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4 **Guideline on the evaluation of medicinal products for**
5 **the treatment of irritable bowel syndrome**
6 **Draft**

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8 The proposed guideline will replace "Points to consider on the evaluation of medicinal products for
9 the treatment of Irritable Bowel Syndrome



Comments should be provided using this [template](#). The completed comments form should be sent to gastroenterologydg@ema.europa.eu

Comments from paediatric gastroenterology and neurogastroenterology experts are especially welcome on Chapter 7.1. and the issue to use efficacy data from neighbouring indications in children.

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Keywords	<i>Irritable Bowel Syndrome, Rome criteria, patient reported outcome (PRO), Health related Quality of Life (HrQoL)</i>
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12 Guideline on the evaluation of medicinal products for
13 the treatment of irritable bowel syndrome

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33 **Executive summary**

34 This guideline intends to address the EU regulatory position in the main topics of clinical
35 development of new medicinal products in the treatment of patients with Irritable Bowel Syndrome
36 (IBS).

37 The main changes introduced into this guideline compared to the previous “Points to Consider on
38 the Evaluation of Medicinal Products for the treatment of Irritable Bowel Syndrome”, refer to the
39 following: The patient population to be selected has been changed from Rome II to Rome III
40 criteria, and more flexibility towards possible future changes in the definition of the disease is
41 introduced. The recommendation on primary endpoints to be used in confirmatory trials has been
42 changed from a co-primary endpoint of global assessment and pain, to the evaluation of stool
43 related abnormalities and pain. Moreover, dedicated chapters on special patient groups (gender,
44 children and elderly) and on geographic region are introduced.

45 **1. Introduction (background)**

46 This guideline is a revision and expansion of the previous “Points to Consider on the Evaluation of
47 Medicinal Products for the treatment of Irritable Bowel Syndrome”, which has been in operation
48 since the year 2003.

49 Irritable Bowel Syndrome (IBS) is a functional gastrointestinal disorder in which abdominal
50 discomfort or pain is associated with changes in bowel habits, stool consistency and other features
51 of disordered defecation ^{1 2 3}. The pathophysiological basis of the symptoms is still incompletely
52 understood, but it features disturbances of motor and sensory function, subclinical inflammatory
53 changes, altered microbiome, associated psychosocial disorders, and genetics. By definition,
54 however, in a more “conventional” sense, the diagnosis still excludes structural or biochemical
55 abnormalities of the gut ^{4 5 6 7 8 9}.

56 IBS is considered to be one of the most frequent clinical problems in gastroenterology with an
57 estimated prevalence in the Western world of up to 20%. The age distribution is very broad, but
58 40% of the patients are aged between 35 and 50 years. Symptoms begin before the age of 35 in
59 50% of patients. The female to male ratio in community samples has been estimated to be
60 between 1:1 to 2:1, but a female predominance is more evident in those seeking health care. Only
61 between 30-70% of “patients” suffering from IBS symptoms are “consulters” with symptoms
62 experienced severe enough as to trigger a physician visit. IBS is not a life threatening condition;
63 however, for those patients with more severe disease it does have a relatively large impact on
64 quality of life, is leading to need for medical treatment and work absenteeism with consequent
65 economic costs ^{10 11 12}.

66 Contrary to the frequency of the syndrome, there is still a lack of adequately studied and more so
67 of licensed medications in Europe, and a certain unmet medical need for IBS has still to be realised.
68 Moreover, there is a wide history of unsuccessful drug development programmes in the field, and
69 the number of Marketing Authorisation Applications for the indication has been very low during the
70 past decade. Current approaches to therapy of IBS start with the identification of symptoms and
71 the exclusion of organic disease (at least with the so-called “red-flags”). Indeed, validation data of
72 (at least the Rome II criteria) have shown that IBS can be considered a fairly reliable diagnosis
73 based on defined symptomatology. The treatment consists of non-pharmacological options with
74 education, reassurance, and dietary modification up to the use of biofeedback and
75 psychotherapeutic intervention. Pharmacological options are usually recommended if non-
76 pharmacological methods alone have proven to be ineffective . Most of the current pharmacological

77 therapies aim at treating the symptoms with the rationale of modulating intestinal motility and/or
78 secretion, decreasing visceral sensitivity or treating associated disorders, such are anxiety and/or
79 depression ^{13 14 15 16 17}.

80 **2. Scope**

81 This Guideline is intended to assist applicants during the development of products for the treatment
82 of Irritable Bowel Syndrome (IBS).

83 Functional gastrointestinal disease is a matter of ongoing research with potential change of
84 paradigms. Therefore, the requirements as laid down in this guidance are generally open to
85 adaptation to results of ongoing research and changing consensus within the Scientific Community.

86 **3. Legal basis**

87 This guideline has to be read in conjunction with Annex I to Directive 2001/83/EC as amended, as
88 well as all other pertinent EU and ICH guidelines and regulations. . Applicants should also refer to
89 other relevant European and ICH guidelines (in their current version), particularly those one:

90 Note for Guidance on Dose Response Information to support Drug Registration (CPMP/ICH/378/95)

91 Note for Guidance on Choice of Control Group in Clinical Trials (CPMP/ICH/364/96)

92 Reflection paper on the extrapolation of results from clinical studies conducted outside Europe to
93 the EU-population (Draft; CHMP/EWP/692702/08)

94 Note for Guidance on Clinical Investigation of Medicinal Products in the Paediatric Population
95 (CHMP/ICH/2711/99)

96 Note for Guidance on Population Exposure: The Extent of Population Exposure to assess Clinical
97 Safety (CHMP/ICH/375/95)

98 Reflection Paper on the regulatory guidance for the use of Health-Related Quality of Life (HRQL)
99 measures in the evaluation of medicinal products (CHPM/EWP/139391/04)

100 **4. Disease classification/possible claims**

101 IBS is regarded to be a functional gastrointestinal disorder, thereby excluding a pathological
102 correlate by definition. Whereas most disorders “without pathological correlate” have been defined
103 as a diagnosis per exclusion, IBS has a long history of identifying symptoms or clustering
104 symptoms only to make up a reliable diagnosis. Historically, these definitions were the Manning,
105 Kruis, and the Rome (I-III) definitions of IBS. Currently, the Rome III criteria are regarded to be
106 the standard diagnostic criteria, although convincing validation (in the sense of assuring the correct
107 diagnosis) is missing, compared to the older classifications ^{18 19 20 21}.

108 This is even more true for the proposed sub-classification of IBS. However, at least the
109 concordance between the Rome II and Rome III classification of patients has been reported ²².

110 The current Rome III criteria define the IBS population as follows:

111 Recurrent abdominal pain or discomfort at least 3 days per month in the last 3 months (with
112 symptoms being present for the last three months and onset at least 6 months prior to diagnosis)
113 associated with 2 or more of the following

114 - Improvement with defecation

- 115 - Onset associated with a change in frequency of stool
- 116 - Onset associated with a change in form (appearance of stool)
- 117 Sub-typing of IBS patients is performed by the predominant stool pattern present in a patient:
- 118 - IBS with constipation (IBS-C): hard or lumpy stools $\geq 25\%$ and loose (or mushy) or watery
119 stools in $< 25\%$ of the bowel movements.
- 120 - IBS with diarrhoea (IBS-D): loss (mushy) or watery stools $\geq 25\%$ and hard or lumpy stools
121 $< 25\%$ of the bowel movements
- 122 - Mixed IBS (IBS-M): Hard or lumpy stools $\geq 25\%$ and loose (mushy) or watery stools $\geq 25\%$
123 of the bowel movements
- 124 - Unsubtyped IBS – Insufficient abnormality of stool consistency to meet the criteria for IBS-C,
125 D, or M.

126 The Rome III criteria are currently widely accepted as the scientific standard, and are therefore
127 also currently accepted as the standard of definition in the regulatory environment. The history of
128 constant change of the criteria, and the lesser acceptance of the criteria by primary care physicians
129 or certain learned societies²³, however, make it necessary to also accept potential other
130 classifications or criteria to define an adequate patient population in the regulatory field. Applicants
131 are therefore requested – in the definition of their patient population to be included into clinical
132 trials – either to choose the current most widely accepted standard – or to justify the definition
133 used in the development programme by all scientific data available, and by evaluating concordance
134 between the chosen criteria and the most accepted criteria at the time of conduct of trials.

135 Due to the poor validation data available, and considering clinical practice, the selection of patients
136 should usually be done based on both, symptom-based criteria and exclusion of relevant other
137 diseases with similar symptoms (see Chapter 6.2.).

138 Although sub-typing of patients has not or only incompletely been validated, the potential target of
139 treatment may determine the adequate subgroups to be included into the clinical development
140 programme, at least for the clearest currently valid subtypes of IBS-D and IBS-C. Examples from
141 past development programmes are the two compounds acting on the serotonergic system,
142 tegaserod and alosetron, with their antagonistic or agonistic activity determining the adequate
143 subpopulation. It is considered acceptable that the primary pharmacology of candidate compounds
144 – or the results of studies in the early phases of development (see 6.1) – determines the selection
145 of subgroups of patients (e.g. GC-C receptor activation for IBS-C; TPH₁-blocker for IBS-D)²⁴.
146 However, for candidates with different modes of actions such as centrally acting agents, or
147 probiotics, a “global” development, acting on all subtypes of IBS will also be regarded to be
148 acceptable

149 From the two main features of IBS, the abdominal pain and the associated defecation
150 abnormalities, it is obvious that medicinal products influencing both, mucosal sensitivity, and at the
151 same time motility and/or secretion appear to be the most promising candidates.

152 5. Clinical Study Design

153 5.1. Patient selection

154 The study population should generally be representative of a broad spectrum of IBS patients in the
155 sense that patients are recruited from primary, secondary, and tertiary care settings. It is
156 recommended to select patients with a certain severity level of symptoms and/or reduction of

157 quality of life representative for the usual “consulter” population As part of the inclusion criteria
158 these parameters should be evaluated not only by history taking, but with a 10-14 days run-in
159 period (see also 6.3.).

160 Depending on the sub-type of IBS, or the sub-population intended for treatment with the
161 compound, additional characteristics should be made part of the inclusion criteria, such as a certain
162 level of pain to be present (depending on the scale to be used for the final evaluation of pain) and
163 – at least for the most relevant subgroups of IBS-C and IBS-D a certain level of symptoms defining
164 constipation and/or diarrhoea. This should be based on the number of stools per week, and the
165 form of the stools present (as measured by the Bristol Stool Form Scale).

166 IBS is a disease with a variable course. Whereas previously, it was considered that the majority of
167 patients have only mild to moderate symptoms with the famous “waxing and waning”
168 characteristics, and only a tiny minority of patients was expected to have constant and severe
169 symptoms, newer work on the classification of symptom course and severity classification have
170 partly come to different conclusions^{25 26 27}. The inclusion criteria should however, still define and
171 select the patient population also according to consistency of symptoms over time.

172 The general recommendation is to use the Rome III criteria for inclusion, and to add a relevant
173 diagnostic work-up for the most relevant potential other diseases. This work-up should be made
174 part of the in- or exclusion criteria and should comprise the following: Lactose intolerance, coeliac
175 disease, laboratory tests (blood count, electrolytes, liver enzymes), stool cultures, blood in stool,
176 procto-/sigmoidoscopy (colonoscopy for those older than 60) and abdominal ultrasound. Patients
177 with abnormal findings in these investigations should normally be excluded from clinical studies in
178 IBS, as well as patients with a family history of colorectal cancer (if cancer has not adequately
179 been excluded). As regards the requirement for endoscopic examination, a historical investigation
180 (e.g. within a period of 2 years (period to be justified) which can be documented in written form)
181 may be acceptable if no relevant change in symptoms has occurred since.

182 As mentioned earlier, the symptom-based criteria can be updated according to the current state of
183 the art, and should – if deviating from the current standard – be adequately justified.

184 **5.2. Concomitant medication**

185 During trials, the use of concomitant medication should be restricted. Drugs with analgesic action
186 or with specific effects on bowel function should generally be excluded, and may only be allowed as
187 specific “rescue medication” if adequately justified. The rescue medication should be clearly
188 specified and evaluated as efficacy parameter (and for safety). The use of antidepressants –
189 medication potentially used to treat concomitant psychiatric co-morbidity, but also used for the
190 treatment of IBS – could be allowed, provided that patients are on stable doses prior to study
191 entry, and are maintained on that dose for the duration of the study. Lifestyle and dietary
192 measures for treating IBS should be stabilised prior to study entry and be maintained during the
193 course of a clinical trial.

194 **5.3. Early exploratory studies**

195 Candidate compounds should – after the primary pharmacology has been characterised in the pre-
196 clinical development – also be evaluated for their pharmacodynamic properties in humans.
197 Although extrapolation from in-vitro and animal experiments may be acceptable if the late stage
198 evaluation of candidates shows clinically relevant improvements in symptoms with an acceptable
199 safety profile, the evaluation of the pharmacodynamic properties in the early development may
200 help to understand the mode of action of a compound more clearly, and thus support the biological

201 plausibility of the clinical effects achieved. Moreover, effects seen with evaluation of
202 pharmacodynamic endpoints in different patient populations can be useful for the determination of
203 the final target population.

204 It is therefore recommended to conduct – preferably after the human tolerability and early
205 pharmacokinetic studies have been finalised – pharmacodynamic studies in healthy volunteers
206 and/or in suitable IBS-patients. These studies should investigate the effects of a candidate
207 compound on gastrointestinal motility and on intestinal sensitivity.

208 A wide range of potential investigations for the evaluation of motility is available and the method
209 should be chosen based on the characterisation of the pharmacology in the pre-clinical
210 development²⁸. The potential influence of new candidate compounds on (the perception) of
211 abdominal pain should be investigated by studies evaluating rectal distension^{29 30}. All compounds,
212 but especially those influencing central pathways of pain processing and/or perception may be
213 evaluated by the newer methods of cerebral evoked potentials, PET, or function magnetic
214 resonance imaging, although these methods have currently to be regarded as partly still
215 experimental³¹.

216 **5.4. Main clinical studies**

217 **Late exploratory studies**

218 In the phase II of the development, all candidate drugs should be evaluated for their dose-
219 response relationship. These studies should already reflect the intended use of compounds
220 (intermittent and/or continuous use) and the selection of the IBS-subtype. The treatment setting
221 and the subgroup to be chosen should be based on the pharmacological profile of the compound,
222 and the results of the in-vitro, animal, and early human study results.

223 **Confirmatory studies**

224 The design of the pivotal clinical studies is proposed to be different according to the intended use:
225 Depending on the pharmacology of the compound, and the results of early PD trials, either a long-
226 term continuous use, or a short-term repeated treatment may be investigated (or, if deemed
227 adequate, even both). However, for all studies, a 10-14 days lead-in period should be part of the
228 design, in order to adequately determine the fulfilment of the in- and exclusion criteria. A placebo
229 treatment during this period is not recommended, and the exclusion of placebo responders is
230 discouraged. During the run-in period, treatment of IBS symptoms should be done with a defined
231 rescue medication only. Both types of treatment schedules should be investigated in placebo-
232 controlled, randomised, double-blind trials. The inclusion of an active comparator can currently not
233 be recommended, but may become adequate in the future, once a “standard pharmacological
234 therapy” is established. Even if such a “standard agent” has been established, placebo will still be
235 considered to be the most adequate and decisive comparator, and in such a case, it is
236 recommended to include active control only as a third arm.

237 **a) Short-term intermittent treatment**

238 Short-term treatment intermittent use of compounds should be evaluated in repeated treatment
239 courses shorter than 8 weeks. Previously, a duration of 4 weeks has been included in the “Points to
240 Consider on the evaluation of medicinal products for the treatment of Irritable Bowel Syndrome”.
241 This is still generally regarded to be adequate, however, the duration of the treatment cycles
242 should be justified based on the pharmacology of the compound and can be shorter (e.g. use of
243 antibiotics or probiotics). At least one repeated treatment cycle has to be documented.

244 Depending on the pharmacology of the compound, and the envisaged target population, studies
245 administering study drug “as needed”, or “on demand” are also possible. .

246 For the treatment scenarios in short-term intermittent use, generally many designs are possible,
247 and the following features would require careful consideration:

248 - The patient groups to be (re-)randomised for the initial and for the repeated cycle (e.g.
249 balanced or unbalanced first randomisation; open-label treatment in the first cycle (if first
250 treatment cycle has been documented in a separate trial); re-randomisation of all patients
251 or responders only)

252 - The number of re-treatment cycles and the duration of cycles “on” and “off” medication
253 (e.g. fixed or flexible duration up to a completely flexible design with variable duration of
254 “on-” and “off-treatment” cycles, counting “good days/bad days” with fixed total study
255 duration)

256 - The definition of relapse in the periods off active treatment (e.g. the same or different level
257 of severity)

258 The patient population for such treatment scenarios would have to be adapted (i.e. not suitable for
259 a population suffering from continuous symptoms).

260 Generally, the aim of the trials documenting repeated treatment should be to show that not only
261 superiority of the investigative agent over placebo is achieved during its first use, but it should also
262 be investigated whether there is a potential to maintain beneficial effects during the periods off-
263 treatment. The aim of the repeated treatment would be whether a similar effect (as compared to
264 the first cycle) can be achieved if the compound is administered after relapse has occurred. The
265 design of such trials should be intended to better imitate “real world conditions” in which patients
266 frequently stop medication, or grant themselves a “drug holiday”.

267 It is generally recommended to seek Scientific Advice if such an approach is pursued.

268 • **b) Long-term continuous treatment:**

269 Large, double-blind, parallel group, placebo-controlled clinical trials should be performed in patients
270 intended or found suitable for long-term continuous use. The trials should be long enough to
271 determine if any response will be sustained, and to cover a potential late drop-out, and/or change
272 in IBS-subtype. The duration of such studies is recommended to be at least 6 months. Other study
273 designs and/or durations will have to be justified in terms of their ability to adequately assess long-
274 term sustained efficacy, withdrawal, and rebound, as well as safety.

275 All compounds should also be evaluated for the occurrence of withdrawal and/or rebound effects in
276 studies reflecting the intended duration of treatment, which is preferentially included in at least one
277 of the phase III confirmatory trials. A randomised withdrawal phase in such studies is currently
278 considered to be the best method to have available a full comparison between ongoing treatment,
279 new onset of treatment, and withdrawal of the active compound.

280 **5.5. Endpoints**

281 **a) Primary endpoints:**

282 The previous “Points to consider” did include the recommendation to present two co-primary
283 endpoints as primary outcome, namely the “patient’s global assessment of symptoms” and the
284 assessment of abdominal discomfort/pain, based on the fact that currently no validated and widely
285 accepted outcome measures for assessing clinical endpoints in IBS were available. This has, in
286 principle not changed since, and the recommendation to use two co-primary endpoints remains
287 unchanged.

288 Previous controversy on the adequacy and method of global assessment tools, especially the binary
289 “adequate relief” assessment^{32 33}, and repeated conferences with the Rome foundation under
290 inclusion of regulatory agencies^{34 35 36 37 38} have led to the conclusion that the global symptom
291 evaluation should no longer be part of the primary evaluation.³⁹ The global assessment of all
292 symptoms, as intended in the “adequate relief” or other similar endpoint has the obvious
293 disadvantage that it partly also covers the evaluation of abdominal pain and discomfort at the
294 same time. A large effect on this feature of the disease might therefore lead to a huge effect even
295 in the case where only minimal changes on the defecation related symptoms are achieved.

296 This guideline therefore recommends the further development and validation of PRO instruments
297 for the use as primary outcome parameter in clinical trials in IBS. Such an instrument should be a
298 multi-item PRO, including and reflecting the clinically important signs and symptoms in IBS.
299 Different instruments may be suitable (or be needed) for different disease subtypes, and even for
300 different sub-populations. An instrument to be used as primary outcome measure in pivotal clinical
301 trials in IBS should be completely and rigorously validated. Such an instrument, however, is
302 currently not available.

303 It is therefore recommended for the time being, to assess the main symptomatology in at least
304 partially validated scales/outcome parameters. Because the main symptoms in IBS are considered
305 to be abdominal pain/discomfort along with abnormalities in defecation (consistency and frequency
306 of stools), and there is ongoing controversy on whether abdominal discomfort is a symptom
307 distinctly different from abdominal pain (and whether it should be evaluated together or
308 separately) the main endpoints are now recommended along with the Rome III definitions. The two
309 co-primary endpoints should therefore consist of the evaluation of abdominal pain and the
310 evaluation of stool frequency for IBS-C (based on the number of complete spontaneous bowel
311 movements (CSBMs) per week), and the evaluation of stool consistency for IBS-D, based on the
312 Bristol Stool Form Scale. For other subtypes of IBS, and for “global” development programmes
313 intending to treat two or more subtypes, the use of the global assessment is, however, still
314 recommended. Both endpoints should be evaluated primarily as responder rates. The numerical
315 evaluation of changes in scales is regarded to be a secondary endpoint. For the evaluation of
316 abdominal pain, the use of a 11-point NRS-scale has at least been partially validated for use in IBS,
317 and is therefore regarded to be acceptable⁴⁰. However, the previously recommended use of other
318 scales for pain can also still be accepted, if adequately justified. As previously requested, scales
319 (other than the 11-point NRS) should be open to change in both directions

320 Primary endpoints are therefore recommended as follows:

321 A responder is defined as a patient who fulfils the response criteria displayed in the following for at
322 least 50% of the observation time.

- 323 • a) IBS-D: A responder is defined as a patient with an abdominal pain score which has
324 improved at least 30% compared to baseline and who experiences at the same time an at
325 least 50% reduction in the number of days with at least one stool that has a consistency of 6
326 or 7 (in the BSFS) compared to baseline.⁴¹
- 327 • b) IBS-C: A responder is defined as a patient with an abdominal pain score which has
328 improved at least 30% compared to baseline and who experiences at the same time an
329 increase of at least one CSBM per week compared to baseline.
- 330 • c) IBS-M, IBS-unsubtyped, mixed IBS-C and IBS-D populations: A responder is defined as a
331 patient with a subjects global assessment of efficacy scale of the highest two improvement
332 grades if a 7-point scale is used, or of the highest improvement grade if a 5-point scale is

333 used, and as a patient with an abdominal pain score which has improved at least 30%
334 compared to baseline.

335 Most of these evaluations can be based on daily (“worst abdominal pain in the past 24 hours”; “one
336 stool per day”), however, the criterion for improvement of stool frequency can be based on weekly
337 evaluations only. Therefore, the primary evaluation should be based on weekly responder rates in
338 the case of b). In the cases a) and c) the primary evaluation can also be based on daily responder
339 rates. However, in order to advocate such an approach, the evaluation of daily symptom collection
340 should be evaluated in the phase 2 trials, in order to prove a comparable distribution of the rate of
341 missing values across the different days of a week and an acceptable low number of missing values
342 overall.

343 In cases of weekly evaluations of the primary endpoints a minimally required number of valid diary
344 entries should be defined in order to be evaluable as responder, and define patients below this
345 threshold as non-responders.

346 A deterioration of the symptoms towards the end of the treatment period should also be excluded,
347 which can be achieved by applying the 50%-rule to the last four weeks of treatment in addition to
348 the overall requirements for responder definition.

349 **b) Secondary endpoints:**

350 In development programmes, where the global evaluation of the symptomatology is not included
351 as primary endpoint (choices a) and b)), a global symptom assessment should be defined as the
352 main secondary endpoint. The choice of a scale measuring improvement and deterioration is clearly
353 recommended. The global assessment can also likewise be based on daily or weekly responder
354 rates as recommended for the primary endpoint.

355 Secondary endpoints in IBS are regarded to complement the evaluation of the primary endpoints
356 and are required to be generally supportive of the primary endpoints, because the currently
357 proposed co-primary endpoints are not regarded to be fully validated. The further secondary
358 endpoints should include the following, but may not be exhaustive and can be adapted based on
359 the disease subtype to be studied, if adequately justified:

- 360 - The numerical evaluation of stool frequency (CSBM and SBM) and stool consistency
- 361 - The numerical evaluation of abdominal pain and the evaluation of the number of
362 pain free days
- 363 - The numerical and responder evaluation on abdominal discomfort, straining and
364 bloating
- 365 - The evaluation of urgency of defecation, distension
- 366 - Different thresholds for the responder analysis of abdominal pain (e.g. 40% and
367 50% improvement)
- 368 - The evaluation of change in a defined severity scale of IBS (e.g. IBS-SSS).
- 369 - The evaluation of Quality of Life using validated generic and disease specific Quality
370 of Life scales.
- 371 - Sensitivity analyses
- 372 - Different thresholds as regards duration of response (e.g. 75% of the time for the
373 primary evaluations and other responder evaluations)

- 374 - Evaluation of different thresholds for the definition of invalid or missing data entry
375 being defined as non-responders
- 376 - Evaluation of different imputation of missing values, depending on the method used
377 for the primary analysis.
- 378 - Exploratory endpoints
- 379 - The evaluation of psychological/psychiatric co-morbidity on established scales
- 380 - Impact on work productivity and health care utilisation if deemed relevant

381 **6. Studies in Special patient groups**

382 **6.1. Children**

383 IBS in children has also been characterised by the Rome III criteria. According to these criteria,
384 IBS is clearly differentiated by definition from the other childhood abdominal pain related disorders
385 such as functional dyspepsia, abdominal migraine, functional abdominal pain, and functional
386 abdominal pain syndrome. The occurrence of recurrent abdominal pain in childhood, as well as IBS
387 seems to determine the occurrence of IBS in adulthood^{42 43}. According to results from North
388 America, IBS in childhood appears to have a high prevalence in school children⁴⁴, however, other
389 data have questioned this high frequency for Europe^{45 46}. The real incidence and prevalence of
390 the disease might even make the conduct of clinical trials difficult in general (see below). Previous
391 trials in the indication have suffered from very low recruitment⁴⁷.

392 IBS in children – for the conduct of clinical studies – should be defined on the current proposals of
393 the Rome Committee (Rome III criteria) unless otherwise adequately justified. According to these
394 criteria, IBS in childhood is defined as follows:

395 A patient must have all of the following:

- 396 - Abdominal discomfort or pain associated with 2 or more of the following at least 25% of the
397 time:
- 398 a) improved with defecation
- 399 b) onset associated with a change in frequency of stool
- 400 c) onset associated with a change in form (appearance of stool)
- 401 - No evidence of an inflammatory, anatomic, metabolic, or neoplastic process that explains
402 the subject's symptoms.

403 The differences in comparison to the adult IBS definitions are obvious, and contrary to adults, the
404 disease has not been defined on a symptom basis only, but also as a diagnosis of exclusion. The
405 diagnostic work-up in children to be included in clinical trials will have to reflect this. In addition It
406 should include careful history taking not only from the patient but also from the caregiver, drafting
407 of growth charts, and evaluation of recent and current growth. The omission of or need for
408 endoscopic evaluations should be justified

409 It is therefore concluded that separate trials have to be conducted in children in order to prove
410 efficacy and safety of drug candidates. Extrapolation from adults to children – even to adolescents
411 – appears to be questionable.

412 Ideally, separate trials should be conducted in different age ranges according to the children's
413 abilities to reliably express and rate symptoms (or the caregivers to do so) and the subsequent

414 restricted availability of reliable outcome measures. The development of outcome measures for IBS
415 in children is encouraged.

416 Dose-response/dose finding and PK data should be generated in all age groups from 4-18 years.

417 Type of study:

418 In children prospective, multi-centre, double-blind, placebo-controlled, randomised trials are
419 necessary, a third arm with a waiting list can be included into studies in children. Because the
420 inter-rater reliability for the Rome III criteria has been shown to be rather low, special emphasis
421 should be put on the careful selection of patients in clinical trials.⁴⁸ Withdrawal and rebound effects
422 should also be investigated in children, or otherwise their absence adequately be justified. The
423 study duration for the proof of efficacy should be long enough to cover a potential spontaneous
424 change in symptom type, depending on the population included. A study duration of 2-3 months
425 may be sufficient in children, if long-term safety and efficacy in adults has adequately been
426 demonstrated in a population with stable symptoms. Long-term safety data should be generated in
427 addition (see below)⁴⁹⁵⁰. Intermittent treatment cycles may also be adequate to be documented
428 depending on the patient population included (See Chapter 6.3) and intent of medication.

429 In consideration of the potential recruitment problems for studies in children, supportive evidence
430 for efficacy may be collected in “neighbouring” indications such as abdominal migraine, functional
431 abdominal pain, and functional abdominal pain syndrome. Depending on the IBS-subtype,
432 supporting data may also come from trials in functional constipation or functional diarrhoea.

433 Primary endpoint:

434 Similar to adults, IBS is defined to be a pain related syndrome accompanied by stool irregularities.
435 The primary endpoint should therefore similarly be defined as a combination of pain relief and relief
436 of stool disturbances. Global functioning (effect on psychosocial traits and daily functioning) should
437 be defined as secondary endpoint. No clear guidance can currently be given whether a 30% degree
438 of improvement in pain – as validated for adults – will be of similar clinical importance as in adults.
439 An at least 50% improvement (in the pain scale used compared to baseline) will be preferred. The
440 need to develop reliable PROs adequate for the different age group is similarly obvious for children
441 than it is in adults and is encouraged.

442 Safety:

443 Depending on the type of study drug (e.g. mechanism of action) special safety issues will have to
444 be addressed in different childhood ages concerned. As IBS is considered a chronic disease entity
445 even for children, long-term safety data – of at least one year – have to be collected.

446 In general, developmental parameters of growth and maturation have to be documented in all
447 studies. Agents for which a potential influence on these parameters could be suspected (e.g. those
448 acting by CNS pathways) should present a safety documentation regarding growth and
449 development of at least 2 years. Depending on the overall safety profile and mode of action of the
450 compound, the 2-years data may be provided post-marketing. For agents influencing
451 gastrointestinal motility/secretion, special emphasis should be laid on water and electrolyte balance
452 (similar to adults; see Chapter 8).

453 **6.2. Elderly**

454 There appears to be a paucity of data for the epidemiology of IBS in patients older than 70 years of
455 age⁵¹. A slightly lower prevalence has been found for patients in people beyond 65 years of age as
456 compared to other adults^{52 53}. On the other hand, increasing age has been identified to be a factor
457 for higher consultation rates^{54 55}, potentially outweighing the slightly lower incidence, when

458 defining IBS patients as the “consulter” population only. With the potentially long history of
459 symptoms in IBS, prevalence in the elderly can be assumed not to be substantially different from
460 other age groups.

461 In clinical efficacy studies of new medicinal products, there has been a clear preponderance of
462 women aged 30-50, meaning that the composition of the study groups have not fully reflected the
463 epidemiology of the disease (see also 7.3.), and usually only a tiny proportion of elderly people
464 have been included.

465 The intent to include a population reflecting the epidemiology of the disease (in terms of
466 prevalence), and thus including a relevant proportion of elderly subjects should be part of all future
467 development plans. Studies, and the proportion of elderly people included, should be big enough to
468 allow a reasonable conclusion on similarity or differences in the efficacy and safety of a new
469 compound.

470 New drug candidates in IBS are usually affecting gastrointestinal motility and/or
471 secretion/absorption in one way or the other, thus influencing defecation frequency and
472 consistency of stools with the obvious consequences of the undesirable effects constipation and/or
473 diarrhoea, and the potentially more serious consequences thereof, e.g. bowel obstruction and
474 disturbances of water/electrolyte and acid-based balance. Elderly people might be more prone to
475 the dangers of these potential exaggerated effects and it is therefore considered a clear
476 requirement from the patient’s safety perspective, to allow reasonable conclusions on the safety of
477 a new compound in the older age group ⁵⁶.

478 **6.3. Gender**

479 The epidemiology of IBS according to sex shows an overall predominance of women with a pooled
480 Odds Ratio in prevalence of 1.67. However, women appear to develop constipation-predominant
481 subtype more frequently as compared to the diarrhoea predominant IBS, where a higher
482 prevalence seems to be present in male patients ⁵⁷. Epidemiological studies have also shown that
483 consultation behaviour appears to be different between men and women, with a higher percentage
484 of females being consulters, and thus anticipated to have more severe symptoms. A female to
485 male ratio of 4:1 to 5:1 is therefore been suggested to be realistic for a “real world” patient
486 population depending on disease subtype. Gender differences are also obvious in clinical
487 presentation of IBS, and in the pathophysiology^{58 59 60}. Although the gender differences have
488 historically been considered to be of minor clinical relevance, differences according to gender in the
489 clinical effects of potential drug candidates appear to be an immanent possibility.

490 Potential gender differences should therefore be part of the early development, investigating the
491 pharmacodynamic effects and proof of principle, in order to avoid large clinical trials showing
492 reduced, and potentially negligible clinical effects in one gender. The development of drug
493 candidates for one gender only is considered fully acceptable, if indeed a differential therapeutic
494 response with greatly reduced effects in one of them can be expected.

495 Previously however, final conclusions on the outcome of clinical development programmes
496 regarding sex have also been hampered by the tiny numbers of male patients included into clinical
497 trials, which should in future be avoided. Low numbers of male patients (e.g. due to recruitment
498 problems) can not readily be expected to be acceptable from a regulatory point of view for the
499 restriction of an indication to one of the genders only.

500 If in the early development programme no gender differences are detected or anticipated, it should
501 be aimed at including a sufficient number of male patients to allow conclusions on efficacy and
502 safety in both, men and women. The inclusion in late clinical studies should aim at mimicking the

503 “natural” sex distribution in the disease for the population anticipated. Potential differences
504 between men and women should again be evaluated before the planning of phase 3 studies, and,
505 of course for the results of the phase 3 studies.

506 **6.4. Geographic region**

507 Previously, many development programmes have focussed in their development on the United
508 States or North America, and aim or aimed at inclusion of a North American IBS population only.

509 In general, the inclusion of a sufficient proportion of patients recruited in Europe is considered
510 necessary unless it can be demonstrated that no relevant differences to European IBS populations
511 can be expected. If indeed a development programme in one country or region only is planned, the
512 respective analysis of ethnic/geographic and cultural factors according to the requirements of the
513 respective guidance documents (ICH E 5, EMA/CHMP/EWP/692792/2008) should be presented at
514 the time of MAA. Depending on the mode of action of a certain compound and assuming that a
515 population with mainly European descent is included for the condition IBS, a justification of the
516 transfer of data from the North American to a European population appears to be possible.

517 However, due to potential “residual differences”, the inclusion of European patients into global
518 development programmes is considered advantageous. This relates to the potential cultural
519 differences between Europe and other regions of the world, and the potential differences even
520 within Europe, which might not be fully covered with the justifications according to the a.m.
521 guidance documents. These potential “residual” differences mainly refer to the perception and
522 frequency of different IBS symptoms by patients and also the psychological co-morbidity^{61 62}.

523 The complete transfer of efficacy and safety from other regions of the world to Europe may also
524 become increasingly difficult with the development of PROs in the field, which are intended to form
525 the basis of the primary efficacy evaluations in the future. In such a situation, where a PRO has
526 been validated in one country or region of the world only and is finally used for the proof of efficacy
527 of a new compound as primary endpoint, it may no longer be possible to accept an application
528 based on foreign data only.

529 Therefore, companies or private-public partnerships developing PROs to be used as primary
530 outcome measure in IBS are encouraged to undertake exercises of translational and cross-cultural
531 validation work including a variety of European countries right from the start of such a
532 development, in order to be able to conduct future studies with a fully validated primary outcome
533 measure (PRO) in European patients also^{63 64 65}.

534 The number of patients to be included in clinical development programmes for IBS should allow a
535 reasonable comparison of efficacy and safety outcomes of populations from different regions.

536 **7. Safety**

537 As IBS is a non-life threatening condition, the safety of any therapeutic intervention is paramount.
538 Similarly, because treatment of IBS will require intermittent or continuous long-term use of
539 medication, it is necessary to have long-term safety data with an observation period of at least 12
540 months available in adequate numbers to accurately assess the safety of the medicinal product. For
541 products intended for long-term continuous use, this will mean the observation of 12 months on
542 active treatment, whereas for compounds with an intermittent use, the time on active drug can be
543 reduced to a period of at least 6 months, with the documentation of at least 12 months of
544 observation (whichever comes first). Safety data collected in sub-populations of IBS patients may
545 not support authorisation in a wider patient population.

546 The safety evaluation in clinical trials for IBS is in general not different from other investigational
547 products under development and should be focused according to the pharmacology of a compound.

548 This means that usually the main focus should be on the evaluation of gastrointestinal events,
549 especially if these events are theoretically the consequence of the primary pharmacology of the
550 new compound, which is usually to influence gastrointestinal motility and secretion/absorption,
551 thus leading to different defecation frequency and stool consistency. As displayed in Chapters 7.1
552 and 7.2. for children and the elderly population, the evaluation of safety should focus on the
553 induction of diarrhoea and constipation, and of their more serious consequences such as bowel
554 obstruction/ileus and of disturbances of electrolyte-, water- and acid based balance, hypotension
555 and syncope. The focus of the evaluations may, however, change depending on the primary
556 pharmacology of a compound, e.g. for centrally acting substances, the main safety evaluation may
557 be more adequate to be put on the evaluation of CNS events.

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