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4 **Paediatric Addendum on the CHMP Guideline on clinical**  
5 **investigation of medicinal products for the treatment of**  
6 **acute heart failure**

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13 Draft Paediatric Addendum on the CHMP Guideline on  
14 clinical investigation of medicinal products for the  
15 treatment of acute heart failure

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## 38 **Executive summary**

39 This is an addendum to the *Guideline on Clinical Investigation of Medicinal Products in the Treatment*  
40 *of Acute Heart Failure (CHMP/EWP/2986/03 Rev. 1)* for adults and should be read in conjunction with  
41 this guideline. This addendum includes guidance on paediatric medicine clinical development,  
42 highlighting paediatric specific issues and differences from adult acute heart failure.

### 43 **1. Introduction (background)**

44 Acute Heart Failure (AHF) covers a very heterogeneous group of patients. In the paediatric population,  
45 the aetiology, pathophysiology and clinical manifestations of AHF are often varied and the main  
46 symptoms depend on the pathology. The development of medicinal products for treatment of this  
47 serious condition in children is therefore influenced by a set of complex factors that differ from the  
48 adult population.

49 AHF in children can occur as a consequence of congenital or acquired disorders, either systemic or  
50 involving only the cardiovascular system. The prevalence and rate of diagnosis of heart failure in  
51 children and adolescents appear to be stable in the developed countries notwithstanding the reported  
52 increase of certain predisposing factors such as hypertension. Heart failure due to congenital structural  
53 heart disease typically presents early in life, while cardiomyopathies (CM) frequently present later in  
54 childhood.

55 The failure of cardiac function in children is often divided into two categories. One category consists of  
56 conditions with increased systolic output with pulmonary over-circulation as seen with large atrial or  
57 ventricular septal defects or patent arterial duct. In the second category with low cardiac output,  
58 symptoms often reflect the underlying anatomic cause, for example hypoplastic left heart, critical  
59 aortic stenosis, or severe coarctation of the aorta and cardiomyopathies.

60 While definitive treatment of AHF in children often involves corrective surgery for congenital lesions or  
61 heart transplantation, one of the main aims of medical therapy for AHF is to stabilise patients both in  
62 the short term as well as for longer term, for example before and after palliative surgery or as a bridge  
63 to transplantation. The use of pharmacological therapy for treating volume overload and enhance  
64 cardiac output needs to be optimised. However, the pharmacological treatment of paediatric AHF is  
65 characterised by the use of drugs that may not have been adequately studied in children but follow the  
66 similar principles as adult AHF. Volume and fluid overload are managed by use of intravenous diuretics  
67 in the intensive care setting and high output states are managed with vasodilators and supportive  
68 therapy. In adults, vasodilators are established for treatments of AHF even though high output states  
69 are only a small part of the spectrum. In children, inotropic agents are frequently used in the  
70 treatment of low output states albeit their use in adults has waned as sustained benefit remains  
71 controversial. Newer drugs such as phosphodiesterase inhibitors and calcium sensitizers have a  
72 debatable role but are often used in clinical practice.

73 The reasons for lack of evidence based treatment modalities for paediatric AHF are many fold. The  
74 limitations for conducting clinical trials in paediatric AHF include relatively small patient numbers,  
75 varied aetiologies, the absence of well-defined clinical endpoints and a lack of consensus regarding  
76 optimal study design. Enrolment of paediatric patients into clinical trials is often limited resulting in an  
77 insufficient sample size for an appropriately powered analysis. Multicentre co-operation and the  
78 foundation of networks of paediatric cardiology centres ready to participate in clinical trials can support  
79 the conduct of studies in paediatric AHF patients.

80 In view of these limitations, a guideline that addresses the development of pharmacological treatment  
81 options in children is considered crucial.

## 82 **2. Scope**

83 In order to enhance the availability of medicinal products for paediatric use and to encourage data  
84 generation in the paediatric population including conduct of clinical trials, a guideline that outlines the  
85 requirements is considered helpful. Guidance is therefore included on the design and conduct of studies  
86 intended for use in children of all ages (0-18 years) when developing products for AHF. The discussion  
87 points that are addressed in the guideline include clinical trial designs, selection of patients (in view of  
88 the heterogeneity of the population), primary and secondary endpoints, a note on surrogate and  
89 composite endpoints, and safety endpoints.

90 This addendum discusses the pharmacological treatment strategies for children with heart failure  
91 irrespective of the structural abnormality or cause. Aspects relating to surgical treatment such as  
92 correction of congenital defects and mechanical support that are an integral part of treatment of heart  
93 failure in the paediatric population are beyond the scope of this guideline.

## 94 **3. Legal basis and relevant guidelines**

95 This is an addendum to the Guideline on Clinical Investigation of Medicinal Products in the Treatment  
96 of Acute Heart Failure (CHMP/EWP/2986/03 Rev. 1). It should be read in conjunction with the  
97 introduction and general principles of the Annex I to Directive 2001/83/EC as amended.

98 All pertinent elements outlined in the current and future EU and ICH guidelines and regulations should  
99 also be taken into account especially the following:

- 100 • ICH E11, Clinical investigation of medicinal products in the paediatric population  
101 (CPMP/ICH/2711/99);
- 102 • Role of pharmacokinetics in the development of medicinal products in the paediatric population  
103 (EMA/CHMP/EWP/147013/2004/Corr);
- 104 • Discussion Paper on the Impact of Renal Immaturity when Investigating Medicinal Products  
105 Intended for Paediatric Use (CPMP/PEG/35132/03);
- 106 • Concept Paper on the impact of liver immaturity when investigating medicinal products intended  
107 for neonatal use (EMA/CHMP/PEG/194605/2005);
- 108 • Guideline on the investigation of medicinal products in the term and preterm neonate  
109 (EMA/267484/2007);
- 110 • Concept Paper on the Impact of Brain Immaturity (CHMP/PEG/181377/06);
- 111 • Clinical trials in small populations (CHMP/EWP/83561/2005);
- 112 • Guideline on pharmaceutical development of medicines for paediatric use  
113 (EMA/CHMP/QWP/805880/2012 Rev. 2);
- 114 • Ethical considerations for clinical trials on medical products conducted with the paediatric  
115 population: Recommendations of the ad hoc group for the development of implementing guidelines  
116 for Directive 2001/20/EC relating to good clinical practice in the conduct of clinical trials on  
117 medicinal products for human use 2008;

## 118 **4. Efficacy evaluation (including endpoints)**

119 The efficacy of pharmacological treatment modalities in paediatric AHF could be evaluated in clinical  
120 trials using any of the following parameters. They include mortality, time to specific events, use of

121 ventricular assist devices, changes in cardiac function, clinical scores, symptom scores, duration of  
122 hospitalisation or ICU stay, hemodynamic measurements and biochemical parameters (see sections  
123 4.1 – 4.6 below).

124 It is recognised that mortality events are not frequent events in the paediatric population and other  
125 important parameters (e.g., reduction in the need of ventricular assist devices or referral for heart  
126 transplantation) may assume greater significance and provide important indication of benefit.

127 Combination of several parameters as a composite offers advantages when sample size is limited. The  
128 components should be chosen carefully to capture the spectrum of relevant clinical parameters. It is  
129 advantageous to ensure directional concordance of the components. When centre specific differences  
130 of care are common, composite endpoints could be challenging particularly those composites that  
131 include parameters sensitive to such differences and should be carefully addressed. Ranked composite  
132 endpoints may offer certain advantages and a need to develop more sensitive composite endpoints is  
133 recognised. Applicants and sponsors are advised to seek scientific advice if use of such endpoints is  
134 foreseen.

#### 135 **4.1. Mortality**

136 Reduction in all cause death or cardiovascular death, could be considered as part of the composite  
137 goals of treatment of paediatric heart failure. However it is recognised that mortality is a rare event in  
138 this particular context. It is important to include sudden death (or death due to arrhythmia when  
139 documented) in evaluating mortality. On occasion, in cases of sudden death, there will be need for  
140 confirmation of absence of other causes and this may include a post mortem examination. There  
141 should be clarity in the definitions of each of these parameters and they should be objectively  
142 evaluated.

#### 143 **4.2. “Time to” Events**

144 “Time to” events are helpful parameters as endpoints in certain situations. These include time to  
145 transplantation, referral for transplantation, duration of stay in intensive care and duration of hospital  
146 stay ( or time to discharge). A delay in *time to referral for transplantation* (as an indicator of  
147 stabilisation of the clinical status) and *time to transplantation* without other adverse consequences  
148 (e.g., reduced overall survival or end organ damage) could be measures of beneficial effect of the  
149 medicinal product. Time to referral for transplantation using objective and pre-specified criteria is  
150 considered the more useful indicator as time to actual transplantation is dependent of many factors  
151 including geographical location and organ availability. *Duration of stay in intensive care unit (ICU) or*  
152 *duration of hospitalisation* both indicate time to stabilisation (for step down care or discharge as  
153 appropriate) could be used as measures of efficacy of the medicinal product. Duration of stay may be  
154 influenced by a variety of factors, such as variability in regional or institutional practice, non-cardiac  
155 related factors and organisational aspects. The use of Ventricular assist devices both as a short term  
156 bridge (to cardiac transplantation) or as long term treatment modality should be recorded. *Time to*  
157 *worsening heart failure* on therapy and *time to step down care* are other parameters that might be  
158 useful in the medium to longer term studies.

#### 159 **4.3. Cardiac function (echocardiographic parameters)**

160 Echocardiographic measures of ventricular function (especially the systemic ventricle) including end  
161 diastolic or systolic dimensions, end diastolic or systolic volumes could be used as measures of  
162 efficacy. Similarly, ejection fraction or fractional shortening have been used as measures of left  
163 ventricular function and can be easily measured using echocardiography. Echocardiography should be

164 performed following a pre-specified protocol and analysed by a blinded, centralised laboratory with  
165 trained observers/readers. With multicentre trials, it is also important that standardised training is  
166 provided to the recording technicians and, interobserver as well as intraobserver variability are  
167 evaluated to permit a robust assessment of left ventricular function. Central adjudication may be  
168 necessary in certain cases when blinded reading in a centralised laboratory facility has not been  
169 deployed.

170 When these parameters are used as endpoints, it is anticipated that they will be linked to clinical  
171 measures of outcome. At this present point in time, left ventricular remodelling has not been proven as  
172 a surrogate endpoint for medium to long term outcome.

#### 173 **4.4. Clinical or symptom scores**

174 Changes in clinical scores could be useful as measures of efficacy provided their use is validated and  
175 consistent. Several clinical scoring systems are in use, which help classify or stratify patients according  
176 to severity of disease. These include New York Heart Association (NYHA) Functional Classification, the  
177 Ross Heart Failure Classification or Paediatric Heart Failure Index (PHFI New York University). Each of  
178 these classifications has their merits and the most appropriate scoring system should be chosen taking  
179 into account the patients' age, type of heart failure. It is recommended that the choice should be  
180 defined *a priori* and adequately justified.

#### 181 **4.5. Haemodynamic measurements**

182 Often haemodynamic measurements are used especially in adult AHF as measures of efficacy in the  
183 proof of concept and dose finding studies. There is no mandatory requirement to evaluate invasive  
184 haemodynamic parameters in paediatric AHF and use of these should be guided by the clinical situation  
185 and aetiology of heart failure. In adults and in many cases in children, changes in haemodynamic  
186 measures such as pulmonary capillary wedge pressure (PCWP) or changes in ejection fraction are not  
187 linked to improved outcomes. Inotropic agents are good examples that produced statistically important  
188 changes in such parameters in the short term but resulted in poor outcomes. Therefore, it is important  
189 to link the medicinal product's effect on haemodynamic measures to clinical outcome measures such as  
190 mortality or removal of the need for transplantation.

#### 191 **4.6. Biochemical parameters**

192 Biochemical markers of heart failure could indicate severity and response to treatment. Thus far,  
193 markers evaluated include natriuretic peptides (B-type natriuretic peptide [BNP] and N-terminal pro-  
194 BNP [NT-pro BNP]) and inflammatory markers (hs CRP or interleukins). The natriuretic peptides (BNP  
195 and NT-pro BNP) levels are currently useful as clinical trials inclusion criteria. Thus far, there are few  
196 data linking changes in these biochemical parameters with treatment and clinical outcome measures,  
197 but their use is encouraged to establish such a link.

198 Improvement in renal function or improvement in renal blood flow are less useful as measures of  
199 efficacy as these are influenced by complex set of factors and may not be directly related to the  
200 pharmacology of the medicinal product.

201

## 202 **5. Patient selection**

203 The criteria and diagnosis of AHF should be based on baseline evaluation of functional or clinical  
204 scoring systems, combined with imaging such as echocardiographic parameters or cardiac MRI to  
205 establish structural abnormalities. Echocardiography should be used to establish the aetiology and  
206 structural abnormalities including congenital defects, the type of defect and the physiological states-  
207 high output or low output states. As the pharmacological treatment of paediatric AHF is mostly aimed  
208 at improving cardiac muscle dysfunction, selection of patients will be guided by this parameter.  
209 Patients with differing structural abnormalities leading to muscle dysfunction could be included.

210 It is recognised that heart failure may present after palliative or corrective surgery with varied  
211 manifestations. When these patients are included in clinical studies, care should be taken to ensure  
212 that the parameters for defining heart failure are clearly laid out in the protocol.

213 The aetiology of HF may vary depending on age, gender and ethnic background. This should be  
214 accounted for and accommodated. In adolescents, the aetiology of heart failure may differ from those  
215 in younger children (Congenital heart defects are predominant in young children). As the aetiology is  
216 varied, ideally some form of stratification may be necessary to separate patients based on the different  
217 pathophysiological states. It is recognised that due to the small numbers involved, distinct studies in  
218 different aetiologies may not be possible.

## 219 **6. Clinical trials strategy & design**

220 Taking into consideration the difficulties in performing clinical investigations for paediatric AHF, it  
221 becomes necessary to maximise the information gathered from other types of studies. Therefore, the  
222 study designs need to be streamlined by application of specific principles.

223 If paediatric development (as usual) follows studies in adults, studies in children will mainly be  
224 designed to reflect specific questions applicable to this group of patients. It is not expected that there  
225 will be phase I studies (healthy volunteer studies) employed routinely and information should be  
226 derived and extrapolated from studies in adults.

### 227 **6.1. Human Pharmacology studies (Pharmacokinetic/Pharmacodynamic** 228 **[PK/PD])**

229 The pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic (PK/PD) data from the adult heart failure population will  
230 guide the level of PK information and studies required in the paediatric population. If a difference in the  
231 PK and/or PD between the adults and children arising from organ immaturity that impacts the dosing  
232 strategies is anticipated, specific PK and/or PD studies may be necessary. Where possible, use of PK/  
233 PD modelling based on data derived from adult populations should be performed to explore the  
234 pharmacokinetic behaviour in children to determine the need for specific studies, and to optimize the  
235 design of these studies. Depending on the drug substance and the metabolism, sparse sampling in the  
236 clinical studies could be used to provide PK and/or PD information. PD mechanisms defined in adults  
237 will be applicable in children but specific dose titration studies may be required.

238

239 There is likely to be a necessity to develop special paediatric formulations as appropriate for different  
240 age groups (infants, young children and adolescents).

## 241 **6.2. Exploratory Therapeutic studies**

242 Exploratory studies are expected to function as dose finding studies for confirmatory trials and could be  
243 placebo controlled where feasible. In the majority of instances, it may be possible to derive dose  
244 information from adult studies using exposure response analyses and modelling, but specific dose  
245 titration studies may sometimes be required. It is however recognised that feasibility of such studies  
246 may be a consideration.

## 247 **6.3. Confirmatory Therapeutic studies**

248 It is recognised that large randomised clinical trials to evaluate the benefit risk may not be feasible for  
249 medicinal products intended for use in paediatric AHF taking into account the limitations for conducting  
250 clinical trials in this population. Therefore, paediatric development needs to build on information on  
251 safety and efficacy of the medicinal product from the adult population. Information gathered from all  
252 other types of studies in children should be maximised including exploratory and PK studies conducted  
253 across groups. It is recommended to streamline the designs of these studies appropriately to facilitate  
254 collection of adequate information.

255 The need for confirmatory trials should therefore be considered on a case by case basis. Scientific  
256 advice could be asked for. If needed, the baseline assessments of confirmatory therapeutic trials  
257 should include consistent use of clinical scores (NYHA, PHFI or the Ross Heart failure classification) as  
258 appropriate and the choice of the scoring system should be adequately justified accounting for  
259 differences in type of heart failure. Diagnostic criteria for AHF should be consistently applied with the  
260 use of standard diagnostic imaging techniques such as echocardiography with or without biochemical  
261 markers of heart failure (e.g. BNP).

262 The varied aetiology of paediatric heart failure offers opportunities for inclusion of patients with diverse  
263 set of characteristics thereby increasing the heterogeneity of the study population. It is recommended  
264 that inclusion and exclusion criteria should be well defined to identify common functional  
265 characteristics (e.g., evidence of cardiomyopathies or muscle dysfunction). If inclusion of  
266 heterogeneous population is unavoidable, stratification by aetiology or stratified randomisation may be  
267 used as an attempt to maximise the information gleaned from the trial.

268 When confirmatory trials are placebo controlled, an add-on design to the best standard of care is  
269 recommended. In such studies, demonstration of clear superiority in terms of efficacy and safety  
270 should be the aim. Use of an appropriate comparator is encouraged when placebo controlled studies  
271 are not feasible in this particular population due to variability of patient groups and treatment  
272 practices. As very few therapies for AHF with good supporting evidence for efficacy and safety are  
273 approved for use in children, studies using approved active comparators are difficult but establishing a  
274 standard of care within the clinical study is encouraged. It may be necessary to consider the use of an  
275 appropriate class of agent approved in adults with established use in children if such were available, to  
276 overcome limitations in using placebo or standard of care.

## 277 **7. Evaluation of safety**

278 Safety evaluation in paediatric AHF is expected to be generally similar to adults with additional  
279 parameters (or endpoints) that are important in children. These include parameters such as  
280 hypotension or low BP (using age-appropriate definitions), hypoperfusion, arrhythmias, in addition to  
281 failure to thrive, growth retardation or delays in neuro-motor and neurocognitive development and  
282 may all be relevant safety end-points. Measures of renal function such as creatinine or glomerular  
283 filtration rate may serve as safety end-points in paediatric AHF trials.

284 **Abbreviations**

285 AHF Acute heart failure

286 CM cardiomyopathy

287 ICH International Conference on Harmonisation

288 NYHA New York Heart Association

289 PHFI Pediatric Heart Failure Index

290 BNP B-type natriuretic peptide

291 MRI Magnetic resonance imaging

292 ICU Intensive care unit

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