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**COMMITTEE FOR MEDICINAL PRODUCTS FOR HUMAN USE
(CHMP)**

DRAFT

GUIDELINE ON MISSING DATA IN CONFIRMATORY CLINICAL TRIALS

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31 EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

32 Missing data are a potential source of bias when analysing clinical trials. Interpretation of the
33 results of a trial is always problematic when the number of missing values is substantial. There is
34 no universally applicable method of handling missing values, and different approaches may lead
35 to different results. To avoid concerns over data-driven selection methods, it is essential to
36 pre-specify the selected methods in the statistical section of the study protocol or analysis plan. It
37 should be noted that the strategy employed to handle missing values might in itself provide a
38 source of bias. A critical discussion of the number, timing, pattern, reason for and possible
39 implications of missing values in efficacy and safety assessments should be included in the
40 clinical report as a matter of routine. It will be useful to investigate the pattern of missing data in
41 previous trials in the same or similar indications for related medicinal products. This could assist
42 in the choice of the primary analysis method and how missing data will be handled in this
43 analysis. It should be noted that just ignoring missing data is not an acceptable option when
44 planning, conducting or interpreting the analysis of a confirmatory clinical trial.

45 Given the concerns highlighted above, how to minimise the amount of missing data and how
46 missing data are going to be handled in the analysis are critical issues that must be considered
47 when planning a clinical trial. A positive regulatory decision should not be based on an
48 analysis that is biased to an important degree in favour of the experimental agent. Hence when
49 proposing methods to handle missing data it is important that an analysis is provided for
50 which the absence of a bias favourable to experimental treatment (i.e. conservative) can be
51 established. The justification for selecting a particular method should not be based primarily
52 on the properties of the method under particular assumptions (for example MAR or MCAR)
53 but on whether it will provide an appropriately conservative estimate for the comparison of
54 primary regulatory interest in the circumstances of the trial under consideration.

55 1. INTRODUCTION (background)

56 Missing data are a potential source of bias when analysing clinical trials. Interpretation of the
57 results of a trial is always problematic when the number of missing values is substantial. This
58 problem is only partially covered in ICH E9 (Statistical Principles of Clinical Trials).

59 There are many possible sources of missing data, affecting either complete subjects or specific
60 items. There are many possible reasons for missing data (e.g. patient refusal to continue in the
61 study, treatment failures or successes, adverse events, patients moving) only some of which are
62 related to study treatment. Different degrees of data incompleteness can occur, i.e. measurements
63 may be available only at baseline, or may be missed for one or several follow-up assessments.
64 Even if a patient completes the study, some data may remain simply uncollected. In general this
65 document concentrates on how to handle the situation where data is missing due to patients
66 withdrawing from a trial.

67 Missing data violate the strict ITT principle which requires measurement of all patient outcomes
68 regardless of protocol adherence. This principle is of critical importance as confirmatory clinical
69 trials should estimate the effect of the experimental intervention in the population of patients with
70 greatest external validity and not the effect in the unrealistic scenario where all patients receive
71 treatment with full compliance to the treatment schedule and with a complete follow-up as per
72 protocol. Full set analysis generally requires the imputation of values or modelling for the
73 unrecorded data. Actually, even the per protocol analyses might also require the use of some
74 method of handling missing data. This process can have, depending upon the amount and type of
75 missing data, a crucial influence on the final results of a clinical trial and on the certainty with
76 which conclusions can be drawn.

77 The extent to which missing values lead to biased conclusions about the size and existence of any
78 treatment effect is influenced by many factors. Among these are the relationship between
79 missingness, treatment assignment, and outcome; and the type of measure employed to quantify
80 the treatment effect and the expected direction of changes over time for patients in the trial. All
81 relevant factors should be considered to determine appropriate strategies for missing data
82 handling (see Section 6).

83 It should be noted that the strategy employed to handle missing values might in itself provide a
84 source of bias and that there is no universal best approach for all situations. The acceptability of
85 an approach will depend on the assumptions made and whether it is reasonable to make these
86 assumptions in the particular case of interest. It is very important when designing a study that the
87 likely pattern of missing data is taken into account when specifying the primary analysis and the
88 predefined sensitivity analyses. The amount of missing data and the strategies selected to handle
89 missing data can influence the required sample size, the estimate of treatment effect and the
90 confidence with which data can ultimately be interpreted. As such, how to minimise the amount
91 of missing data and how missing data are going to be handled in the analysis are critical issues
92 that must be considered when planning a clinical trial.

93 This document is not an extensive review of all the available methods. Instead general
94 recommendations on acceptable frameworks for handling missing data in a regulatory setting are
95 outlined. A positive regulatory decision should not be based on an analysis that is biased in favour
96 of the experimental agent. Hence when proposing methods to handle missing data it is important
97 that an analysis is provided for which the absence of a bias favourable to experimental treatment
98 (*i.e.* the method is considered to be conservative) can be established.

99 **2. SCOPE**

100 This guideline provides advice on how the presence of missing data in a confirmatory clinical trial
101 should be addressed in a regulatory submission. The pattern of missing data (including reasons for and
102 timing of the missing data) observed in previous related clinical trials should be taken into account
103 when planning a confirmatory clinical trial. This information should be used to minimise the amount
104 of missing data present in a confirmatory clinical trial and assist in the choice of the method used to
105 analyse the primary endpoint. The method chosen should aim to provide a conservative estimate of the
106 treatment effect. In other words the treatment effect should not be biased to an important degree in
107 favour of the experimental treatment. It is also recommended that appropriate sensitivity analyses are
108 pre specified that explore the impact the methods used to handle missing data have on the
109 interpretation of the results of the trial.

110 **3. LEGAL BASIS**

111 The Guideline should be read in conjunction with Annex I to Directive 2001/83/EC, as amended, and
112 all other relevant EU and ICH guidelines. These include, but are not limited to:

113 CPMP/ICH/363/96, ICH Topic E9 Step 4 Note for Guidance on Statistical Principles for Clinical
114 Trials.

115 **4. THE EFFECT OF MISSING VALUES ON DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION**

116 The following problems may affect the interpretation of the trial results when some missing data
117 are present.

118 **4.1 Power and Variability**

119 The sample size and the variability of the outcomes affect the power of a clinical trial. Power is
120 greater the larger the sample size and the smaller the variability.

121 If missing values are handled by simply excluding any patients with missing values from the
122 analysis this will result in a reduction in the number of valid cases available for analysis and
123 therefore normally result in a reduction of the statistical power. Clearly the greater the number of
124 missing values the greater the likely reduction in power.

125 In addition, non-completers might be more likely to have extreme values (treatment failure
126 leading to dropout, extremely good response leading to loss of follow-up). Therefore, the loss of
127 these non-completers could lead to an underestimate of variability and hence artificially narrow
128 the confidence interval for the treatment effect, potentially increasing the power of the study.
129 However, this increase would be artificial and if the methods used to handle missing data do not
130 adequately take this into account the resulting confidence interval would not be considered a valid
131 summary of the uncertainty of the treatment effect.

132 If values for missing data are imputed or modelled then all subjects can be included in the analysis
133 in line with the ITT principle.

134 **4.2 Bias**

135 Bias is the most important concern resulting from missing data

136 If patients are excluded from the analysis this may affect:

- 137 • The comparability of the treatment groups.
- 138 • The representativeness of the study sample in relation to the target population (external
139 validity).

140 A consequence of this may be a bias in the estimation of the treatment effect.

141 While the reduction of the statistical power is mainly related to the number of missing values, the
142 risk of bias in the estimation of the treatment effect from the observed data depends upon the
143 relationship between missingness; treatment and outcome (see also Section 6.1):

- 144 • In principle missing values will not be expected to lead to bias if they are not related to the
145 real value of the unobserved measurement (e.g. poor outcomes are no more likely to be
146 missing than good outcomes).
- 147 • Conversely, if the unmeasured observation is related to the real value of the outcome (e.g.
148 the unobserved measurements have a higher proportion of poor outcomes), this will lead
149 to bias even if the missing values are not related to treatment (i.e. missing values are
150 equally likely in all treatment arms).
- 151 • Missing observations will lead to bias if they are related to both the treatment and the
152 unobserved outcome variable (e.g. missing values are more likely in one treatment arm
153 because it is not as effective).

154 In most cases it is difficult or impossible to elucidate whether the relationship between missing
155 values and the unobserved outcome variable is completely absent. Thus it is sensible to adopt a
156 conservative approach, considering missing values as a potential source of bias.

157 The causes of bias that critically affect interpretation will depend upon whether the objective of
158 the study was to show a difference or demonstrate equivalence/non-inferiority.

159 **5. GENERAL RECOMMENDATIONS**

160 Unfortunately, there is no methodological approach for handling missing values that is universally
161 accepted in all situations. Nevertheless there are some rules which should be considered when
162 handling missing data.

163 **5.1 Avoidance of missing data**

164 There is no rule regarding the maximum number of missing values that could be acceptable. The
165 quantity of missing data may be affected by a number of factors:

166 a) The nature of the outcome variable: the occurrence of missing values is expected to be lower
167 when the outcome variable is mortality (e.g. cardiovascular trials), than when the outcome is more
168 difficult to assess and requires the active participation of patients and/or sophisticated methods of
169 diagnosis.

170 b) The length of the clinical trials: the longer the follow up the greater the likelihood of missing
171 values.

172 c) The therapeutic indication: missing values are more frequent in those diseases where the
173 adherence of patients to the study protocol is usually low (e.g. Psychiatric disorders).

174 d) The treatment modalities: e.g. surgical versus medical treatment.

175 Several major difficulties arise as a result of the presence of missing values and these are
176 aggravated as the number of missing values increases. Thus, it is extremely important to avoid the
177 presence of unobserved measurements as much as possible, by favouring designs that minimise
178 this problem, as well as strengthening data collection regardless of the patient's adherence to the
179 protocol and encouraging the retrieval of data after the patient's drop-out. In some circumstances,
180 in particular where retrieved dropout information represents the progression of the patient without
181 (or before) impact of further therapeutic intervention, these data will give the best approximation
182 to the ITT population.

183 Where possible, outcome data from after withdrawal should be collected. Also data should be
184 collected on other therapies received post drop-out. Specifically full details of the type of therapy
185 given, including when and for how long it was used and at what dose, should be collected. This
186 information will allow the value of any outcome data collected after withdrawal to be put into
187 context.

188 **5.2 Design of the study. Relevance of predefinition**

189 It is very important when designing the study and specifying the statistical methods to be used, to
190 anticipate the number of missing values likely to be observed in the trial. Experience from
191 exploratory trials and from trials of other products in similar indications should inform
192 expectations for missing data when planning the trial. Careful planning will help specify a
193 plausible approach to handling missing data and also help specify a range of sensitivity analyses
194 that could explore the impact of departures from the expected missing data pattern. Indeed, an
195 estimate of the foreseen and acceptable amount of missing data is highly recommended: firstly
196 because this may have repercussions for the variability and the expectations of the effect size and
197 hence the sample size calculation, secondly because proper planning should minimise the risk that
198 the strategy for missing data handling itself introduces bias, and thirdly because the uncertainty in
199 interpreting the results introduced increases (and hence the number of sensitivity analyses
200 required may need to increase – See Section 7) as the number of missing values increases.

201 There is no universally applicable method of handling missing values, and different approaches
202 may lead to different results. To avoid concerns over data-driven selection methods, it is essential
203 to pre-specify the selected methods in the statistical section of the study protocol or analysis plan.
204 This section must include a detailed description of the selected methods and a justification of why
205 the methods to be applied are expected to be an appropriate way of summarising the efficacy
206 results of the study and to result in an absence of bias in favour of experimental treatment. The
207 sensitivity analyses to be performed should also be pre-specified.

208 It is considered of particular importance to ensure that the selected method is a conservative
209 approach that is not expected to favour the study's working (alternative) hypothesis (e.g.
210 demonstration of superiority to placebo or demonstration of non-inferiority to active control).
211 Some methods of handling missing data underestimate the variability associated with the
212 treatment effect and therefore produce artificially narrow confidence intervals.

213 The process of imputation or modelling might be relevant to not only the main variables, but also
214 the secondary efficacy, safety and baseline variables and covariates.

215 **5.3 Final report**

216 A detailed description of the pre-planned methods used for handling missing data, any
217 amendments of that plan and a justification for the amendment should be included in the clinical
218 study report.

219 A critical discussion of the number, timing, pattern, reason for and possible implications of
220 missing values in efficacy and safety assessments should be included in the clinical report as a
221 matter of routine. Graphical summaries (e.g. Kaplan-Meier plots) of the dropout patterns should
222 be provided so that it can be clearly seen if there is a differential dropout pattern between
223 treatment groups. These graphical summaries should identify the reason for dropout.

224 Data explorations and accompanying explanations that investigate missing data imbalance in all
225 relevant factors and whether patients with and without missing values have different
226 characteristics at baseline can also be informative. Data presentations should be such that it is
227 possible to determine the contribution of each patient to the statistical analysis. For example, if
228 single imputation methods are used the imputed values must be listed and identified.

229 If the pattern of missing data is different to that envisaged at the design stage, and the planned
230 sensitivity analyses are inadequate, further sensitivity analyses should be provided that are
231 tailored to the missing data pattern observed.

232 When a patient drops out of a trial full reporting of all reasons for their discontinuation should be
233 given. This should allow identification of the most important reason that caused them to
234 discontinue and this may influence how this subject is treated in the missing data analysis. Any
235 follow-up information collected post drop out could be helpful in justifying how this patient is
236 handled in all analyses.

237 As stated before, sensitivity analyses should investigate the robustness of the conclusions of a
238 study and it is essential that, under clearly stated assumptions, at least one analysis which gives a
239 demonstrably conservative estimate of the treatment effect. Also the confidence interval for this
240 analysis should appropriately reflect the uncertainty associated with the estimated treatment
241 effect.

242 Because of the unpredictability of some problems, it may be acceptable to allow in the study
243 protocol the possibility of updating the strategy for dealing with missing values in the statistical
244 analysis plan, or during the blind review of the data at the end of the trial. Relevant deviations
245 from and amendments of the pre-specified plan should be clearly documented and justified. In
246 addition, the time-point at which these deviations and amendments were decided and
247 implemented in relation to the blinding of the data must be clearly identified. Methods for the
248 documentation of these changes can be found in ICH E9. If unexpected missing data patterns are
249 found in the data it will be necessary to conduct some post hoc sensitivity analyses in addition to
250 those predefined in the statistical analysis plan (see section 7). In this case the reasons why these
251 analyses have been conducted should be carefully explained and thoroughly justified. Proper
252 planning will minimise the number of such analyses required, avoiding concerns over data-driven

253 selection of methods.

254 The final report must include documentation of any deviation from the expected number of
255 missing values, a discussion of whether the pre-defined analysis is still sensible, plus appropriate
256 sensitivity analyses.

257 **6. HANDLING OF MISSING DATA**

258 **6.1 Theoretical Framework**

259 The framework in the literature for the applicability of the different methods to handle
260 missingness is based on a classification according to the following missingness mechanisms:

- 261 • If the probability of an observation being missing does not depend on observed or
262 unobserved measurements then the observation is Missing Completely At Random
263 (MCAR). A typical example is a patient moving to another city for non-health reasons.
264 Patients who drop-out of a study for this reason could be considered a random sample
265 from the total study population and their characteristics are similar.
- 266 • If the probability of an observation being missing depends only on observed
267 measurements then the observation is Missing At Random (MAR). This assumption
268 implies that the behaviour of the post drop-out observations can be predicted from the
269 observed variables, and therefore that response can be estimated without bias using
270 exclusively the observed data. For example, when a patient drops out due to lack of
271 efficacy reflected by a series of poor efficacy outcomes that have been observed, the
272 appropriate value to assign to the subsequent efficacy endpoint for this patient can be
273 calculated using the observed data.
- 274 • When observations are neither MCAR nor MAR, they are classified as Missing Not At
275 Random (MNAR) or non-ignorable i.e. the probability of an observation being missing
276 depends on unobserved measurements. In this scenario, the value of the unobserved
277 responses depends on information not available for the analysis (i.e. not the values
278 observed previously on the analysis variable or the covariates being used), and thus, future
279 observations cannot be predicted without bias by the model. For example, it may happen
280 that after a series of visits with good outcome, a patient drops-out due to lack of efficacy.
281 In this situation the analysis model based on the observed data, including relevant
282 covariates, is likely to continue to predict a good outcome, but it is usually unreasonable
283 to expect the patient to continue to derive benefit from treatment.

284 As already stated in section 4.2., it is impossible to be certain whether there is a relationship
285 between missing values and the unobserved outcome variable or to judge whether that
286 missing data can be adequately predicted from the observed data. It is not possible to know
287 whether the MAR, never mind MCAR, assumptions are appropriate in any practical situation.
288 A proposition that no data in a confirmatory clinical trial are MNAR seems implausible.

289 Because it is considered that some data are MNAR, the properties (e.g. bias) of any methods
290 based on MCAR or MAR assumptions cannot be reliably determined for any given dataset.
291 Therefore the method chosen should not depend primarily on the properties of the method
292 under the MAR or MCAR assumptions but on whether it is considered to provide an
293 appropriately conservative estimate in the circumstances of the trial under consideration.

294 **6.2 Complete case analysis**

295 One approach used to handle incomplete data is to ignore them and to perform the statistical

296 analysis with complete data only (complete case analysis). Some problems associated with this
297 approach are discussed in section 3. Furthermore, complete case analysis violates the intention to
298 treat principle and is subject to bias. Therefore this approach cannot be recommended as the
299 primary analysis in a confirmatory trial. The approach may be considered in other circumstances,
300 *e.g.*

- 301 • In exploratory studies, especially in the initial phases of drug development.
- 302 • In confirmatory trials as a secondary supportive analysis (sensitivity analysis) to illustrate
303 the robustness of conclusions.

304 **6.3 Methods of handling of missing data**

305 Factors that affect the acceptability of individual methods include differences between the
306 treatment groups in the proportion and timing of withdrawals, the direction of any spontaneous
307 changes over time, and the reason for the withdrawals. All of these factors must be
308 comprehensively displayed and their influence discussed when the method used to impute missing
309 data is justified. This highlights the importance of proper planning (see section 5.2).

310 **Single imputation methods**

311 To cope with situations where response collection is interrupted after one point, one widely used
312 method is last observation carried forward (LOCF). This analysis uses the last measured response
313 as an endpoint by itself, not necessarily attached to a particular study time point. LOCF is one
314 example of a single imputation method.

315 LOCF only produces unbiased treatment estimates under the MCAR assumption, but this
316 approach can still provide a conservative estimate of the treatment effect in some circumstances.

317 To give some particular examples, if the patient's condition is expected to deteriorate over time
318 (for example Alzheimer's disease) an LOCF analysis is very likely to give overly optimistic
319 results for both treatment groups and if the withdrawals on the active group are earlier (*e.g.*
320 because of adverse events) the treatment comparison may be biased in favour of the test product.
321 Hence in this situation an LOCF analysis is not considered appropriate. Indeed in Alzheimer's
322 disease, finding a method that gives an appropriate estimate of the treatment effect will usually be
323 difficult and multiple sensitivity analyses may be required.

324 However, in other clinical situations (*e.g.* depression), where the condition is expected to improve
325 spontaneously over time, LOCF (even though it has some sub optimal statistical properties) might
326 be conservative in the situations where patients in the experimental group tend to withdraw earlier
327 and more frequently. Establishing a treatment effect based on a primary analysis which is clearly
328 conservative represents compelling evidence of efficacy from a statistical perspective.

329 Baseline observation carried forward (BOCF) is another single imputation approach that is
330 sometimes used. The use of BOCF may be appropriate in, for example, a chronic pain trial where
331 when a patient withdraws from treatment it may be reasonable to assume that their pain return to
332 their baseline level and that the patient does not, in the long-term, derive benefit from treatment.

333 Another simple approach for imputing missing data is to replace the unobserved measurements by
334 values derived from other sources. Possible sources include information from the same subject
335 collected before withdrawal, from other subjects with similar baseline characteristics, a predicted
336 value from an empirically developed model, historical data. Examples of empirically developed
337 models are unconditional and conditional mean imputation, best or worst case imputation
338 (assigning the worst possible value of the outcome to dropouts for a negative reason (treatment
339 failure) and the best possible value to positive dropouts (cures)), regression methods and hot-deck
340 imputation.

341 An attractive approach for imputing missing data may be to employ a different pre-specified
342 imputation technique for each different reason for withdrawal, rather than the same technique for
343 all patients. While this would represent a relatively novel approach, there is no objection to this in
344 principle. The strategy has more flexibility in handling different reasons for and timings of
345 withdrawal and consequently the possible relationship between missing data and the outcome of
346 interest. If used appropriately, it may better address the question of primary regulatory interest.
347 The method also offers an intuitive framework for conducting a range of sensitivity analyses.

348 A potential disadvantage of single imputation methods is that these methods risk biasing the
349 standard error downwards by estimating a central value and ignoring its uncertainty. Therefore,
350 the confidence intervals for the treatment effect calculated using single imputation methods may
351 be too narrow and give an artificial impression of precision that doesn't really exist. This
352 possibility should be addressed when results from these analyses are presented.

353 In conclusion, single imputation methods, including LOCF and BOCF, can be accepted as a
354 primary analysis in confirmatory trials provided that the applicant has justified that the estimated
355 treatment effect is not expected to be biased in favour of experimental treatment (see section 5.3)
356 and the associated confidence interval does not underestimate the variability of this estimate to an
357 important extent.

358 **Mixed models, Multiple imputation methods and Generalised estimating equations**

359 The risk of underestimating the variance when imputing can be avoided by some techniques such
360 as multiple imputation. Multiple imputation methods generate multiple copies of the original data
361 set replacing missing values by randomly generated values, and analyse them as complete sets.

362 Some statistical approaches to handling missing data do not employ formal imputation. For
363 continuous responses, linear mixed models are sometimes used to handle missingness when a
364 series of outcomes are measured repeatedly over time (mixed-effect models for repeated measures
365 (MMRM)). For categorical responses and count data, the so-called marginal (e.g. generalized
366 estimating equations (GEE)) and random-effects (e.g., generalized linear mixed models (GLMM))
367 approaches are in use. Likelihood-based methods (MMRM and GLMM) and some extended GEE
368 (*i.e.* weighted GEE) models are applicable under MCAR and MAR assumptions.

369 In many cases, there is a variety of different settings for each method which could lead to
370 different conclusions (e.g. type of variance-covariance matrix for MMRM, method for imputation
371 on MI approaches, assumptions to model the un-observed measurements used in the MNAR
372 methods, etc.). Therefore, the precise option settings must be fully justified and predefined in
373 advance in detail, so that the results could be replicated by an external analyst.

374 The methods above are unbiased under the MAR assumption and can be thought of as aiming to
375 estimate the treatment effect that would have been observed if all patients had continued on
376 treatment for the full study duration. Therefore, for effective treatments these methods have the
377 potential to overestimate the size of the treatment effect likely to be seen in practice and hence to
378 introduce bias in favour of experimental treatment in some circumstances. In light of this the point
379 estimates obtained can be similar to those from a complete cases analysis. This is problematic in
380 the context of a regulatory submission as confirmatory clinical trials should estimate the effect of
381 the experimental intervention in the population of patients with greatest external validity and not
382 the effect in the unrealistic scenario where all patients receive treatment with full compliance to
383 the treatment schedule and with a complete follow-up as per protocol. The appropriateness of
384 these methods will be judged by the same standards as for any other approach to missing data (*i.e.*
385 absence of important bias in favour of the experimental treatment) but in light of the concern
386 above, the use of only these methods to investigate the efficacy of a medicinal product in a
387 regulatory submission will only be sufficient if missing data are negligible. The use of these

388 methods as a primary analysis can only be endorsed if the absence of important bias in favour of
389 the experimental treatment can be substantiated.

390 Generally, MNAR data is difficult to rule out, and it is not clear whether even a small amount of
391 MNAR data could have an impact on the study results in a particular experiment. Therefore
392 approaches that investigate different MNAR scenarios such as pattern mixture, selection and
393 shared parameter models should be explored. A combined strategy incorporating several methods
394 for handling missingness may also be considered. As described above, methods that do not
395 assume MCAR or MAR such as pattern mixture models may offer a flexible framework to
396 explore the impact of treating different types of missing data as MNAR and evaluating the impact
397 different modelling strategies have on the estimated treatment effect.

398 **Survival analysis**

399 When the outcome measure is time to event, survival models which take into account censored
400 observations may be used. However, standard survival methods assume that there is no
401 relationship between the response and the missing outcome. This generally cannot be assumed
402 and violations from this assumption could lead to biased results. Therefore whether it is
403 reasonable to assume non-informative censoring should be discussed in a study report and in
404 situations where the amount of missing data/patient withdrawals could influence whether the
405 treatment effect is established or could influence the size of the treatment effect, a range of
406 sensitivity analyses should be provided. Further considerations for handling this type of data are
407 outlined in Appendix 1 to the CHMP guideline on the evaluation of anticancer medicinal products
408 in man (EMA/CHMP/EWP/267575/2006Corr.).

409 **Responder analysis**

410 Commonly, the primary analysis of a continuous variable is supported by a responder analysis.
411 How missing data are going to be categorised in this analysis should be pre-specified and
412 justified. There will be some experimental situations when conducting a responder analysis could
413 be a viable option for the primary analysis.

414 **7. SENSITIVITY ANALYSES**

415 In this context, sensitivity analyses can be defined as a set of analyses where the missing data is
416 handled in a different way in each analysis. This will show the influence of different methods of
417 handling missing data on the study results. These analyses can help to justify the choice of the
418 particular method applied as the primary approach.

419 In all submissions with non-negligible amounts of missing data sensitivity analyses should be
420 presented as support to the main analysis. Because the performance of any analysis presented (in
421 terms of bias and precision) cannot be fully elucidated, presentation of trial results without
422 adequate investigation of the assumptions made for handling missing data cannot be considered
423 comprehensive.

424 If the results of the sensitivity analyses are consistent and lead to reasonably similar estimates of
425 the treatment effect this provides some assurance that the lost information had little or no effect
426 on the overall study conclusions. In this situation the robustness of the results is clear and the
427 missing values will not generally be considered to be a serious source of concern. A broader range
428 of sensitivity analyses will give greater reassurance on the robustness of the trial results.
429 Conversely, whilst not all sensitivity analyses must necessarily give statistically significant
430 results, if they produce inconsistent results (e.g. a markedly smaller estimate of treatment effect),
431 their repercussions on the conclusions of the trial must be discussed. In certain circumstances, the

432 influence of missing data is so great that it might not be possible to reliably interpret the results
433 from the trial.

434 The sensitivity analyses required will need to be defined on a case-by-case basis, though will
435 usually comprise the analyses already described in Section 6 above.

436 Some ways of performing a sensitivity analysis are:

- 437 • Compare the results of the full set analysis to those of the complete case analysis.
- 438 • As discussed in section 6.2 it is not possible to guarantee that at least some of the missing
439 data are not MNAR. Therefore, further sensitivity analyses that treat certain types of
440 missing data as MNAR should be provided. It may be appropriate to treat data missing for
441 different reasons in different ways. A range of analyses should be provided that explore
442 these possibilities. For each of these analyses a clear explanation of what values have been
443 imputed should be given. This may be done using multiple imputation methods
444 incorporating pattern mixture approaches.
- 445 • Compare the impact different model settings have on the results. If different results are
446 obtained from models using the same missing mechanism assumption (e.g. MI versus
447 MMRM both assuming MAR) full details of the differences between these models that
448 explain the different results obtained should be provided. In any case the impact different
449 settings of a model have on the results obtained should be explained in detail.
- 450 • Utilise retrieved drop-out data if not already done for the primary analysis. If a patient has
451 received other therapies after withdrawing from the study a positive value for the primary
452 endpoint at the end of the trial could be due, in part at least, to the switching of therapies
453 for this patient. Analyses that down play the positive outcome to give a more realistic
454 view of the product being evaluated should be conducted.
- 455 • In a responder analysis, an analysis that treats all missing values as failures or treats
456 missing values due to a certain reason (e.g. due to adverse events) as failures and for other
457 reasons (e.g. excellent response to treatment for majority of trial with missing final value)
458 as successes.
- 459 • A worst case analysis: compare the results of two analyses, one assigning the best possible
460 outcome to missing values in the control group and the worst possible to those of the
461 experimental group. If this extreme analysis is still favourable then it can be confidently
462 concluded that the results are robust to the handling of missing data.

463 Each sensitivity analysis should be designed to assess the effect on the results of the particular
464 assumptions made in the handling of the missingness. The sensitivity analysis should be planned
465 and described in the protocol and/or in the statistical analysis plan and any changes must be
466 documented and justified in the study report.

467 **REFERENCES**

468 Appendix 1 to the CHMP guideline on the evaluation of anticancer medicinal products in man
469 (EMA/CHMP/EWP/267575/2006Corr.).

470 ICH E9 Statistical Principles of Clinical Trials (CPMP/ICH/363/96).