency admissions in

44 populations with medium levels of deprivation (64 per 100,000 per year; 95% CI 1.8 to 126.9)

45 and amongst men (60 per 100,000 per year; 95% CI 12.3 to 107.3).

46 **Conclusion:** We found limited evidence that the service reduced emergency hospital

47 admissions, after an initial decline the effect was not sustained. The service, however, may

48 have been more effective in some subgroups.

49 Keywords: Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease, Respiratory Disease, Hospital

50 Admissions, Pulmonary Rehabilitation

# 52 Strengths and limitations of this study

53	•	Within this study, we calculated the Knowsley chronic obstructive pulmonary disease
54		(KCOPD) service in its real-life implementation setting, which makes our findings
55		potentially more externally valid than those set in a trial context.
56	•	The KCOPD service has been in operation for several years giving a long follow-up
57		period of five years; thus allowing us to look at whether effects were sustained.
58	•	For this study, we applied a combination of quasi-experimental methods – propensity
59		score matching and difference-in-differences, which provide causal estimates of the
60		intervention if the trends in outcomes would have been parallel in the absence of the
61		intervention.
62	•	We were only able to assess the impact of the intervention of emergency hospital
63		admissions and this may not reflect health benefits to the users of these services.
64	•	The ecological nature of this study limits the conclusions that can be drawn about
65		individual-level factors, and the results reflect the population-level impact of the
66		KCOPD service.

### 68 BACKGROUND

Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) is one of the leading causes of death, hospital 69 70 re-admission and cost to society in the UK, responsible for 5% of all deaths, and a third of all deaths when including lung disease.<sup>1,2,3</sup> An estimated 1.2 million people are living with 71 diagnosed COPD which is considerably more than the 835,000 estimated by the Department 72 of Health in 2011.<sup>1,4</sup> The burden of COPD disproportionally effects disadvantaged 73 socioeconomic groups with rates in the most deprived areas of the population twice as high as 74 in the least deprived.<sup>5,6,7</sup> The prevalence of COPD has increased by 27% over the last decade<sup>4</sup> 75 and the burden on health services is increasing as the population ages. The costs of COPD to 76 the National Health Service [NHS] in England is over £800 million, with an additional £3.8 77 billion in lost productivity, and is estimated to increase annually. These costs to the NHS are 78 unsustainable. Improving the identification and treatment of COPD, whilst reducing 79 emergency admissions and length of inpatient stay, has been highlighted as a priority for the 80 NHS in its Five-Year Forward View.<sup>8</sup> The NHS Long Term Plan<sup>9</sup> also aims to tackle health 81 inequalities between the most and least deprived, and highlights that cause of death from 82 respiratory diseases is the second largest contributor to the life expectancy gap between these 83 groups. There is, therefore an urgent need for evidence of effective interventions that improve 84 the management of COPD and reduce unplanned emergency admissions, particularly in 85 disadvantaged populations. 86

87

COPD may be preventable by avoidance or early cessation of smoking, particularly within deprived communities where there is a higher prevalence of smoking.<sup>10</sup> However, access to smoking cessation services has reduced in recent years; only a quarter of COPD patients admitted to hospital were asked about their smoking status and subsequently offered the service.<sup>3</sup> Existing evidence shows that rapid access pulmonary rehabilitation clinics provide

efficient and effective substitution to COPD clinic assessment.<sup>11,12</sup> Yet, there are examples to 93 indicate that secondary care-based rapid access clinics may be underutilised by older 94 populations and those in poorer socioeconomic circumstances.<sup>13</sup> This could potentially be due 95 to problems with access, however there is limited published evidence investigating the 96 provision of rapid access clinics in community settings. Community-based pulmonary 97 rehabilitation services have been found to improve access and reduce emergency 98 admissions<sup>14, 15, 16</sup> and be cost-effective.<sup>15</sup> Community-based pulmonary rehabilitation shows 99 that it is as effective and safe as hospital-based rehabilitation and has been associated with 100 reduced length of hospital stay, reduced mortality rates and improved health-related quality of 101 life with COPD patients who recently suffered an exacerbation of COPD.<sup>11</sup> Whilst there is 102 some case study evidence for community-based consultant led services<sup>17</sup>, there is limited 103 evidence for consultant-led COPD community-based clinics. Although there is evidence for 104 multi-component approaches to reduce hospital admissions for single conditions<sup>18</sup>, there is a 105 lack of evidence for consultant-led community-based integrated COPD services in deprived 106 107 communities.

108

To address these gaps in the evidence-base we investigated the impact on emergency hospital 109 admissions of a consultant-led, community based 'one-stop' COPD service implemented in a 110 very deprived community in the North West of England; particularly as there has been a 111 significant proportion of undiagnosed COPD reported in this area.<sup>19</sup> The service brought 112 together diagnostic, treatment, management and rehabilitation services for COPD, offering a 113 114 rapid response service within 13 hours that would usually be provided in secondary care. We examined the impact of this service on emergency admissions, length of inpatient stay and 115 readmissions. 116

#### 118 **METHODS**

### 119 Setting

The intervention was implemented between 2011 and 2016 across the district of Knowsley in
the North West of England, which has a population of 148,560<sup>20</sup> and is the second most
deprived district in England based on the Indices of Multiple Deprivation.<sup>21</sup> There is a history
of industrial exposure, for example, mining, manufacturing, shipping and dock work;
however, comparisons between areas in Knowsley have shown no increase for the rate of
hospital admissions where there was evidence of this exposure.<sup>22</sup>

126

## 127 Study Design.

This study was a longitudinal matched controlled study using lower super output areas 128 (LSOA) as the unit of analysis. LSOAs are small geographical areas used by the UK's Office 129 for National Statistics, each typically containing a population of about 1,500 people. England 130 is divided into just over 30,000 LSOAs. Ninety-Eight LSOAs cover the entire population of 131 the intervention area - Knowsley. Each of these intervention LSOAs were matched with four 132 control LSOAs located within other districts in the North West region of England, providing 133 392 matched control LSOAs, i.e. 490 LSOAs in total. We used propensity score matching<sup>23</sup> 134 to ensure that these control areas had similar observed characteristics to the Knowsley LSOAs 135 in the time period before the introduction of the intervention (2005–10). The matching was 136 based on the gender and age profile of the population, unemployment rate, Indices of Multiple 137 Deprivation, COPD emergency admission rate, prevalence of COPD, smoking prevalence, 138 proportion of COPD patients who have had their inhaler technique checked, numbers of GPs 139 per capita serving the population and the distance to the nearest GP practice and hospital (see 140 Table 1/Supplementary file, Appendix 1 for full details of the matching variables). The 141

nearest neighbour method was used for matching, which selects controls with propensity
scores that are closest to that of the intervention LSOAs.<sup>24</sup> We checked with the regional
COPD network that no other similar intervention was implemented in the North West and,
therefore, our control populations would not have experienced a similar intervention.

146

We then compared the change (difference) in outcomes in the intervention population to the 147 change (difference) in outcomes in a matched comparison population, six years before and 148 five years after implementation. This difference-in-differences method controls for all time-149 150 invariant differences between the intervention and control populations. The key assumption of difference-in-differences analysis is the parallel trends assumption. If the trend in the outcome 151 in the intervention and control populations would have been parallel in the absence of the 152 153 intervention then, the difference between the change in the outcomes between the two groups provides an unbiased estimate of the interventions  $effect^{25}$  (see supplementary file, Appendix 154 2, for an outline of difference-in-differences methods. We investigate this assumption by 155 testing for parallel trends between the two groups prior to the intervention (see below). 156

157

#### 158 Data sources and measures

We used anonymised Hospital Episode Statistics (HES) and Office for National Statistics
(ONS) population estimates to derive our primary outcome COPD (ICD-10 codes: J40–J44)
emergency hospital admissions per 100,000 population for each of the 490 LSOAs between
2005 and 2016, giving a total sample size of 5,880 LSOA-years.<sup>26,27</sup> We chose to investigate
COPD specific admissions, since all-cause admissions would likely be affected by other
interventions occurring concurrently in Knowsley (e.g. a CVD service intervention)<sup>28</sup>.
Emergency admissions were defined as admissions that are unpredictable and occur at short

notice because of clinical need, as per the HES data dictionary.<sup>29</sup> Secondary outcomes were
length of stay per emergency admission and emergency readmission rates also derived from
HES data. Readmissions were defined as emergency admissions occurring within 30 days of
the last, previous discharge from hospital.<sup>30</sup> To adjust for time varying factors that could be
associated with trends in COPD emergency admission rates we controlled for the annual
percent of the population aged 50+ years, the percent female, and the percent unemployed
using data obtained from the ONS.

173 (Insert Table 1 here)

## 174 The service

175 Prior to the implementation of the Knowsley COPD service (KCOPD), the Knowsley population was served by a COPD service run from two local District general hospitals (DGH) 176 and a community service. One DGH provided consultant-led clinics from the hospital and one 177 178 community clinic a week; it also provided a nurse-led ESD service and oxygen service. A separate community service provided community reviews for patients experiencing an 179 exacerbation of COPD, it was not, however, an admission avoidance service. These services 180 were provided on a Monday – Friday basis only. The pulmonary rehabilitation service was 181 provided by a second DGH and there was no additional support for chest clearance, 182 breathlessness management. These services were provided by different organisations and 183 were transferred to a single provider just before KCOPD was developed in 2011. 184 185 186 The KCOPD provided a new integrated 'one-stop' consultant-led service with diagnostics in the community, covering initially five different community venues, extending to seven over 187 the course of the service and now covering six days a week and one evening session, 188

189 supported by an administration hub.<sup>31</sup> The service was designed collaboratively with public

and patient engagement, the local CCG and local NHS healthcare providers.<sup>12</sup> The overall
service consists of the following elements by a single provider that bridged primary and
secondary care:

193

A consultant-led multi-disciplinary clinic. Provided from initially five Primary Care
 resource centres – then extending to seven due to service demands. The clinics run
 from 10:00 – 18:00. The clinic offers diagnosis spirometry and diagnosis and
 optimisation of COPD. The clinic now provides one Saturday morning clinic a month
 and a weekly evening clinic which runs up until 20:00.

Rapid response service – Nurse-led service where patients experiencing an
 exacerbation of COPD can self-refer for assessment, via a free phone number, for
 initiation of acute treatment and monitoring. The service provides a two hour
 response for those at risk of hospital admission, with the aim to avoid unwarranted
 admissions. This service is provided 08:00 – 22:00 with an overnight on-call service
 seven days a week.

Early supported discharge-patients who have been to A&E or been admitted into
 hospital with an exacerbation of COPD can be referred into the service for additional
 support to facilitate an earlier discharge from hospital. This service is provided 08:00
 - 22:00 seven days a week.

Home Oxygen and Review Service (HOSAR) – The HOSAR provides assessment and review of patients' home oxygen requirements, they review patients in the same community venues as the consultant-led clinics as well as providing home visits. This service is provided Monday – Friday 10:00 – 18:00.

Pulmonary Rehabilitation (PR) and Physiotherapy – The PR team cover the main
 areas of Knowsley, for patients who have functional limitation due to the dyspnoea or

215	who have had a recent hospital admission due to COPD. PR is provided five days a
216	week $10:00 - 18:00$ . The team also provides assessment and treatment for patients
217	who have difficulty in clearing their sputum or who are struggling with managing their
218	dyspnoea, this service is provided seven days a week $10:00 - 18:00$ .
219	• Palliative Care – The KCOPD service provides assessment and review for patients
220	who maybe entering the palliative phase of their condition to ensure effective
221	symptom management.
222	• Counselling service – The KCOPD service has a dedicated respiratory counsellor who
223	offers treatment and support for patients struggling with anxiety and depression or
224	struggling with the impact of their condition on their life. This element of the service
225	runs Monday – Friday 10:00 – 18:00.
226	
227	The service is available to residents in Knowsley through GP referral. <sup>12</sup> Patients are seen
228	within 10 days of referral. Once known to the service, if they have been provided with a
229	confirmed diagnosis of COPD, they can access any element of the services at any time
230	without being re-referred by their GP. Knowsley GP referral trends to the KCOPD data show
231	a dramatically decreasing trend (Supplementary file, Appendix 3). From 2010/11 to 2016/17
232	(financial year) the clinic has provided care to almost 5,500 patients. <sup>12</sup> Clinic attendance has
233	been variable, particularly at the outset of the service (with non-attendance as high as 20%)
234	stabilising to around 10-12% from 2015 onwards. <sup>12</sup> Initially the service was contracted for
235	three years, at a total value of £4,991,667.
236	
237	Statistical Analysis

Our sample size was predetermined based on the number of LSOAs in the intervention areaand the number of matched LSOAs. Prior to our analysis, we estimated the effect size that

the study would be able to detect with an 80% power by running multiple simulations of the
planned analysis.<sup>32,33</sup> This indicated that the effect size for this study at 80% power to
detect, was around a 10-11% decline in emergency admission rates per year associated
with the intervention (see Supplementary file, Appendix 4).

Characteristics of the intervention and control populations prior to the intervention were initially compared to assess the balance achieved between the groups. Additionally, the parallel trends assumption was tested using graphical methods and regression models to compare trends in the outcomes of interest between the intervention and control populations in the pre-intervention period.

249

To estimate the difference-in-differences, i.e. the difference between the change in outcomes 250 before and after the intervention in the intervention population compared to the change in 251 252 outcomes over the same time periods in the control population, we include a treatment by period interaction term in a linear regression model. To control for potential demographic and 253 socioeconomic changes which may confound the result we included annual LSOA data on 254 unemployment rates, the percentage of the population that were female and the percentage 255 aged 50+ years in the model. We included a trend term for time to account for the long term 256 trend in admission rates across the intervention and comparison groups and an additional 257 spline term to account for any change in overall trends across both groups after the 258 intervention. In sensitivity analysis we estimated a model removing the spline term -i.e. just 259 260 including an annual trend term. We also included a random intercept for each LSOA to account for the longitudinal nature of the data (see Supplementary file, Appendix 5 for full 261 262 details of the statistical model).

263

#### 264 **Robustness tests**

We investigated the presence of unobserved confounding by repeating the analysis using an outcome that would not be expected to be influenced by the COPD intervention, i.e. emergency admissions for gastrointestinal (GI) infections. We also investigated whether the effect of the intervention was different in more deprived LSOAs compared to less deprived LSOAs within Knowsley, and whether the effect differed between men and women. Analyses were conducted using R (version 3.4.3).

271

#### 272 Patient involvement

The research question was developed through a collaboration involving local health service providers, public advisors and researchers. Public advisors are members of the public and/or service users who have knowledge of KCOPD and the locality in which it is delivered. The public advisors were involved in a series of meetings agreeing the focus for the research and the planned analysis. Three of the public advisors (TC, KW and AP) are co-authors of this paper and have contributed to the drafting of the paper and the interpretation of the results.

#### 280 **RESULTS**

Characteristics of the Knowsley and matched control LSOAs in the pre-intervention period (2005-10) are shown in Table 2. Although the control areas at baseline were statistically significantly different from the intervention areas on a number of characteristics, these differences are relatively small and the difference-in-differences method accounts for these fixed differences in the analysis. The control areas were all also areas with high levels of deprivation and COPD emergency admissions. This is particularly the case when compared to

the unmatched sample of North West LSOAs (see Supplementary file, Appendix 6 forcharacteristics of unmatched sample).

289 (Table 2 here)

290 Trends in COPD emergency hospital admission rates per year for the Knowsley and control 291 population are shown in Figure 1. In the pre-intervention period, emergency admission rates were slightly higher for Knowsley compared to the control population, and parallel trends in 292 the rates were apparent between the two groups. Following the introduction of the 293 294 intervention in 2011, admission rates for Knowsley decreased to levels observed in the control 295 population. After the second year of the intervention, however, the admission rates appeared to have increased again in Knowsley compared to the control population (also see Table 296 3/Supplementary file, Appendix 7 for annual emergency admission rates in the two groups). 297

298 (Figure 1 and Table 3 here)

Results from the difference-in-differences analysis for emergency admission rates are shown 299 300 in Table 4. The coefficient for the difference-in-differences estimator indicates that on average the intervention was associated with a non-statistically significant reduction of 24 301 emergency COPD admissions per 100,000 per year (95% CI -10.6 to 58.8, p=0.14) in 302 Knowsley compared to the control population following the introduction of the intervention. 303 (see Supplementary file, Appendix 8 for full model output). This was equivalent to a 5% 304 305 decline in emergency admissions. We found that the intervention had no statistically significant effect on reducing length of stay per emergency COPD admissions, or emergency 306 re-admission rates (Supplementary file, Appendix 9). 307

308 Analysing the differential effects of the intervention by deprivation and by gender we found

some evidence that these effects differed across these sub groups (Supplementary file,

310 Appendix 10). The intervention had no statistically significant effect on emergency

admissions in populations with low (Table 5) and high (Table 6) levels of income deprivation.
Although there was some evidence to suggest that the intervention was associated with 64
fewer emergency admissions per 100,000 per year (95% CI 1.8 to 126.9 [p=0.044]) for
populations with medium levels of income deprivation (Table 7). Furthermore, for men the
intervention was associated with a reduction of 60 admissions per 100,000 per year (95% CI
12.3 to 107.3 [p=0.014]; Table 8), but there were no statistically significant effect for women
(Table 9).

318 (Table 4 here)

- 319 (Tables 5, 6, 7 here)
- 320 (Tables 8, 9 here)

#### 321 <u>Robustness tests</u>

322 We found that during the pre-intervention period there was no significant difference in trends in emergency admission rates between Knowsley and the control population (Supplementary 323 file, Appendix 11), suggesting that the parallel trend assumption was not violated in this 324 325 analysis. We found that there was no effect when running the analysis using an outcome (emergency admissions for GI infections) that would not plausibly be influenced by the 326 intervention but could have been influenced by unobserved confounding (Supplementary file, 327 Appendix 11). Estimating a model removing a spline term allowing for a change in trend 328 across both groups after the intervention did not change the results (Supplementary file, 329 Appendix 11). 330

- 332 **DISCUSSION**
- 333 **Principle findings**

We found that an integrated, consultant-led, multi-component, community-based service was associated with a small decline in emergency admissions for COPD, however, this is not statistically significant at the 5% level. Subgroup analysis indicated that the intervention may have been effective at reducing emergency admissions for men, and for people living within neighbourhoods that were of intermediate levels of deprivation for Knowsley.

339

#### 340 Strengths and limitations

Our study has a number of strengths. Firstly, we calculated the KCOPD in its real-life 341 implementation setting, which makes our findings potentially more externally valid than those 342 343 set in a trial context. Secondly, the service has been in operation for several years giving a long follow-up period of five years. This allowed us to look at whether effects were sustained. 344 Thirdly, we applied a combination of quasi-experimental methods – propensity score 345 346 matching and difference-in-differences, which provide causal estimates of the intervention if the trends in outcomes would have been parallel in the absence of the intervention. Our 347 approach provides a reasonably large effective sample size of 5880 observations providing 348 reasonable power to identify relatively small effects. 349

350

However, some limitations remain. We cannot rule out the possibility that different trends in 351 unobserved confounding factors between the two groups may have influenced the results. 352 353 Although there are clear differences between the intervention and control groups, time 354 invariant differences between the two groups could not bias the results due to the differencein-differences methods.<sup>34</sup> The reasons for matching was to identify groups that were likely to 355 356 follow a similar trend over time, which was confirmed by assessing the parallel nature of the trends in outcomes before the intervention. We additionally controlled for a number of 357 observed confounders. Unobserved confounders therefore could only bias the results if they 358

followed different time trends over time between the intervention and control groups. When 359 360 repeating the analysis using an outcome that would not plausibly be influenced by the intervention (emergency admissions for GI infections) but could have been influenced by 361 unobserved confounding, such as changes health service admission thresholds or health 362 provider financial incentives, we found no significant effect of the intervention. We did not 363 have access to data on other outcomes such as use of domiciliary oxygen, oral corticosteroids 364 365 or out of hours calls, and were only able to assess the impact of the intervention on emergency COPD hospital admissions, length of stay and emergency COPD readmission rates. Whilst 366 these outcomes may not fully reflect health benefits to the users of these services, they were 367 368 the planned outcomes of the intervention agreed by the commissioner in their contract with 369 the service provider. Finally, the ecological nature of this study limits the conclusions that can be drawn about individual-level factors, and the results reflect the population-level impact of 370 371 the KCOPD.

372

### 373 Meaning of the study: possible implications for adoption

We found little evidence for an overall effect of the intervention with an initial decline 374 375 in admissions not sustained throughout the follow up period. There are a number of potential 376 reasons why we fail to find clear evidence of effectiveness. Firstly, our study was underpowered to detect a small effect. Our prior power calculations indicated that the study 377 had sufficient power to detect a 10% decline in emergency admissions, if the effect was 378 379 smaller than this the study may have failed to detect that effect. Secondly, it may have been 380 the case that the effectiveness of the programme declined over time as is suggested in Figure 1. This may be because as the service reached full capacity it was less able to fully 381 accommodate patient needs. This was supported by reports from the service that they had to 382 undergo a staff reorganisation in 2012 in order to meet demand more effectively.<sup>12</sup> This is 383

also supported by the trend in the rate of referrals from GP services – which were high in the
first year but then decreased rapidly from 2013 (see Appendix 3, Supplementary file). This
could indicate that the service may have been effective in the initial two years as it saw people
with existing COPD with unmet needs, in the following years, as only new suspected COPD
patients were referred, the numbers reduced year on year.<sup>12</sup>

389

Some COPD interventions have been found to be less effective in deprived populations.<sup>1,30</sup> 390 However, the KCOPD we investigated varied in effectiveness across levels of deprivation as 391 there was a greater effect on those patients from areas with medium levels of deprivation 392 compared to high and low levels of deprivation within Knowsley. The borough of Knowsley 393 394 is a very deprived area, therefore intermediate deprivation in Knowsley is still quite deprived when comparing nationally. The most deprived areas in Knowsley are within the most 395 deprived 10% of areas nationally and are likely to include populations with multiple 396 conditions as risk factors.<sup>35</sup> As stated in previous research,<sup>3,9,13</sup> and due to the high levels of 397 deprivation in Knowsley, COPD patients may have had greater difficulty in accessing the 398 service, found it harder to attend appointments or may have presented late with more 399 advanced disease. All of these factors could limit effectiveness. It is unclear why the service 400 would have been less effective in the more affluent areas of Knowsley which have similar 401 levels of deprivation to the national average. It may have been that lower burden of disease in 402 403 these areas meant that there was less marginal benefit from the service. This indicates the importance of understanding the needs of the local population when developing similar 404 405 services and the need to involve people from different population groups in their design. The recent local evaluation of the service, for example, highlighted that access and use could have 406 been improved if services were located close to existing community services and public 407 transport routes.<sup>12</sup> Additionally, as there is a higher prevalence of COPD in more deprived 408

areas, more COPD clinics are available which results in more visits with patients. Therefore
the same level of provision is provided in deprived areas but the availability of care is
higher.<sup>12</sup> However, nationally accessibility to services can be a postcode lottery as all services
are commissioned differently.

413

It is possible that a reduction in admissions could be a cohort effect related to prior industrial exposure, however this would likely lead to a more gradual decline, not the steep change we see at the intervention point. Comparisons between areas in Knowsley have shown no historic increase for the rate of hospital admissions where there was evidence of this exposure,<sup>22</sup> suggesting that this is not leading to a decline as the exposed may have already died. Additionally, matched controls were from other deprived areas in the North West where industrial affects would be similar.

421

The intervention also appeared to be less effective amongst women. Some potential 422 423 explanations of this may have been because women are: being diagnosed less than men as some clinicians see COPD as a 'man's disease';<sup>35</sup> being frequently under-treated for COPD;<sup>36</sup> 424 finding it harder to quit smoking;<sup>37</sup> and obtaining more damage to their lungs than men.<sup>38</sup> 425 426 Additionally, women are less likely to access services due to having multiple caring responsibilities and less time for treating their own health.<sup>39,40</sup> Although more men smoke 427 (80:20%), the similar mortality rate among men and women with COPD can be explained by 428 a rapid deterioration of women once they begin smoking and more severe COPD disease.<sup>41</sup> 429 Women are more susceptible to developing COPD younger due to being more vulnerable to 430 the social context of smoking. This is reflected in the rates of women smokers that has 431 increased in recent years,<sup>1</sup> and are notably higher within the Knowsley region.<sup>5,19</sup> 432 Additionally, a poorer quality of life has been reported more frequently in women than in men 433

with COPD due to biological and genetic factors<sup>42</sup> along with more hospitalisation.<sup>43</sup> 434 However, the extent to which susceptibility and vulnerability contribute and interact to 435 explain gender differences for COPD development and its severity is largely underreported. 436 437 Future initiatives should therefore consider gender-specific issues, such as differential incidences of comorbid conditions, a higher risk of exacerbations and higher symptom 438 burden. Smoking cessation management and COPD treatment should be specifically tailored 439 440 to individual women and reviewed regularly to optimise patient outcomes. Furthermore, education should be an integral part of COPD for women, as it may help to empower them to 441 take control of their disease. 442

443

The evidence for recent integration initiatives in the UK has tended to rely on evaluations that 444 have not used quasi-experimental or experimental designs; thus providing limited evidence of 445 impact.<sup>44,45</sup> Our findings indicate that the KCOPD model of out of hospital treatment for 446 COPD may have had limited or no impact on overall emergency admission rates, although it 447 may have been more effective for some population groups. This appears to have been because 448 effects were not sustained over the long term. This highlights the importance of designing out 449 450 of hospital services so they address the different needs of particular population segments and 451 are sufficiently resourced to sustain access over the long term.

452

453 Acknowledgements: The authors thank Liverpool Heart and Chest NHS Foundation Trust,
454 Knowsley Clinical Commissioning Group, Knowsley Council, and the public advisors who
455 contributed to the study.

456

457 Contributors: PS and BB conceived the study design. All the team developed the study and
458 contributed to finalising the research question (PS, TR, JD, BM, SP, AP, LMH, TR, KW, KD,

459	BB). Analysis (TR, BB) Indicators (KD) local data (MS). BM and SP supported this work
460	providing information of the nature of the intervention, contextual information and fact-
461	checking the final draft. PS, TR and BB drafted the manuscript and all other authors (JD, BM,
462	SP, AP, LMH, TR, KW, KD) critically assessed and contributed to the paper and agreed the
463	final manuscript. We would like to thank the public advisors (AP, TC and KW) who
464	contributed throughout the paper and we look forward to continuing our work with them in
465	the future. BB is guarantor for the study. The corresponding author attests that all listed
466	authors meet authorship criteria and that no others meeting the criteria have been omitted.
467	

Funding: The study was part-funded by the National Institute for Health Research
Collaboration for Leadership in Applied Health Research and Care North West Coast (NIHR
CLAHRC NWC) (Grant/Award Number: CLAHRC-NWC-167) and Liverpool Heart and
Chest Hospital NHS Trust.

472

473 Competing Interests: This study was supported by the National Institute for Health Research Collaboration for Leadership in Applied Health Research and Care North West Coast (NIHR 474 475 CLAHRC NWC). The views expressed are those of the author(s) and not necessarily those of 476 the NHS, the NIHR or the Department of Health and Social Care. All authors have completed the ICMJE uniform disclosure form at www.icmje.org/coi disclosure.pdf (available on 477 request from the corresponding author) and declare: BM and SP are employed by Liverpool 478 479 Heart and Chest NHS Foundation Trust the provider of KCOPD and were involved in providing information about the nature of the intervention and providing contextual 480 information upon request when interpreting the results. AP is an elected governor and KW is 481 employed as patient ambassador at Liverpool Heart and Chest NHS Foundation Trust, both 482 were involved as a public advisors. They had no role in the analysis or presentation of the 483

484	results. The views expressed in this manuscript are those of the author and do not represent
485	Liverpool Heart and Chest NHS Foundation Trust. There are no other relationships or
486	activities that could appear to have influenced the submitted work.
487	
488	Ethical approval: No ethical approval was required for this study, as it only involved the use
489	of anonymous aggregate secondary health service data and other openly available data.
490	
491	Data sharing: No additional data available. The manuscript's guarantor (BB) affirms that the
492	manuscript is an honest, accurate and transparent account of the study being reported; that no
493	important aspects of the study have been omitted; and that any discrepancies from the study
494	as planned have been explained.
495	
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Figure 1. Trends in COPD emergency hospital admission rates per year, by Knowsley and
matched control LSOAs, 2005–16

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# 645 **Table 1. Description of matching variables**

646 The following variables were included in a propensity score model to match Knowsley to

647 control areas in the time period before the introduction of the intervention (2005–10).

Matching variable	Details
Age and gender profile of	Annual data on the size of the female population and the
the population	population aged 50+ years per lower super output area
	(LSOA) were derived from mid-year population estimates
	provided by the Office for National Statistics (ONS).
Unemployment rate	Annual unemployment rates were calculated using
	claimant data provided by the ONS. Unemployment was
	measured as the proportion of people aged 16–64 years
	claiming Jobseeker's Allowance or Universal Credit
	principally for the reason of being unemployed.
Chronic obstructive	Emergency admissions for COPD were defined using
pulmonary disease	ICD-10 codes: J40–J44. Annual COPD emergency
(COPD) emergency	admission rates per 100,000 population were calculated
admission rate	using Hospital Episode Statistics (HES), with population
	data obtained from the ONS. Continuous inpatient (CIP)
	•

	spells were used to calculate emergency admissions per
	calendar year.
Indices of Multiple	Index of Multiple Deprivation 2015 data were provided
Deprivation	by the Department for Communities and Local
	Government.
Quality and Outcomes	QOF indicator data for the prevalence of COPD and
Framework (QOF)	smoking, and the percentage of patients with COPD
indicators	receiving inhaled treatment whose inhaler technique had
	been checked within the previous 15 months were
	included in the propensity score model. Weighted
	averages of QOF indicators per LSOA were calculated
	using data provided by NHS Digital on the number of
	patients registered per general practice per LSOA.
Numbers of general	Weighted averages of the number of full-time employed
practitioners (GPs) per	GPs per 1000 population were calculated using data
capita serving the	provided by NHS Digital on the number of GPs and
population	patients registered per general practice per LSOA.
Distance to the nearest	The Consumer Data Research Centre provided data per
general practice and	LSOA on the average road network distance to the
hospital	nearest hospital with an Accident and Emergency (A&E)
	department, and the nearest general practice. Road
	network distances in kilometres were calculated by
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postcode within an LSOA to the nearest health service.

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## 649 Table 2. Characteristics of Knowsley and matched control LSOAs in pre-intervention

## 650 **period** (2005–10)

	Knowsley LSOAs (number = 98)	Control LSOAs (number = 392)	
	mean (SD)	mean (SD)	p-value <sup>a</sup>
IMD score	41.99 (20.65)	37.96 (21.35)	< 0.001
Distance to hospital with A&E (km)	5.47 (2.5)	5.36 (2.84)	0.401
Working age population unemployed (%)	4.99 (2.76)	4.54 (2.97)	0.001
GPs per 1000 population	0.64 (0.12)	0.63 (0.13)	0.002
Population (number)	1508.79 (244.92)	1496.45 (246.56)	0.702
Female population (number)	792.08 (129.75)	779.55 (129.69)	0.032
Population aged 50+ years (number)	496.81 (109.49)	499.59 (119.93)	0.610
QOF: COPD prevalence (%)	3.07 (0.33)	2.84 (0.63)	< 0.001
QOF: smoking prevalence (%)	25.83 (4.77)	24.82 (5.45)	< 0.001
QOF: those with COPD receiving inhaled treatment whose inhaler technique has been checked (%)	88.13 (9.21)	89.06 (5.06)	<0.001
Emergency admissions for COPD per 100,000 population per year	519.99 (402.33)	468.46 (389.75)	0.004

<sup>a</sup> statistical significance of the difference between the groups tested using t-tests for normally distributed variables, or the Man-Whitney U test as a nonparametric equivalent A&E = Accident and Emergency department; COPD = Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease; GP = general practitioner; IMD = Index of Multiple Deprivation; km = kilometres; LSOA = Lower-layer Super Output Area; QOF = Quality and Outcomes Framework; SD = standard deviation

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# Table 3. Emergency admission rates for COPD per 100,000 population per year

	Knowsley LSOAs (number = 98)			Control LSOAs (number = 392)			
Year	Mean	Lower 95% CI	Upper 95% CI	Mean	Lower 95% CI	Upper 95% CI	
2005	542.6	467.2	618.1	491.5	450.4	532.5	
2006	563.2	467.4	659.1	491.1	449.8	532.5	
2007	545.9	464.7	627.2	502.6	461.5	543.7	
2008	473.5	402.2	544.9	464.4	426.9	501.9	
2009	463.7	389.6	537.9	408.3	374.4	442.2	
2010	469.3	394.4	544.2	426.2	390.8	461.6	
2011	397.5	338.9	456.1	392.2	358.7	425.7	
2012	405.0	343.4	466.6	396.2	364.4	428.0	
2013	394.3	333.3	455.2	402.3	369.3	435.4	
2014	484.9	417.3	552.6	428.5	392.8	464.2	
2015	455.1	385.6	524.6	429.0	392.6	465.4	
2016	500.3	421.3	579.3	442.2	407.0	477.4	

CI = confidence interval; COPD = Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease; LSOA = Lower-layer Super Output Area

Table 4. Result of difference-in-differences analysis showing the change in COPD emergency
 admissions per 100,000 population in Knowsley following the intervention relative to the control
 group, 2005–16

	Coefficient	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	p-
		CI	CI	value
Treatment (Knowsley = 1; $control = 0$ )	37.99	-14.39	90.37	0.155
Period (post-intervention = 1; pre-				
intervention $= 0$ )	-20.03	-49.18	9.12	0.178
DiD estimator (treatment*period)	-24.10	-58.79	10.59	0.173

Model based on equation shown in Supplementary file and includes random intercept for LSOA, and fixed effects for percent of population aged 50+ years, percent female, percent unemployed and two spline terms for time (full model results are given in Supplementary file). Model based on 98 Knowsley and 392 control LSOAs, and 5880 observations CI = confidence interval; COPD = Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease; DiD = Difference-in-Differences; LSOA = Lower-layer Super Output Area

# 669 Table 5. Result of difference-in-differences analysis showing the change in COPD emergency

# admissions per 100,000 population in Knowsley following the intervention relative to the control

**group**, for areas with low income deprivation, 2005–16

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	Coefficient	Lower 95% CI	Upper 95% CI	p- value
Treatment (Knowsley = 1; $control = 0$ )	-15.78	-65.11	33.54	0.528
Period (post-intervention = 1; pre-				
intervention $= 0$ )	-25.70	-57.65	6.25	0.115
DiD estimator (treatment*period)	29.99	-9.88	69.86	0.140

Model includes random intercept for LSOA, and fixed effects for percent of population aged 50+ years, percent female, percent unemployed and two spline terms for time (full model results are given in Supplementary file).

Model based on 29 Knowsley and 135 control LSOAs, and 1968 observations

CI = confidence interval; COPD = Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease; DiD = Differencein-Differences; LSOA = Lower-layer Super Output Area

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# 680 Table 6. Result of difference-in-differences analysis showing the change in COPD emergency

admissions per 100,000 population in Knowsley following the intervention relative to the control

**group**, for areas with high income deprivation, 2005–16

	Coefficient	Lower 95% CI	Upper 95% CI	p- value
Treatment (Knowsley = 1; $control = 0$ )	43.22	-36.52	122.95	0.286
Period (post-intervention = 1; pre-				
intervention = 0)	-50.36	-112.14	11.41	0.110
DiD estimator (treatment*period)	-49.57	-119.48	20.33	0.164

Model includes random intercept for LSOA, and fixed effects for percent of population aged 50+ years, percent female, percent unemployed and two spline terms for time (full model results are given in Supplementary file).

Model based on 37 Knowsley and 125 control LSOAs, and 1944 observations

CI = confidence interval; COPD = Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease; DiD = Differencein-Differences; LSOA = Lower-layer Super Output Area

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# 685 Table 7. Result of difference-in-differences analysis showing the change in COPD emergency

- admissions per 100,000 population in Knowsley following the intervention relative to the control
- **group**, for areas with medium income deprivation, 2005–16

	Coefficient	Lower 95% CI	Upper 95% CI	p- value
Treatment (Knowsley = 1; $control = 0$ )	18.88	-60.48	98.25	0.639
Period (post-intervention = 1; pre-				
intervention = 0)	19.78	-32.27	71.83	0.456
DiD estimator (treatment*period)	-64.33	-126.91	-1.76	0.044

Model includes random intercept for LSOA, and fixed effects for percent of population aged 50+ years, percent female, percent unemployed and two spline terms for time (full model results are given in Supplementary file).

Model based on 32 Knowsley and 132 control LSOAs, and 1968 observations CI = confidence interval; COPD = Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease; DiD = Differencein-Differences; LSOA = Lower-layer Super Output Area

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Table 8. Result of difference-in-differences analysis showing the change in COPD emergency
 admissions per 100,000 women in Knowsley following the intervention relative to the control
 group, 2005–16

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		Coefficient	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	p-value
			CI	CI	_
	Treatment (Knowsley = 1; $control = 0$ )	45.48	-17.81	108.77	0.159
	Period (post-intervention = 1; pre-				
	intervention $= 0$ )	-16.43	-57.40	24.54	0.432
	DiD estimator (treatment*period)	6.09	-42.67	54.84	0.807

Model includes random intercept for LSOA, and fixed effects for percent of population aged 50+ years, percent female, percent unemployed and two spline terms for time (full model results are given in Supplementary file). Model based on 98 Knowsley and 392 control LSOAs, and 5880 observations

CI = confidence interval; COPD = Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease; DiD = Differencein-Differences; LSOA = Lower-layer Super Output Area 

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# Table 9. Result of difference-in-differences analysis showing the change in COPD emergency admissions per 100,000 men in Knowsley following the intervention relative to the control group, 2005–16

	Coefficient	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	p-value
		CI	CI	
Treatment (Knowsley = 1; $control = 0$ )	18.50	-37.07	74.07	0.513
Period (post-intervention = 1; pre-				
intervention = 0)	-22.72	-62.63	17.19	0.264
DiD estimator (treatment*period)	-59.80	-107.29	-12.32	0.014

Model includes random intercept for LSOA, and fixed effects for percent of population aged 50+ years, percent female, percent unemployed and two spline terms for time (full model results are given in Supplementary file). Model based on 98 Knowsley and 392 control LSOAs, and 5880 observations

CI = confidence interval; COPD = Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease; DiD = Differencein-Differences; LSOA = Lower-layer Super Output Area