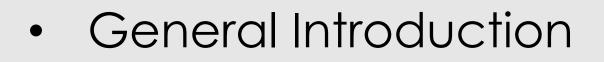
Study Designs in Epidemiology



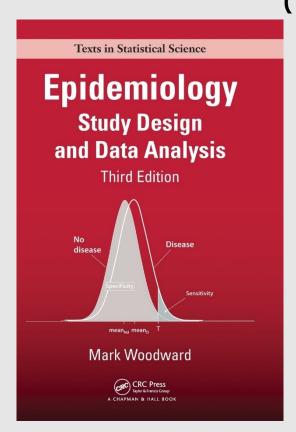
Randomized Clinical
 Trials : RCTs

RCT Study Design





Science is built of facts the way a house is built of bricks: but an accumulation of facts is no more science than a pile of bricks is a house.







To call in the statistician after the experiment is done may be no more than asking him to perform a post-mortem examination: he may be able to say what the experiment died of. **Ronald A. Fisher** UNITÀ DI BIOSTATISTICA (1890 - 1962)

5-stage representation of the statistical method applied to scientific investigation:

Problem -> Plan -> Data -> Analysis -> Conclusion

- Which groups do you want to describe or compare ?
- What parameters do you want to measure ?
- When do you want to measure them ?
- What parameters do you need **to "account for"** to correctly evaluate the effect of interest ?





4 pillars of the research project *:

1. Relevance & Rationale:

Research questions should be **highly topical** and **meaningful** from a clinical, policy, or research methodology perspective.

[not only at time of study conception but, perhaps more importantly, at the anticipated time of submission for publication or presentation to the relevant audience].

2.Specificity:

Research questions should be **concise yet unambiguous**, should clearly state:

- intervention and outcome of interest
- should identify the **patient population**
- should focus on **one primary end point**
- existing data sources must be **adequate** to provide valid answers



3. Novelty:

Proposals should clearly identify what a new study can add to existing knowledge:

- **absence** of literature thereby making the proposed research question **novel**.
- previous findings may have been inconclusive, conflicting or questioned because of study limitations.
- even when some research exists, there may be a need to validate findings

4. Feasibility

The proposal should be **feasible** with respect to:

- power of the study to answer a question
- time and resources, ability to link necessary data sources
- adequate numbers of patients and events to yield sufficient power for the analysis
- timing: answers may no longer be relevant if it takes years to collect and analyze data



RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

Describe - associations/patterns. Moderately simple . Report of the descriptive statistical analyses ("IDA": initial/exploratory data analysis).

Inference - generalize from sample to population Moderately difficult . Requires an analysis plan before starting.

Predict/counterfactual - what will happen to the subjects (*if*...). Descriptive + Inference + (causal) Pre / post report analysis plan. Descriptive Statistics [+unsupervised approaches]

Inferential Statistics (univariable/stratified methods)

Regression Models* (linear/generalized/survival) Explanatory/Prognostic/Predictive

Causal Absolute Individualized effects risk risk



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TERMINOLOGY:

Outcome: result of clinical interest

- time to an event (death / recurrence)
- parameter of physiological functionality
- Binary factor (yes vs no)death/alive

Predictor (s): factors associated with outcome

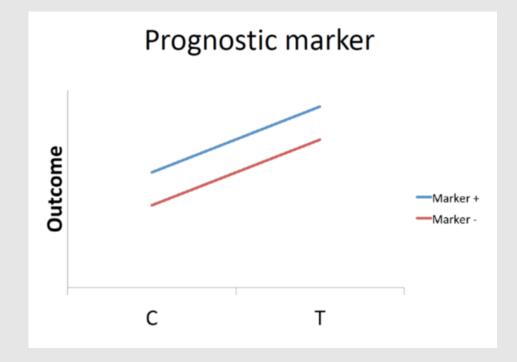
- genotype (s)
- Biomarker (continuous scale)
- Drug (yes vs no, dosages...)
- Type of chirurgical intervention...(nominal scale)





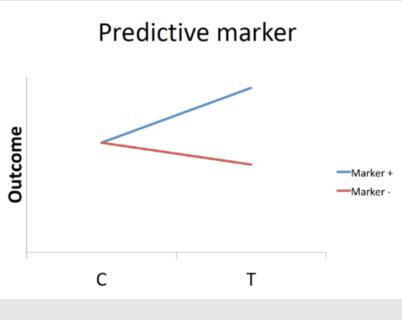


Prognostic factor is associated with clinical outcome in the absence of therapy or with the application of a standard therapy that patients are likely to receive. It can be thought of as a measure of the *natural history* of the disease.



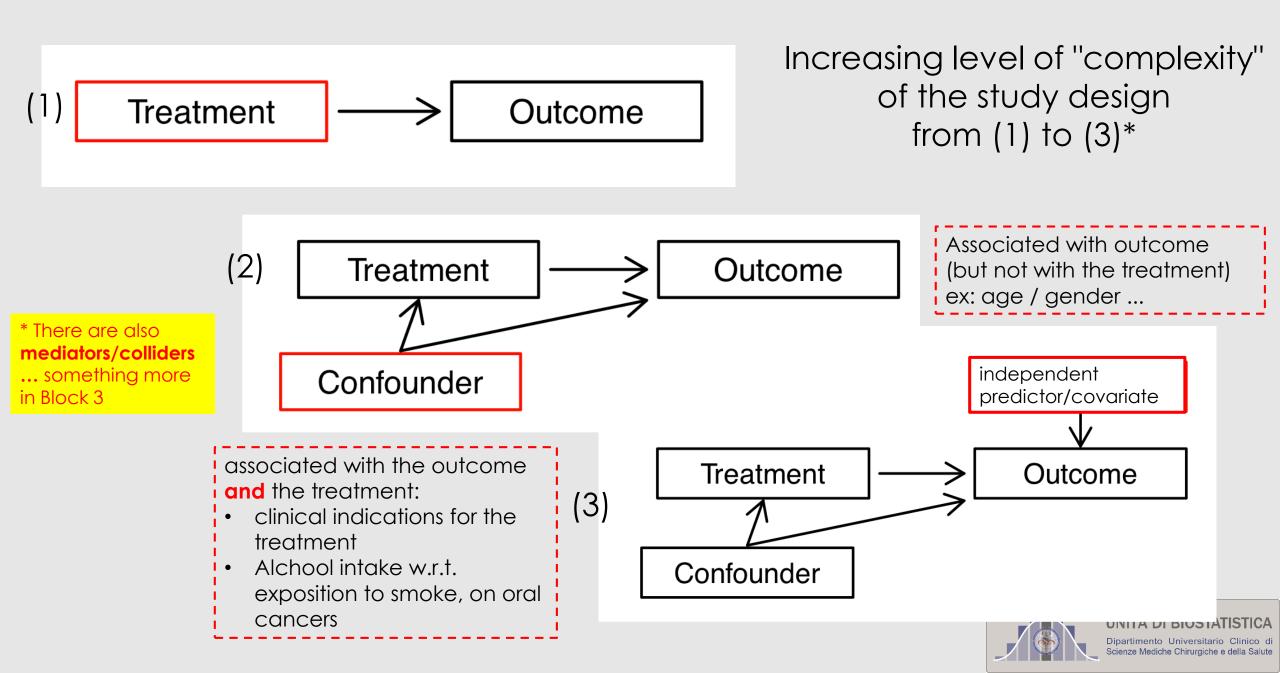
Predictive factor is

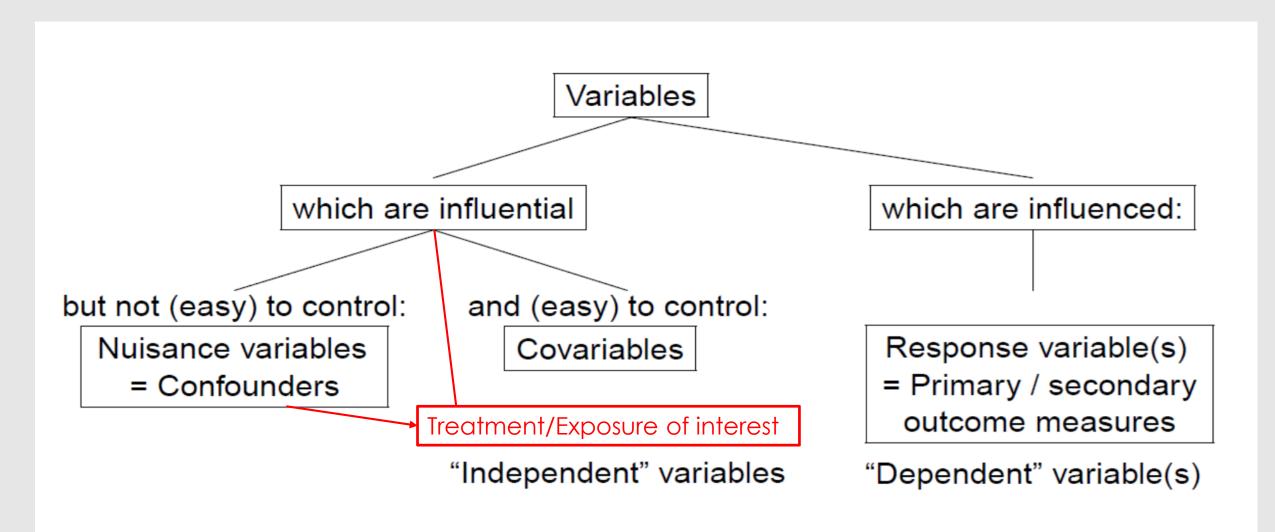
associated with response or lack of response to a particular therapy.



A predictive factor implies a differential benefit from the therapy that depends on the status of the predictive biomarker. In statistical terms, this constitutes an interaction (effect modifier) between treatment benefit and biomarker status





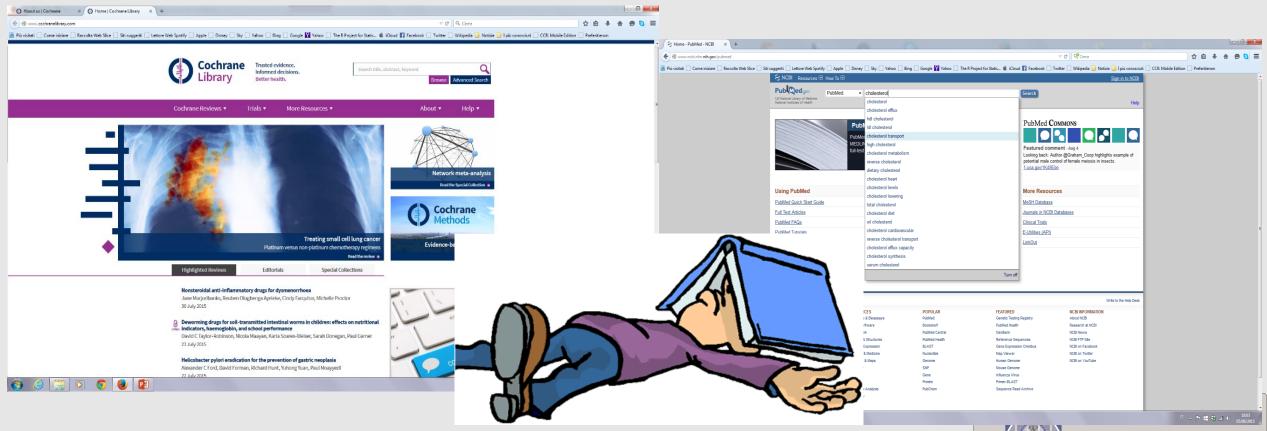


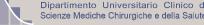


Relevance & Rationale : systematic literature review

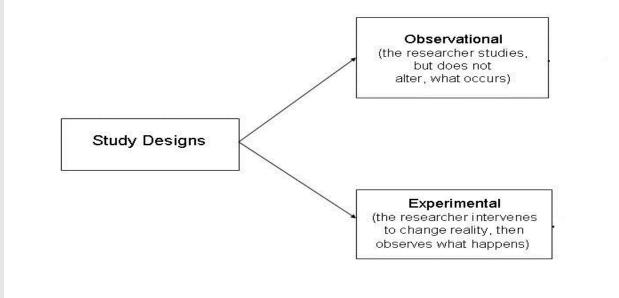
- Background on the state of art ۲
- **Efficacy/Effectiveness** of the treatment / drug / intervention from previous studies ullet

(help for quantitative estimates of its effect [sample size])





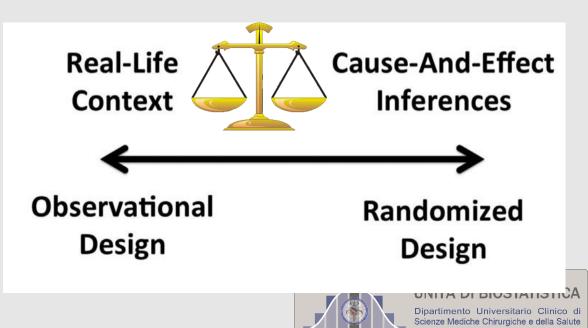
What "type" of study : experiment or observation?



The principle of science, the definition, almost, is the following: the test of all knowledge is experiment. Experiment is the sole judge of scientific 'truth'. (R. Feynman, 1963)

"Experiment, observation [...] have a **crucial role** for modern therapeutics. **Arguments about the relative importance of each are an unnecessary distraction**."

Sir Michael Rawlins, National Institute for Health and Clinical Effectiveness (NICE) *Lancet* 2008; 372: 2152–61



Randomized Clinical Trials

RCTs are the **gold standard** in clinical research to compare interventions in humans. The selected population is usually homogeneous with respect to inclusion / exclusion criteria.

To implement an RCT, a number of rules must be respected:

- scientific-methodological
- statistical
- ethical
- legal

The basic **ethical** principle is that of the **clinical equipoise**: uncertainty in the scientific community on the comparative efficacy of the treatments studied in the trial.

RCTs designed to observe outcomes in humans, under certain experimental conditions created **ad hoc** by the researcher having **randomized*** subjects to the different treatments.





Random

assignment

Treatment Group

Control Group

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Patients

Potential Outcomes Framework

(Rubin-Neyman Causal Model)

Each unit (individual) has **two** potential outcomes:

 $Y_0(i)$ is the potential outcome had the unit *i* **not** been treated: **control** outcome

 $Y_1(i)$ is the potential outcome had the unit *i* been treated: treated outcome

Individual treatment effect for subject *i*:

Average Treatment Effect*:

 $ITE_i = Y_1(i) - Y_0(i)$ $ATE = E[Y_1 - Y_0] = E[ITE_i]$

Average Treatment Effect in the Treated*:

```
ATT = E[Y_1 - Y_0 | T = 1]
```

*RCTs are the ideal study design in which estimate these quantities



Potential Outcomes Framework

(Rubin-Neyman Causal Model)

 $T_i = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{Untreated} \\ 1 & \text{Treated} \end{cases}$

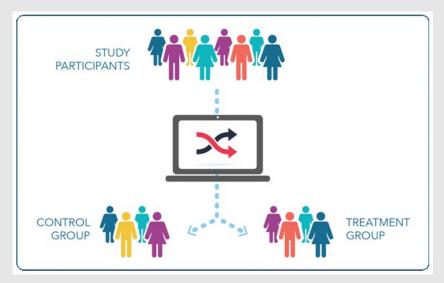
Observed factual outcome:

 $y_i = t_i Y_1(i) + (1 - t_i) Y_0(i)$

Unobserved **counterfactual** outcome:

 $y_i^{CF} = (1 - t_i)Y_1(i) + t_iY_0(i)$

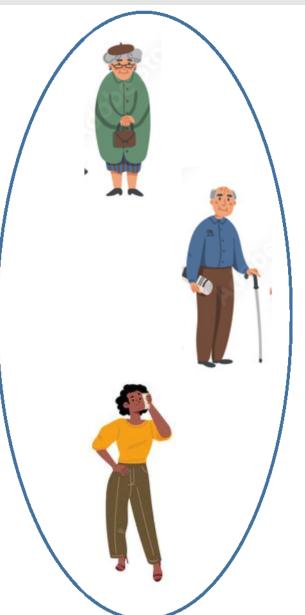
one can never **directly** observe **individual** causal effects, because we can never observe **both** potential outcomes for any subject. We need to compare *potential* outcomes, but we only have observed outcomes.





Control arm

Experimental arm



Randomization is **fair** with respect to the potential outcomes that (on average) **are independent** from the assignment to the treatment (**unbiased** estimator **by design**).

Moreover, in a randomized experiment, the treatment and control group tend to be **similar** in terms of their observed and unobserved covariates (**exchangeability**).





from treatment assignment

Randomization guarantees: $Y_1, Y_0 \perp T$ ____ exchangeability

Distributions (and means) of potential outcomes are independent

 $E(Y_1 - Y_0 | T = 1) = E(Y_1 | T = 1) - E(Y_0 | T = 1)$

Linearity of Expectations

 $E(Y_1|T = 1) = E(Y|T = 1)$ $E(Y_0|T = 0) = E(Y|T = 0)$

Y=observed outcome

 $ATE = E[Y_1 - Y_0]$

We can identify this causal estimand from the observed RCT data

 $= E(Y_1|T = 1) - E(Y_0|T = 0) \implies$ T and potential outcomes are independent

Never observed

 $= E(Y|T = 1) - E(Y|T = 0) \implies$ exchangeability: we can use the observed Y

 $E(Y_1 - Y_0 | T = 1) = E(Y_1 - Y_0) \implies$

subjects randomized to the treatment are representative of the entire population (ATT=ATE)



RCT at the heart of the implementation of new treatments:

PHASE I: <u>Safety</u> of a pharmacological principle / treatment. Small samples (20-80 pts). MTD = Maximum Tolerated Dose on healthy / sick volunteers; informed consent is crucial.

PHASE II: <u>Therapeutic exploration</u>: sample of volunteers with the disease of interest (100-300 pts). Pharmacokinetic / dynamic assessments, optimal dose, frequency of doses, administration protocols, evaluation of end-points of interest.

PHASE III: <u>Comparative efficacy</u> demonstrate / confirm the efficacy of a treatment and identify any adverse effects in clinical practice (large sample: 500-3000+ pts).

PHASE IV: <u>Post-marketing</u> surveillance: **observational** studies to identify less frequent adverse reactions (longer period); cost-effectiveness in the "real world" population.

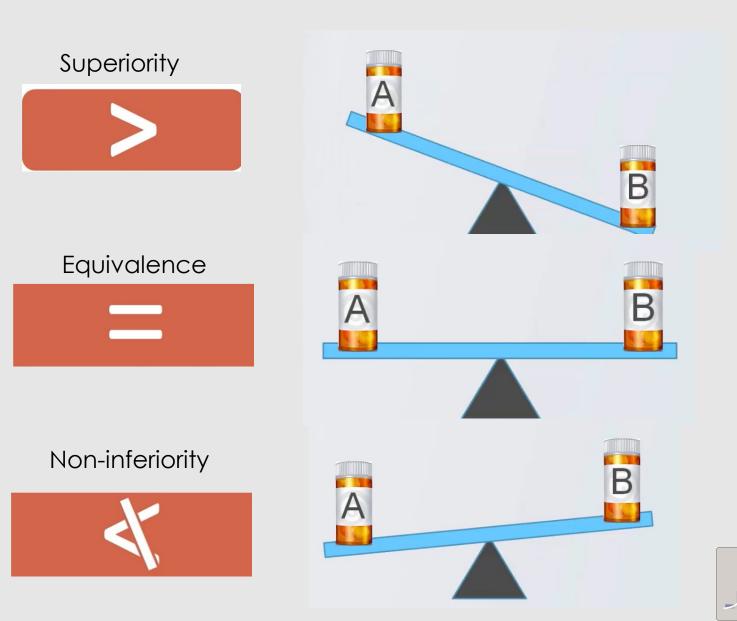
about 20% of new drugs are "integrated" by side effects in phase IV studies; about 4% are withdrawn

Lasser KE et al., Timing of new black box warnings and withdrawals for prescription medications. JAMA, 2002.



RCT «Hypothesis Types» (Phase III)*

3 general designs of RCTs:



*basic concepts about statistical tests...?



The primary objective is to determine the magnitude of increased benefit of the experimental intervention over standard therapy for effectiveness outcomes

Superiority —>To show that the treatment is more effective compared to control group Used for establishing new standard of care

 H₀: Treatment x is <u>NOT more</u> effective than treatment y for given condition
 H₁: Treatment x is <u>more</u> effective than treatment y for given condition

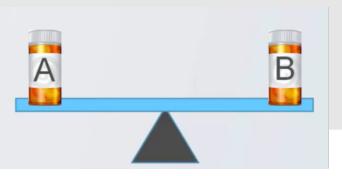
$$H_0: T_{\rm X} - T_{\rm Y} \le \delta$$

 δ is the minimal clinically relevant «effect size»

$$H_1: T_X - T_Y > \delta$$







Equivalence Solution To show that the treatment is not more effective and is not worse compared to control group Used for establishing generic drugs that are equivalent to their brand formulations

 H₀: Treatment x is <u>either</u> worse or better than treatment y for given condition by <u>greater than Δ</u>
 H₁: Treatment x is <u>NEITHER</u> worse <u>NOR</u> better than treatment y for given condition by greater than ±Δ, when Δ is the equivalency margin

$$H_0: |T_X - T_Y| \ge \delta$$
$$H_1: |T_X - T_Y| < \delta$$





The researchers are unconcerned if the experimental treatment is better as long as it is not much worse.

Non-inferiority —> To show that the treatment is not worse compared to control group >> Used for establishing alternative care

- H₀: Treatment x is worse than treatment y for given condition by greater than Δ
 - H₁: Treatment x is <u>not worse</u> than treatment y for given condition by greater than Δ, when Δ is the non-inferiority margin

$$H_0: T_X - T_Y \le -\delta$$
$$H_1: T_X - T_Y > -\delta$$



The magic of RANDOMIZATION

eliminate systematic confounders , *differences* between groups , allows causal estimates from observed data

- Simple: randomly allocates each subject to a treatment independent of previous assignments (head or cross): simple but can create some *imbalances*
- **Block**: force the number of subjects to be allocated to groups of **k** in each arm

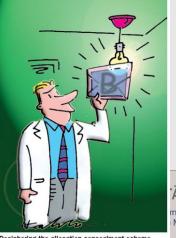
blocks of size 4 (with two arms) means that in a sequence of 4 subjects 2 subjects are assigned in one arm and 2 in the other [alternate random, in all possible orderings] variable size blocks can be used (4, then 8, then 6 ...)

• Stratification (+ blocks): stratifies the population with respect to specific covariates to be represented (gender, age ...) and then block randomization from each stratum.

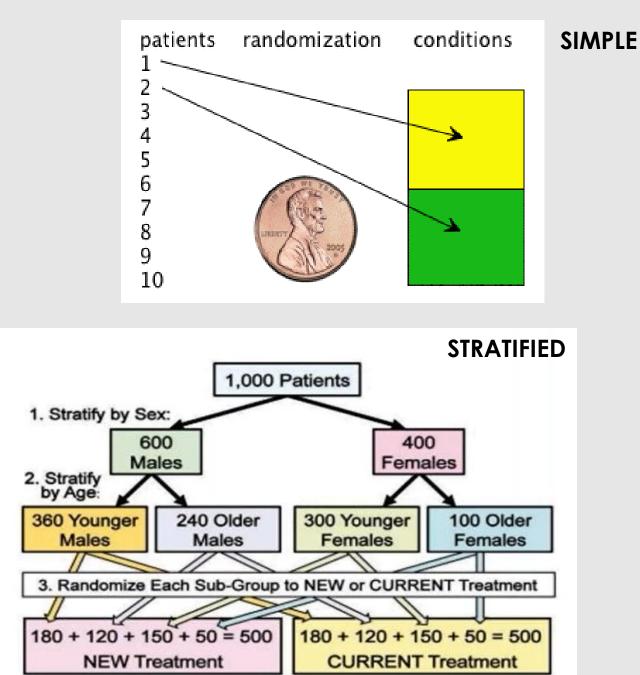
Adaptive randomization: chances of inclusion during the trial change

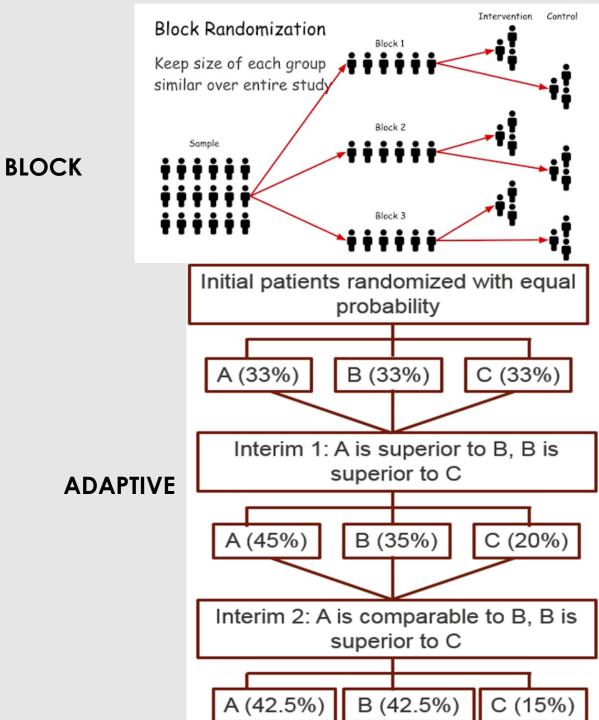
Concealment : hiding of enrollment, those who recruit **do not have to know** the random sequence of assignments

Schulz KF, Grimes DA. Allocation concealment in randomised trials: defending against deciphering. Lancet. 2002.



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Clinical Trials: BLINDING (MASKING)

To minimize the subjectivity of those who evaluate the pts or analyze the data.

SINGLE BLIND: DOUBLE BLIND: TRIPLE BLIND:

study subjects do not know which treatment they receive subjects and researchers (doctors / biologists) don't know subjects, the researchers, the statisticians don't know



Figure 1: The authors: double blinded versus single blinded

Schulz & Grimes. Lancet 2002

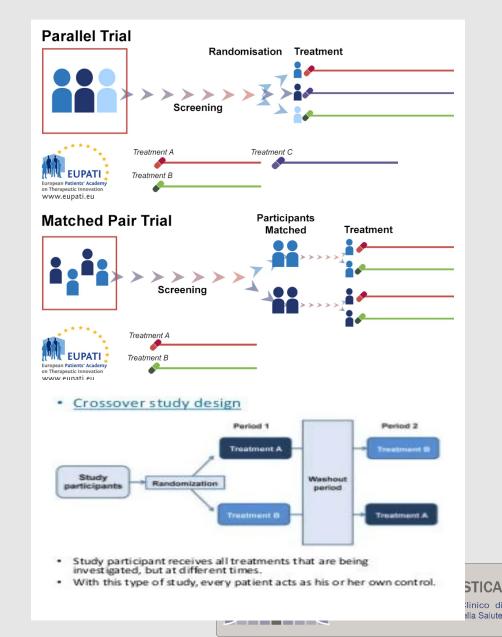
If not done: OPEN TRIAL



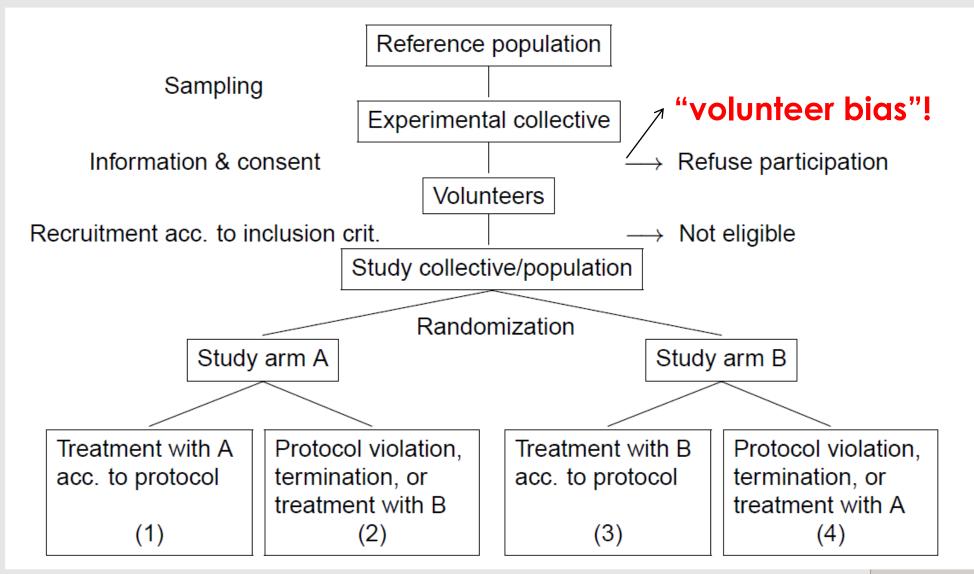
Types of randomised controlled trials

- Parallel
- Matched parallel
- Cross-over
- Sequential
- Cluster
- Umbrella & Basket...

...this is not an exhaustive list!

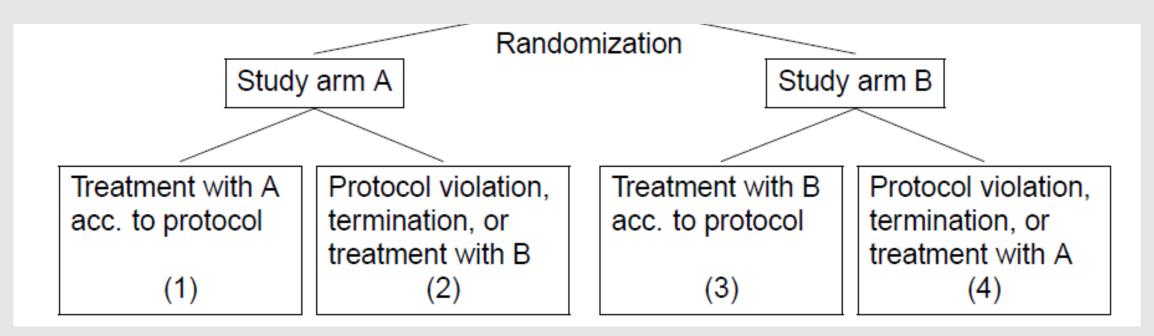


RCT Flow Chart





RCT data analysis (I)



ITT: intention to treat (1)+(2) \lor s (3)+(4)

PP: per protocol (1) vs (3)



AT: as treated $(1)+(4) \lor (2)+(3)$ (but excluding protocol violations or early drop out)



RCT data analysis (II)

1. Summary trial results for clinical decision making:

	Measure	Definition	
ATE causal effects	Absolute risk difference	CER – TER	
	Relative risk reduction	1 – (TER/CER)	
	Odds ratio	[TER/(1 – TER)]/[CER/(1 – CER)]	
	CER = control event rate; TER = treatment event rate.		

2. **Subgroup** analyses: divide the trial population into groups and examine effects

Potentially useful for exploring hypotheses about factors that **modify a treatment effect**, but these "1-variable-at-a-time" analyses have important limitations. Briefly: low statistical power, multiplicity, and weak prior theory on relative effect modifiers

CATE causal effects

Efficacy End-Point Subgroup	BNT162b2 (N=18,198)		Placebo (N=18,325)		Vaccine Efficacy, % (95% Cl)†
	No. of Cases	Surveillance Time (No. at Risk)*	No. of Cases	Surveillance Time (No. at Risk)*	
Overall	8	2.214 (17,411)	162	2.222 (17,511)	95.0 (90.0-97.9)
Age group					
16 to 55 yr	5	1.234 (9,897)	114	1.239 (9,955)	95.6 (89.4-98.6)
>55 yr	3	0.980 (7,500)	48	0.983 (7,543)	93.7 (80.6-98.8)
≥65 yr	1	0.508 (3,848)	19	0.511 (3,880)	94.7 (66.7-99.9)
≥75 yr	0	0.102 (774)	5	0.106 (785)	100.0 (-13.1-100.0)
Sex					
Male	3	1.124 (8,875)	81	1.108 (8,762)	96.4 (88.9-99.3)
Female	5	1.090 (8,536)	81	1.114 (8,749)	93.7 (84.7-98.0)
Race or ethnic group‡					
White	7	1.889 (14,504)	146	1.903 (14,670)	95.2 (89.8-98.1)
Black or African American	0	0.165 (1,502)	7	0.164 (1,486)	100.0 (31.2-100.0)
All others	1	0.160 (1,405)	9	0.155 (1,355)	89.3 (22.6-99.8)
Hispanic or Latinx	3	0.605 (4,764)	53	0.600 (4,746)	94.4 (82.7-98.9)
Non-Hispanic, non-Latinx	5	1.596 (12,548)	109	1.608 (12,661)	95.4 (88.9-98.5)
Country					
Argentina	1	0.351 (2,545)	35	0.346 (2,521)	97.2 (83.3-99.9)
Brazil	1	0.119 (1,129)	8	0.117 (1,121)	87.7 (8.1-99.7)
United States	6	1.732 (13,359)	119	1.747 (13,506)	94.9 (88.6-98.2)

Pfizer Trial

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RCT data analysis (III)

3. **Predictive** approaches to **HTE** (Heterogeneity of Treatment Effect) analysis (*regression-based estimates*)

$$P(outcome) = f(\alpha + \beta_{1}x_{1} + \dots + \beta_{p}x_{p})$$

$$lp = \beta_{1}x_{1} + \dots + \beta_{p}x_{p}$$

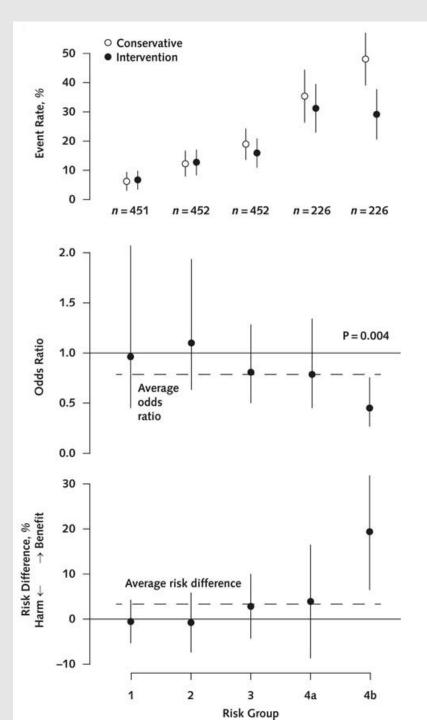
$$P(outcome) = f(\alpha + \beta_{tx}tx + \beta_{lp}lp + \delta_{int}tx * lp)$$

$$P(outcome) = f(\alpha + \beta_{tx}tx + \beta_{1}x_{1} + \dots + \beta_{p}x_{p})$$
Effect oriented
$$P(outcome) = f(\alpha + \beta_{tx}tx + \beta_{1}x_{1} + \dots + \beta_{p}x_{p} + \beta_{1int}x_{1}tx + \dots + \beta_{pint}x_{p}tx)$$

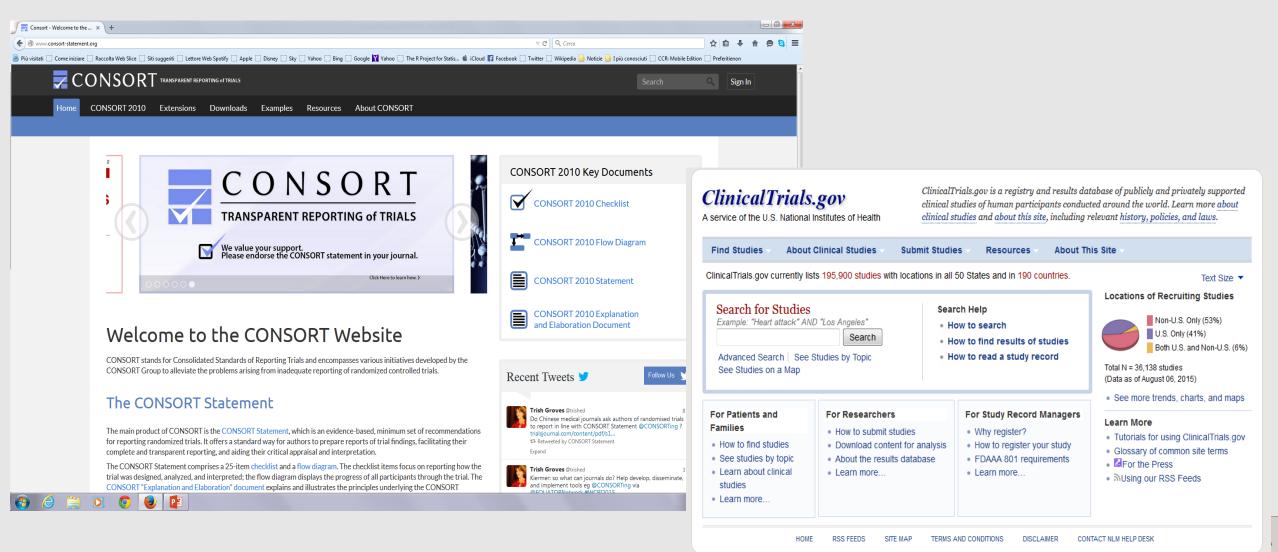
If trial population has substantial variation in baseline outcome risk or interactions

Patient-centered estimates of treatment effects: patients have many attributes that simultaneously affect the outcome of interest and the benefits of treatment.

https://www.acpjournals.org/doi/full/10.7326/M18-3667



Guidelines for carrying out an RCT: it also includes a **25**-point checklist to be filled in when reporting the results



RCTs: limitations (I)

- RCTs are performed in **selected populations** of pts usually for **short periods** of time.
- In clinical practice, intervention / treatment is generally applied in a **heterogeneous** population of pts - often with multiple comorbidities - and usually for **longer** periods.
- RCTs can describe the most common and early adverse reactions*, but they could be unable to identify those that are less common or have longer latency.

* 500-3000 subjects: 6/1000 - 1/1000 adverse events (95% CI)

	Potential problems		
Patients			
Age	Effectiveness in younger or older patients		
Sex	Effectiveness generally		
Severity of the disease	Effectiveness in mild or severe forms of the condition		
Risk factors	Effectiveness in patients with risk factors for the condition (eg, smokers)		
Comorbidities	Influence of other conditions on effectiveness		
Ethnicity	Effectiveness in other ethnic groups		
Socioeconomic status	Effectiveness in disadvantaged patients		
Treatment			
Dose	Too high a dose used in RCTs		
Timing of administration	Influence on adherence (compliance) to treatment regimens		
Duration of therapy	Effectiveness during long-term use		
Comedication	Adverse interactions		
Comparative effectiveness	Effectiveness in comparison with other products used for the same indication		
Setting			
Quality of care	Prescription and monitoring by less specialist (expert) healthcare providers		

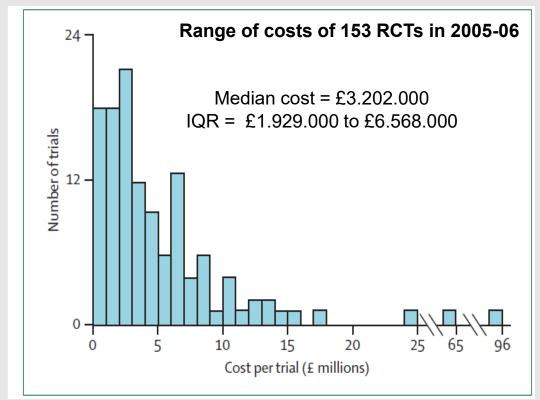
RCTs: limitations (II)

- RCT costs are high and show a growing trend
- Volunteer bias: study eligibility, compliance, geographical proximity, socio-economic status, health status ...

Homogeneous population selected:

- internal validity (= low variability)
- limit for external validation of results

Califf RM. Clinical trials bureaucracy: unintended consequences of well-intentioned policy. *Clin Trials* 2006.



EFFICACY ≠ EFFECTIVENESS

Success of a treatment in a "artificial" context

Success of a treatment in a "Real world" context



Are Randomized Trials Obsolete?

SYMPOSIUM

Wednesday, April 22, 2020 09:00am - 07:00pm

Museum of Fine Arts & Magritte Museum Brussels, Belgium Whilst randomization remains a key design feature for confirmatory trials aimed at new drug approval, many innovative non-randomized study designs have been proposed and used in recent years.

The availability of **large databases** of **real world evidence (RWE)** has led to questioning the necessity to carry out expensive and lengthy randomized clinical trials, if **sophisticated statistical techniques** (e.g., **based on causal inference**) could inform the choice between therapeutic options...

