



How to interpret a trial: Design and statistics

Paolo Bruzzi, MD, MPH, PhD

Retired, formerly Head of Clinical Epidemiology, San Martino Hospital,
Italy

Disclosures

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Introduction

- How to interpret a trial
 - Internal validity
 - External validity
 - Relevance
- Multiplicity
 - General
 - Multiple endpoints, interim analyses, subgroup analyses
- Indirect comparisons

When you interpret the results of a study, you should ask two questions

1. Are the results true?

2. So what?

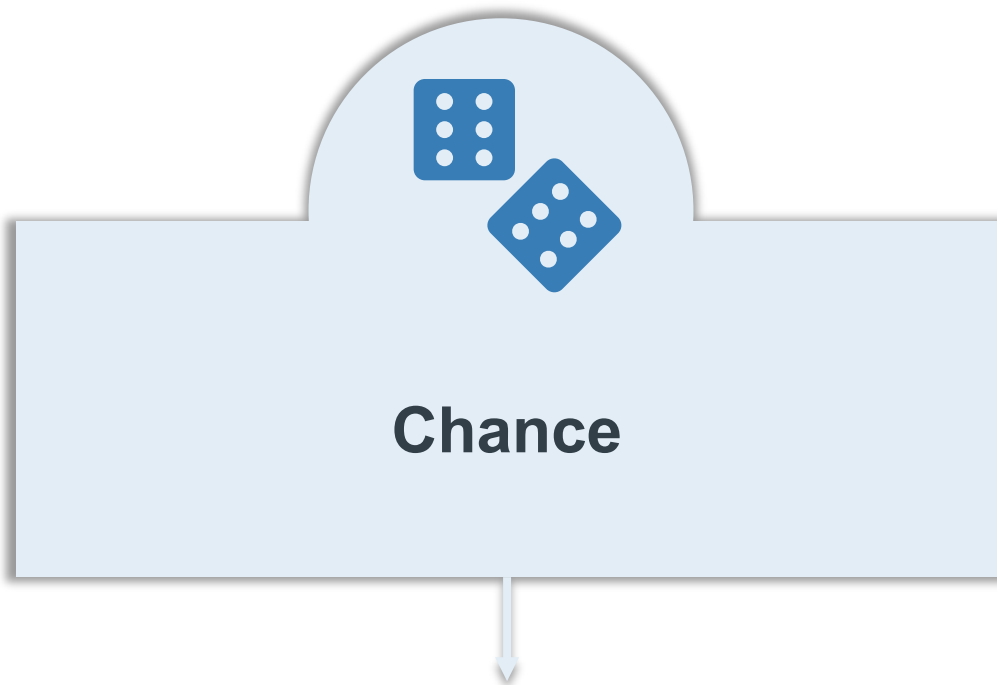
Question 1: Are the results true?

The results of a trial are always (more or less) wrong!



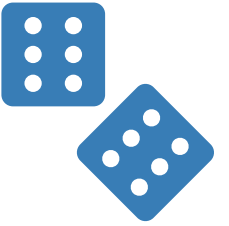
Why?

Sources of error



Usually referred to by statisticians as
sampling error

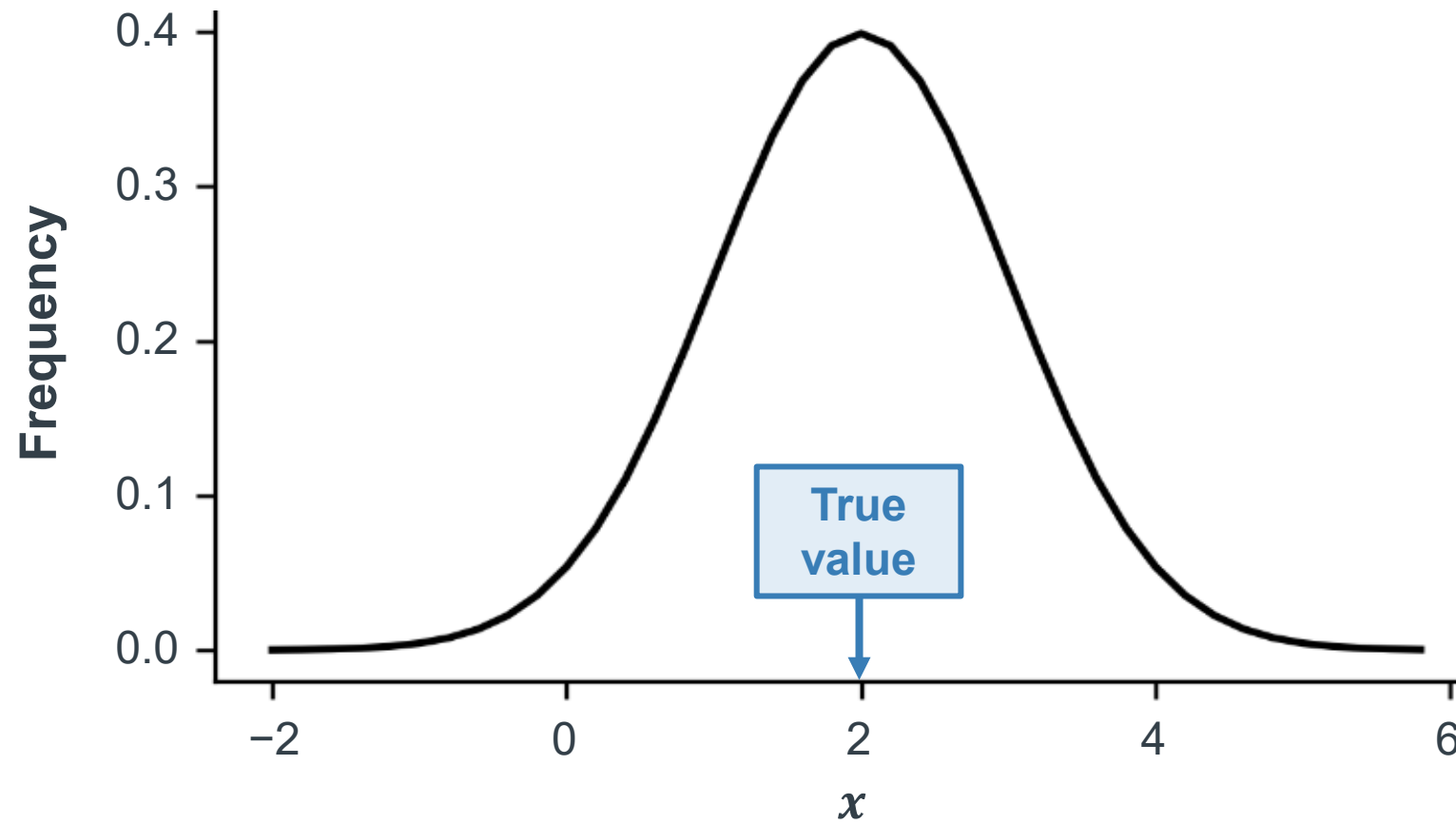
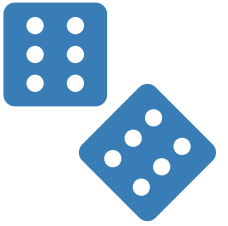




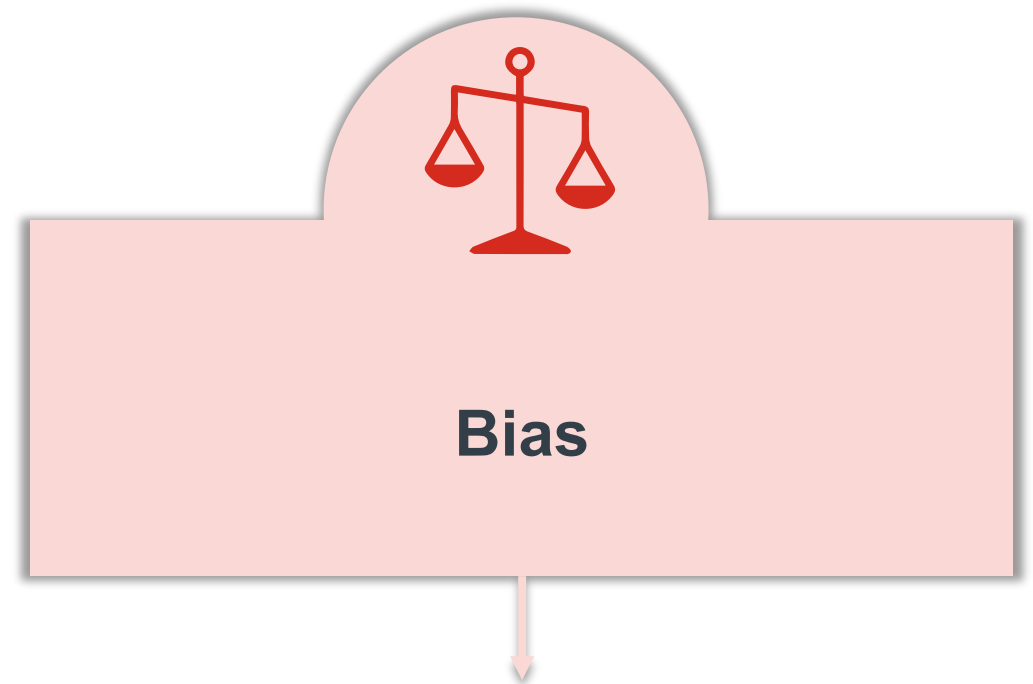
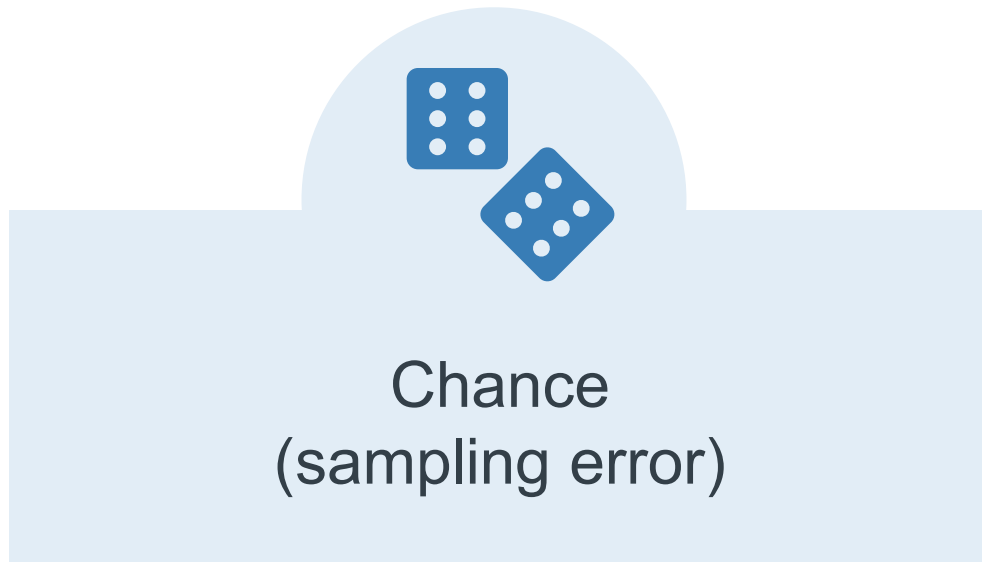
The effect of chance

- Even if the same phenomenon is observed several times under **exactly** the same conditions, the results of the observations are never identical
- Some examples include:
 - **Individual measurements:** weight, blood pressure, tumor size
 - **Group measurements:** mean blood pressure, mean weight, ORR, mOS
- **If there is no bias**, the results of several observations of the same phenomenon under **exactly** the same conditions follow a normal distribution, whose **mean** is equal to the **true value**

Normal distribution



Sources of error



Because of flaws in the design/conduct of the observation, the results may be **distorted**

Sources of bias



Measurement



Selection



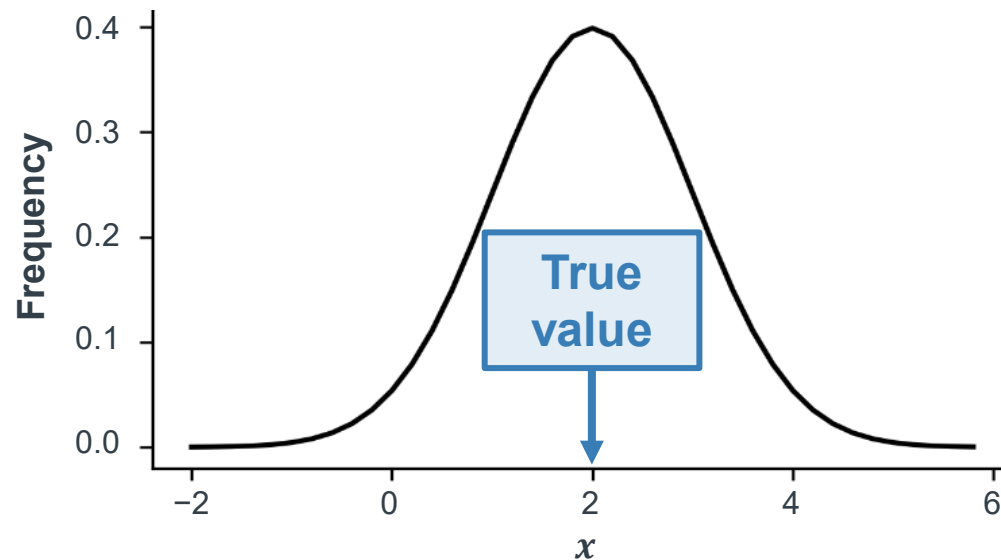
Reporting

The effect of bias

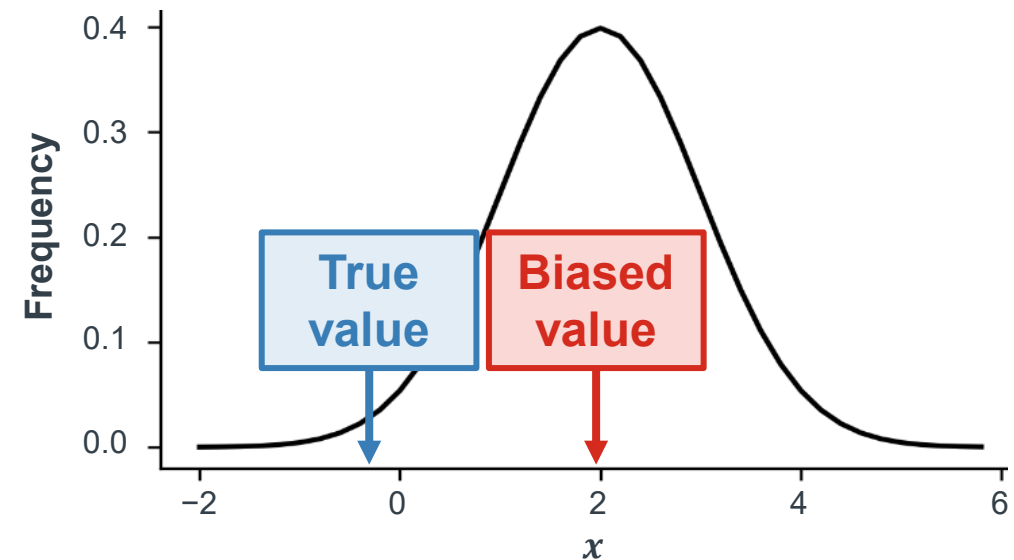


- Because of flaws in the design/conduct of the observation, the results may be **distorted**
- The results of several 'biased' observations of the same phenomenon under exactly the same conditions follow a normal distribution that is centered on a **wrong** value

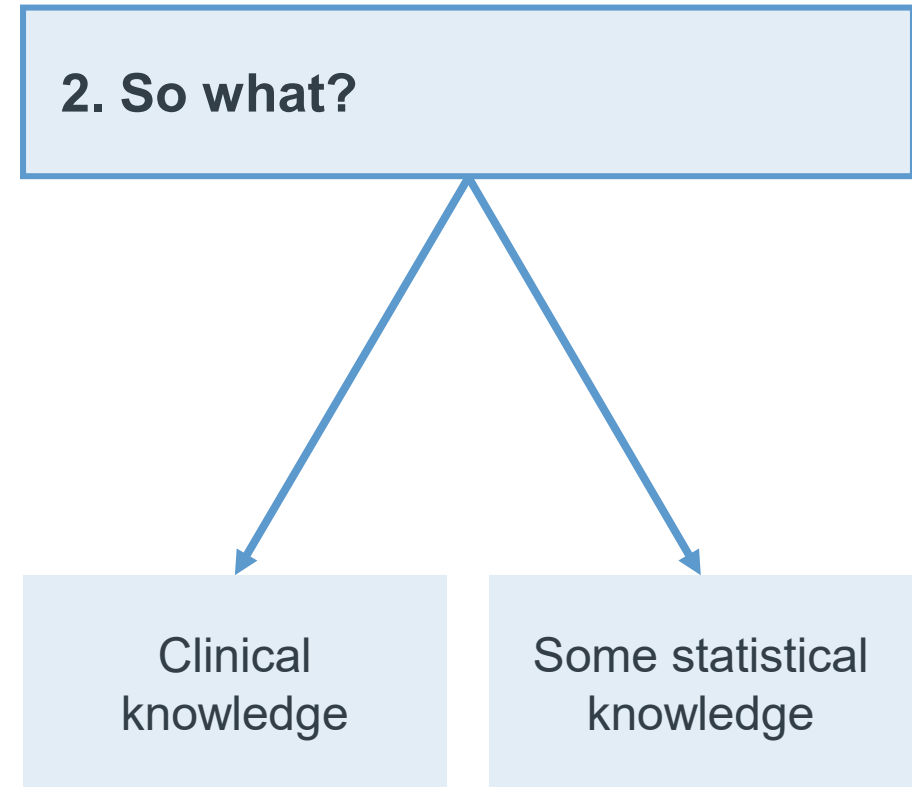
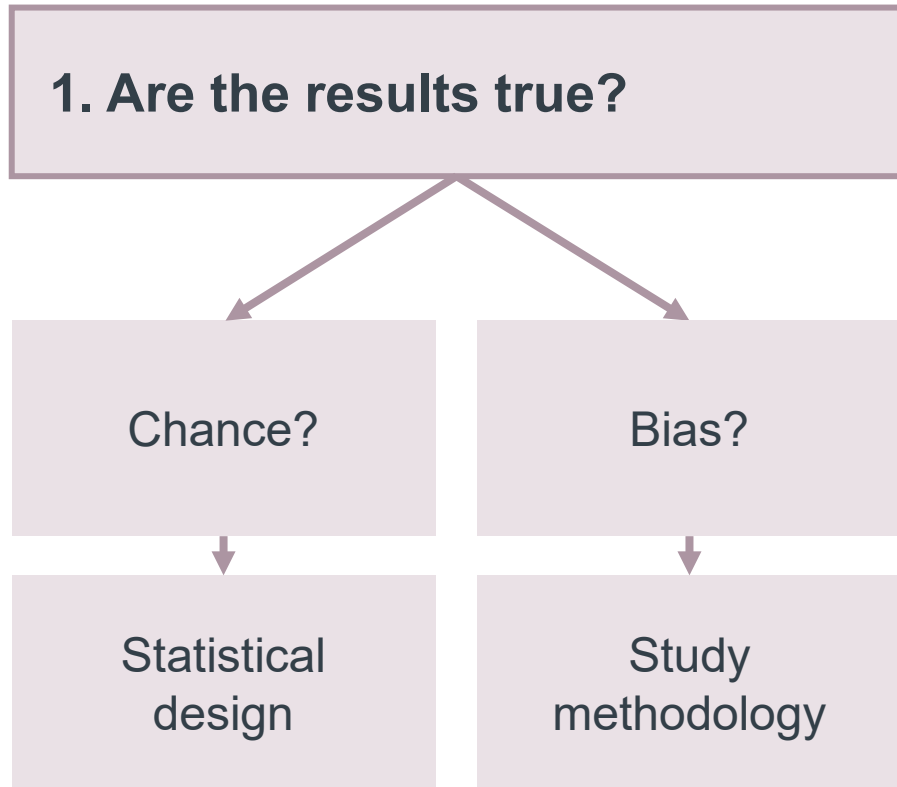
Unbiased observation



Biased observation



When you interpret the results of a study, you should ask two questions



1. How to interpret a trial

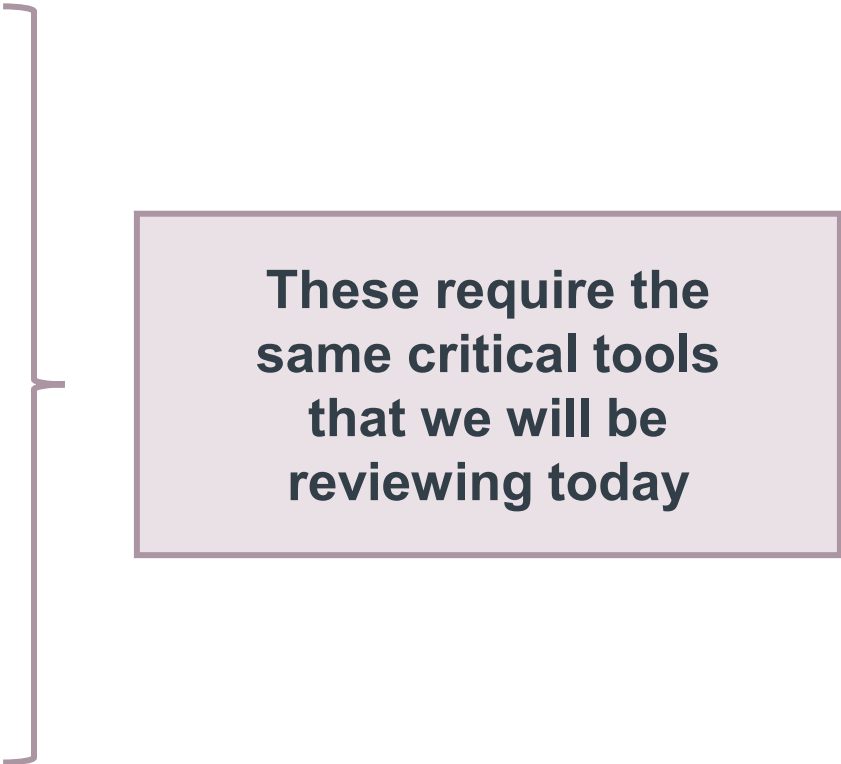
Interpretation of a trial

Reading scientific papers

Writing scientific papers

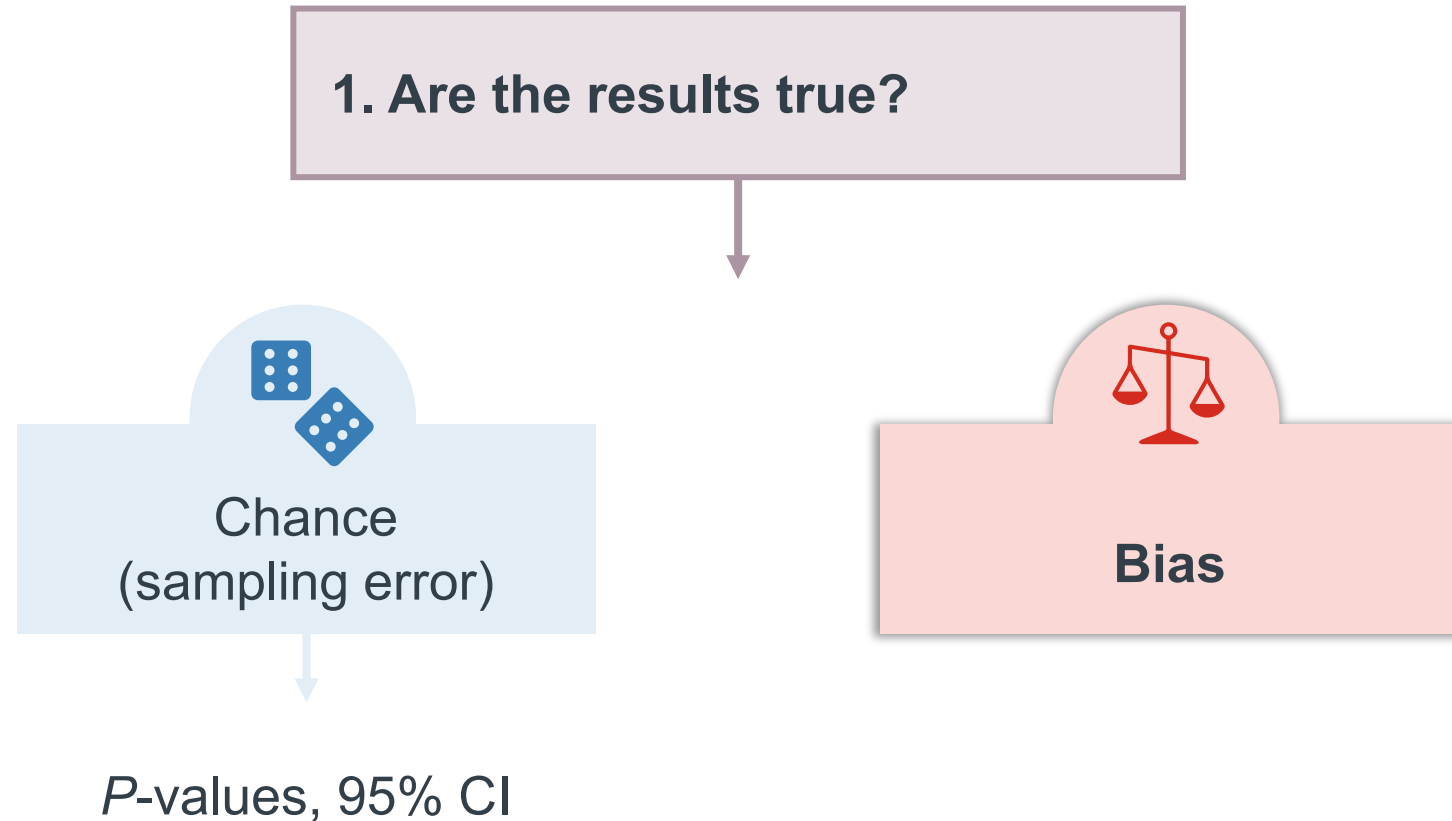
Designing studies

Preparing/reviewing grant applications

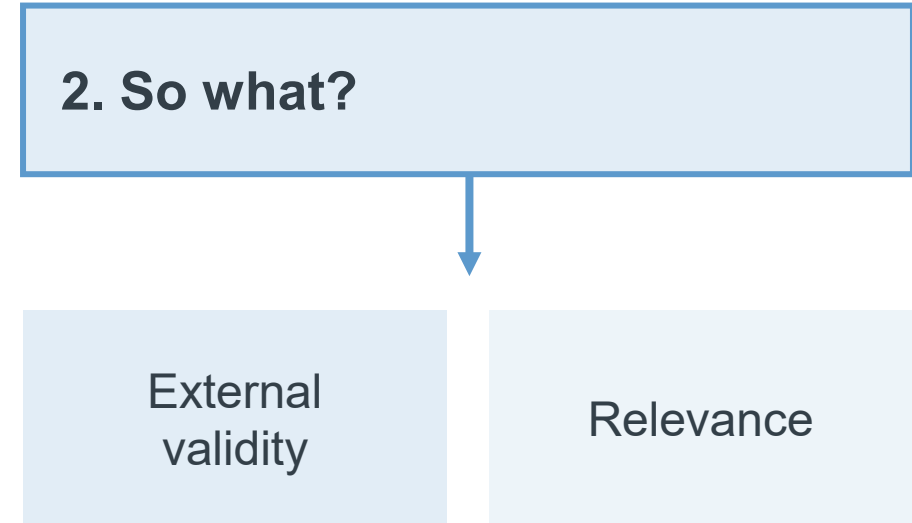
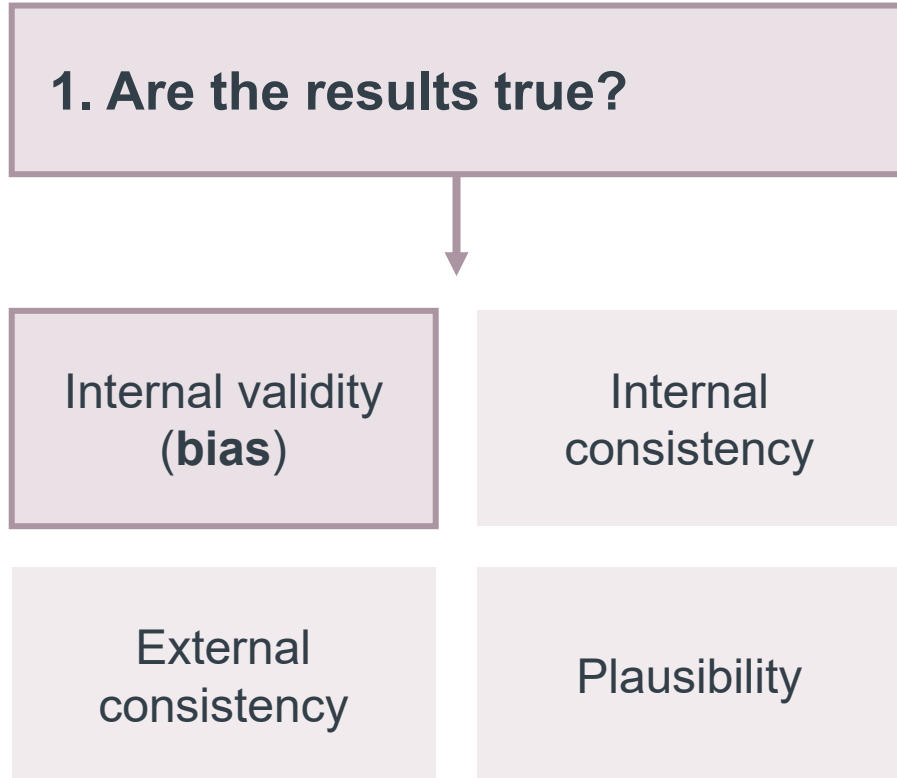


**These require the
same critical tools
that we will be
reviewing today**

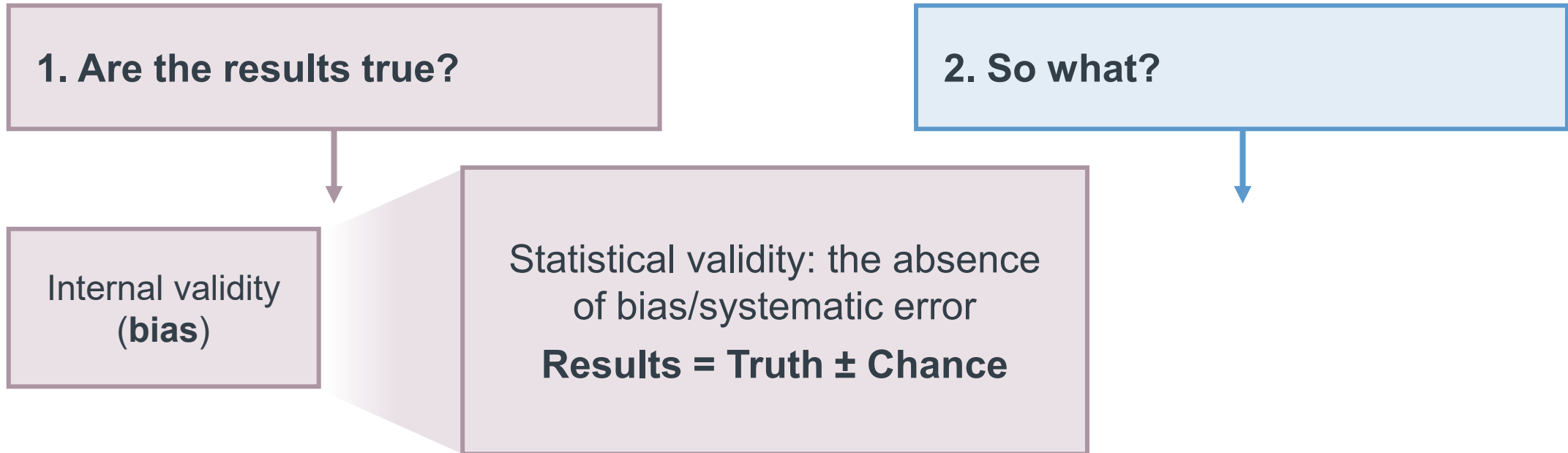
When you assess the results of a study, you should ask two questions



When you assess the results of a study, you should ask two questions



Internal validity



Internal validity

Checklist:



Research protocol (rationale)



Primary aim



Study design



Randomization



Endpoint selection, assessment,
and masking



Inclusion/exclusion criteria



Treatment protocol

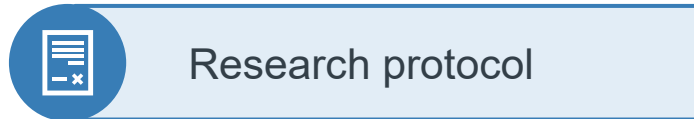


Statistical plan (including sample size
power, *P*-values, and associated CIs)



Endpoint assessment (including intention-to-
treat population and FU protocol)

Research protocol



Research protocols should:

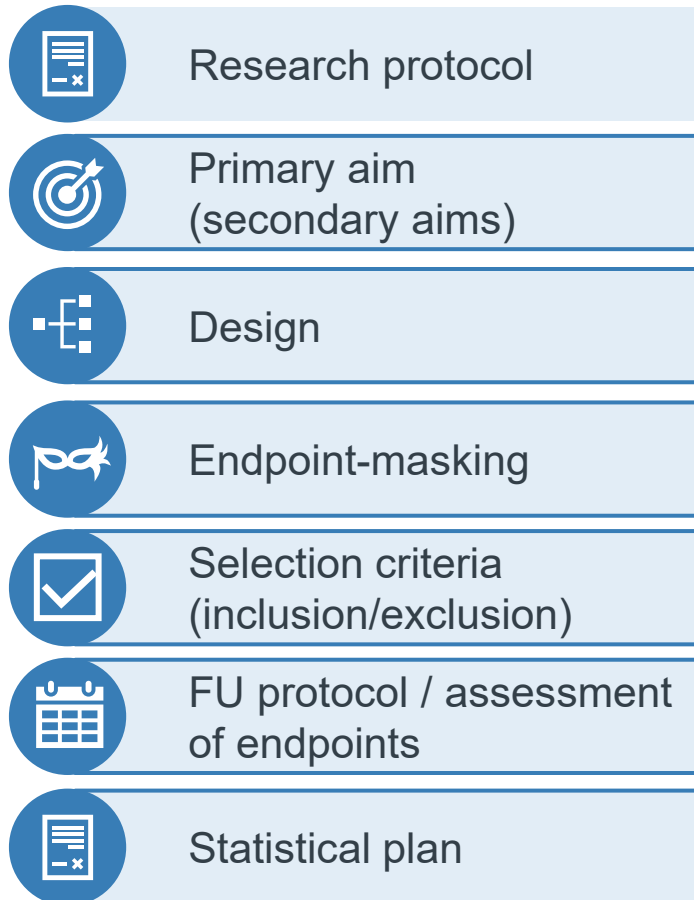


**Be available
for consultation**



**Contain explicit reference
to registration of the trial**

Study protocol



Internal validity



Research protocol

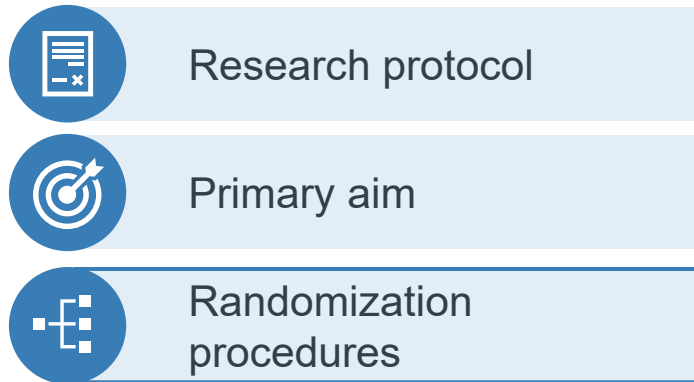


Primary aim



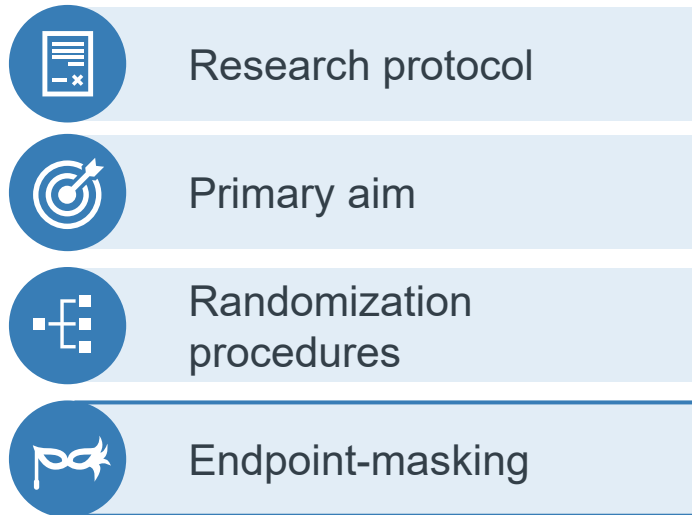
Primary aims should be
stated in an
explicit statement

Internal validity

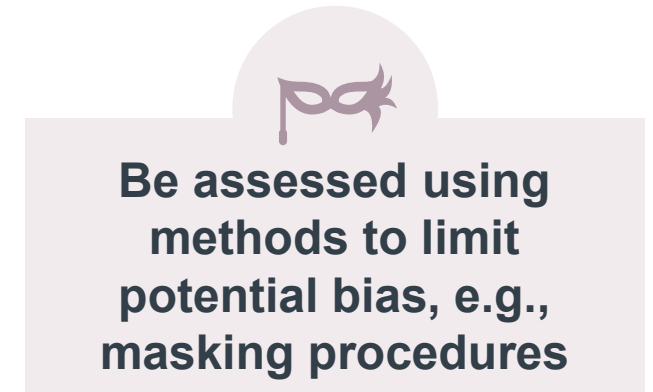
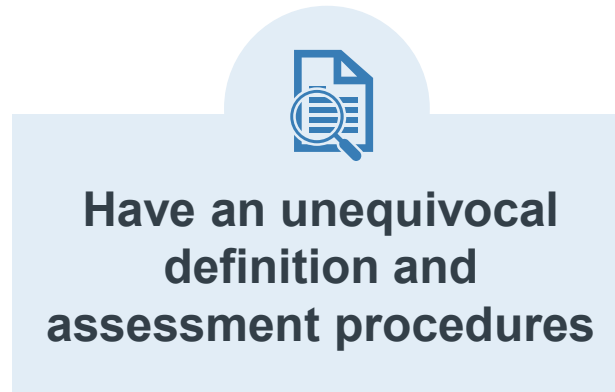


Within the research protocol, there should be a detailed description of the procedures used to ensure that randomization is free from bias

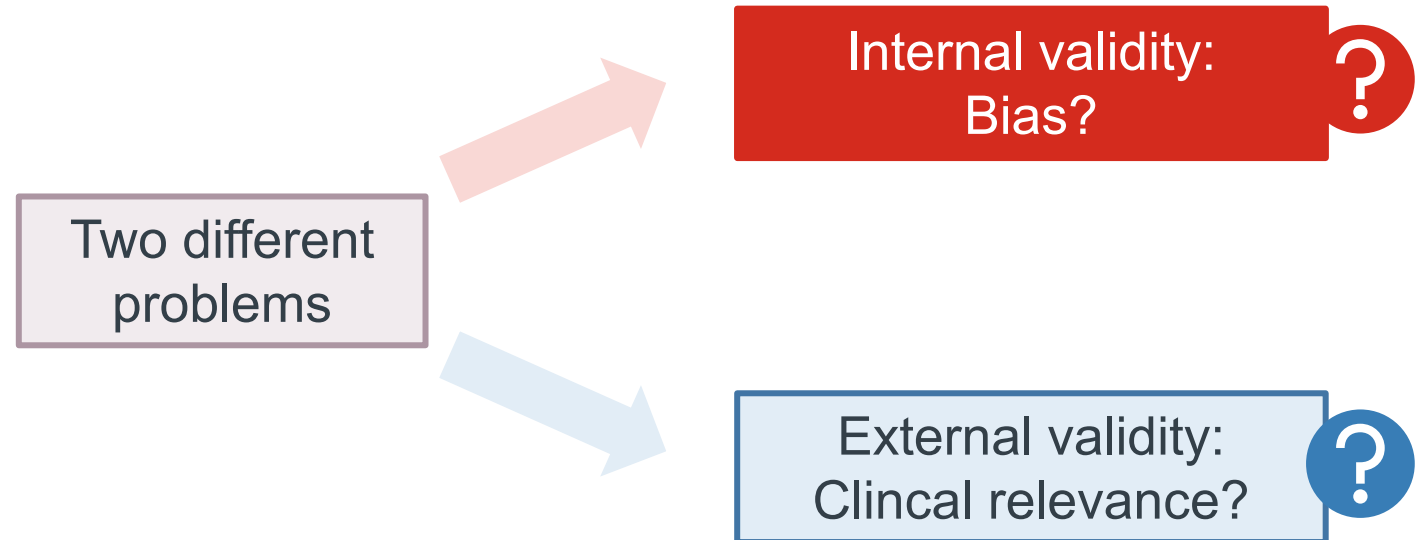
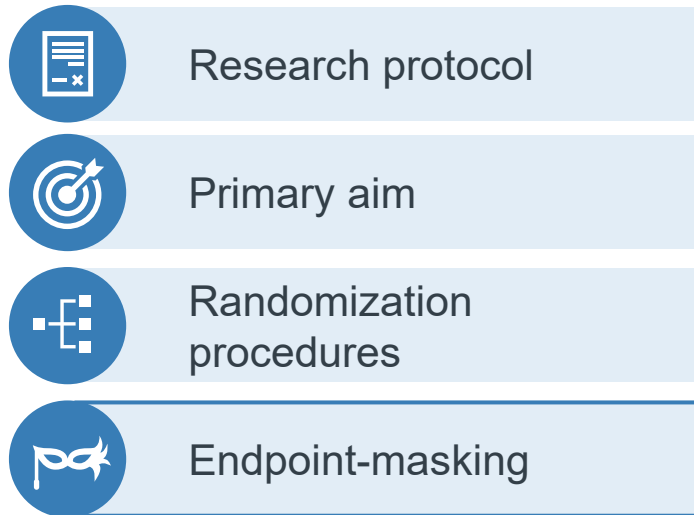
Internal validity



Endpoints should:



Internal validity

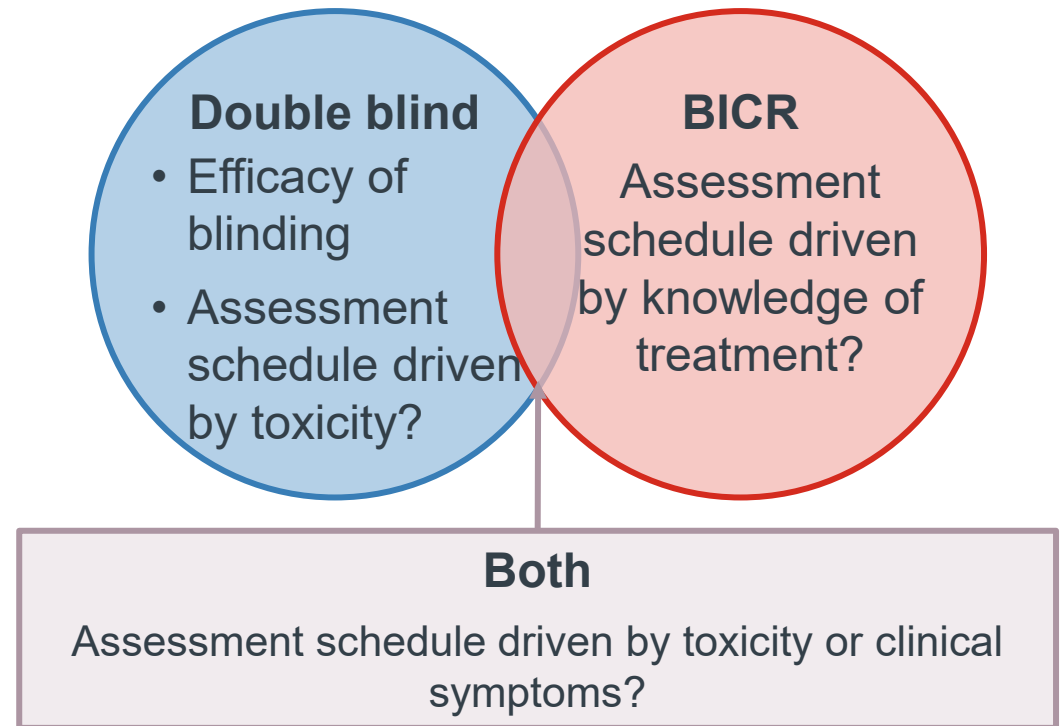


Internal validity: Endpoint selection, assessment, and masking

Considerations for endpoint selection

Endpoint	Objectivity	Assessment	Blinding requirements
Survival	+++	++	Not required
Objective response	++/-	+	BICR
Event-free survival (e.g. PFS, RFS)	+/--	+	BICR / double blind
QoL scoring	---	---	Double blind

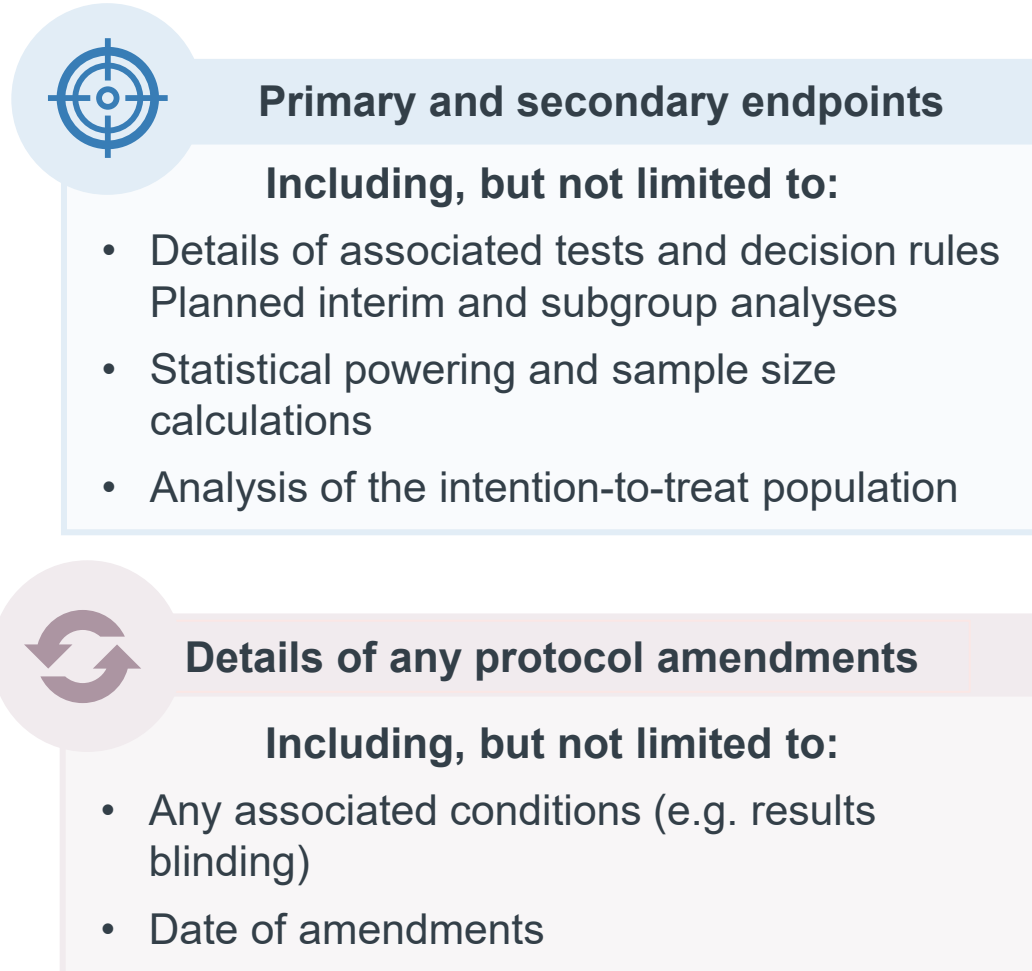
Considerations for blinding selection



Internal validity



A statistical plan should contain the following elements:



Internal validity



Patients that were lost to FU should have:

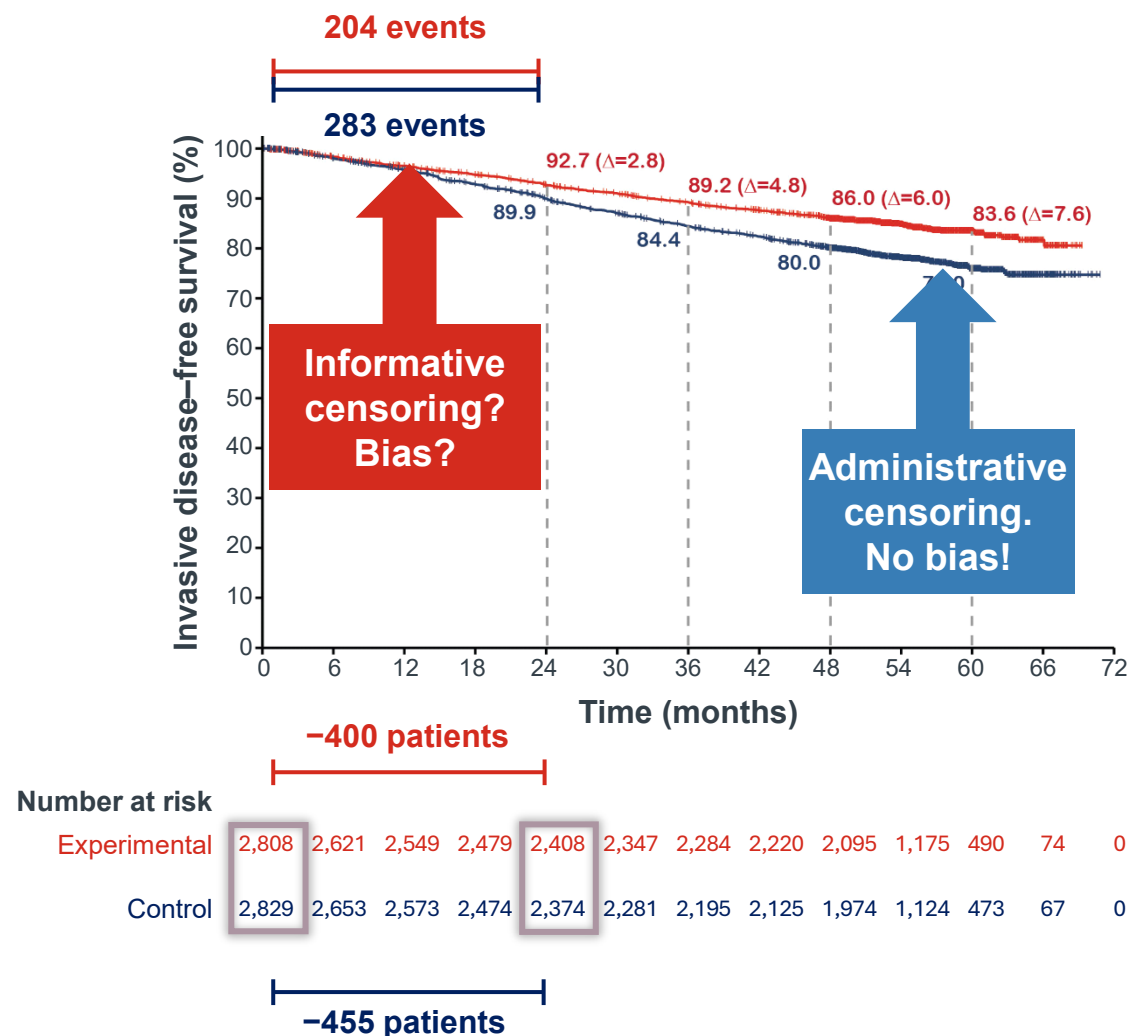


The **timing** of discontinuation noted



The **reason** for discontinuation noted

Informative censoring: Kaplan–Meier curves



Calculating early censoring:

Experimental arm:

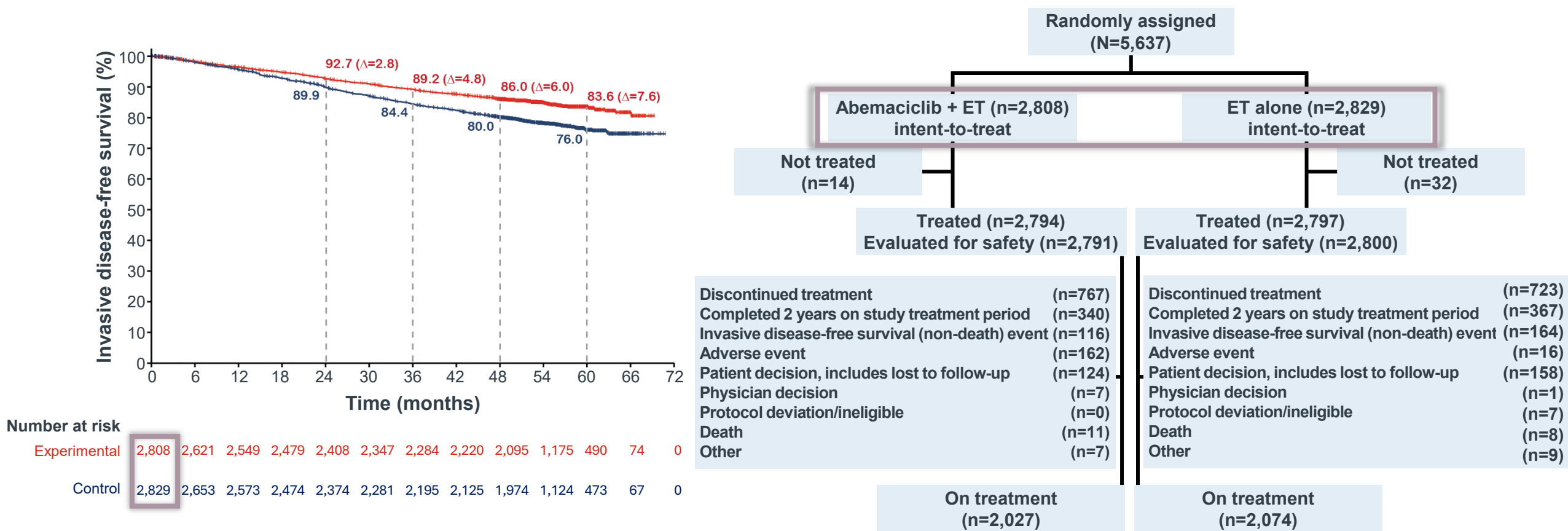
400 patients – 204 events = >194 censored

Control arm:

455 patients – 283 events = >172 censored

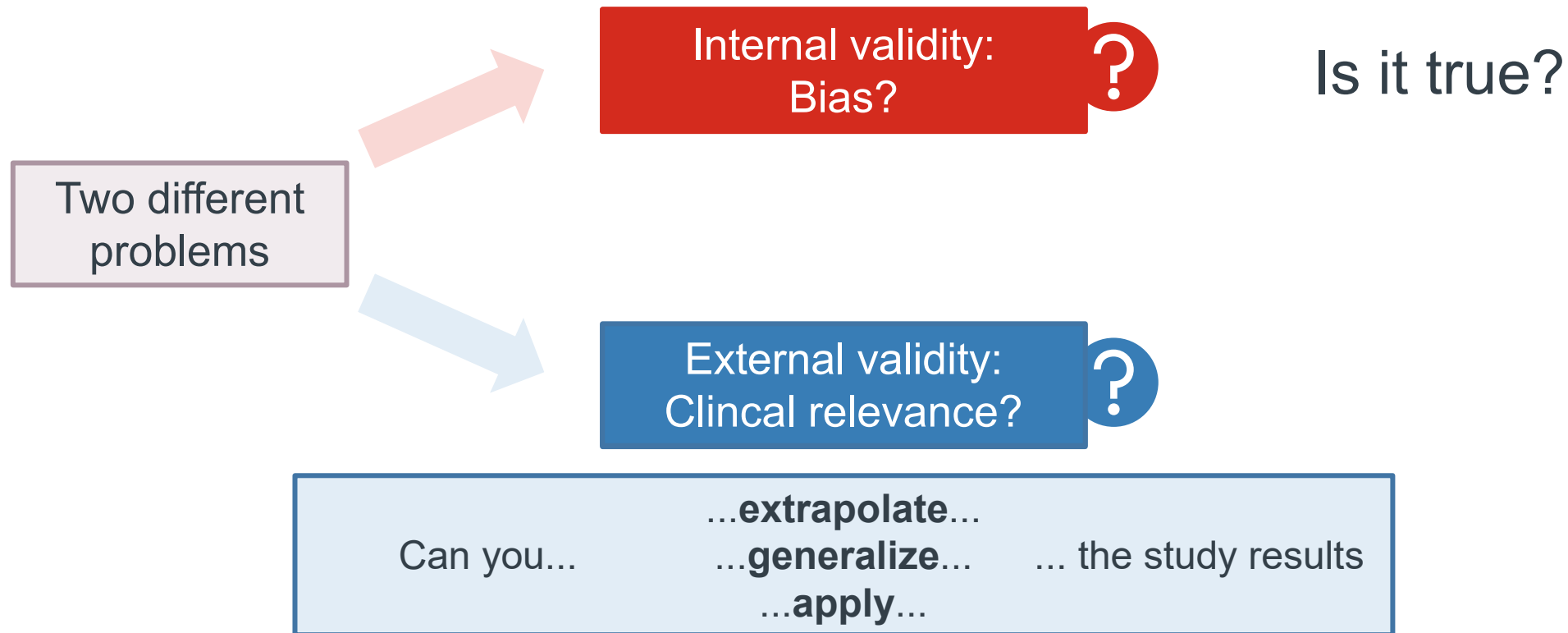
Intention-to-treat population

The intention-to-treat population should also be reflected in the CONSORT diagram^{1,2}



ET, endocrine therapy.
Figures included for illustrative purposes only. 1. Rastogi P *et al. J Clin Oncol* 2024; JCO2301994. 2. Adapted from Johnston SRD *et al. J Clin Oncol* 2020; 38 (34): 3987–3998.

Interpretation



Generalization

In clinical trial interpretation, **generalization** has two meanings:



Proof of principle

Is the approach feasible?

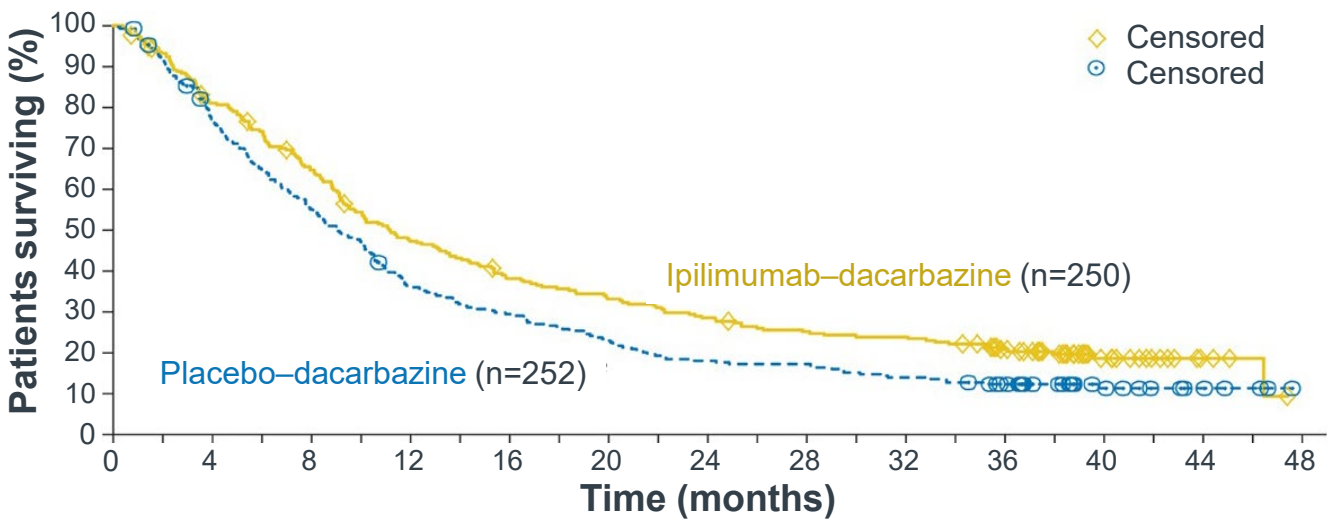


Applicability of the results

*Could these data
influence clinical practice?*

Generalization: Proof of principle

Clinical trials can be designed to **validate the utility** of a regimen for a particular indication and patient population



Endpoint	DTIC + ipilimumab (n=250)	DTIC + placebo (n=252)	Significance test
1-year OS rate, %	47.3	36.3	–
2-year OS rate, %	28.5	17.9	–
3-year OS rate, %	20.8	12.2	–
Median OS, months	11.2	9.1	HR: 0.72 P<0.001

“...significant improvement in OS among patients... who received ipilimumab plus dacarbazine as compared with dacarbazine plus placebo”

DTIC, dacarbazine; HR, hazard ratio; OS, overall survival.
Robert C et al. *N Engl J Med* 2011; 364 (26): 2517–2526.

Generalization: Use in clinical practice

The NEW ENGLAND JOURNAL of MEDICINE

ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Initial Therapy with FOLFOXIRI and
Bevacizumab for Metastatic Colorectal Cancer

5

FOLFOXIRI + bevacizumab

Five-drug regimen

- Fluorouracil
- Leucovorin
- Oxaliplatin
- Irinotecan
- Bevacizumab

vs.

4

FOLFIRI + bevacizumab

Four-drug regimen

- Fluorouracil
- Leucovorin
- Irinotecan
- Bevacizumab

“FOLFOXIRI plus bevacizumab, as compared with FOLFIRI plus bevacizumab, improved the outcome in patients with metastatic colorectal cancer and increased the incidence of some adverse events.”

External validity

2. So what?

- Phase 2 data will inform the decision to initiate a Phase 3 trial
- Proof-of-principle trials may determine the decision to start as well as the design of other trials

A pragmatic trial may be important for:



Registration



Guidelines



Clinical decisions



**Organization of
health services**

External validity

-  Internal validity
-  Study design (contrast)
-  Selection criteria
-  Participating centers
-  Treatment/FU protocol
-  Endpoints
-  Compliance/contamination
-  Precision of the estimates
-  Analysis 'intention to treat'

External validity



Internal validity

An **open-label, uncontrolled** trial has shown that drug X has a beneficial effect on QoL



External validity

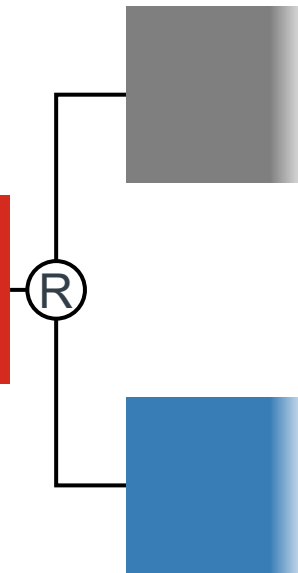


Internal validity

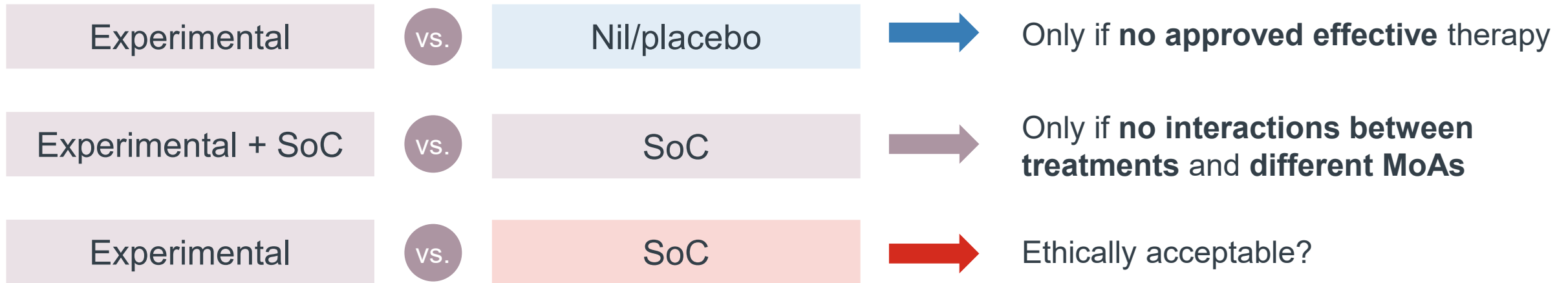


Study design (contrast)

A **randomized, double-blind** trial has shown that drug A is more effective than **placebo** in the treatment of acute leukemia



Study design (contrast)



Always consider:
Is the control treatment an acceptable standard?

External validity

 Internal validity

 Study design (contrast)

 Selection criteria



In an RCT, eligible patients:

- Were women
- Had early breast cancer
- Were T1N0
- Were ER+ HER2–
- Were <40 years of age

Drug X was shown to be more effective
than standard chemotherapy...

External validity



Internal validity



Study design (contrast)



Selection criteria /

Patient characteristics



In an RCT, eligible patients:

- Were women (any)
- Had early breast cancer

Drug X was shown to be more effective
than standard chemotherapy...

However



Because of competing studies, only
patients to which the following applied
were recruited:

- <40 years of age
- T1N0
- ER+ HER2- tumors

External validity



Internal validity



Study design (contrast)



Selection criteria



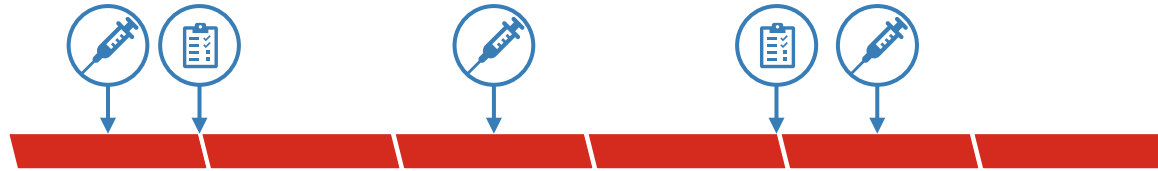
Participating centers



An RCT conducted at the Mayo Clinic has shown that plastic surgery of aortic insufficiency is more effective than standard prosthesis implantation...

External validity

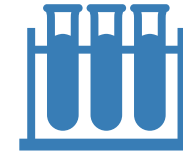
- Internal validity
- Study design (contrast)
- Selection criteria
- Participating centers
- Treatment/FU protocol



An RCT has shown that FU with monthly PET-CT and radioguided surgery of liver relapses in operated colon cancer...

External validity

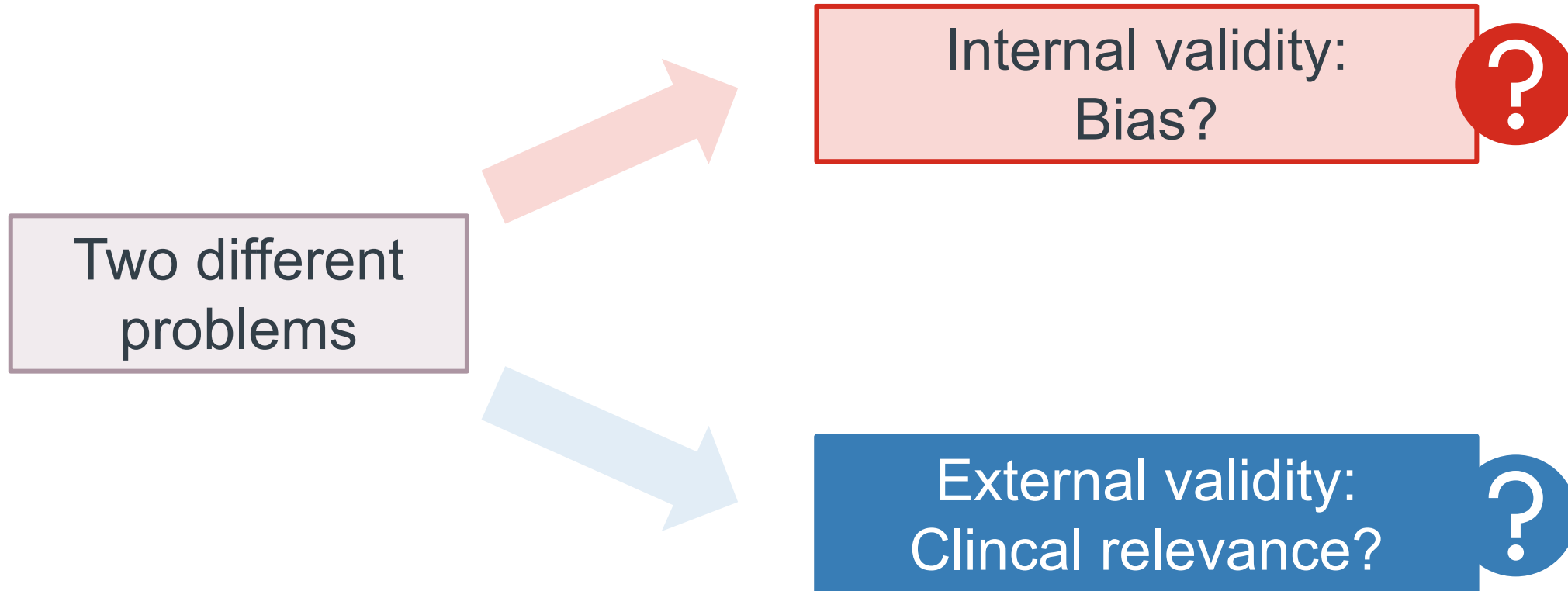
-  Internal validity
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-  Selection criteria
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-  Treatment/FU protocol
-  Endpoints



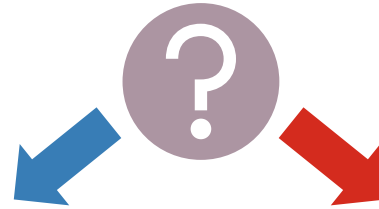
...lead to a reduction of CEA levels



Endpoints in clinical trials



Endpoints in Phase III studies



Activity endpoint

- Validated surrogate?
- CEA: Not validated

True efficacy

- Clinically relevant?
 - OS in terminal cancer patients
- Able to capture treatment effects?
 - OS in CLL
- Validated?
 - QoL questionnaires
- Objective, reliable?
 - Investigator-assessed OR
- Feasible?
 - Monthly QoL questionnaires for 5 years

Design of a Phase III trial: Endpoints and blinding

	OS	PFS
Benefit	• Natural endpoint ◦ If a benefit is observed, then no discussion is required ◦ Blinding is not required for assessment	• Shorter FU than OS • Stronger effect than OS
Considerations	• Longer FU than PFS • (Almost) always weaker effect than PFS • Risk of false-negative results (crossover); (competing risks)	• Blinding required • Dependent on FU protocol • No cross-trial comparisons • Interpretation questionable • Double blinding is often overvalued and inefficient (toxicities?)

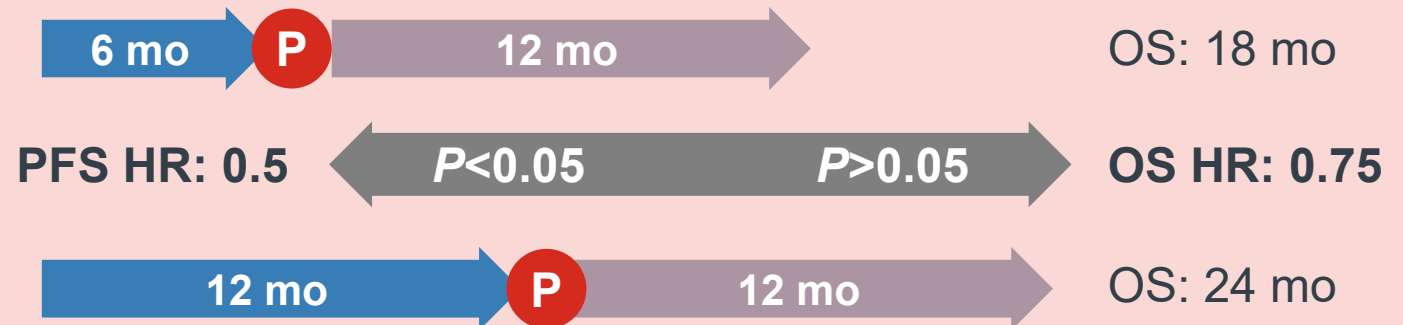
External validity

- ✓ Internal validity
- Study design (contrast)
- Selection criteria
- Participating centers
- Treatment/FU protocol
- Endpoints



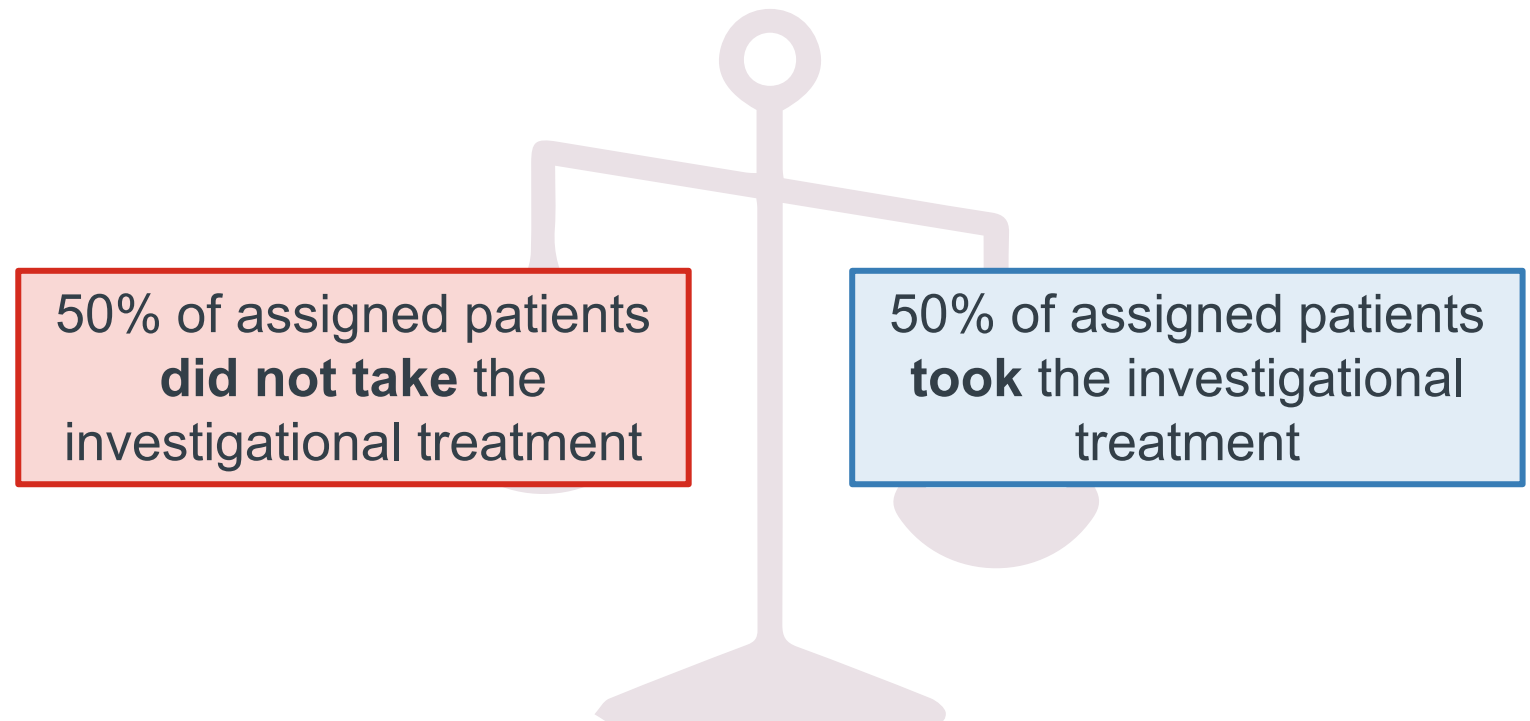
Note:

For mathematical (and biological) reasons, the effect of *most* anticancer treatments on PFS is much stronger than their effect on OS



External validity

- Internal validity
- Study design (contrast)
- Selection criteria
- Participating centers
- Treatment/FU protocol
- Endpoints
- Compliance/contamination



External validity

-  Internal validity
-  Study design (contrast)
-  Selection criteria
-  Participating centers
-  Treatment/FU protocol
-  Endpoints
-  Compliance/contamination



Note:

Low compliance:

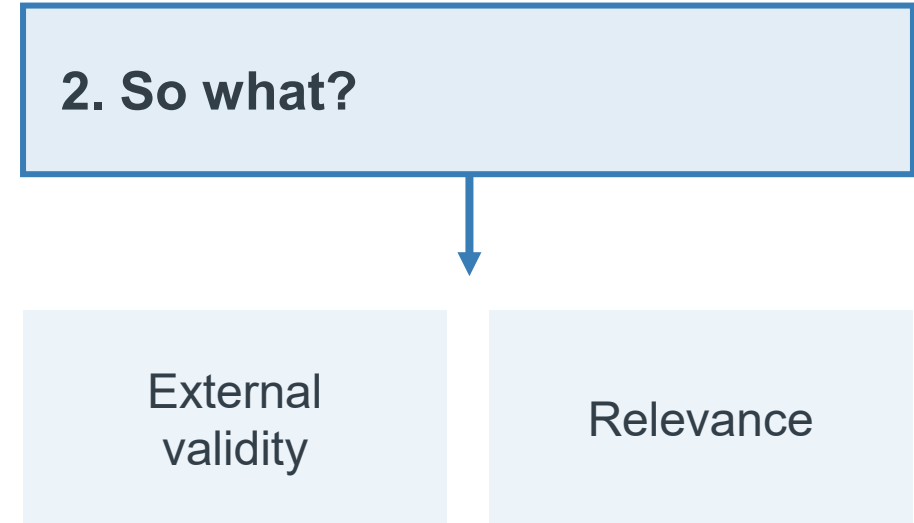
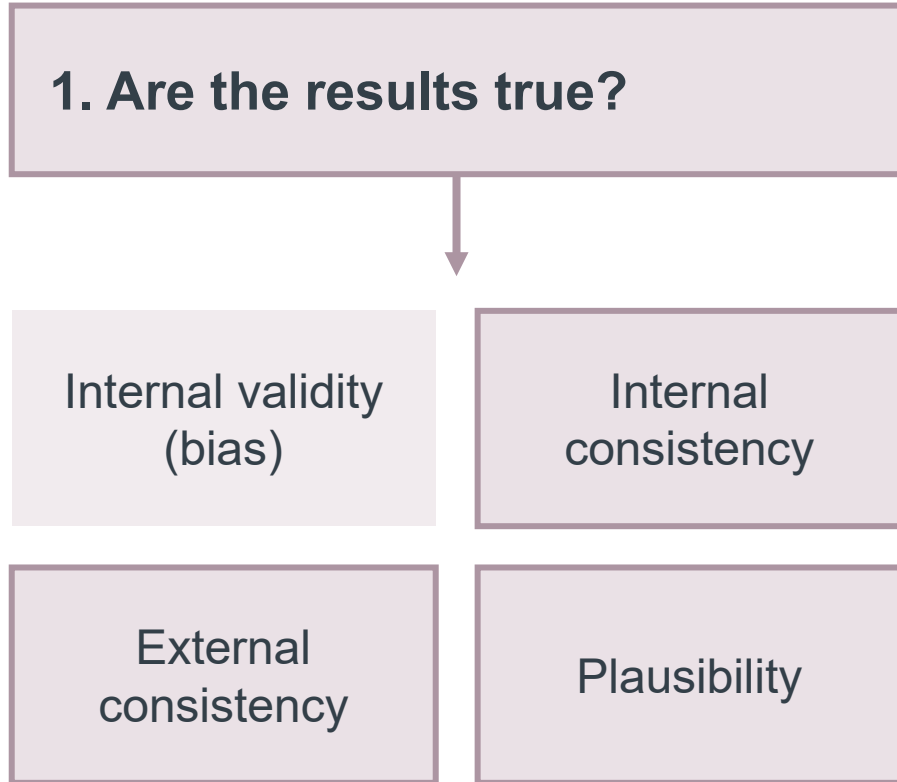
- Makes the two treatment groups more similar (HR biased toward unity)
- Decreases power* in superiority trials
- Makes it easier to spuriously demonstrate non-inferiority (sensitivity per-protocol analyses)

*Power is the probability to detect a significant effect in a clinical trial.
FU, follow-up; HR, hazard ratio.
Slide courtesy of Paolo Bruzzi.

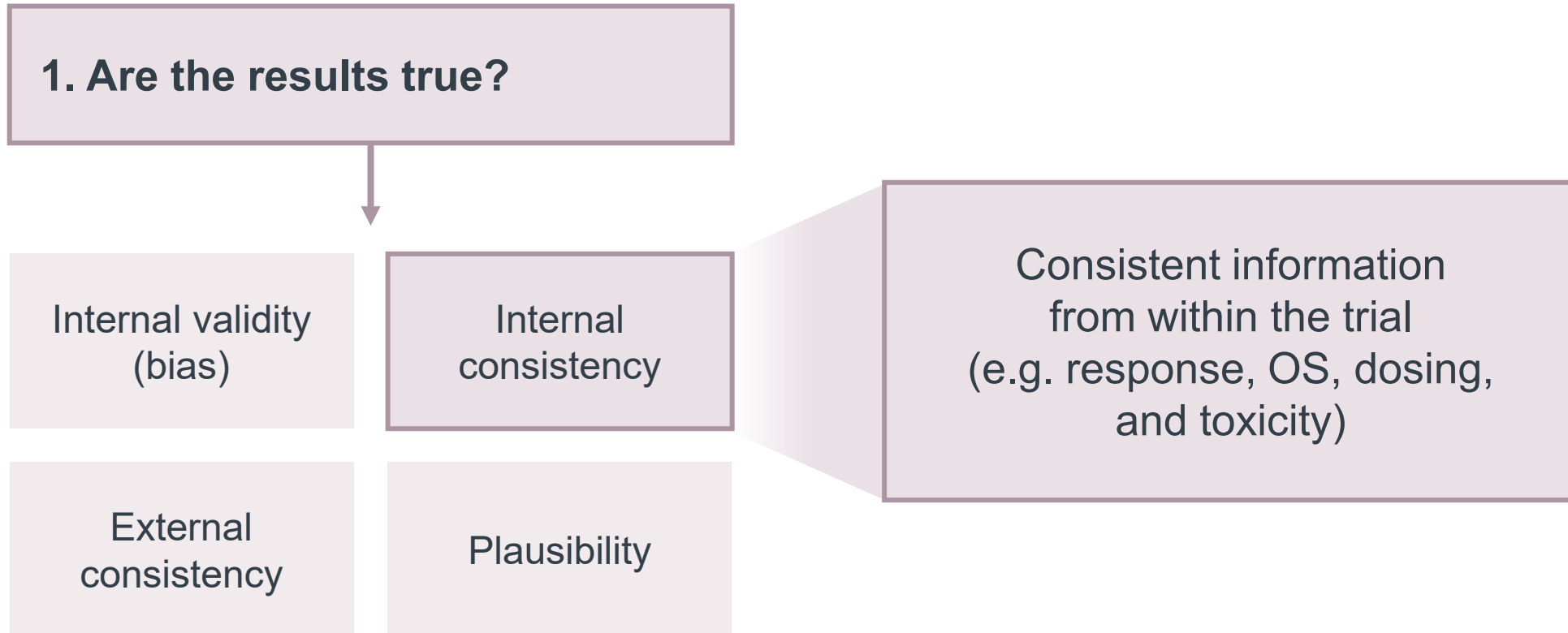
External validity

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-  Analysis 'intention to treat'

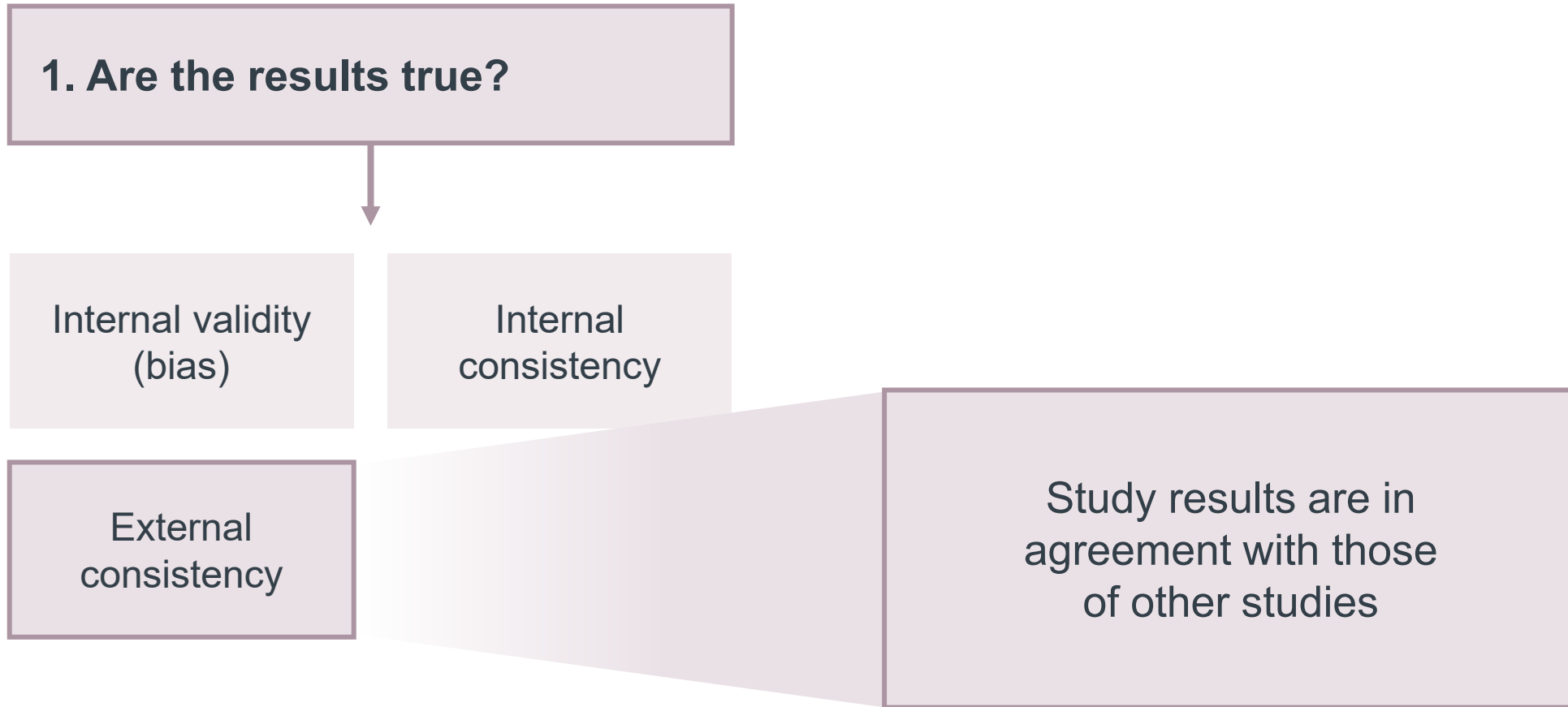
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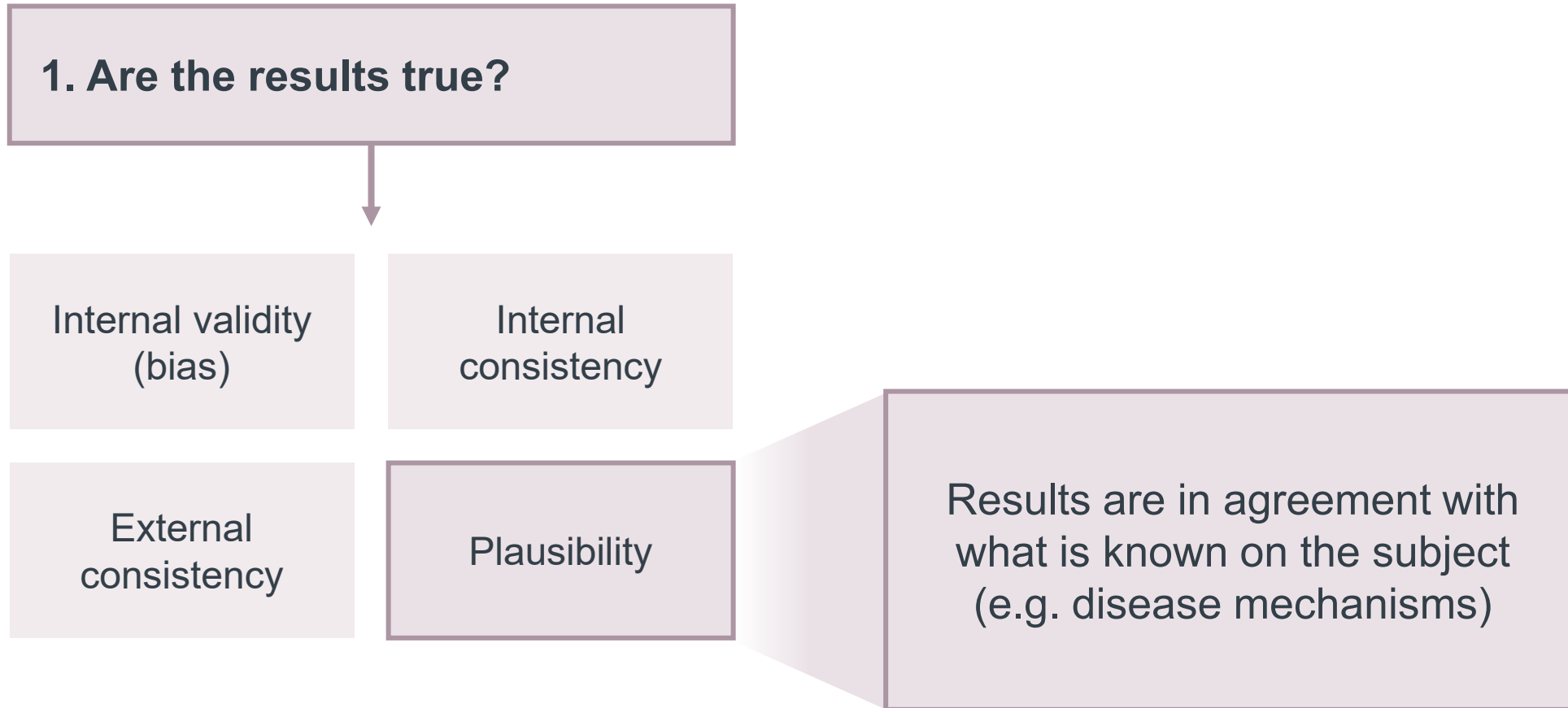
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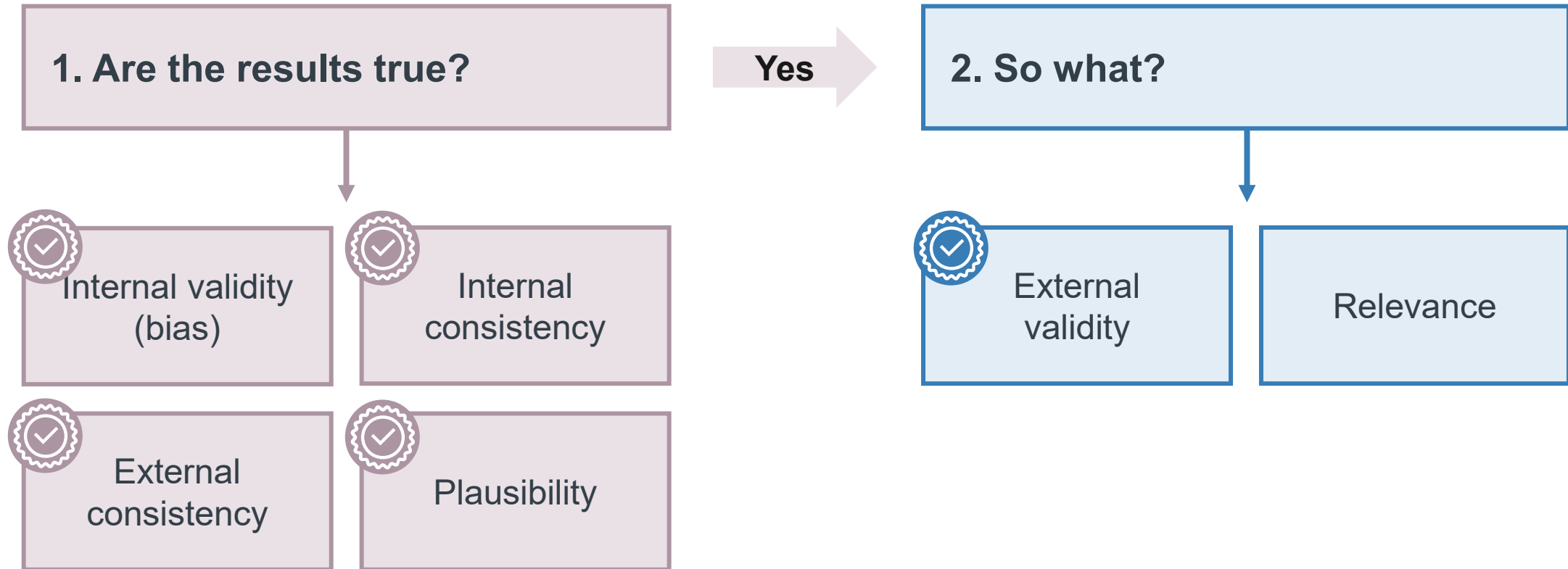
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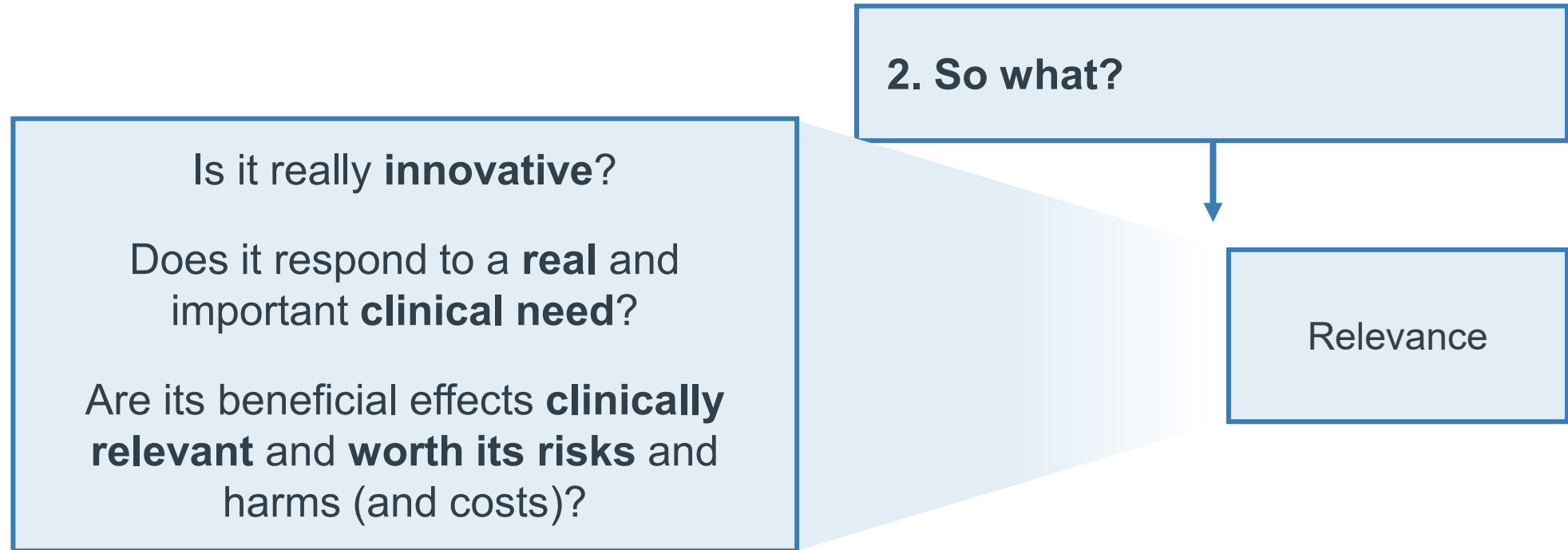
When you assess the results of a study, you should ask two questions



Process for understanding clinical results



Relevance of a new technology



Two questions

1. Which endpoint?

2. Which summary indicator?

Endpoints in trials on advanced tumors



Response rate

e.g. DCR



PFS



OS



QoL score

Two questions

1. Which endpoint?

2. Which summary indicator?

- Increase in median OS, PFS, etc.?
- HR?
- Increase in percentage of long-term survivors?

Advanced disease

Treatment aims

Palliate symptoms / reduce toxicity

Postpone disease progression and death

Increase probability of long-term survival

Summary indicator

Mean QoL score, etc.?

HR
Increase in time to...

% progression-free or
% alive 'long term'

What does each summary indicator tell us?

Summary indicator

Meaning

Small treatment benefit for many patients

Increase in **median time to event**
(in restricted mean survival time)

All patients have the same ($\approx$)
absolute gain (e.g. 3 years)

HR

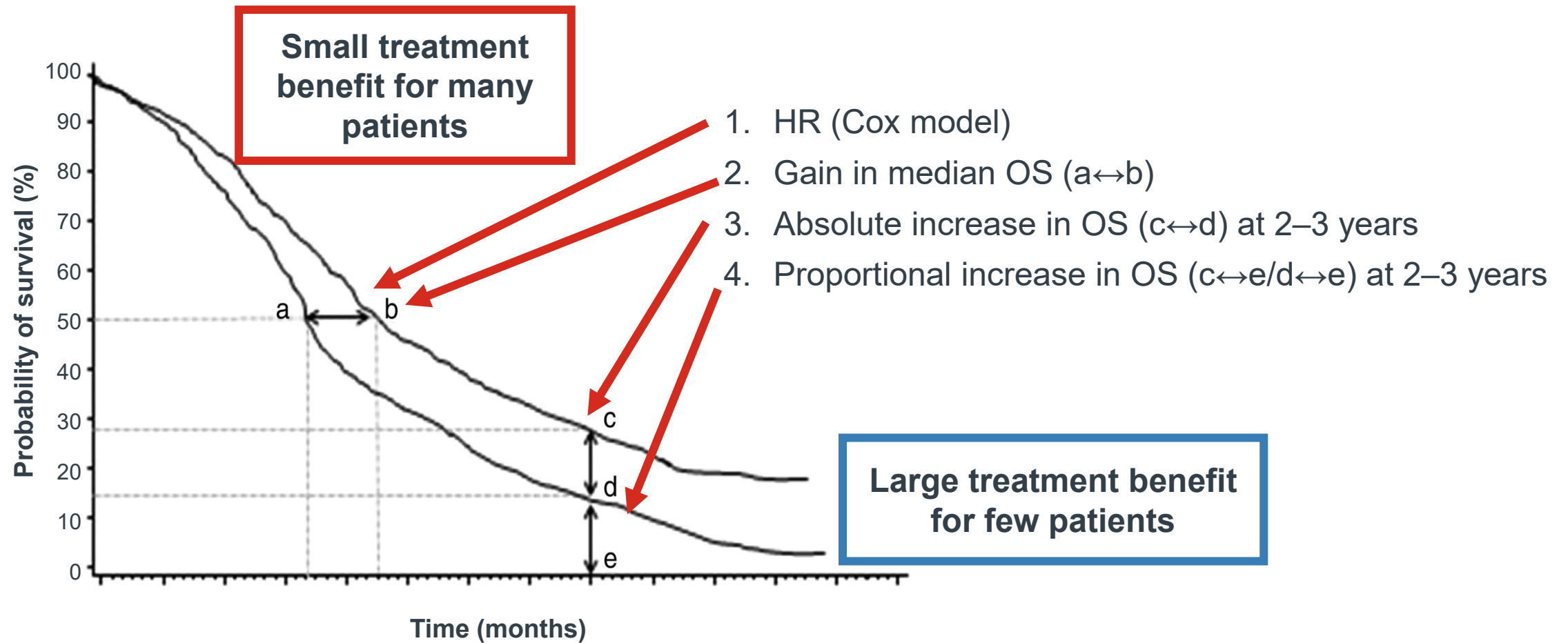
All patients have the same ($\approx$)
proportional gain (e.g. +50%)

Large treatment benefit for few patients

Increase in the **proportion of long-term survivors** (e.g. OS, PFS)

Few patients have **large benefit**
(become long-term survivors);
most do not have any benefit

Understanding OS related parameters



Small treatment benefit for many patients

Two types of effect:

1. KM curves **diverge early** and then get closer and **become parallel** or even **converge** (banana-like curves)



Increase in median (mean) survival is an appropriate measure of treatment effect

However:



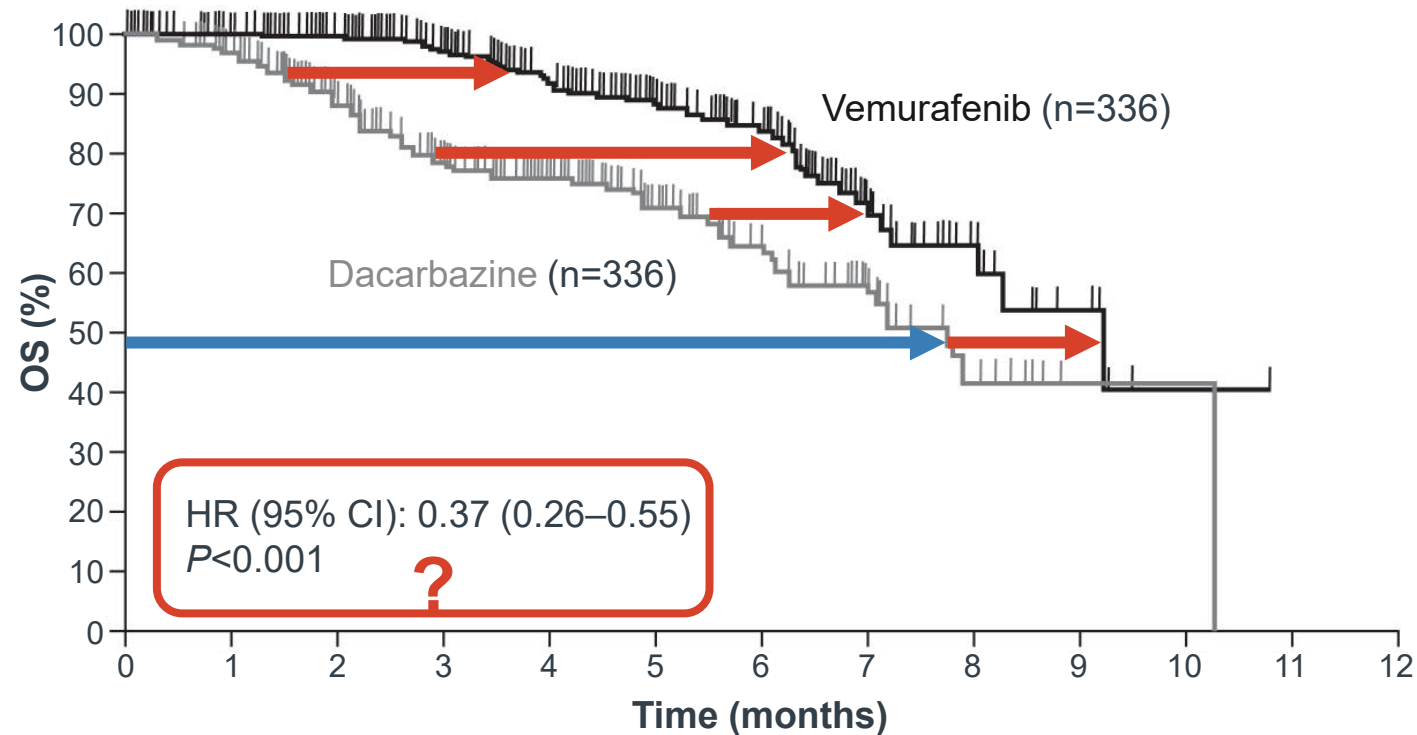
HR is inappropriate, as it does not remain constant



The difference in percentage of progression-free/alive patients is an inappropriate measure, as it does not remain constant

Small treatment benefit for many patients

OS is prolonged by $\approx 2\text{--}3$ months in $\approx 60\%$ of patients



Small treatment benefit for many patients

Two types of effect:

1. KM curves **diverge early** and then get closer and **become parallel** or even **converge** (banana-like curves)
2. KM curves **continue to diverge**



**HR is an appropriate measure
of treatment effect**

However:

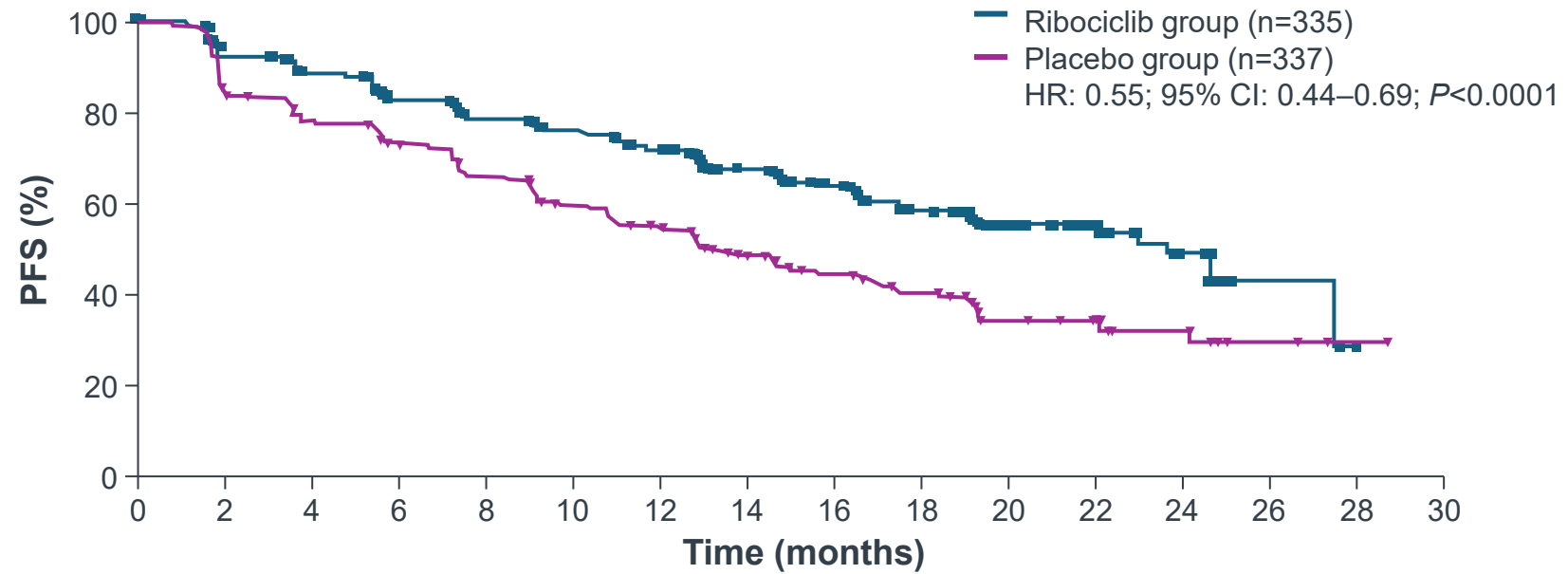


An increase in median (mean) survival is not representative of treatment effect



The difference in percentage of progression-free/alive patients is an inappropriate measure, as it does not remain constant

Constant HR



NOTE

If HR is (relatively) constant:

The **absolute gain in survival** increases progressively over time

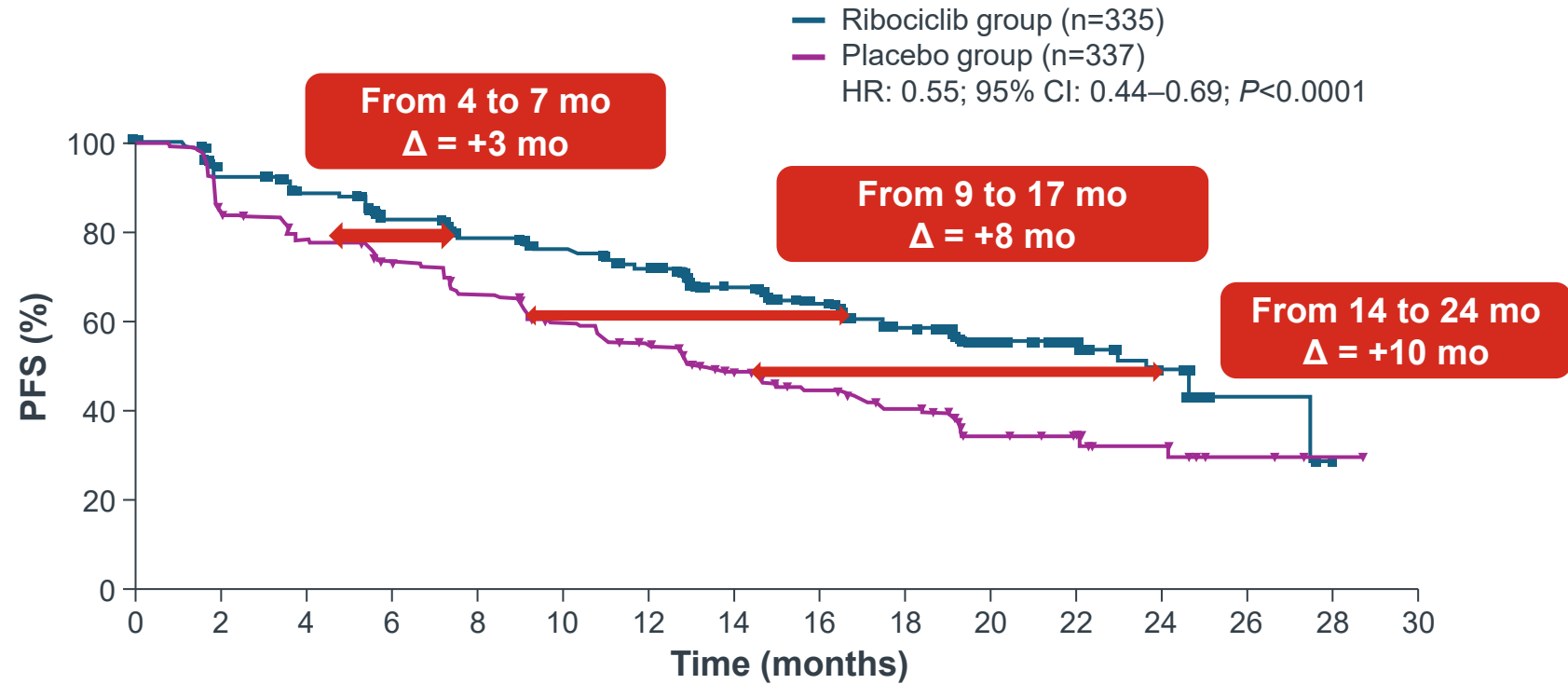
The **proportional gain is constant**, and **equal to $1/\text{HR}$**

HR = 0.5, $1/0.5 = 2$ → OS doubles

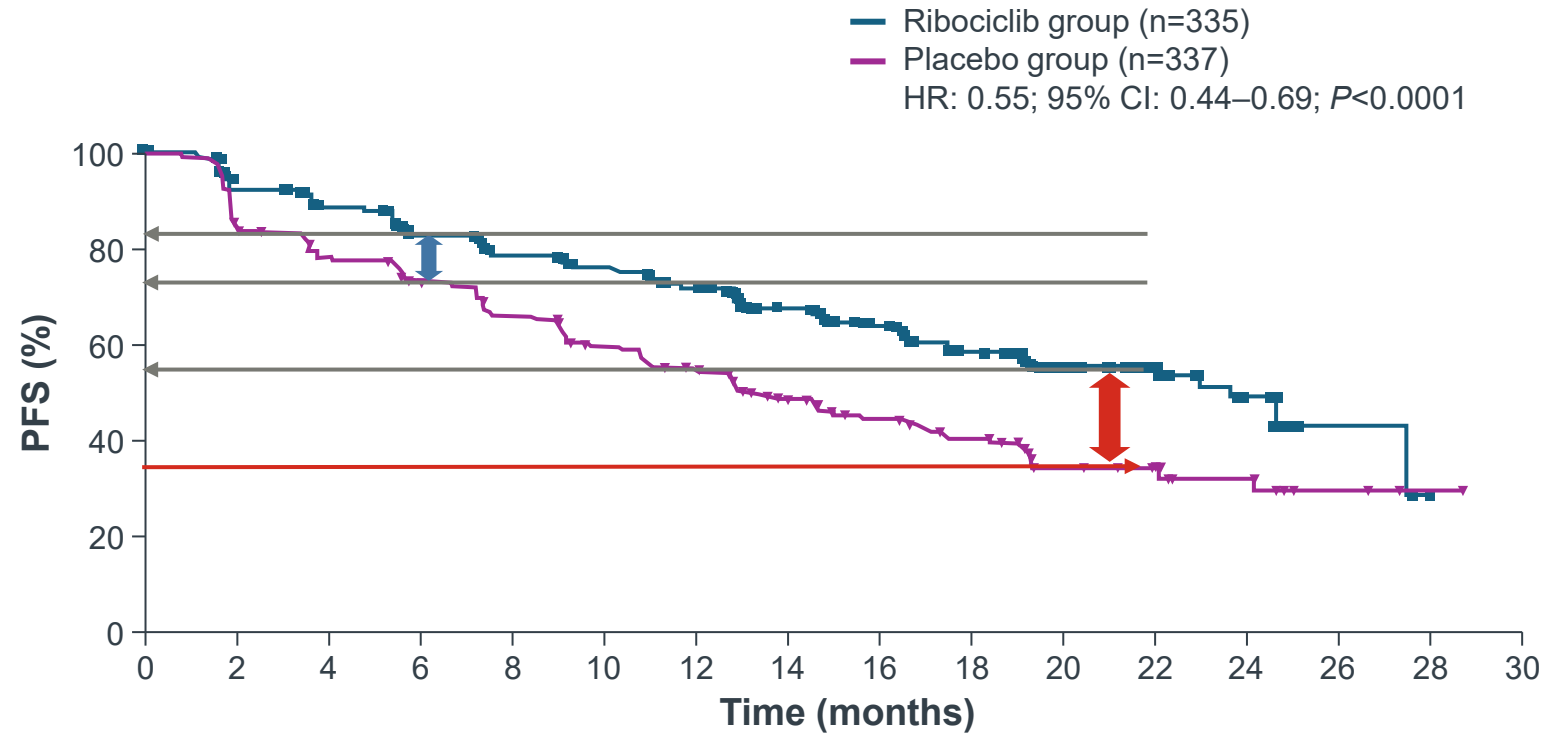
HR = 0.66, $1/0.66 = 1.5$ → 50% gain in OS (from 6 to 9 mo, from 12 to 18 mo)

HR = 0.75, $1/0.75 = 1.33$ → 33% gain in OS (from 6 to 8 mo, 12 to 16 mo)

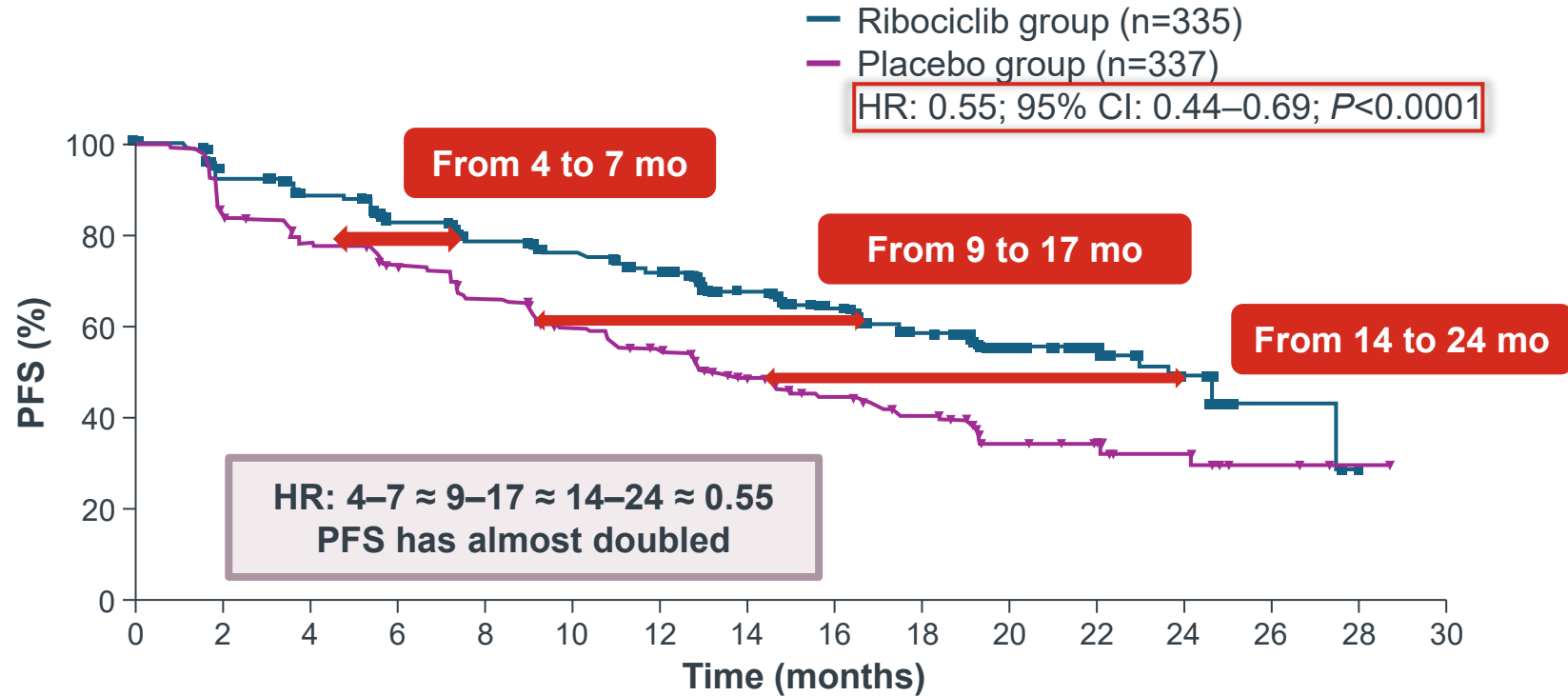
PFS: Absolute gain in time to progression?



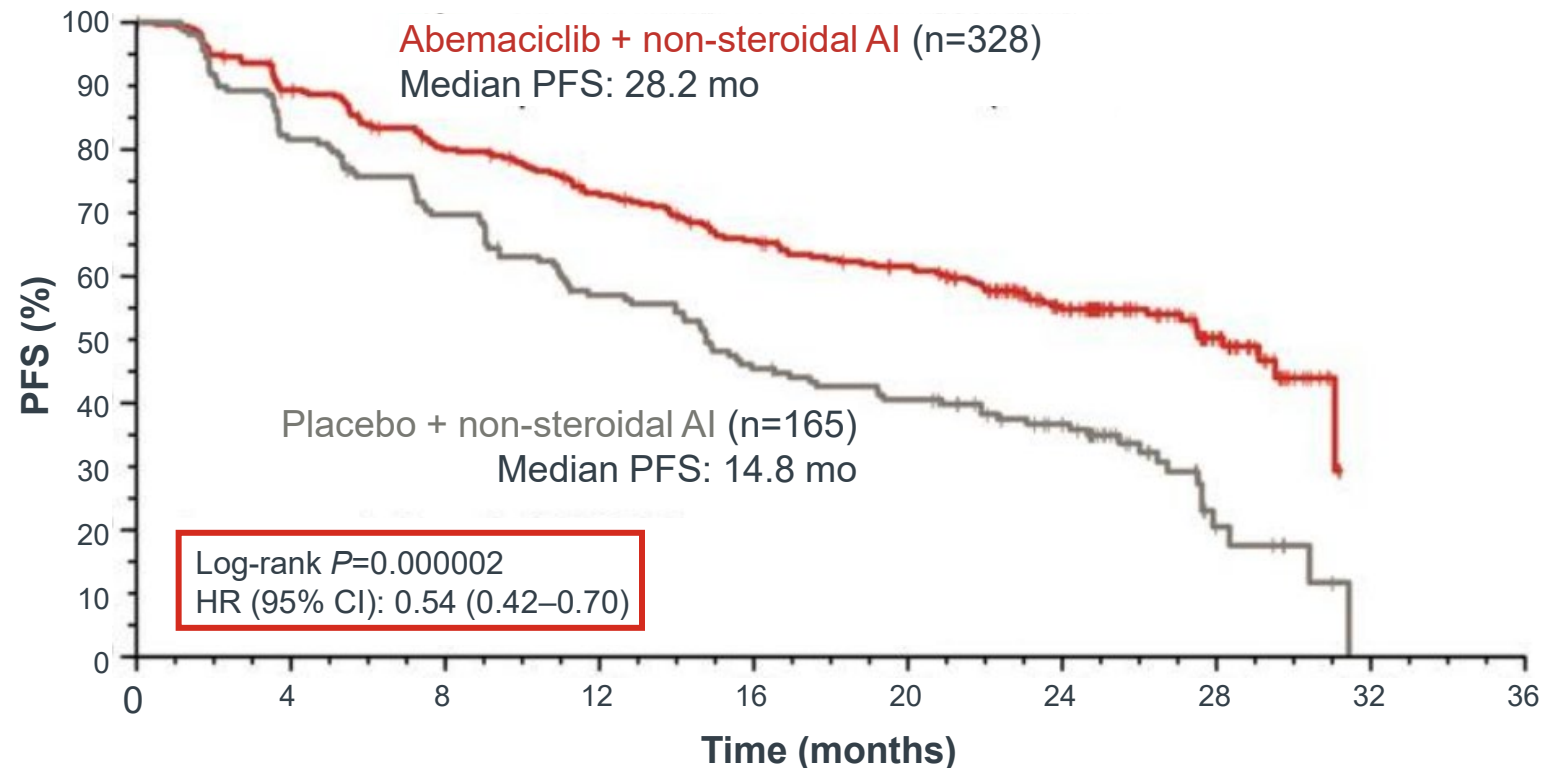
Increase in PFS? Varies over time



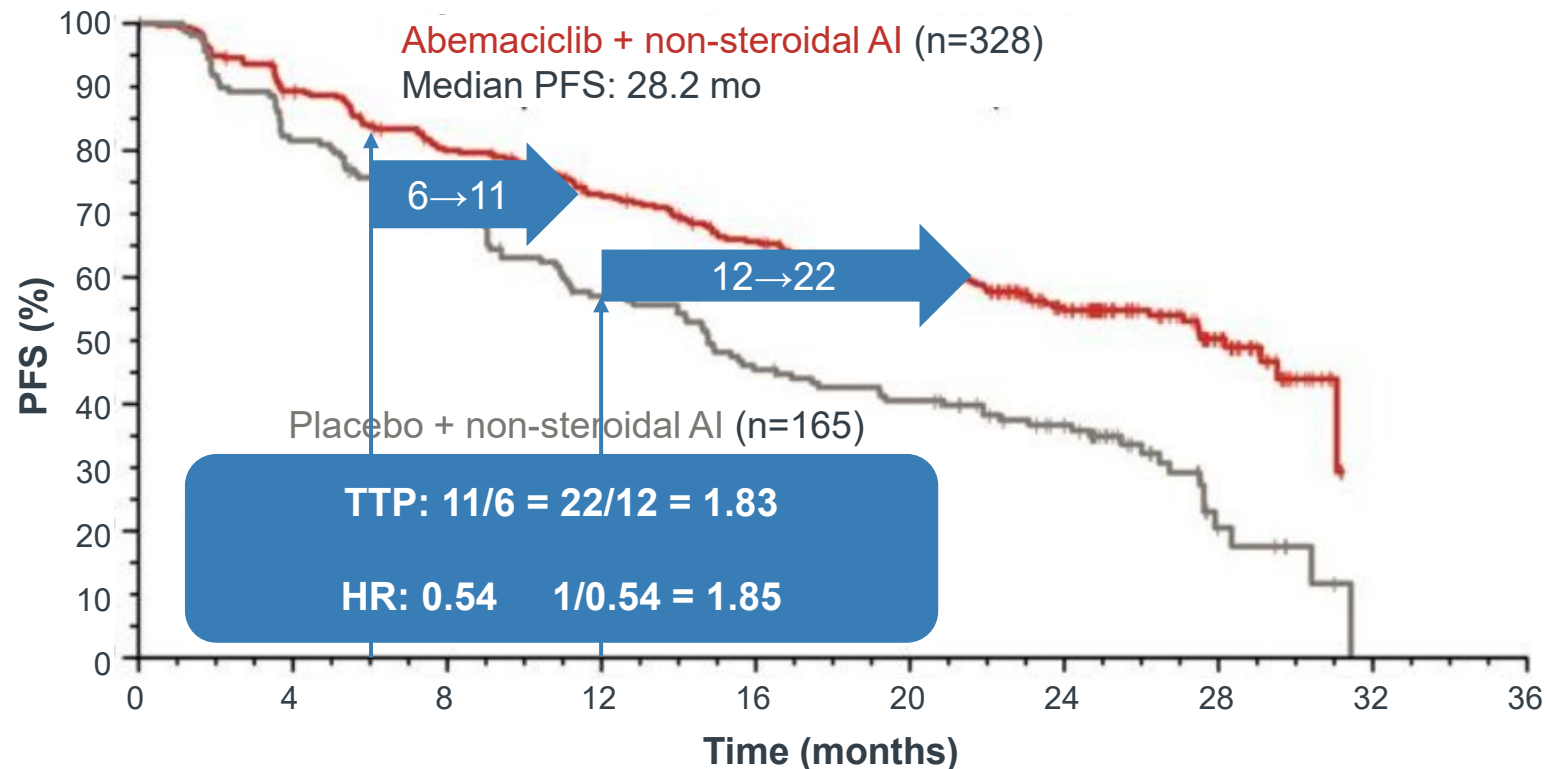
PFS: HR vs. gain in time to progression?



Example: Final PFS in MONARCH 3 – a randomized study of abemaciclib as initial therapy for advanced breast cancer



Example: Final PFS in MONARCH 3 – a randomized study of abemaciclib as initial therapy for advanced breast cancer



Large treatment benefit for few patients

1. KM curves become parallel after a while (and ideally flat)



The difference in percentage of progression-free/alive patients is an appropriate measure of treatment effect

However:

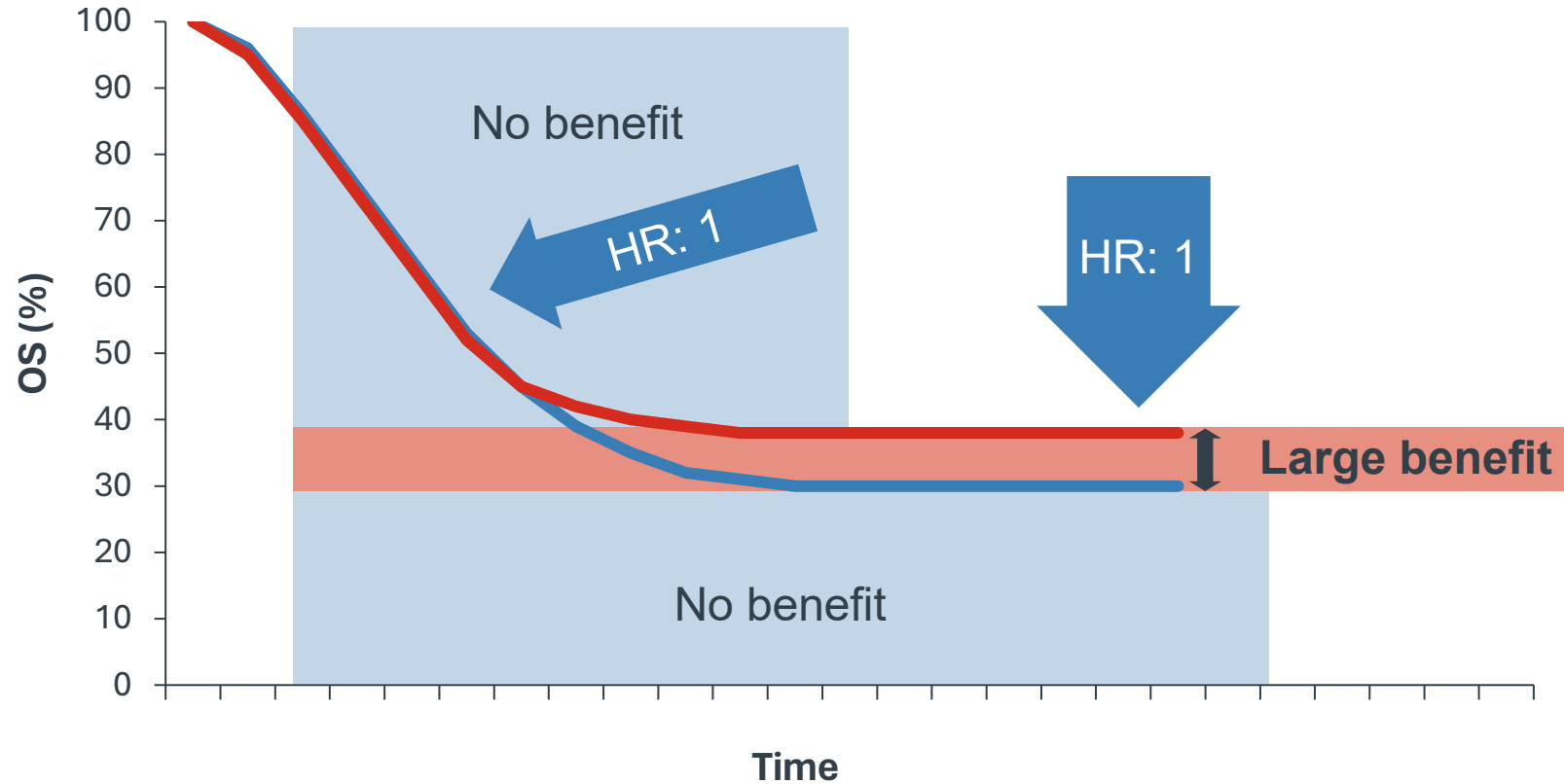


HR is not appropriate when the difference in the proportion of progression-free/alive patients is not constant



An increase in median/mean survival is not representative of the treatment effect across the whole patient population

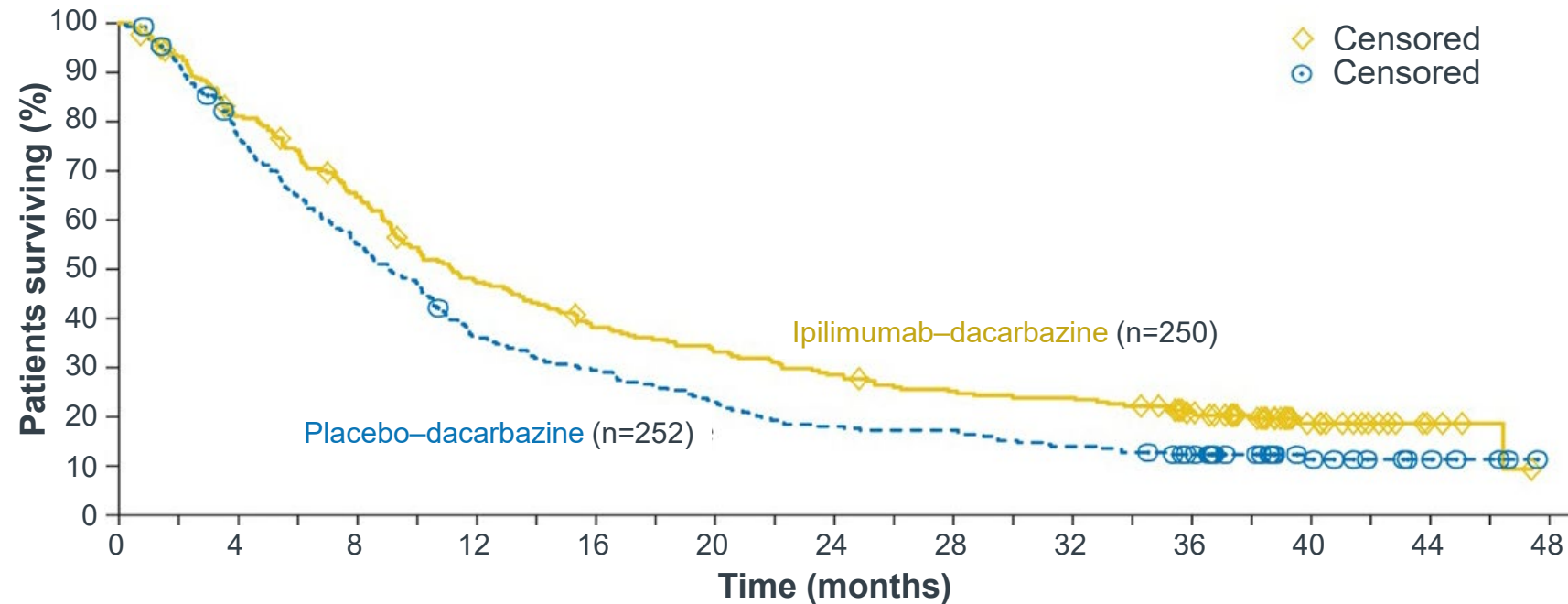
Different proportion of long-term survivors



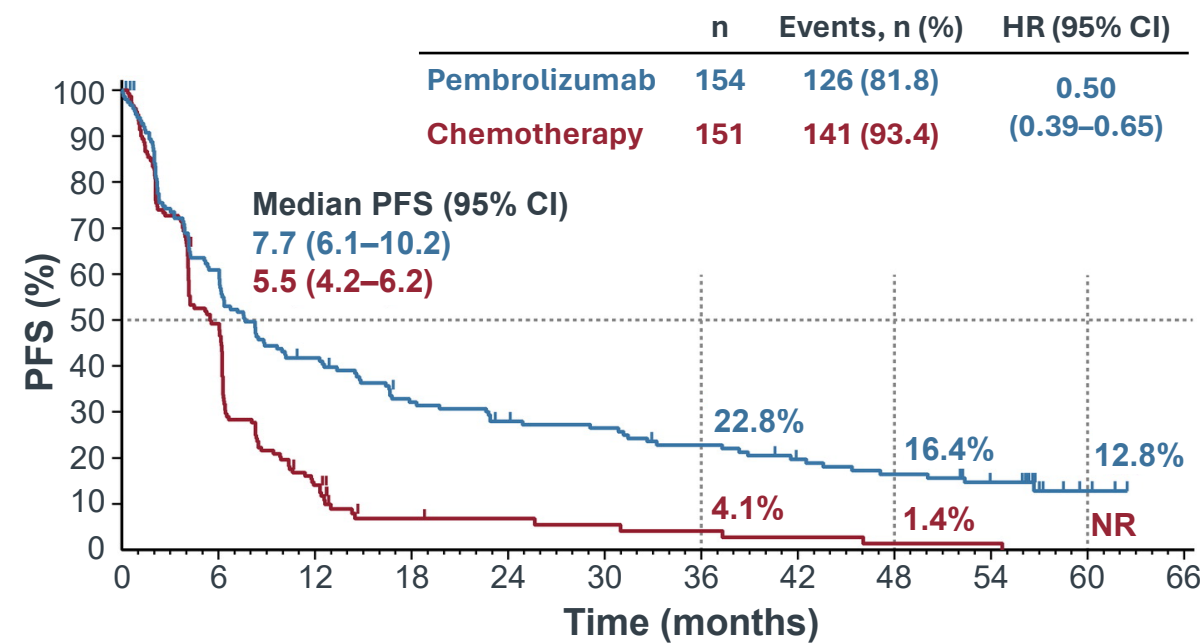
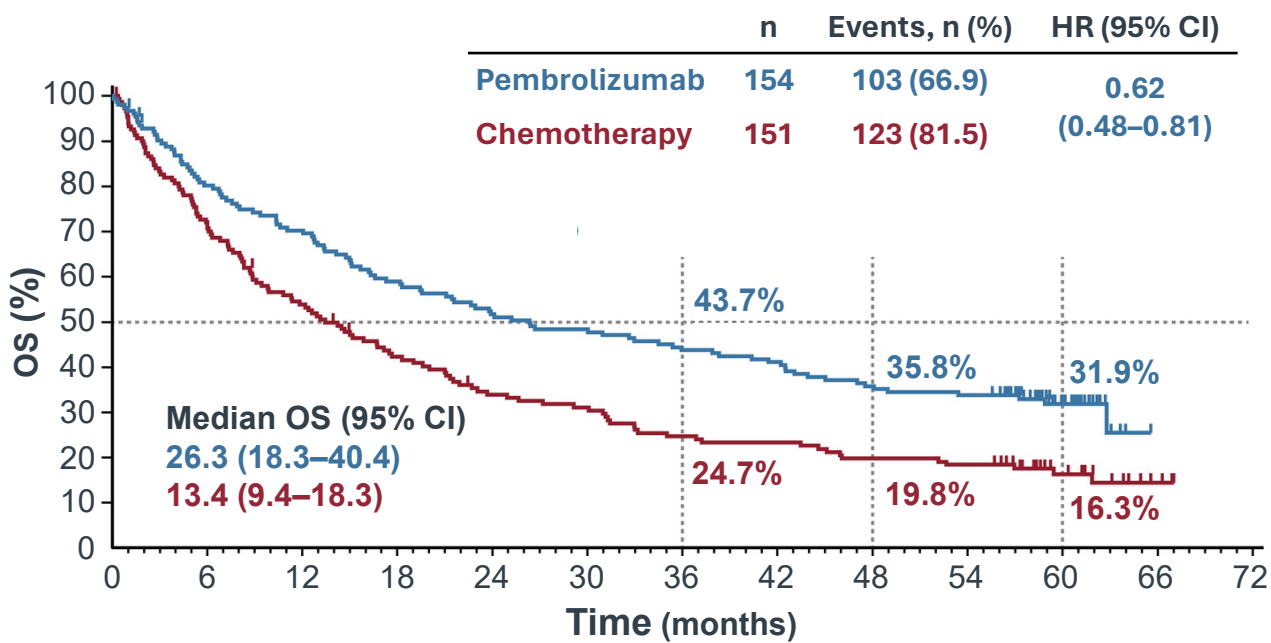
HR, hazard ratio; OS, overall survival.

Figure included for illustrative purposes only. Slide courtesy of Paolo Bruzzi.

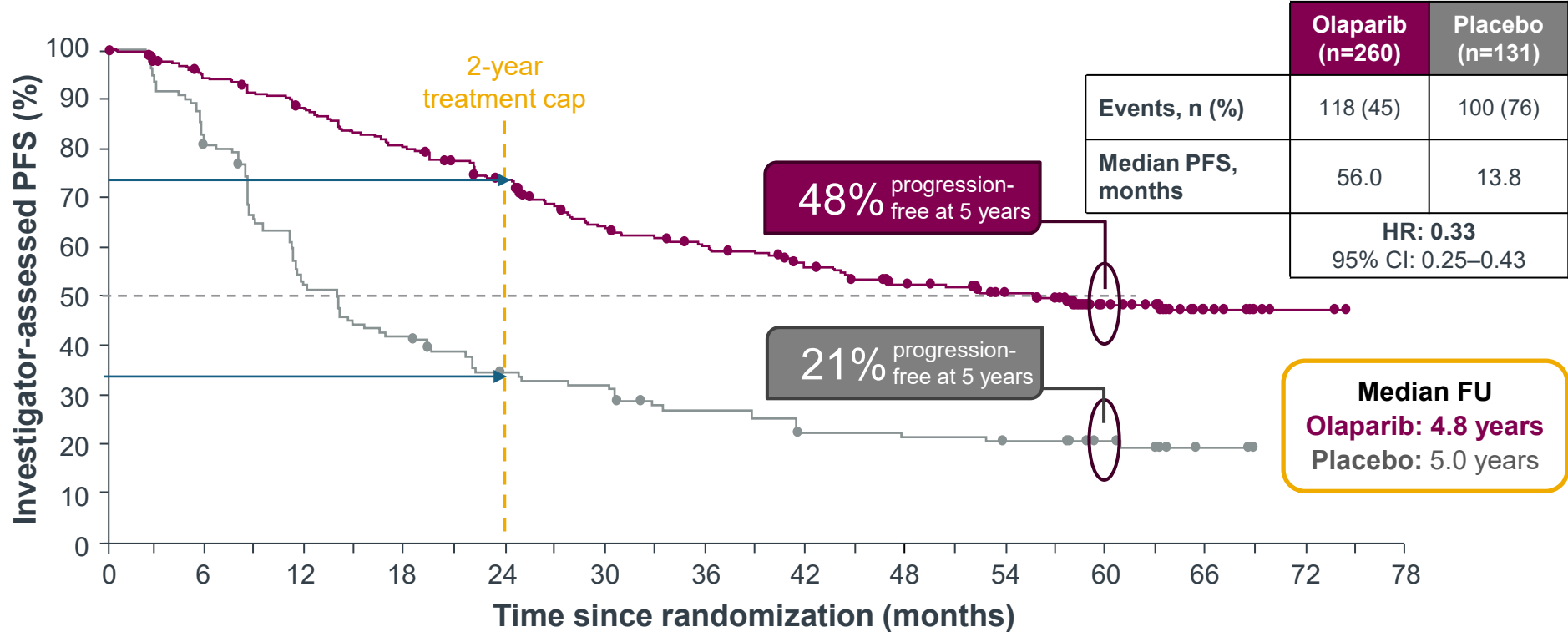
Example: Ipilimumab plus dacarbazine for previously untreated metastatic melanoma



Example: 5-year outcomes with pembrolizumab vs. chemotherapy for metastatic non–small cell lung cancer

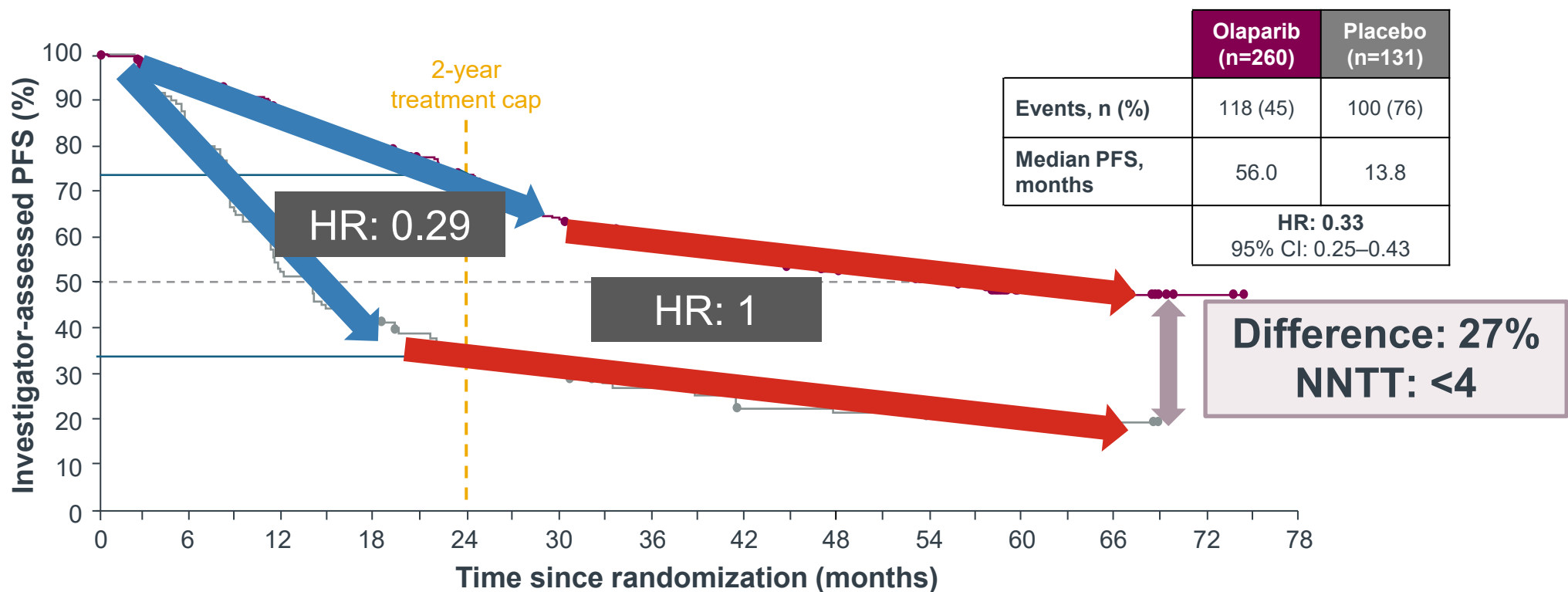


Example: Patients with OC and a *BRCAM* in response after first-line platinum-based chemotherapy derived significant PFS benefit from maintenance olaparib



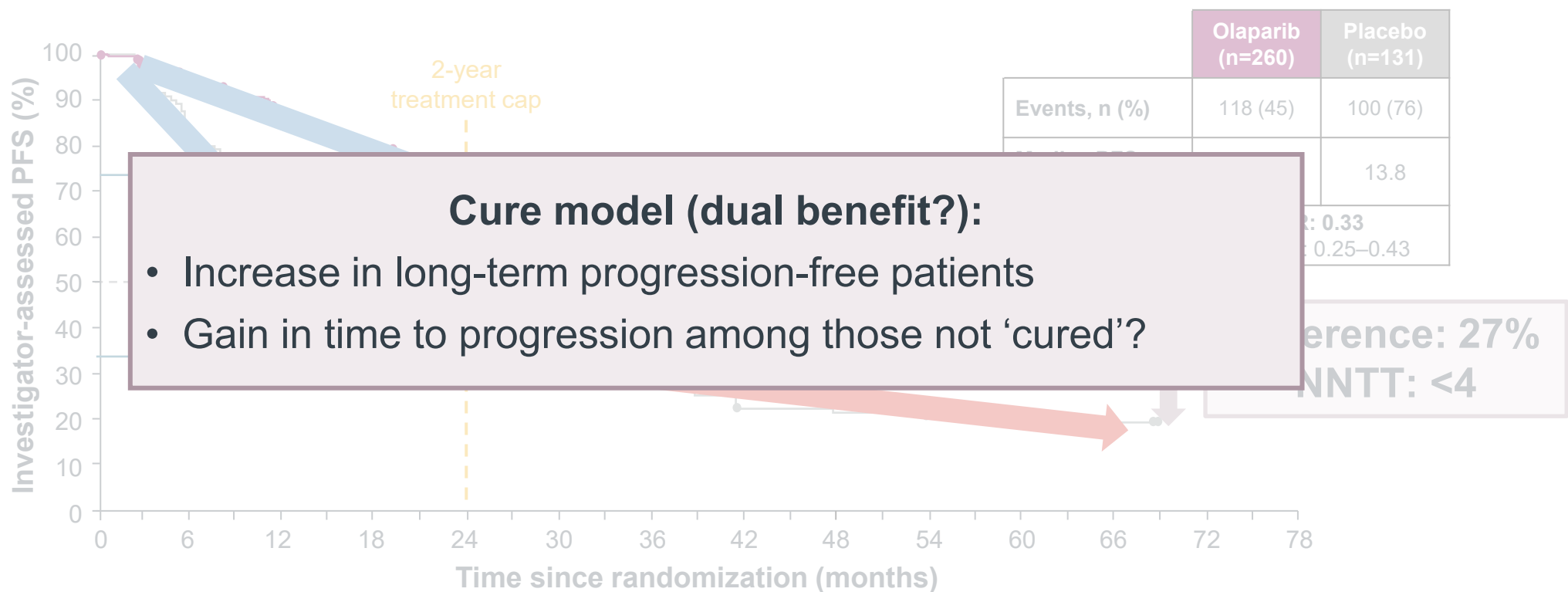
Data cut-off: March 2020. Investigator-assessed PFS. Median follow-up: olaparib, 4.8 years; placebo, 5.0 years.
CI, confidence interval; FU, follow-up; HR, hazard ratio; OC, ovarian cancer; PFS, progression-free survival.
Banerjee S et al. *Lancet Oncol* 2021; 22 (12): 1721–1731.

Example: After 5 years' FU, the PFS benefit derived with maintenance olaparib was sustained substantially beyond the end of treatment



Data cut-off: March 2020. Investigator-assessed PFS. Median follow-up: olaparib, 4.8 years; placebo, 5.0 years.
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Conclusions

The summary indicators commonly used to describe the effect of anticancer treatments have different meanings and are not interchangeable

Proportion of
long-term
survivors

HR

Mean time to
event

Understanding the type(s) of effect(s) of a specific treatment has important clinical implications (e.g. *small-for-many* vs. *large-for-few*)

Summary indicator

Meaning

Small treatment benefit for many patients

Increase in **median time to event**
(in restricted mean survival time)

All patients have the same (≈)
absolute gain (e.g. 3 years)

HR

All patients have the same (≈)
proportional gain (e.g. +50%)

Large treatment benefit for few patients

Increase in the **proportion of
long-term survivors**
(e.g. OS, PFS)

Few patients have **large benefit**
(become long-term survivors);
most do not have any benefit

2. Statistical plan, statistical significance, and multiplicity

Multiplicity

The general issue

Multiple endpoints

Solutions

**Interim analyses
(subgroup analyses)**

Statistical plan

**A detailed statistical plan should be prepared
before the start of the trial**

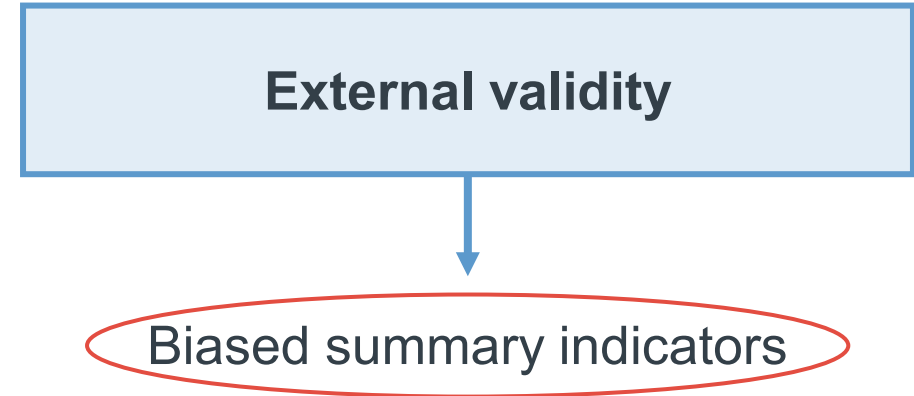
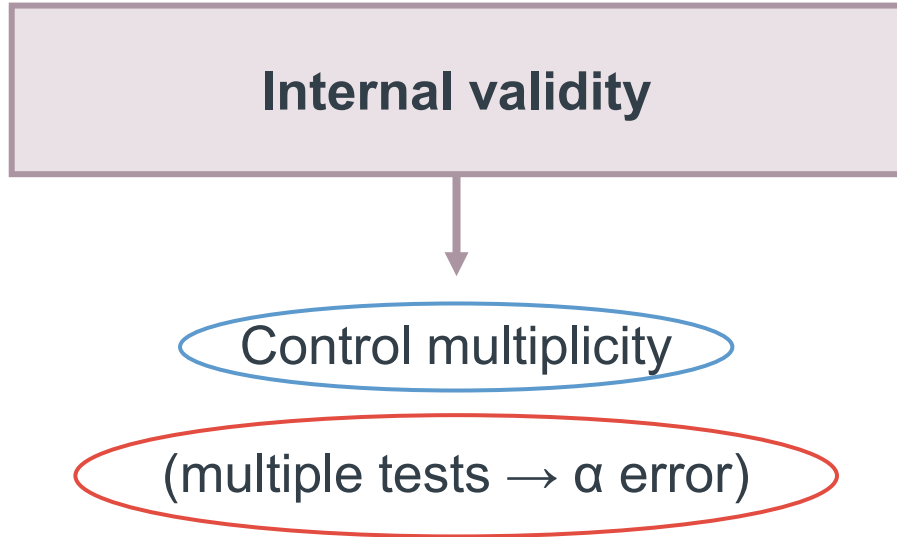
(If the trial is double-blind, the plan can be prepared after the start of the study but before treatment codes are opened)

Statistical plan

- Contents:
 - Primary and secondary endpoints
 - Statistical analysis plan (contrasts, tests, populations, subgroup analysis)
 - Interim analyses
 - Significance levels
 - Power – sample size
 - Summary indicators

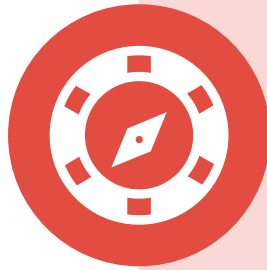
WHY?

Why is a statistical plan needed?



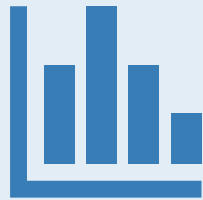
Multiplicity

With an increasing number of analyses, the probability of finding, **BY CHANCE**, some noteworthy difference increases

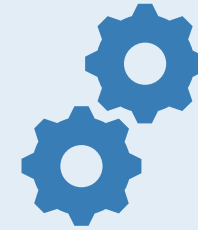


- Five consecutive reds at the roulette wheel
- Two cases with the same inherited mutation
- Three long-term survivors with advanced NSCLC

Analysis of RCTs: Reference criteria

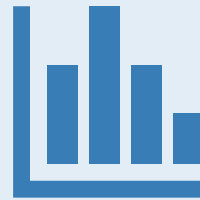


Statistical



Methodological

Analysis of RCTs: Reference criteria



Statistical

All statistical analyses must be explicitly predetermined (endpoint, transformations, test, timing, subgroups)

MULTIPLICITY

Multiplicity



- If I look for any possible treatment effect, **BY CHANCE**, I will always find some difference:
 - Overall mortality, cause-specific mortality (50 causes)
 - QoL (six different domains)
 - Incidence of AEs (50 possible) and favorable events (50 possible)
- If, afterward, I focus on the one(s) showing a difference, I can always demonstrate that a treatment is effective (less toxic, etc.)

The problem with multiplicity

- Statistical P : Probability to observe a difference as large as (or larger than) the one observed by chance if the null hypothesis (H_0) is true (the two therapies have the same efficacy)

Example:

Arm A Responses: 30/40 (75%)

Arm B Responses: 20/40 (50%); $P=0.02$

- The probability of observing a difference of this size **because of chance alone** is 2%
- Conventional significance level to reject H_0 : 5%

Therefore...



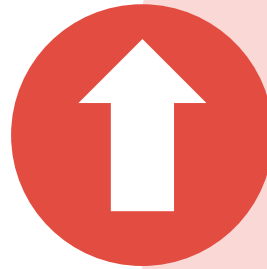
- We consider a difference as 'real' (i.e. not due to chance) when the probability that it occurred by chance alone is $<5\%$
- Significance level = frequency of false-positive analyses among all those in which H_0 is true

5%

Out of 100 studies (analyses) comparing treatments with the same efficacy, 5 studies will show a benefit of one treatment over the other just by chance (sampling error)

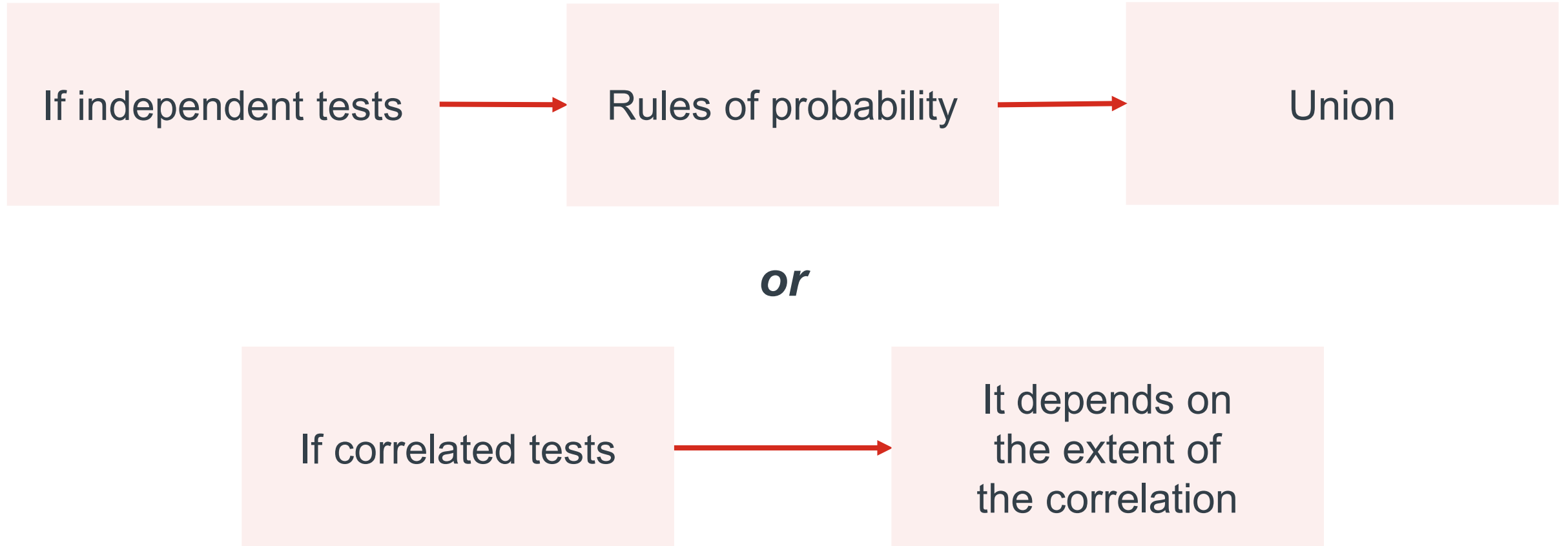
Consequences

- If more than one test is conducted in a study, the probability that at least one of them shows a statistically significant difference is $>5\%$



The probability of a false-positive test increases with an increasing number of tests

How much does it increase?



Risk of ≥ 1 false-positive test if independent

Number of tests	Probability $P < 0.05$
1	5%
2	9.75%
3	14.3%
5	23%
10	40%
20	64%
40	87%

Example

- Drug A vs. Drug B in a cancer
- Three factors (e.g. sex, <50 or >50 years old, Stage I/II)
- Probability of a significant difference despite $A = B$:
 - 5% in primary analysis
 - 30% with 7 analyses (primary + 3×2 subgroups)
 - **75% with all 27 possible combinations of the three factors**
- How many factors can be examined in any disease?
 - Patient/disease stage/biology, clinical history, etc.

Possible sources of multiplicity in a clinical trial

Multiple endpoints

Transformation of endpoints
(e.g. cumulative incidence
at 3, 5, 10 years vs.
survival curve)

Statistical test

Summary effect measure

Missing data

Interim analyses

Subgroup analyses

Critical distinction: Planned multiple tests vs. data-derived tests (post hoc analyses)

- **Planned multiple tests:**
 - Predetermined (study protocol)
 - Finite number
 - Statistical correction possible
- **Post hoc analyses:**
 - Number potentially infinite
 - The observation of an association induces a test of significance
 - Intensive crosstabulations in search of associations
 - **Lack of any statistical rationale/validity**



Multiplicity: General rules

- Before the start of the study, the number, time, and types of analyses are declared
 - E.g. two analyses in subjects <50 or >50 years old, or three analyses after 100, 200, and 300 events (final)
- A set of rules is established to decide if the study has led to a positive result (or to stop the study)
- These rules are built in such a way that the **overall** probability of an α error is the desired one (e.g. 5%)

Analysis of results: Strategy

- **Primary analysis (P -value)**
- **Interim analyses**
- **Secondary analyses**
 - **Other endpoints**
 - Subpopulations
 - **Subgroups (interactions)**
 - Multivariate analyses

For each analysis, the statistical plan establishes the statistical method to be used, when and how it will be conducted, and the decision rules (stop/go, positive/negative, P levels, etc.)



P
R
O
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Question



In ALPINE, the sample size was adjusted because the anticipated effect size of ibrutinib was changed based on new data.

Does this change introduce a bias?

Statistical plan (1)

- The statistical analysis plan should be prepared blinded to the study results



It should include all planned analyses with:

- ☐ Endpoints and summary indicators
- ☐ Contrasts analyzed for statistical significance
- ☐ Statistical tests with P -values used for rejecting the null hypothesis in each analysis
- ☐ Timing (number of events) of each analysis

Statistical plan (2)

- Changes in the statistical analysis plan (adaptations) are permitted as long as they do not introduce any bias into the trial
- Examples:
 - Adaptations of eligibility criteria¹
 - **Adaptations to maintain study power¹ (ALPINE²)**
 - Based on **blinded interim analyses** of aggregate data



No bias



**No need to be
(but better if)
planned in advance**

Bias-free adaptations to maintain study power

A. Based on blinded interim analyses



Low event rate (increase sample size)

Greater than expected proportion of patients with a good prognosis

Lower than expected proportion of patients in a critical subgroup

B. Based on external information from other trials (ALPINE)

Statistical plan (3)

- Adaptations based on **unblinded analyses**:



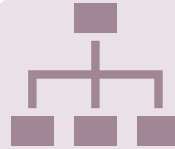
- For stopping early
- For dose selection studies
- Of patient subgroups based on treatment-effect estimates
- For endpoint selection based on interim estimates of treatment effect
- **Bias if not addressed in study design**

Methods to control multiplicity



1

Adjusted P -values



2

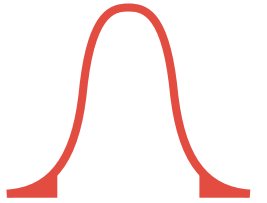
Hierarchical test procedures



3

Closed test procedures

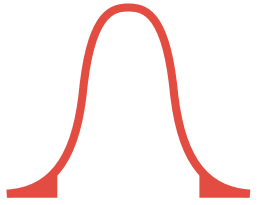
1. Adjusted P -values



- Note:
 - Adjusted P -values
 - Alpha spending function
 - Alpha split
 - Others

Same meaning: In each analysis, a P -value < 0.05 is used to ensure that the overall probability of a 'significant' result (rejecting the null hypothesis when true) is $< 5\%$

1. Adjusted *P*-values



= **Modified significance levels** (all $< \alpha$) that make the overall probability of a false-positive result equal to the desired α level (usually 5%)

Example

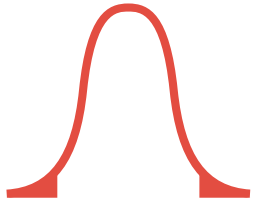
- If:
 - Desired significance level = 0.05 (5%)
 - Four analyses are planned
 - Study is positive if in at least one of these four analyses
 $P < 0.05/4 = 0.0125$ (Bonferroni)

NB the correct formula is:

Significance level for n analyses at the overall significance level P :
required p at each analysis = $1 - (1 - 0.05)^{1/n}$

Therefore, for $n=4$ and $P=0.05$, the required p is 0.127

1. Adjusted P -values



Single-step methods

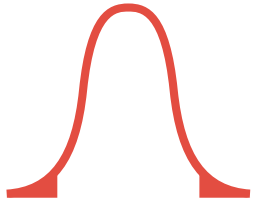
- Examples: Bonferroni, Simes, Dunnett, ...

Stepwise methods

The rejection or non-rejection of a particular hypothesis may depend on the decision made on other hypotheses

- Examples: Holm, Hochberg, step-down Dunnett...

1. Adjusted P -values



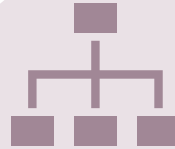
- **All methods involve a loss of statistical power**
 - Limit the number of analyses
 - Increase the sample size
 - Use hierarchical procedures
 - The Bonferroni method is the most conservative (least powerful)
 - Other more complex methods generally used

Methods to control multiplicity



1

Adjusted P -values



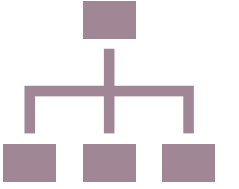
2

Hierarchical test procedures



3

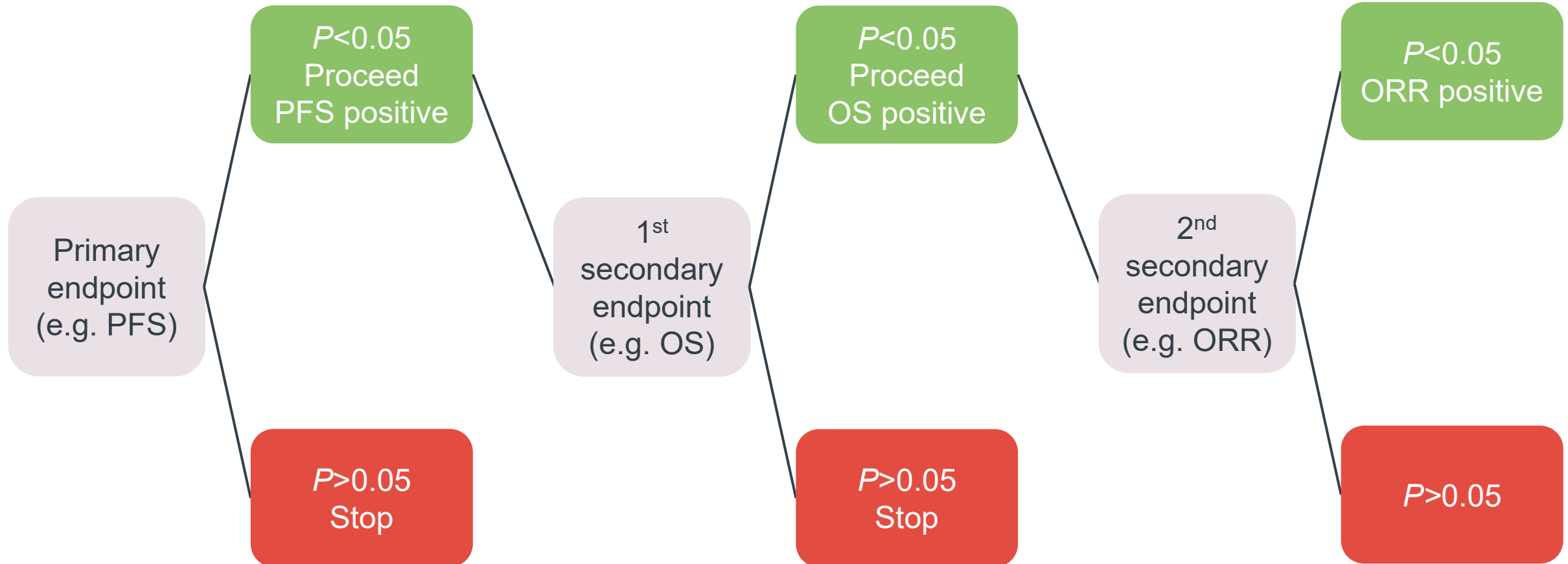
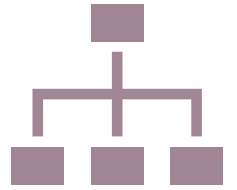
Closed test procedures

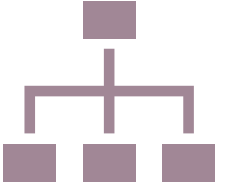


2. Hierarchical test procedures

- Hypotheses are ordered in sequence and tested at level α until the first non-rejection
- In practice, first test:
 - If $P > 0.05 \rightarrow$ stop (negative study)
 - If positive $\rightarrow$ second test
- **NO CORRECTION OF THE SIGNIFICANCE LEVEL IS REQUIRED**
- Sequence based on relevance, power, plausibility, etc.

2. Hierarchical test procedures (example)





2. Hierarchical test procedures

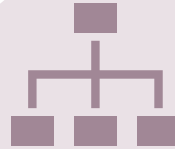
- No loss of power for the first analysis
- Frequently used for multiple endpoints
- Risk of missing relevant treatment effects if the order of tests is incorrect (e.g. OS then PFS)

Methods to control multiplicity



1

Adjusted P -values



2

Hierarchical test procedures



3

Closed test procedures



3. Closed test procedures

- General principle to build procedures for multiple tests
- Used to protect the α error while maintaining efficiency (reduced loss of power)
- Many of the previously mentioned procedures (e.g. Holm, hierarchical) are based on this principle

Analysis of results: Strategy

- Primary analysis (P -value)
- **Interim analyses**
- **Secondary analyses**
 - **Other endpoints**
 - Subpopulations
 - **Subgroups (interactions)**
 - Multivariate analyses
- Unplanned analyses: **merely exploratory aims**
 - **Used to plan other studies**



Question



ELEVATE-TN

Acalabrutinib ± obinutuzumab vs obinutuzumab + chlorambucil in treatment-naïve chronic lymphocytic leukemia: 6-year follow-up of Elevate-TN¹

What do the *P*-values for PFS and OS mean for A vs. A + O when the trial was powered to compare A arms vs. chemo + O?

ELEVATE-TN

Background

“Previous reports of ELEVATE-TN ... demonstrated superior efficacy of acalabrutinib (A) ± obinutuzumab (O) compared with O + chlorambucil (Clb) in patients (pts) with treatment-naïve (TN) chronic lymphocytic leukemia (CLL). Herein, updated results at 74.5 mo of follow-up are reported.”

Conclusions

“With a median follow-up of 74.5 mo, the efficacy and safety of A+O and A monotherapy were maintained in pts with TN CLL, including in pts with high-risk genetic features. At 6 years of follow-up, PFS was significantly longer in pts treated with A+O vs A. Median OS was NR in any treatment arm and was significantly longer in pts treated with A+O vs O+Clb.”

Methods

“All analyses are ad-hoc and P-values are descriptive.”

Possible sources of multiplicity in a clinical trial

Multiple endpoints

Transformation of endpoints
(e.g. cumulative incidence
at 3, 5, 10 years vs.
survival curve)

Statistical test

Summary effect measure

Missing data

Interim analyses

Subgroup analyses

Possible sources of multiplicity in a clinical trial

Multiple endpoints

Transformation of endpoints
(e.g. cumulative incidence
at 3, 5, 10 years vs.
survival curve)

Statistical test

Summary effect measure

Missing data

Interim analyses

Subgroup analyses

Multiplicity: Cases considered



Co-primary endpoints



Interim analyses



Subgroup analyses

Illustrative trial

	Anturane		Placebo		<i>P</i> -value
	Number of patients	Number of events	Number of patients	Number of events	
Total, n	813	74	816	89	0.28
Ineligible patients, n	38	10	33	4	–
Eligible patients, n	775	64	783	85	0.10
Unanalyzable deaths, n	–	20	–	23	–
Analyzable deaths, n	–	44	–	62	0.08
Analyzable cardiac deaths, n	–	43	–	62	0.06
Analyzable sudden cardiac deaths, n	–	22	–	37	0.04
Analyzable sudden cardiac deaths in first 6 months, n	–	6	–	24	0.003

N.B. Prevention of 75% of events

Multiple endpoints

Two strategies:



A. Co-primary endpoints

- The study is positive if **either endpoint** (or both) shows a significant difference
- Correction for multiplicity
 - E.g. if two analyses, the study is positive if either or both P -values $< 0.05/2 = 0.025$
- Loss of power



B. Hierarchical procedure

- Endpoints are ordered
- First endpoint tested:
 - If $P > 0.05 \rightarrow$ stop (negative study)
 - If $P < 0.05$, study is positive $\rightarrow$ proceed with subsequent endpoints until $P > 0.05$
- **No correction for multiplicity required**



Using both hierarchical tests and co-primary endpoints is conceptionally wrong and self-damaging. It results in a loss of power without any advantage in return.

Example: LUX-Lung 7

Afatinib versus gefitinib as first-line treatment of patients with *EGFR* mutation-positive non-small-cell lung cancer (LUX-Lung 7): a phase 2B, open-label, randomised controlled trial

[Prof Keunchil Park, MD](#)   • [Eng-Huat Tan, MD](#) • [Prof Ken O'Byrne, MD](#) • [Prof Li Zhang, MD](#) • [Prof Michael Boyer, MD](#) • [Prof Tony Mok, MD](#) • et al. [Show all authors](#)



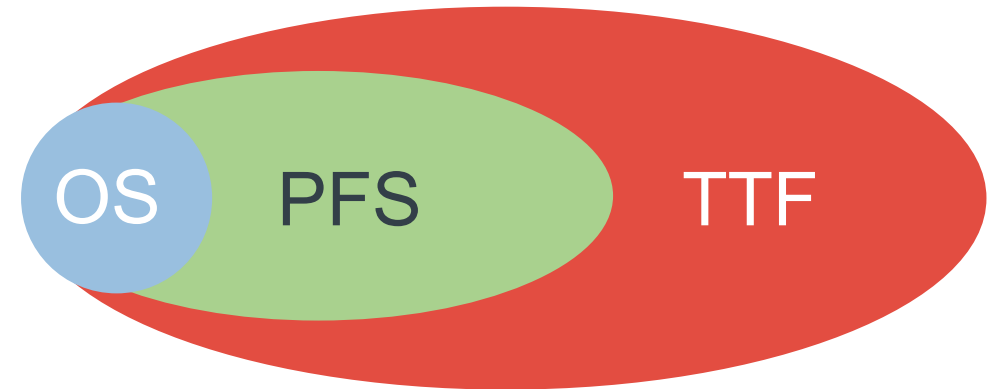
LUX-Lung 7: Three co-primary endpoints¹

Two solutions:

A

At least one must be significant

- Correction for multiplicity (e.g. $P < 0.05/3$)
- Loss of power



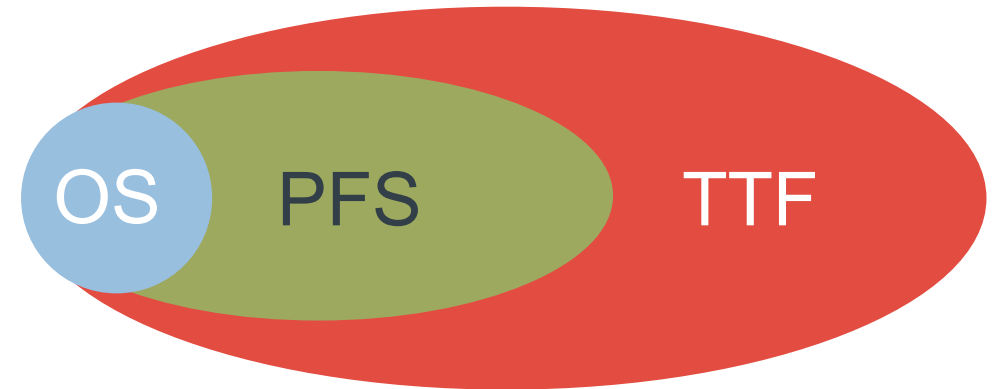
LUX-Lung 7: Three co-primary endpoints¹

Two solutions:

B

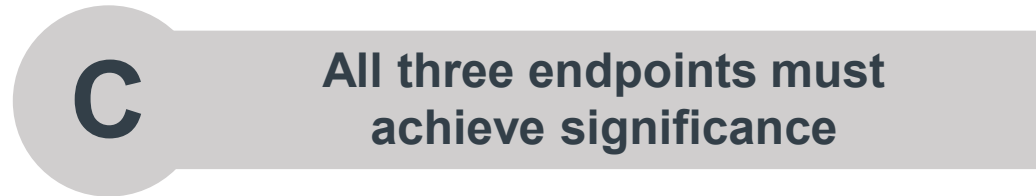
Hierarchical approach

- Order endpoints and stop when $P > 0.05$
- No need to correct for multiplicity



LUX-Lung 7: Three co-primary endpoints¹

Third 'solution' (the silliest one)



LUX-Lung 7: Final results

- Positive or negative study?



PFS: HR = 0.73 (95% CI: 0.57–0.95); $P=0.017$



TTF: HR = 0.73 (95% CI: 0.58–0.92); $P=0.0073$



OS: HR = 0.87 (95% CI: 0.66–1.15); **$P=0.33$**

Formally a negative study!

ALPINE: Study design

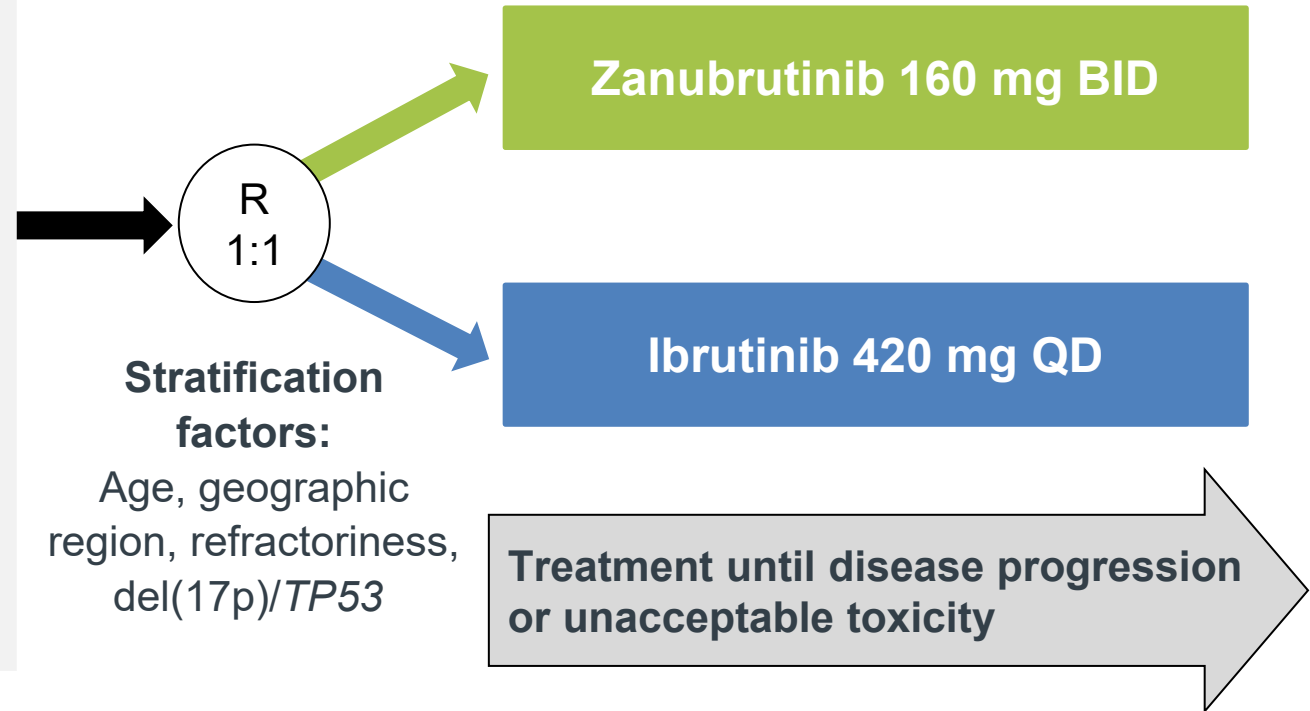
R/R CLL/SLL with ≥ 1 prior treatment
(Planned N=600; actual N=652)

Key inclusion criteria

- R/R to ≥ 1 prior systemic therapy for CLL/SLL
- Measurable lymphadenopathy by CT or MRI
- Requires treatment per iwCLL

Key exclusion criteria

- Prior BTKi therapy
- Treatment with warfarin or other vitamin K antagonists



ALPINE: Endpoints and statistical design

Primary endpoint

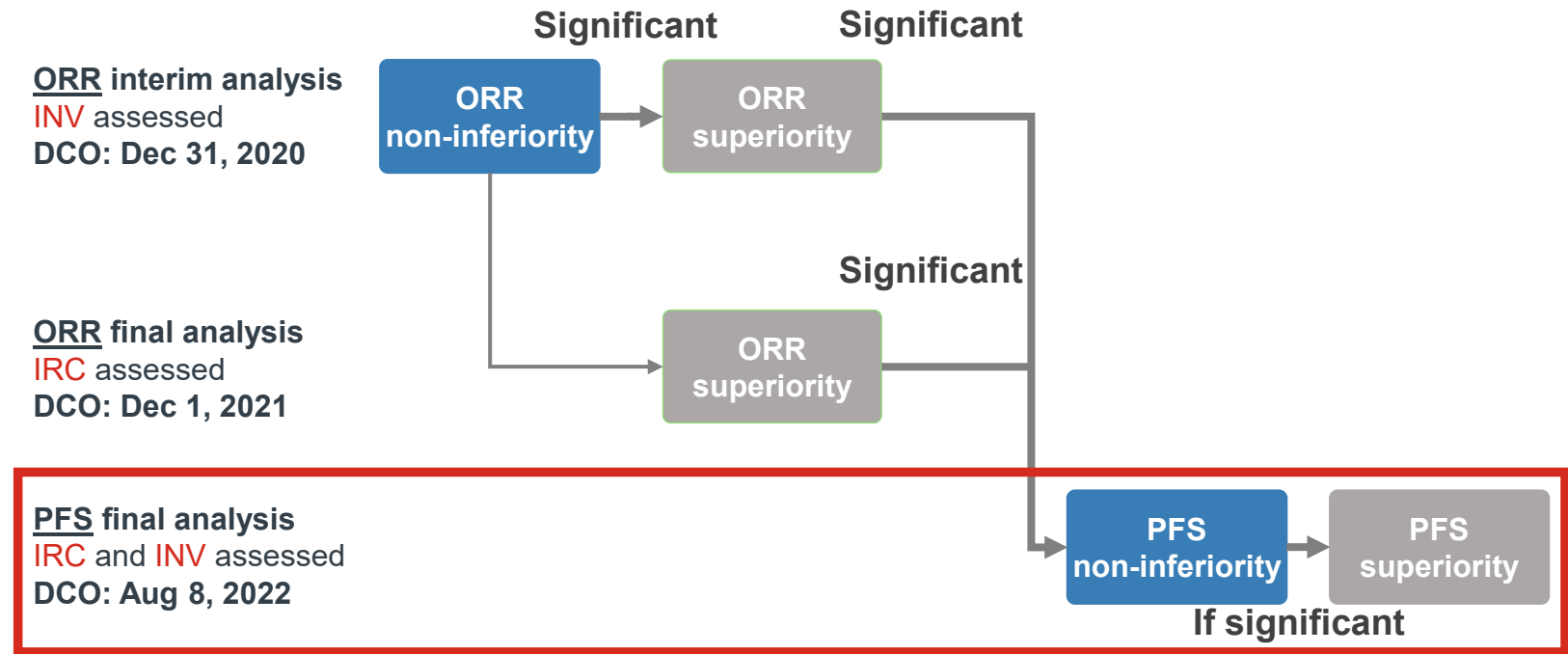
- ORR (PR + CR) non-inferiority and superiority (by investigator)

Key secondary endpoints

- PFS
- Incidence of atrial fibrillation

Other secondary endpoints

- DoR, OS
- TTF
- PR-L or higher
- Patient-reported outcomes
- Safety



- ORR non-inferiority and superiority were demonstrated in the ORR interim and final analyses
- PFS was tested for non-inferiority under hierarchical testing when 205 events had occurred

Classical interim analysis

Comparative analyses of the primary endpoint to evaluate if there is a 'significant' difference requiring/allowing **the study to be stopped**

Interim analyses

Appropriate methodology:



It is decided in advance when the analyses will be conducted

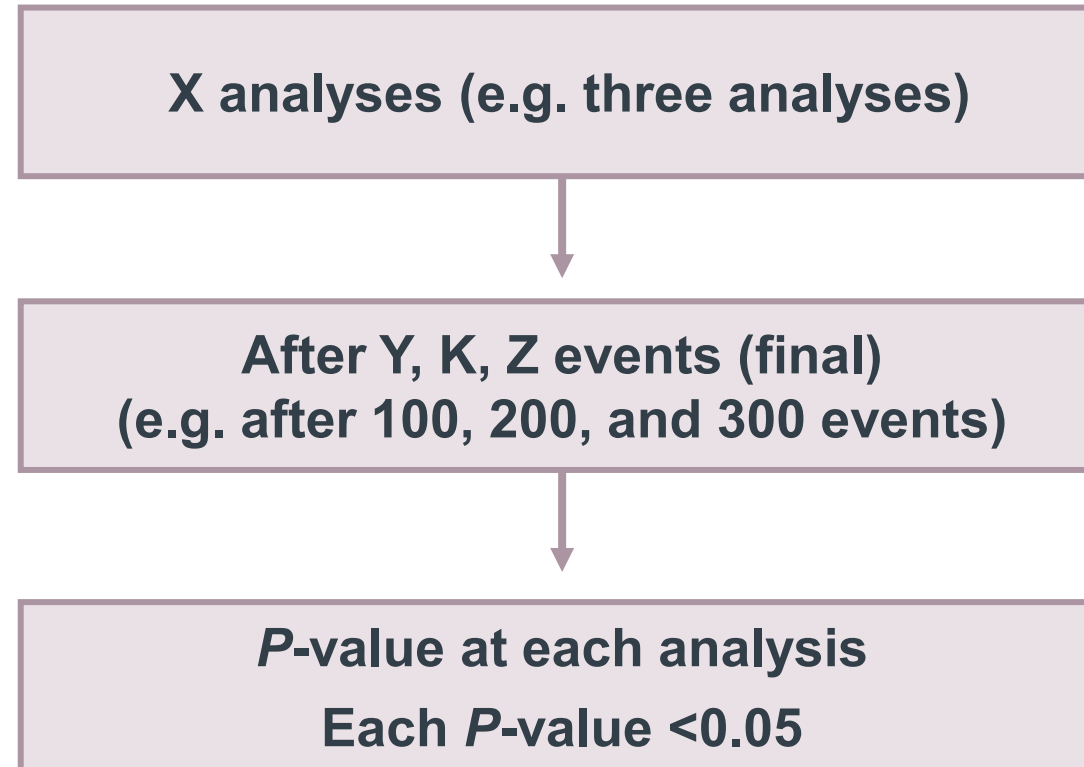


Adjusted P -values
The significance level required to stop the study is set at $P < 0.05$



Strict levels at interim analyses to safeguard the power of the final analysis

Most widely used method: Group sequential analyses



Spending functions

- In practice, a spending function of the α error is established

Example: Five analyses

‘Constant’ spending (rarely used)

	Analysis 1	Analysis 2	Analysis 3	Analysis 4	Analysis 5
The study is stopped if the <i>P</i> -value is less than:	0.0158	0.0158	0.0158	0.0158	0.0158

‘Variable’ spending

	Analysis 1	Analysis 2	Analysis 3	Analysis 4	Analysis 5
The study is stopped if the <i>P</i> -value is less than:	0.0051 or 0.0005	0.0061 or 0.0005	0.0073 or 0.0005	0.0089 or 0.0005	0.0402 or 0.05

Spending functions: Implications

- The 'spending functions' are computed to preserve the overall α error
- They involve a (usually moderate) loss of power
- With variable spending functions, the study is only stopped early if very strong effects are observed



Note:

- The 'spending functions' only take care of the α error
- Estimates of treatment effect are overestimated because of:
 - Regression to the mean
 - Only early events being considered

Futility-based interim analyses

Trials may be halted after an interim analysis, based on futility



Why?

- Experimental therapy / limited prior data
- Anticipated therapeutic toxicity
- Anticipated low efficacy (based on the results of prior studies)
- Anticipated changes to the therapeutic landscape (e.g. emerging therapies with greater potential)
- Slow accrual (e.g. rare diseases) / low rate of events
- Anticipated costs



How?

Futility-based interim analyses are based on the probability...

- ... of finding a significant difference at the end of the study (conditional power)
- ... that the experimental therapy has the desired efficacy (Bayesian monitoring)

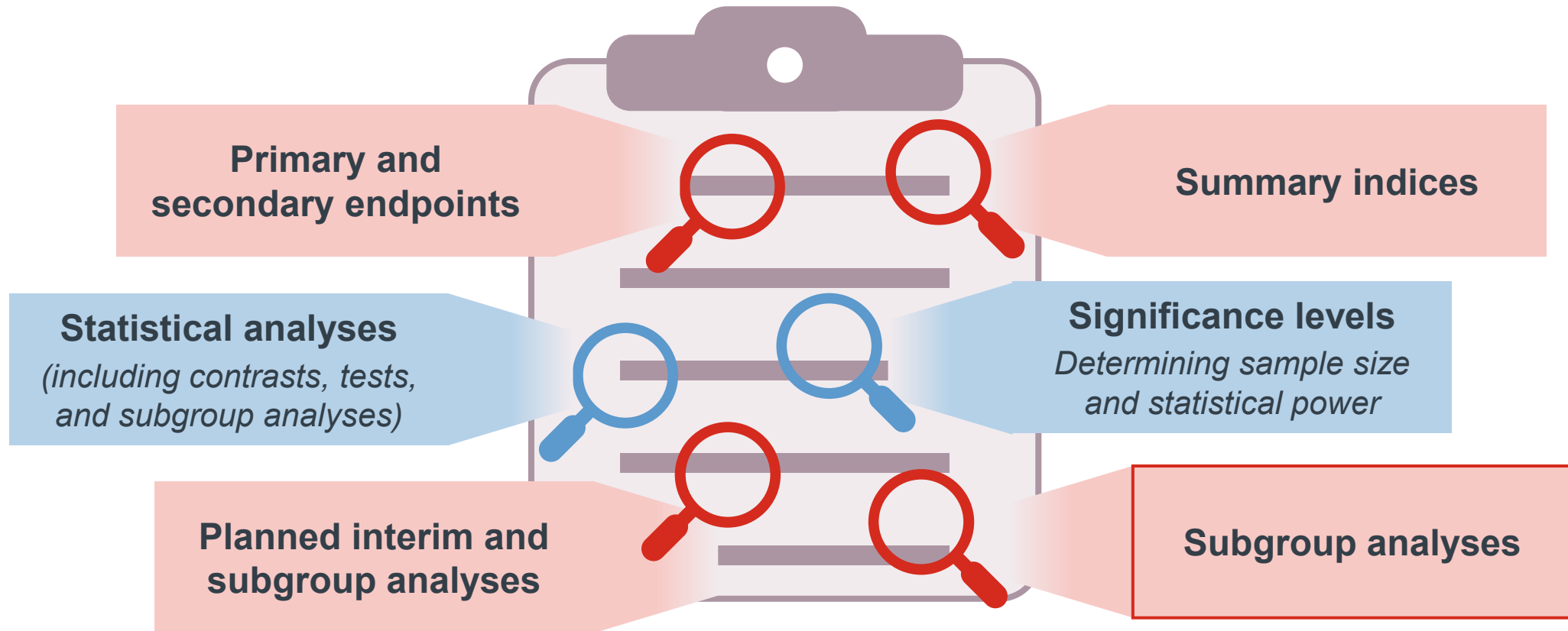
Interim analyses provide the opportunity to prematurely halt a trial without any ‘statistical penalties’

This can be a very useful tool to stop a study when enrollment is languishing, or the therapy is no longer of interest

Interim analyses: Conclusions

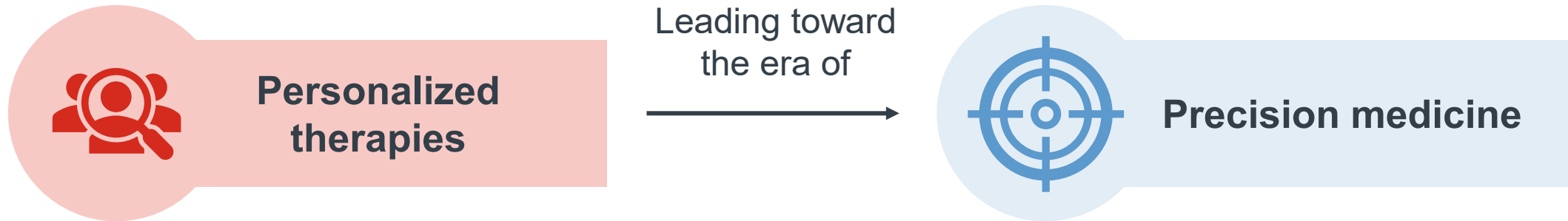
- Interim analyses:
 - Are a useful tool for long-term studies
 - Must be carefully planned
 - Require specialized statistical support
- Unplanned interim analyses may compromise the validity of the study
- Slow enrolment/low rate of events: futility

Statistical plan



Subgroup analyses

The aim of these is to provide information on the opportunity to treat different groups of patients differently, informing the development of:



Prognostic and predictive factors

Subgroup analyses can inform potential prognostic and predictive factors

Prognostic factors

- Predict outcome (with the same treatment)
- Do not require a randomized trial to identify
- Used in clinical decision-making (informing risk/benefit and cost/benefit)

For example:

Nodal status in early-stage breast cancer

- Strong prognostic effect (HR: 2)
- All adjuvant therapies have the same effect, regardless of nodal status

Predictive factors

- Predict the efficacy of the treatment in different patients
- Identified solely by subgroup analyses from randomized trials

For example:

- Hormone receptors: Efficacy of hormonal therapy in breast cancer
- PD-L1 expression: Efficacy of immunotherapy in solid tumors
- Tumor grade (differentiation): Efficacy of chemotherapy in NHL

Issues with subgroup analyses: Methodological

There are several methodological factors that can affect the validity of a subgroup analysis:



Retrospective vs. prospective

Not very important



Planned vs. unplanned

- Must always include a statistical plan
- If not planned = scientific exercise

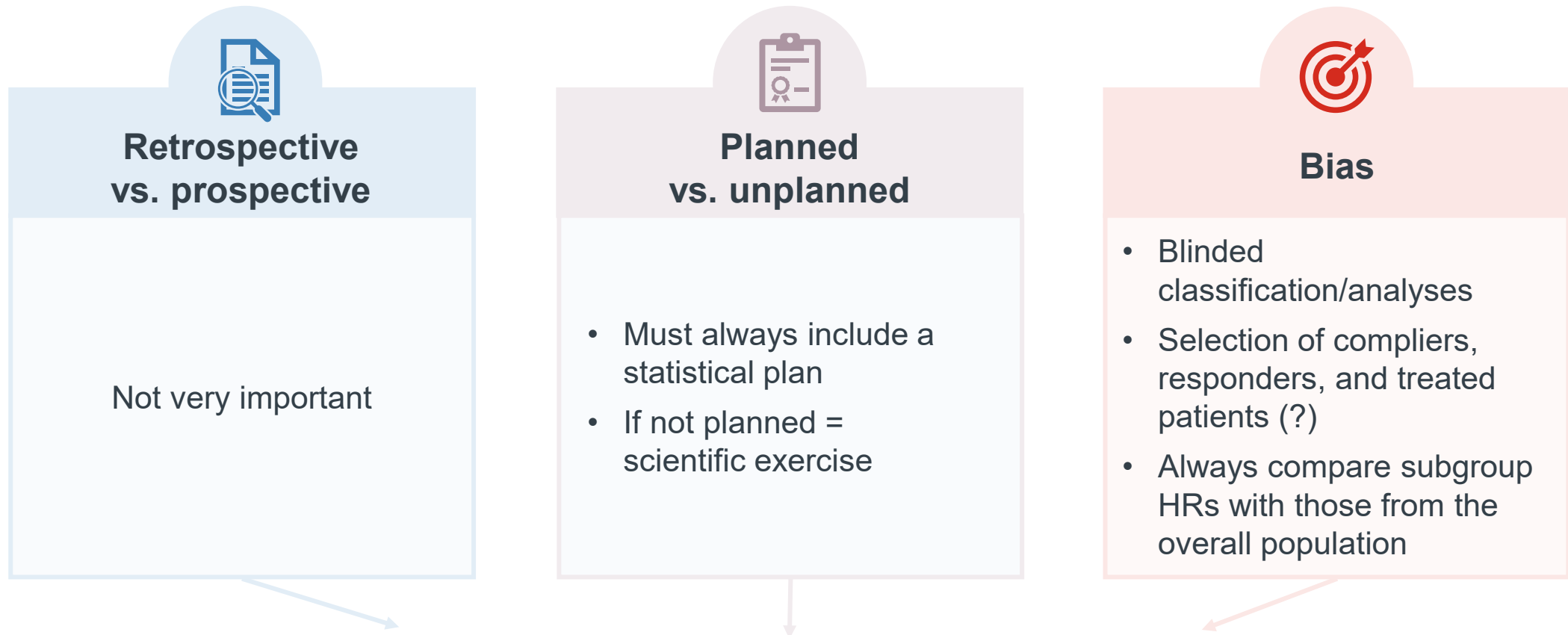


Bias

- Blinded classification/analyses
- Selection of compliers, responders, and treated patients (?)
- Always compare subgroup HRs with those from the overall population

Issues with subgroup analyses: Methodological

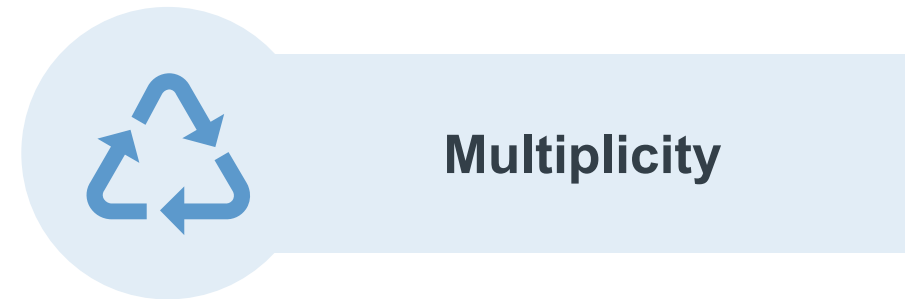
There are several methodological factors that can affect the validity of a subgroup analysis:



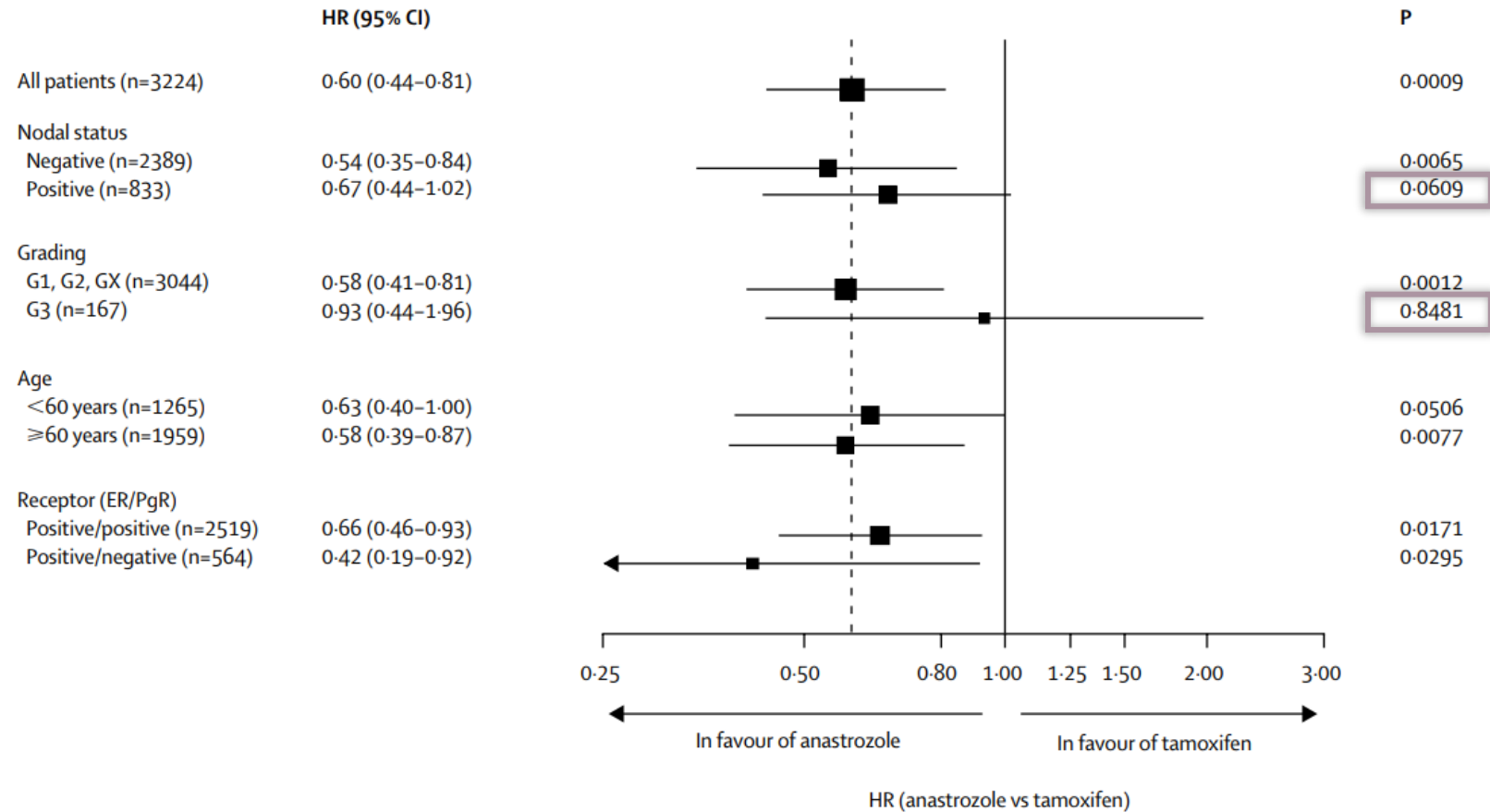
These should be defined in the study protocol

Issues with subgroup analyses: Statistical

The common statistical issues with subgroup analyses are:

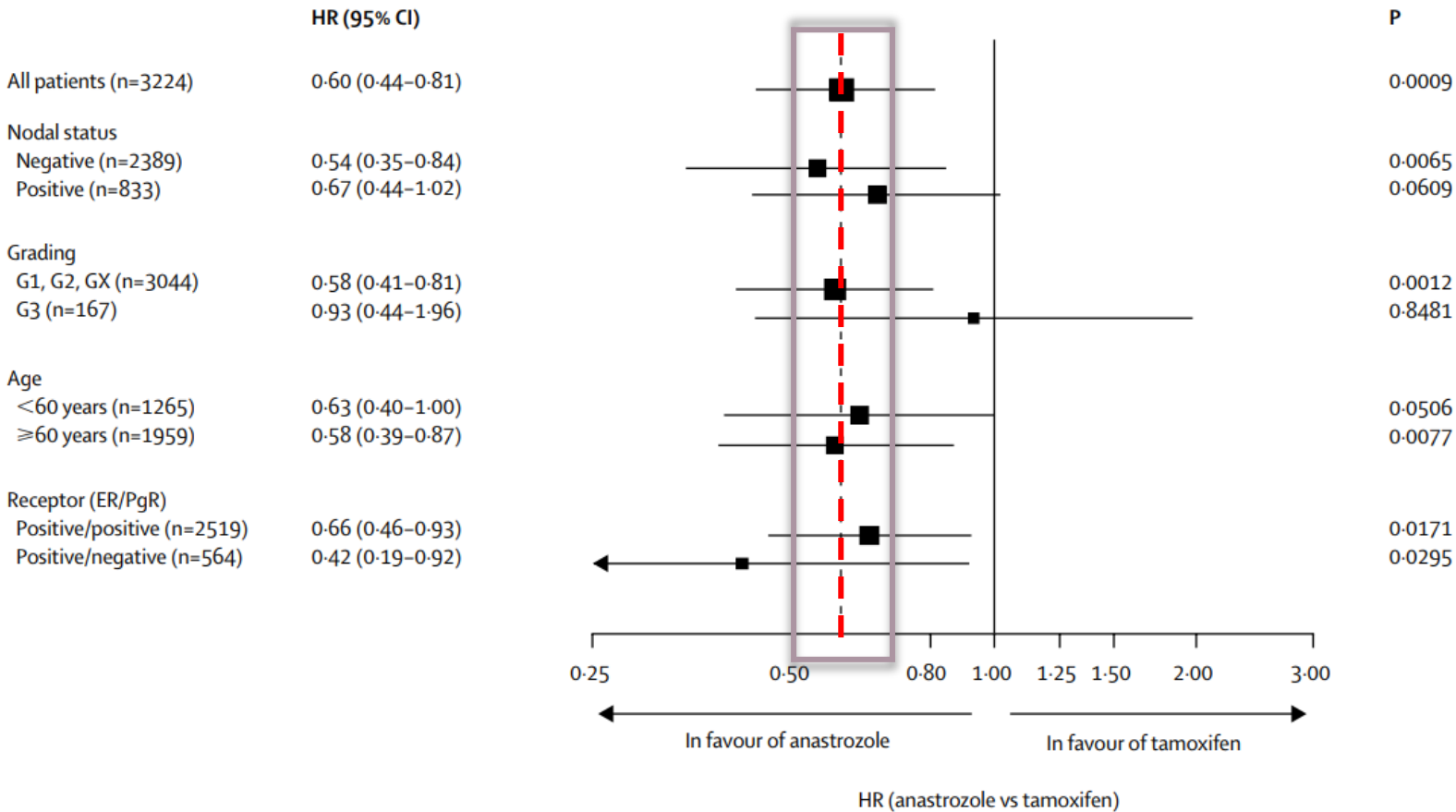


Improper significance testing



**In this forest plot,
the subgroup-specific
P-values are incorrect**

Proper subgroup analysis



Including the overall treatment effect level makes it easier to see if a subgroup CI differed significantly from the overall treatment effect

Figure included for illustrative purposes only.
 CI, confidence interval; ER, estrogen receptor; G, Grade; HR, hazard ratio; PgR, progesterone receptor.
 Jakesz R *et al. Lancet* 2005; 366 (9484): 455-462.

Improper significance testing

A **test of interaction** is required to correctly analyze subgroup analyses; this assesses the heterogeneity of the treatment effect



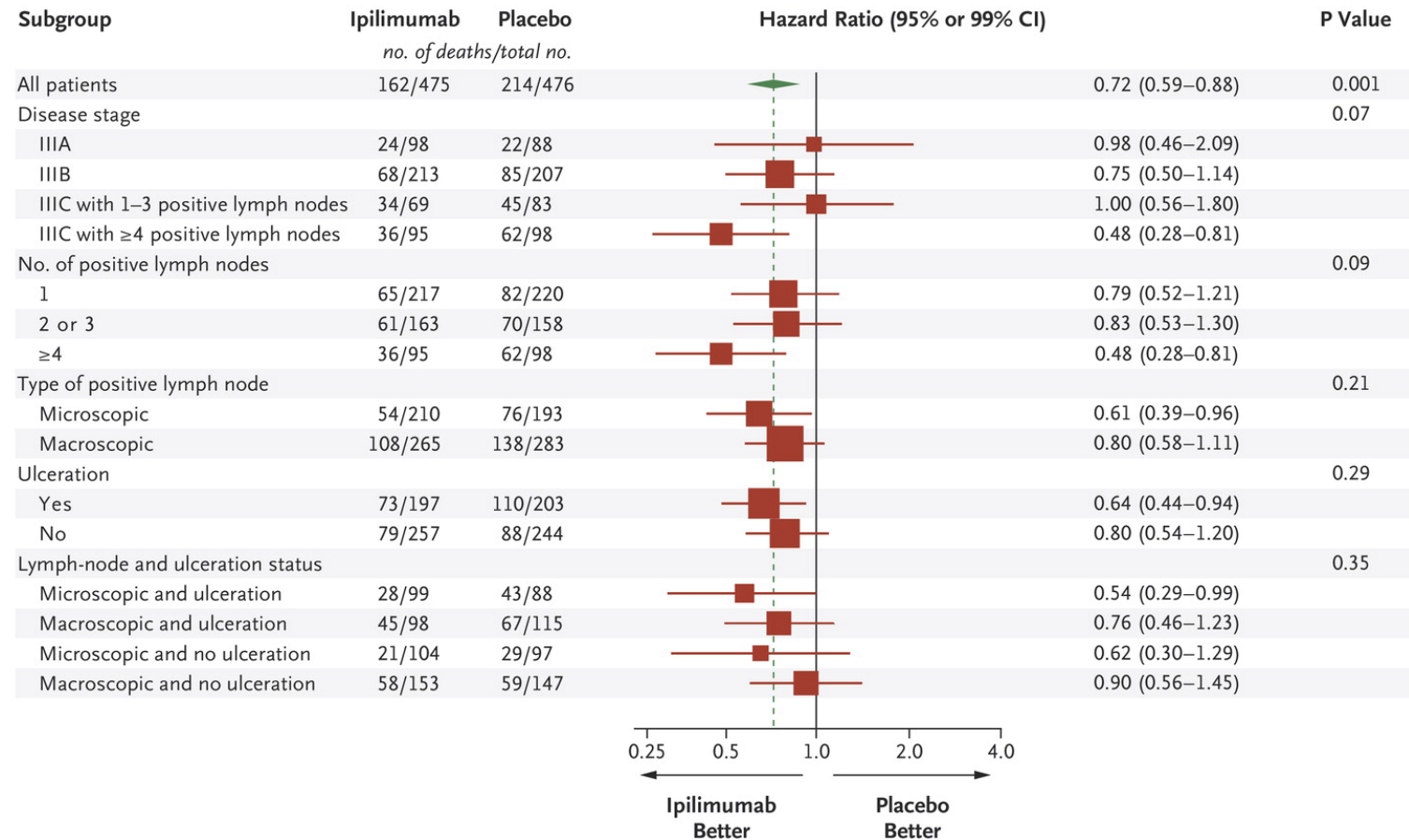
Test of interaction

New null hypothesis: The treatment effect is the same across all subgroups

- The observed variation in the treatment effect is compared with that expected by chance alone
- Small subgroups, large variations

Subgroup-specific *P*-values can be misleading and meaningless

Improper significance testing



Subgroup analysis methodology

In modern trial design, subgroup analyses are carefully designed to ensure validity of the results



Subgroup analysis methodology

- Careful planning to prevent selection and assessment biases
- Test for interaction: **H0 = the (lack of) effect is the same in all subgroups**
 - No subgroup-specific *P*-values should be calculated
- Controlling for multiplicity:
 - Planned vs. post hoc analyses
 - Exploratory vs. confirmatory analyses
 - *P*-value corrections

Larger data sets allow more POWERFUL subgroup analyses

Strategies for addressing multiplicity



Positive primary results

If all preceding statistical analyses are positive, **planned subgroup analyses remain valid**



Negative primary results

If any preceding statistical analyses were negative, **planned subgroup analyses will be invalid** if not corrected for multiplicity



α split required

e.g. 2% × primary analysis, 1% each × 3 interaction tests

Statistical analysis plan!

Predefined vs. post hoc endpoint analysis: Example

CLINICAL TRIALS AND OBSERVATIONS

Frontline low-dose alemtuzumab with fludarabine and cyclophosphamide prolongs progression-free survival in high-risk CLL

Christian H. Geisler,¹ Mars B. van t' Veer,² Jesper Jurlander,¹ Jan Walewski,³ Geir Tjønnfjord,⁴ Maija Itälä Remes,⁵ Eva Kimby,⁶ Tomas Kozak,⁷ Aaron Polliack,⁸ Ka Lung Wu,⁹ Shulamiet Wittebol,¹⁰ Martine C. J. Abrahamse-Testroote,¹¹ Jeanette Doorduijn,² Wendimagegn Ghidey Alemayehu,¹¹ and Marinus H. J. van Oers¹²

The following claim was made after the study:

“FCA prolonged the primary end point, progression-free survival (3-year progression-free survival 53 vs 37%, $P = .01$), but not the secondary end point, overall survival (OS).

However, a post hoc analysis showed that FCA increased OS in patients younger than 65 years (3-year OS 85% vs 76%, $P = .035$).”

But was this claim valid?

Predefined vs. post hoc endpoint analysis: Example

In addition to the primary endpoint (PFS) and secondary endpoint (OS), the following was defined in the statistical analysis plan:

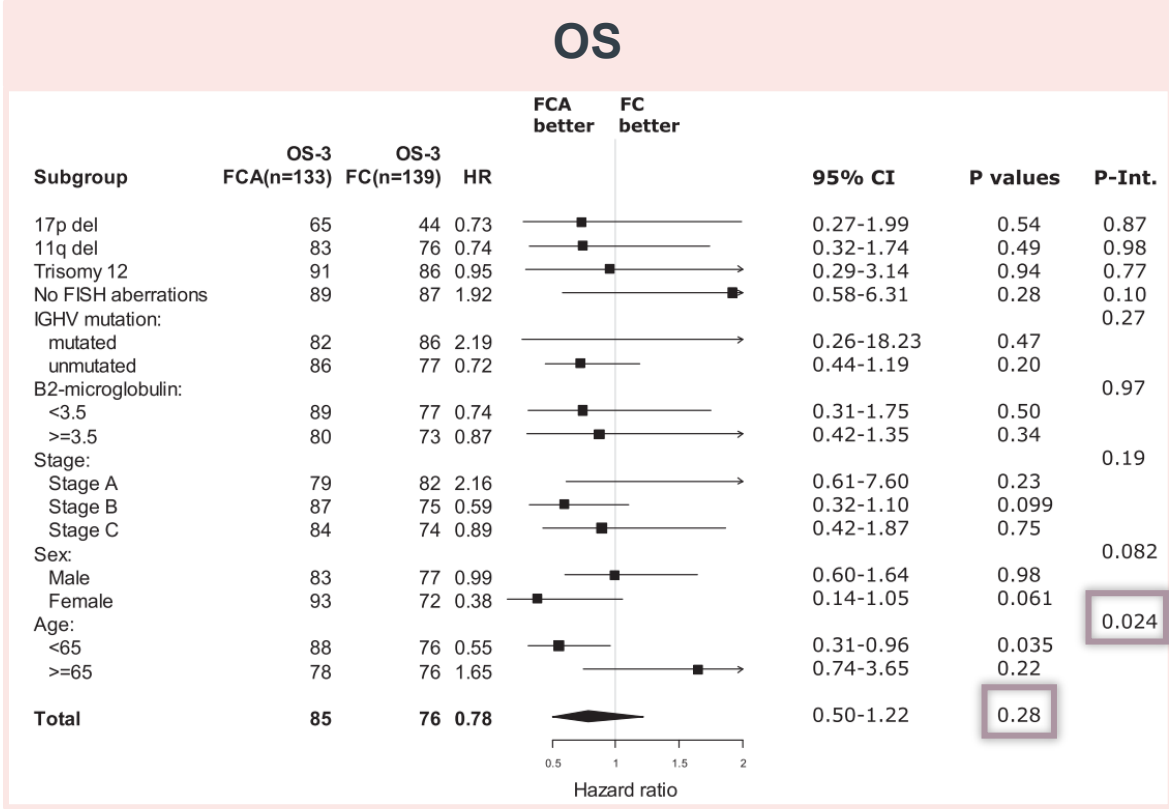
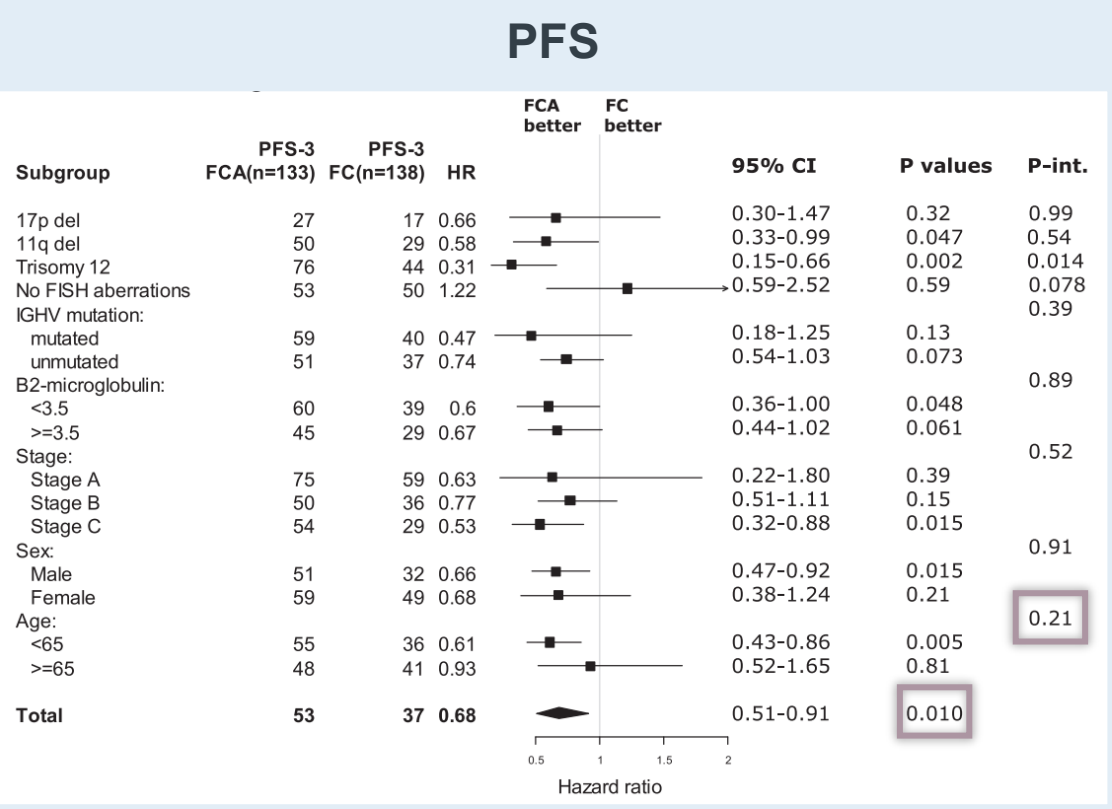
- “The treatment effects in subgroups were explored **in post hoc analyses by comparing the subgroup PFS and OS probabilities at 3 years**, ... performing tests, including Cox regression analyses, **for interactions with treatment arm.**”
- “The subgroups included genomic aberrations, IGHV mutational status, β_2 -microglobulin, clinical stage, sex, and age. In view of recent important reports of substantial differences in response to immunotherapy and PFS between younger and older patients, ... **the unplanned post hoc analysis included the outcomes of patients <65 and ≥ 65 years of age, respectively.**”

Planned post hoc analyses were designed to compare 3-year subgroup PFS and OS data with the overall treatment effect observed

Age-based subgroup analyses were unplanned

Predefined vs. post hoc endpoint analysis: Example

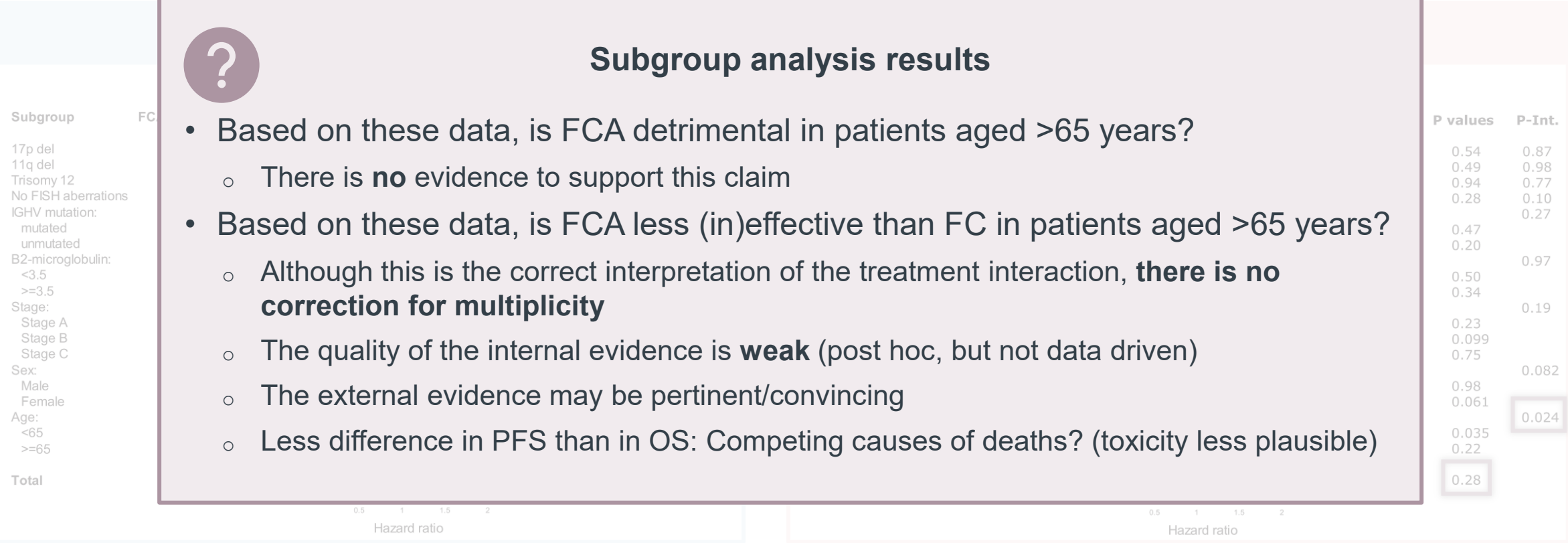
Is there sufficient evidence to claim an age-related treatment effect?



CI, confidence interval; del, deletion; FC(A), (alemtuzumab with) fludarabine and cyclophosphamide; FISH, fluorescence *in situ* hybridization; HR, hazard ratio; int., interaction; OS(-3), (3-year) overall survival; PFS(-3), (3-year) progression-free survival.
Geisler CH *et al. Blood* 2014; 123 (21): 3255–3262.

Predefined vs. post hoc endpoint analysis: Example

Is there sufficient evidence to claim an age-related treatment effect?



FC(A), (alemtuzumab with) fludarabine and cyclophosphamide; OS, overall survival; PFS, progression-free survival.
Geisler CH *et al. Blood* 2014; 123 (21): 3255–3262.

Conclusions

α
 P

Modern trials are sufficiently designed to avoid multiplicity arising from statistical analysis



However, available statistical techniques do not correct for overestimates of treatment efficacy arising from multiple analyses

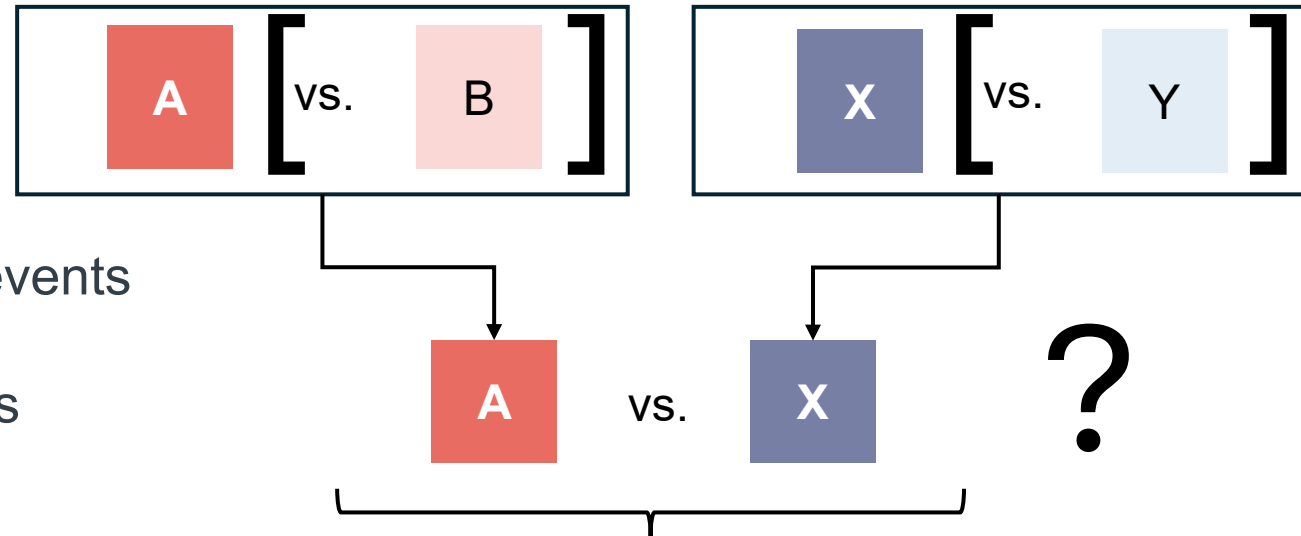
Multiplicity-corrected, statistically significant treatment effect estimates are biased, as they represent overestimations of the true treatment effects

3. Indirect comparisons

Indirect comparisons

Studies in which...

- a) Outcomes/incidences of clinical events
and
- b) Effects of treatments/interventions

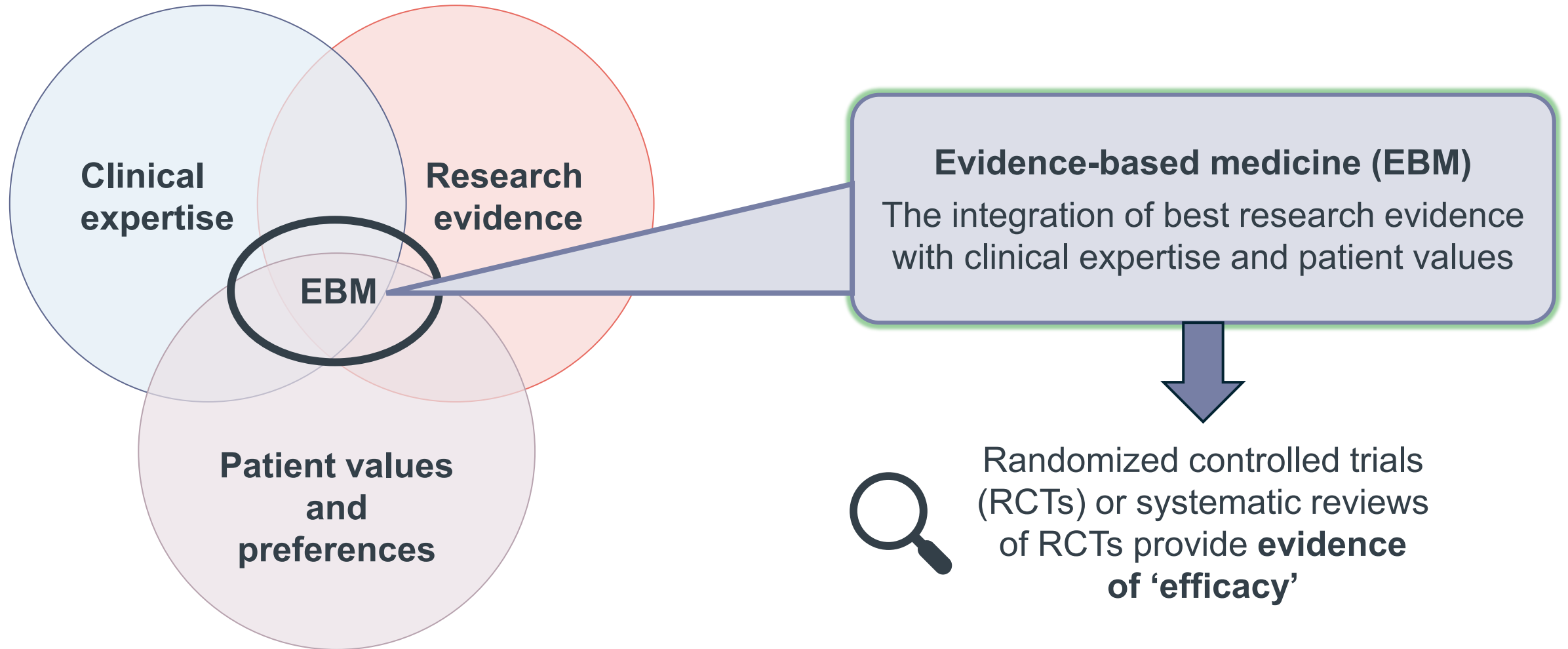


...are compared in groups of patients included in different studies



The aim is usually the comparative evaluation of the effectiveness and/or toxicity of different treatments or intervention strategies

Evidence-based medicine



Evidence (proof of efficacy)

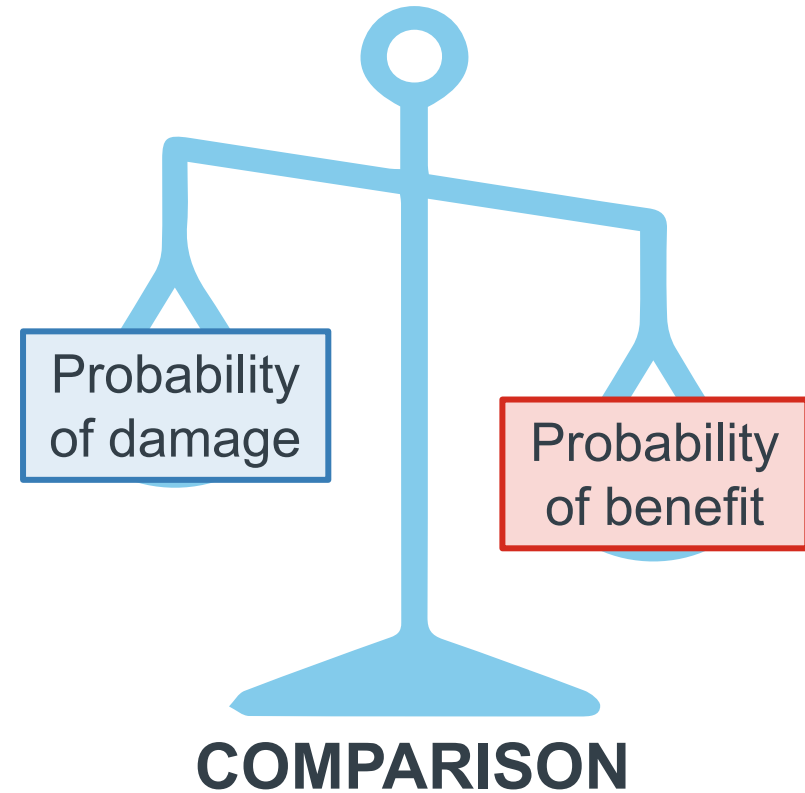


Results of one or more studies

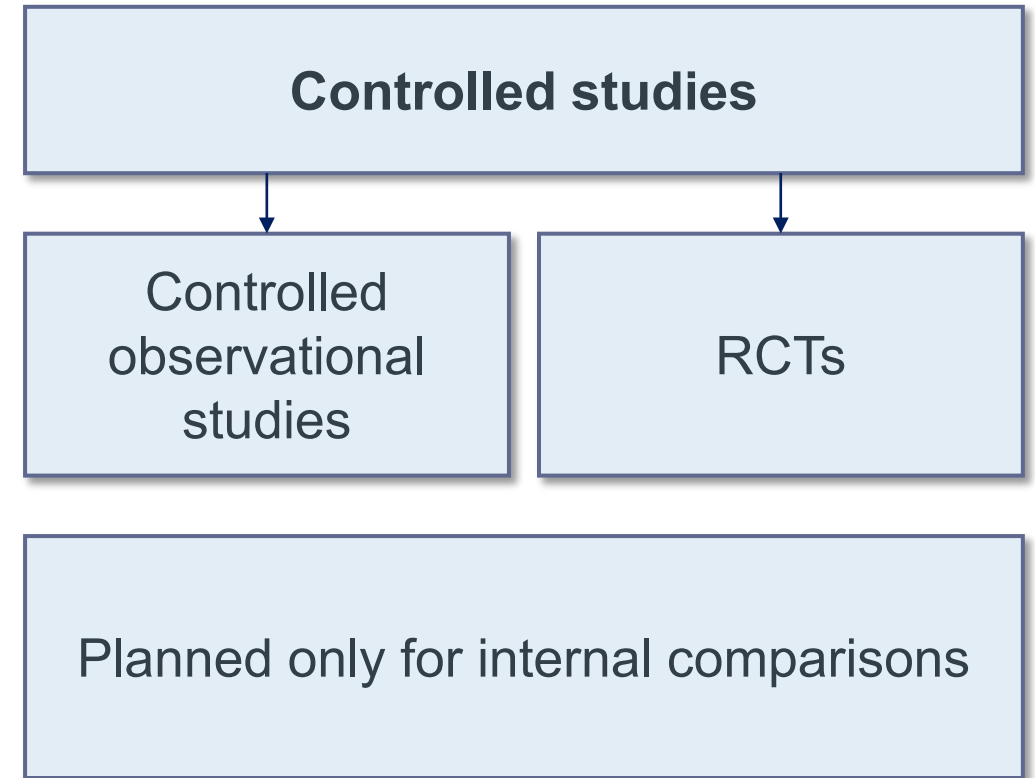
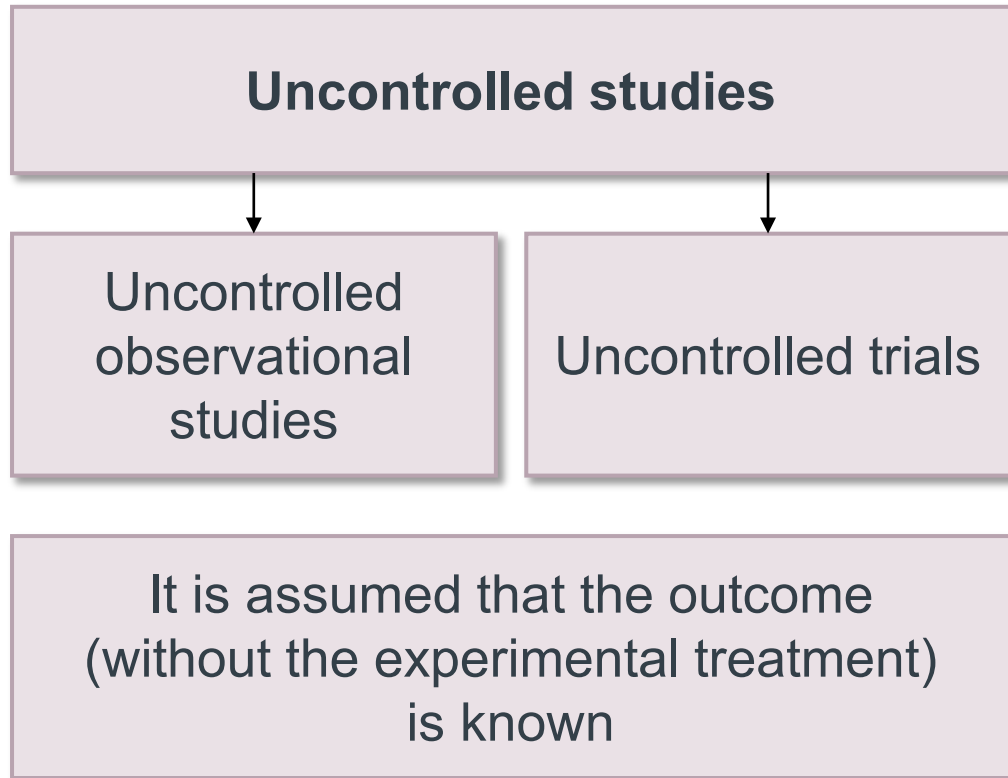
Evaluation



To what extent does an **intervention** (e.g., treatment, diagnosis action, etc.) represent a **valid option** for a patient?



Types of studies



Statistical analyses for comparison

Study designs



- Uncontrolled observational studies
- Controlled observational studies
- Uncontrolled trials
- RCTs

Statistical tools



- Univariate analysis
- Multivariate analysis
- Meta-analysis
- Meta-regression
- Network meta-analysis
- MAIC
- More complex analyses

Statistical analyses for comparison

Study designs



- Uncontrolled observational studies
- Controlled observational studies
- Uncontrolled trials
- **RCTs**

Statistical tools



- **Univariate analysis**
- **Multivariate analysis**
- **Meta-analysis**
 - Meta-regression
 - Network meta-analysis
 - MAIC
 - More complex analyses

What if there is no RCT addressing the question of interest?

Study designs



- Uncontrolled observational studies
- Controlled observational studies
- Uncontrolled trials
- ~~RCTs~~

Statistical tools



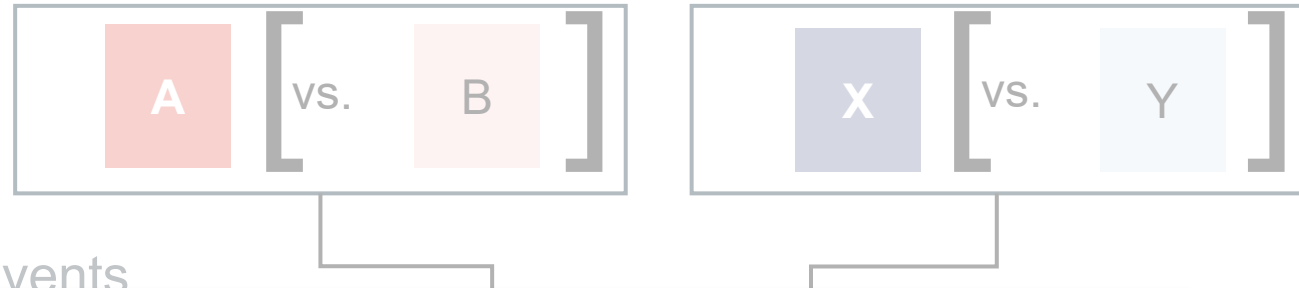
- **Univariate analysis**
- **Multivariate analysis**
- **Meta-analysis**
- Meta-regression
- Network meta-analysis
- MAIC
- More complex analyses



Indirect comparisons!

Indirect comparisons

Studies in which...



a) Outcomes/incidences of clinical events

b) Effects of treatment

Can these be trusted?

...are compared in groups of patients included in different studies



The aim is usually the comparative evaluation of the effectiveness and/or toxicity of different treatments or intervention strategies

And if there is no RCT addressing the question of interest?

Study designs



- Uncontrolled observational studies
- Controlled observational studies
- Uncontrolled trials
- RCTs

Statistical tools



- Univariate analysis
- Multivariate analysis
- Meta-analysis
- Meta-regression
- Network meta-analysis
- MAIC
- More complex analyses

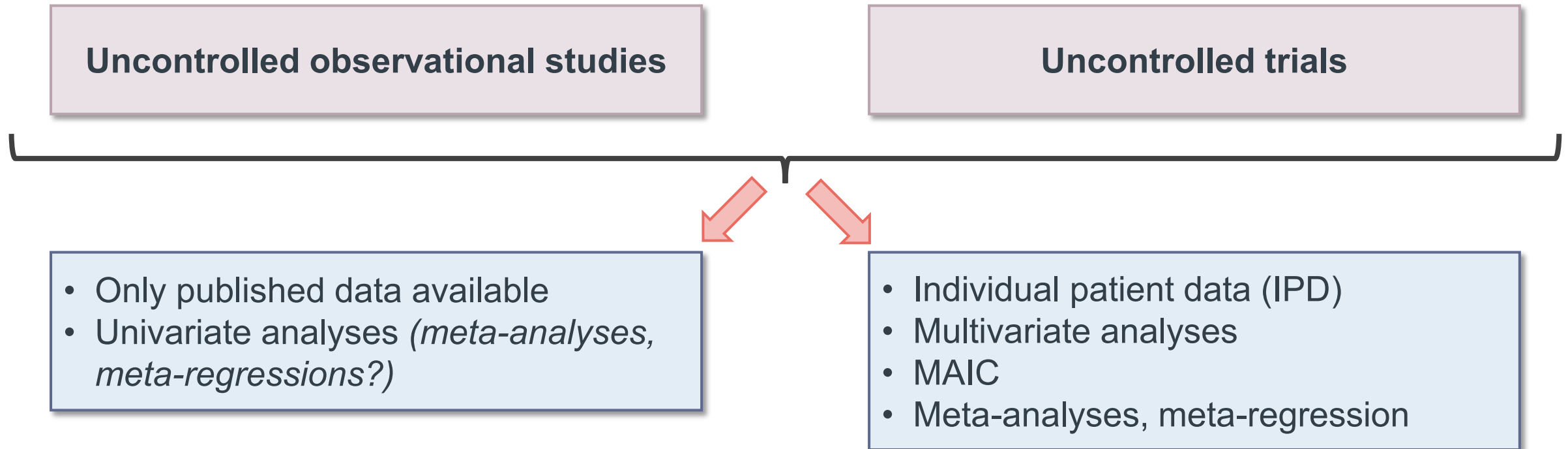
And if there is no RCT addressing the question of interest?

Uncontrolled observational studies

Uncontrolled trials

- In these analyses, it is only possible to compare outcomes/incidences of events
- Appear similar to RCTs, but patients were observed/treated in different studies

And if there is no RCT addressing the question of interest?



Treatment comparisons: Possible biases

Bias	Difference in	Solution	
Selection			
Attrition			
Assessment			
Analysis			

Treatment comparisons: Possible biases

Bias	Difference in	Solution	
Selection	Prognostic factors Predictive factors Will Rogers	Randomization (intention-to-treat [ITT])	
Attrition			
Assessment			
Analysis			

Treatment comparisons: Possible biases

Bias	Difference in	Solution	
Selection	Prognostic factors Predictive factors Will Rogers	Randomization (ITT)	
Attrition	Lost to follow-up Not evaluated		
Assessment			
Analysis			

Attrition bias

“All cancer patients who continue to receive my treatment are still alive, after several years” – Luigi Di Bella
Immortal time bias

Are patients who drop out, lost to follow-up, or not evaluable, a random sample? Are they comparable in the two groups? (**ATTRITION BIAS**)

Treatment A: 200 treated → 40 cured = 20%

Treatment B: 200 treated → 100 evaluated → 40 cured = ?

Treatment comparisons: Possible biases

Bias	Difference in	Solution	
Selection	Prognostic factors Predictive factors Will Rogers	Randomization (ITT)	
Attrition	Lost to follow-up Not evaluated	ITT Blinding	
Assessment			
Analysis			

Treatment comparisons: Possible biases

Bias	Difference in	Solution	
Selection	Prognostic factors Predictive factors Will Rogers	Randomization (ITT)	
Attrition	Lost to follow-up Not evaluated	ITT Blinding	
Assessment	Methods Bias	Blinding Hard endpoints	
Analysis			

Treatment comparisons: Possible biases

Bias	Difference in	Solution	
Selection	Prognostic factors Predictive factors Will Rogers	Randomization (ITT)	
Attrition	Lost to follow-up Not evaluated	ITT Blinding	
Assessment	Methods Bias	Blinding Hard endpoints	
Analysis	Multiplicity	Predefined statistical plan	

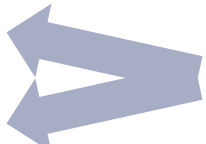
Treatment comparisons: Possible biases

Bias	Difference in	Solution	
Selection	Prognostic factors Predictive factors Will Rogers	Randomization (ITT)	<u>Randomized</u> <u>controlled</u> <u>double-blind</u> <u>trial</u>
Attrition	Lost to follow-up Not evaluated	ITT Blinding	
Assessment	Methods Bias	Blinding Hard endpoints	
Analysis	Multiplicity	Predefined statistical plan	

Treatment comparisons: Possible biases

Bias	Difference in	Solution	
Selection	Prognostic factors Predictive factors Will Rogers	Randomization (ITT)	Statistical tools are not able to remove <u>ALL</u> these biases: <u>Accurate methodological revision</u>
Attrition	Lost to follow-up Not evaluated	ITT Blinding	
Assessment	Methods Bias	Blinding Hard endpoints	
Analysis	Multiplicity	Predefined statistical plan	

Statistical methods for indirect comparisons

- ‘Raw comparison’
 - Multivariate analysis
 - Direct
 - Through propensity score
 - MAIC
 - Simulated treatment comparison (STC)
 - Network meta-analysis/meta-regression
 - Aggregate data
 - IPD
- 
- Uncontrolled studies

‘Raw comparison’ uncontrolled studies

In two groups of patients with COVID-19, one treated with Drug A and the other with Drug B, we observed 40/200 (20%) and 40/100 (40%) ‘recoveries’, respectively

What do we conclude?

Little or nothing!

Multivariate analysis: Uncontrolled studies

- Direct / via propensity score? It makes little difference



Requirement: Availability of IPD on all patients from all studies

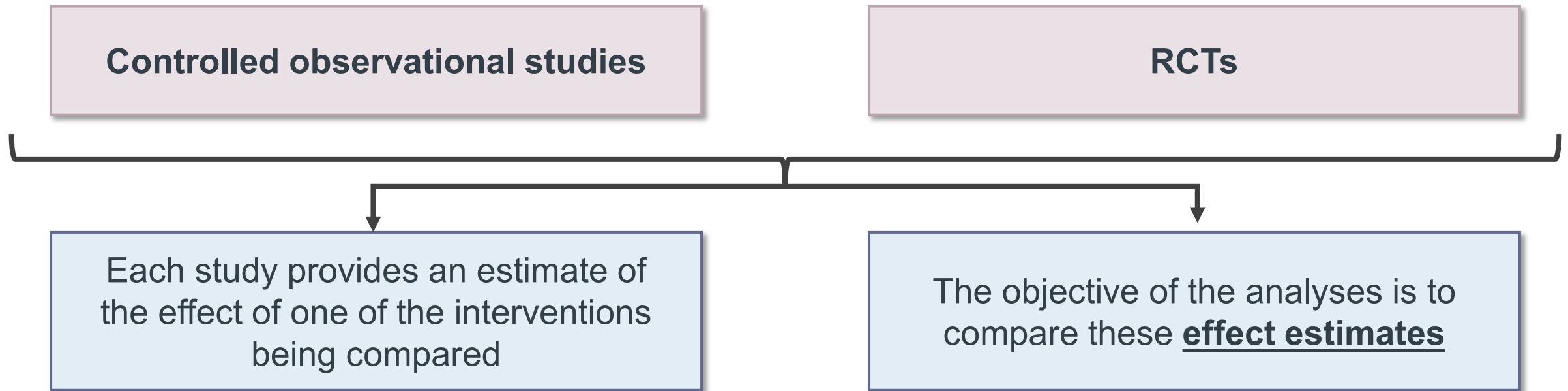


Advantages

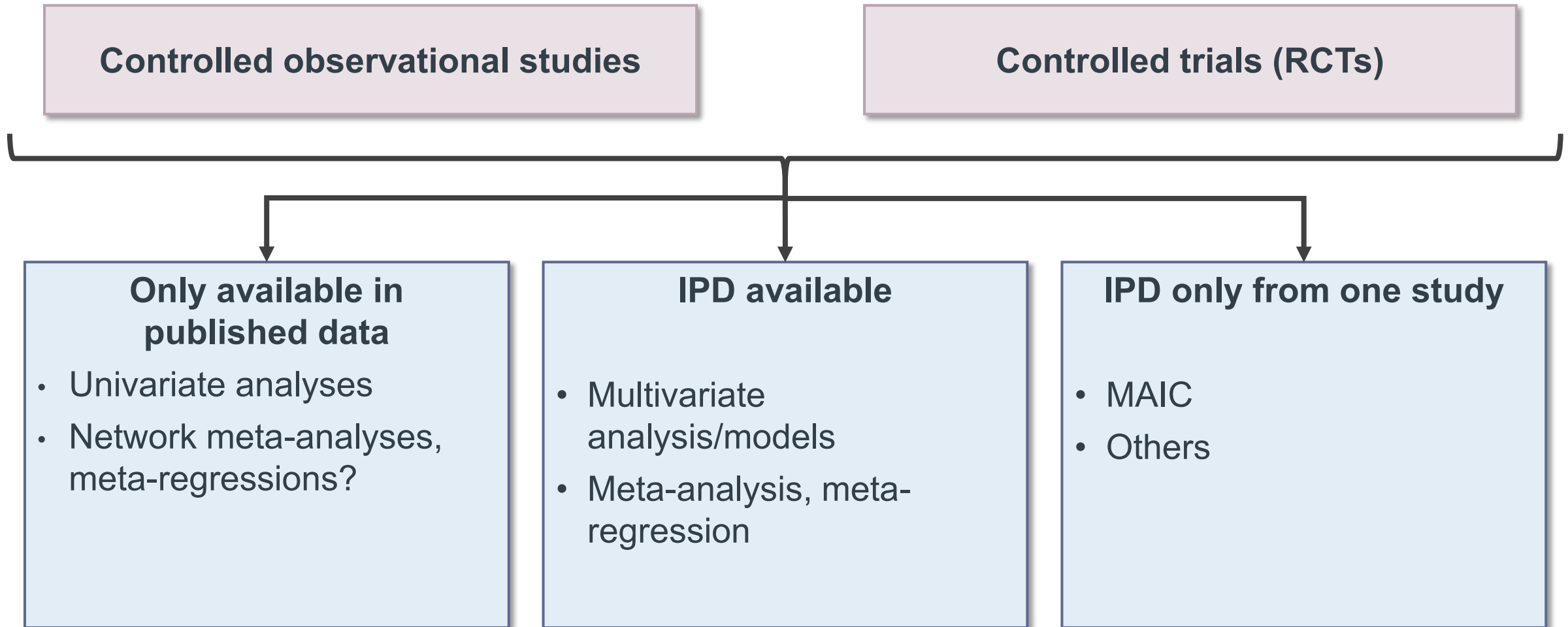
- Removal of differences in all **known and recorded** prognostic and predictive factors
- IPD from uncontrolled trials (observational studies) can be used

It represents an observational study

And if there is no RCT addressing the question of interest?



And if there is no RCT addressing the question of interest?



1. 'Raw comparison': RCT

In two randomized trials on patients with COVID-19, one evaluating drug A vs. placebo and the other evaluating drug B vs. placebo, we observed:

RCT 1: Drug A deaths

40/200 (20%) vs. 60/200 (30%)
RR = 0.66

RCT 2: Drug B deaths

30/100 (30%) vs. 60/100 (60%)
RR = 0.5

What should I conclude?

Little or nothing

2. Multivariate analysis: Comparison of the RCT results

Requirements:

-  IPD of all patients from all RCTs being compared
-  Trials being analyzed should have the same control arm
-  A multivariate (usually proportional hazards) model is fitted with all relevant covariates and trial and treatment as strata

Direct adjustment or through a propensity score?

Little difference!

2. Multivariate analysis: Comparison of the RCTs results

Bias	Difference in	Problems
Selection	Prognostic factors Predictive factors Will Rogers	<u>Unknown/unmeasured factors?</u>
Attrition	Lost to follow-up Not evaluated	Trial quality?
Assessment	Methods Bias	?
Analysis	Multiplicity	Can be addressed

Unanchored MAIC



Requirement: Availability of IPD from at least one of several RCTs

If RCTs have different control therapies = unanchored MAIC analysis

Only experimental arms
are considered = Comparison of **uncontrolled**
observational studies

With a propensity score, groups of patients comparable with those of each of the 'comparison' trials are extracted from the experimental arm with IPD (approximate adjustment)

Unanchored MAIC: Possible biases

Bias	Difference in	Problems
Selection	Prognostic factors Predictive factors Will Rogers	????
Attrition	Lost to follow-up Not evaluated	??
Assessment	Methods Bias	??
Analysis	Multiplicity	?

Anchored MAIC



Requirement: Availability of IPD from at least one trial

RCT with same control treatment = anchored MAIC analysis

- Both arms are considered while maintaining randomization
- With a propensity score, treated and control groups comparable with those of each of the trials are extracted from the IPD trial (approximate adjustment)
- Same methodology as network meta-analysis ([NMA]; comparisons of HR, not patients), with the advantage of more precise adjustments
- Separate comparison with each trial

Anchored MAIC: Possible biases

Bias	Difference in	Problems
Selection	Prognostic factors Predictive factors Will Rogers	OK <u>Unknown/unmeasured predictive factors?</u> OK
Attrition	Lost to follow-up Not evaluated	Trial quality?
Assessment	Methods Bias	?
Analysis	Multiplicity	Can be addressed

Simulated treatment comparison

- Comparable to an **anchored** MAIC but using multiple regression techniques
- Similar requirements, advantages, and disadvantages

Network meta-analysis



Note:

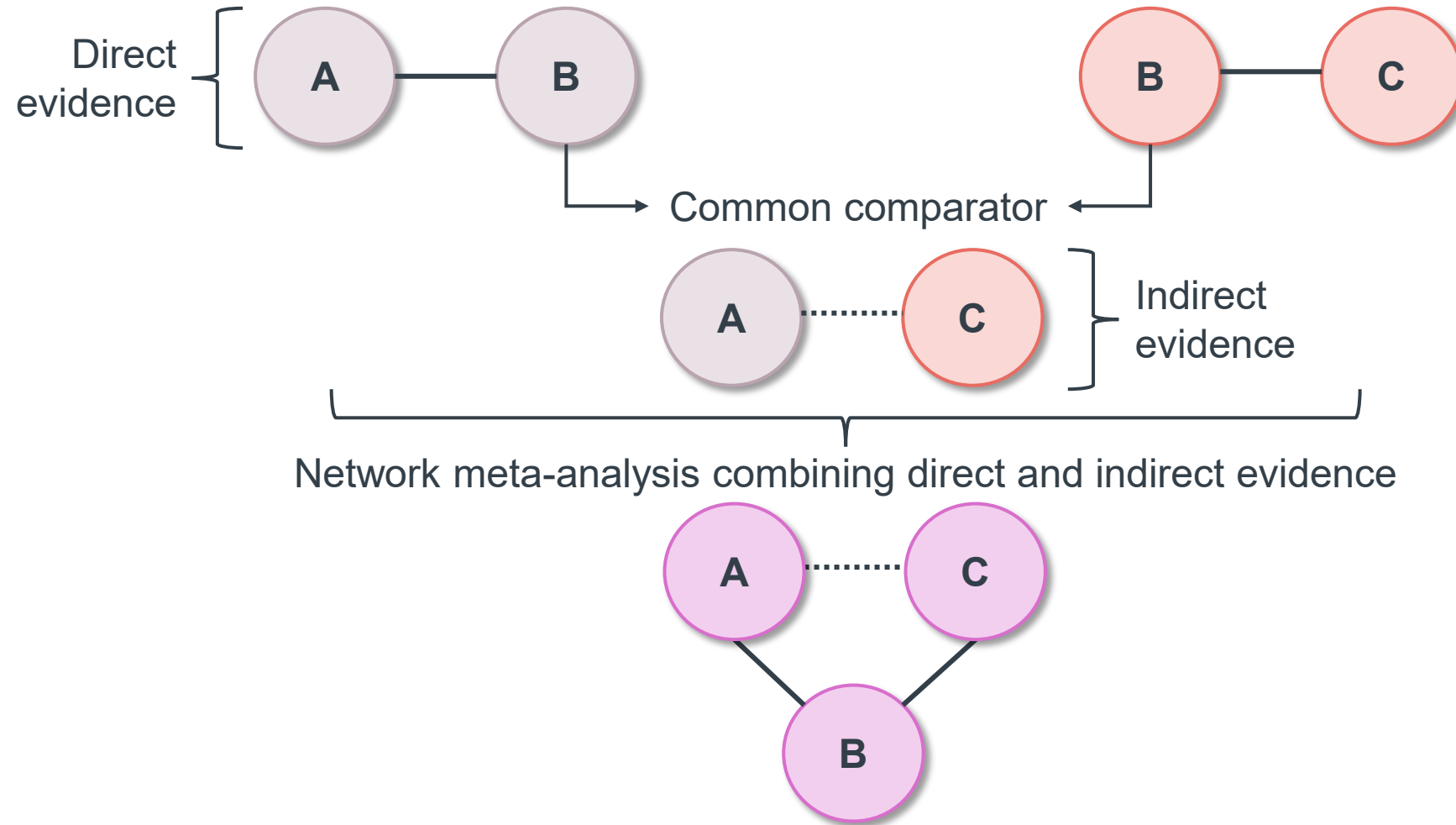
The statistical methodologies of meta-analyses, NMAs, and meta-regression can be applied to any type of:

- **Study:** Observational/experimental NCT/RCT
- **Endpoint:** OS, PFS, ORR, QoL score, glycemia, etc.
- **Summary estimator:**
 - Absolute: % survival at 3 years, ORR, QoL after X years, average blood glucose, etc.
 - Relative: HR, delta, odds ratio, difference between averages, etc.

MA, NMA of RCTs: More immune from biases

- **Requirements:** ≥ 2 RCTs in the same disease, with links between trials for common control or experimental groups
- Summary indicators can be used (e.g. HR) or IPD from all studies
- An NMA analyzes all trials at once (network)

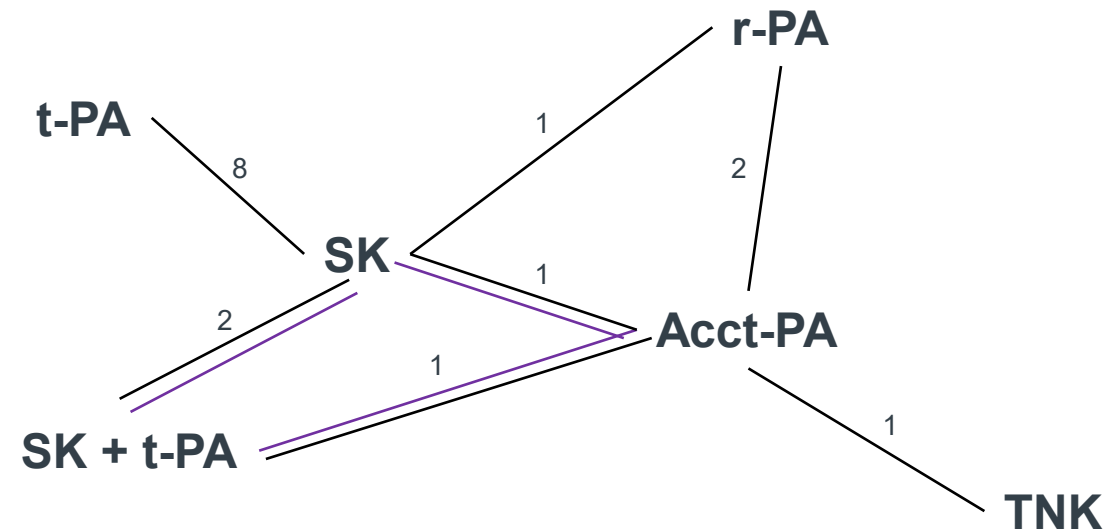
Direct and indirect evidence



Example: Thrombolysis

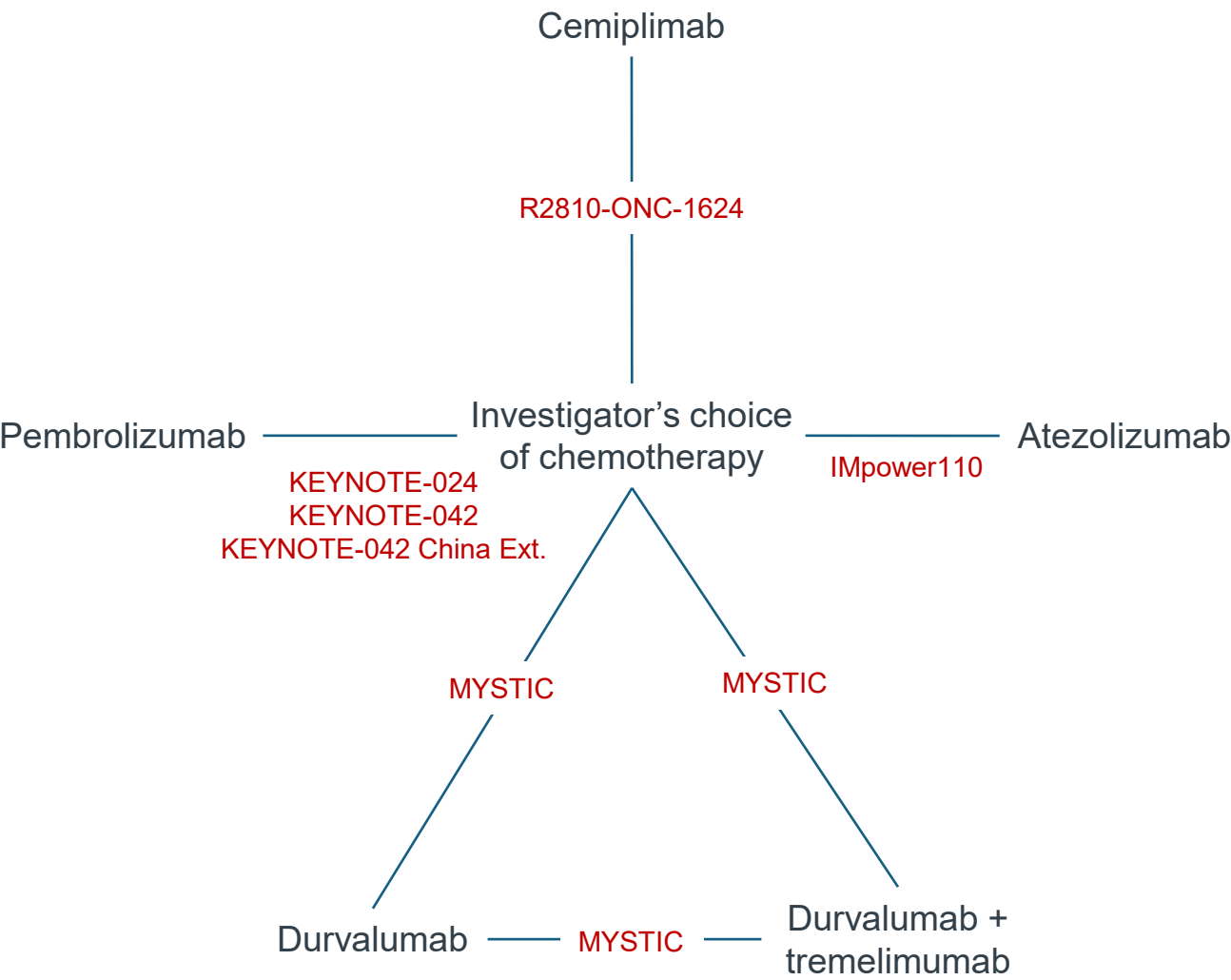
Six treatments for acute myocardial infarction:

- ① Streptokinase (SK)
- ② Tissue plasminogen activator (t-PA)
- ③ Accelerated alteplase (Acct-PA)
- ④ Tenecteplase (TNK)
- ⑤ Reteplase (r-PA)
- ⑥ SK + t-PA



14 studies, 15 possible pairwise comparisons

Network of trials based on clinical systematic literature review focusing on monotherapy regimens in high PD-L1 population (PD-L1 ≥50% and TC3/IC3)



- Based on the systematic literature review focusing on monotherapy regimens, **six trials are included** in this network
- Studies are tiered based on the PD-L1 scoring method/assay used to determine patient eligibility (see table below)

Tier	Assay antibody	PD-1/PD-L1 inhibitors	Cell type	Concordance with 22C3 assay
Tier 1 PD-L1 TPS ≥50%, measured using the PD-L1 IHC 22C3 pharmDX assay	Dako 22C3	Pembrolizumab (α-PD-1)	TC	N/A
		Cemiplimab (α-PD-1)	TC	N/A
Tier 2 High PD-L1 expression measured using an IHC assay that is <u>not</u> 22C3 pharmDX <i>→ Trials considered in sensitivity analyses only</i>	Ventana SP142	Atezolizumab (α-PD-L1)	TC/IC	Low (less sensitivity)
	Ventana SP263	Durvalumab (α-PD-L1)	TC	Moderate to high

NMA: Possible biases

Bias	Difference in	Problems
Selection	Prognostic factors Predictive factors Will Rogers	<u>OK</u> <u>Unknown/unmeasured</u> <u>Predictive factors?</u>
Attrition	Lost to follow-up Not evaluated	Differences across studies?
Assessment	Methods Bias	Differences across studies?
Analysis	Multiplicity	?



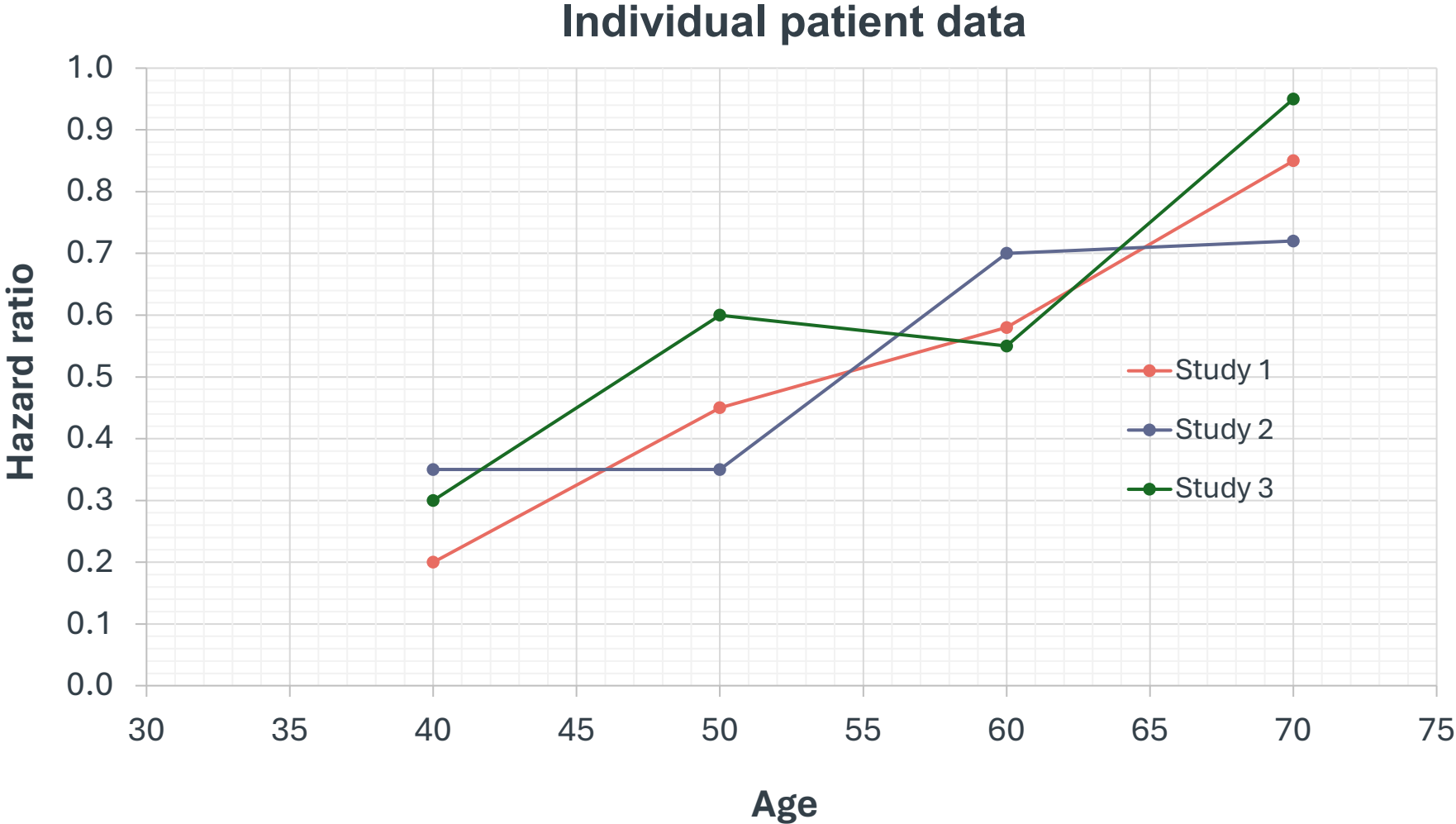
(Network) meta-regression

Used to evaluate whether the effect of an intervention is correlated with a continuous or ordered variable

Effectiveness of a therapy and age:

Published data	Mean age, years	HR
Trial 1	48	0.3
Trial 2	60	0.6
Trial 3	71	0.9

(Network) meta-regression



Data provided by the speaker.
Slide courtesy of Paolo Bruzzi.

Requirements for indirect comparisons

	RCT	Same control Tx	IPD	Reliability
‘Raw comparison’	No	No	No	-----
Multivariate analysis	No	No	Yes	-
Unanchored MAIC	Yes	No	1 trial	--
Anchored MAIC / STC	Yes	Yes	1 trial	+++
Network MA	Yes	Some	No	++
Meta-regression				
• Aggregate data	Yes	Some	No	++
• IPD	Yes	Some	Yes	++++

Indirect comparisons

In our enthusiasm for the statistical techniques to be used for indirect comparisons, we must not forget a simple truth:

If these were effective, we would no longer need randomized trials

Conclusions



Indirect comparisons are useful tools for:

- Exploratory purposes (to generate hypotheses)
- Confirmatory purposes (to confirm opinions, formalize comparisons already made, etc.)



Indirect comparisons should not be used to:

- Demonstrate unknown effects (e.g. in subgroups)
- Reject consolidated theories/beliefs