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4 Reflection paper on the need for active control in

- 5 therapeutic areas where use of placebo is deemed ethical
- 6 and one or more established medicines are available
- 7 Draft

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7 Westferry Circus • Canary Wharf • London E14 4HB • United Kingdom Telephone +44 (0)20 7418 8400 Facsimile +44 (0)20 7418 8416 E-mail info@ema.europa.eu Website www.ema.europa.eu



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¹¹ Reflection paper on the need for active control in

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22 **1. Summary**

Where feasible, three-arm trials including experimental medicine, placebo and active control represent a scientific gold-standard and there are multiple reasons to support their use in drug development. However, there are situations where such trials are not required by CHMP for a properly informed decision on benefit-risk.

It is the position of CHMP that, where ethical and feasible, a placebo control arm should be included in the pivotal trial(s) used to support marketing authorisation application. The need for an active control must be considered on a case-by-case basis. CHMP consider it to be particularly important for estimated benefits and risks to be contextualised through comparison to active control where:

- the experimental medicine might be associated with safety concerns which impact mortality or
 morbidity, markedly impair quality of life or cause active treatment to be discontinued or delayed
 leading to significant, long-term or irreversible harm.
- treatment with a medicine of inferior **efficacy** might conceivably lead to significant, long-term or irreversible harm for the patient.

In both scenarios, the comparison to active control will usually need to be 'direct' (i.e. within the same trial). There are few circumstances where an indirect comparison might be considered sufficiently reliable.

This paper should not be interpreted as describing criteria used by CHMP for making a benefit-risk decision. CHMP opinions are given on the basis of a benefit-risk balance in the context of a marketing authorisation application. This paper outlines a framework for the discussion and justification of the

42 choice of control arms that is expected from an applicant in a marketing authorisation application.

43 **2. Scope**

44 This paper describes regulatory considerations, and expectations of applicants, in discussing the 45 importance of a direct comparison to active control for a properly informed decision on benefit-risk. 46 The scope of the paper is limited to those therapeutic areas where placebo is deemed ethical and one or more established medicines are available. The principles outlined are applicable to pivotal trials to 47 48 establish efficacy and safety, for 'add-on' trials as well as trials without background treatment. CHMP 49 has previously provided Position Statements on issues related to this topic (EMEA/17424/01 and EMEA/119319/04). This paper supplements these documents. The paper should be read in conjunction 50 51 with relevant therapeutic area and methodological guidance documents.

52 The following are outside the scope of this paper:

- the role of comparisons to active control (direct or historical) in the benefit-risk decision
- therapeutic indications where use of placebo is unethical or where no established medicine is available
- recommendations for the design of clinical studies to support marketing authorisation applications
 for generic medicines and biosimilars
- certain orphan diseases / small populations, for which the number of patients that can reasonably
 be recruited in a sensible timeframe do not enable formal comparisons to more than one control
- medicines traditionally tested using external controls given the extremely large sample size, rarity
 of the clinical outcome and because the underlying response in the absence of treatment is well
 quantified

63 The paper is written in the context of an application for marketing authorisation, though the framework 64 outlined also applies to a discussion of the need for active control during a scientific advice procedure, 65 which remains the appropriate forum for discussions on specific development programmes.

66 **3. Background**

Following Directive 2004/27/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council and as described in EMEA/119319/04, it is not necessary for the benefit-risk profile of an experimental medicine to at least 69 as favourable as the benefit-risk profile of any or all established medicines in order to receive marketing authorisation. This is appropriate as frequently more than one treatment is required per 70 71 indication (some medicines suit some people better than others) and clinical trials do not definitively 72 capture all information on benefits and risks; knowledge accumulates during a product's lifecycle. It is 73 important to recognise that the purpose of regulatory approval is not to determine clinical practice 74 (over and above the act of issuing a particular license for a medicine) and there is no limit to the 75 number of medicines that can be licensed for any given therapeutic indication providing the benefit-76 risk of each is favourable.

77 A proper contextualisation of the benefit-risk decision for an experimental medicine is beneficial for the promotion of public health through the rational use of medicines and through properly informed 78 79 product labelling. Determining whether risks outweigh benefits, or vice versa, is not trivial and must 80 consider the clinical context of the proposed therapeutic indication including the availability, the use 81 and the safety and efficacy profiles of other medicines. Because effect sizes seen in clinical trials 82 depend on multiple factors, including the therapeutic indication under study, the efficacy and safety 83 variables measured, the precise patient population recruited and other experimental conditions under which the study is performed, accurately judging the levels of benefit and risk observed without 84 contextualisation by at least a placebo control group and, in certain therapeutic indications, also by an 85 active control group is difficult. One particular value of a comparison to active control is to 86 contextualise efficacy and safety using a reference about which more information is known, not only 87 from a historical clinical trial programme but also from clinical practice. Three-arm trials can be 88 89 beneficial to the sponsor. For example, in indications where placebo-controlled, pivotal studies have a 90 high failure rate (e.g. studies in depression) an active control arm can aid inference, helping to distinguish between a study failing because of inadequate efficacy associated with the experimental 91 treatment and a study failing because of inadequate assay sensitivity, wherein the active control also 92 93 fails to distinguish itself from placebo. In addition, if the magnitude of the effect observed with the 94 experimental treatment is considered to be of borderline clinical importance, a demonstration that 95 performance in the pivotal clinical trials is broadly similar to that of an established medicine, about 96 which much more is known through use in clinical practice, can be reassuring.

97 Section 5.2.5.1 of Annex I to Directive 2001/83/EC states "In general, clinical trials shall be done as 98 'controlled clinical trials' if possible, randomised and as appropriate versus placebo and versus an 99 established medicinal product of proven therapeutic value; any other design shall be justified. The 100 treatment of the control groups will vary from case to case and also will depend on ethical 101 considerations and therapeutic area; thus it may, in some instances, be more pertinent to compare the 102 efficacy of a new medicinal product with that of an established medicinal product of proven therapeutic 103 value rather than with the effect of a placebo."

104 It is the position of CHMP that, where ethical and feasible, a placebo control arm should be included in 105 the pivotal trial(s) used to support marketing authorisation application. Whilst a placebo control may 106 sometimes not be suitable to address all study hypotheses (the complete evidence base for many regulatory decisions comprises evidence of short-term efficacy and safety, maintenance of efficacy and 107 evidence of long-term safety) this should not rule out its use for other study hypotheses. For example, 108 109 in a long-term trial, it may be feasible, ethical and scientifically beneficial, to include a short-term placebo arm or to include a placebo arm with an option for escape treatment, which may assist in the 110 interpretation of some study hypotheses. One exception to this request to include a placebo is where 111 112 the only aim of the active control trial is to demonstrate superior efficacy to an established medicine.

113 Comparisons to active control as well as to placebo control would be expected in certain therapeutic 114 indications. Nevertheless, given the impact on the complexity, duration and cost of drug development, there will be circumstances where such trials should not be required by CHMP as a properly informed 115 decision on benefit-risk can be made without such data. When an active comparator is required, the 116 117 comparator selected would usually be the gold-standard, EU-licensed, product for the appropriate 118 indication, following relevant CHMP guidelines and international treatment guidelines as appropriate. 119 Of course, there exist more complex situations where it is necessary to use alternative strategies, for 120 example investigator's best choice of therapy, medicines licensed by other regulatory agencies but not in the EU, or medicines for which use is clearly supported by medical literature. In some therapeutic 121 areas, comparison to historical datasets is possible, in particular where estimated effect sizes for the 122 experimental medicine are considerably more impressive than previously seen and the improved 123 effects can be attributed to the experimental medicine rather than a change in the experimental 124 125 conditions (e.g. improvements in diagnosis or background treatments over time). In other therapeutic areas, gauging and understanding the magnitude of benefit or risk from a clinical perspective is greatly 126 127 facilitated by a direct comparison to an established medicine.

128 **4. Discussion**

Regulatory considerations for determining whether a direct comparison to active control is required for a properly informed decision on benefit-risk

131 ICH E10 describes the pros and cons of different controls arms. Some fundamental concepts 132 determining the choice of control arm(s) are highlighted in Table I and Figure I of that document. In 133 addition, therapy-area specific guidance on the design of trials in support of a marketing authorisation 134 application is provided in the various CHMP guidelines and product-specific guidance can be obtained 135 through CHMP Scientific Advice. The marketing authorisation application must include a discussion on 136 the choice of control arms in the pivotal trial(s). In a therapeutic indication where placebo is deemed 137 ethical, the absence of a placebo control would be controversial and would require detailed discussion.

138 Where feasible, three-arm trials including experimental medicine, placebo and active control are 139 usually preferred to support marketing authorisation applications. Even in situations where estimates 140 of efficacy and safety relative to placebo are sufficient for regulatory decisions on benefit-risk, the inclusion of an active control arm still offers potential advantages for sponsors, regulators and other 141 stakeholders including medical practitioners and patients. The need for an active control must be 142 considered on a case-by-case basis (see also flowchart in section 6). CHMP consider it to be 143 particularly important for estimated benefits and risks to be contextualised through comparison to 144 active control where: 145

- the experimental medicine might be associated with safety concerns which impact mortality or morbidity, markedly impair quality of life or cause active treatment to be discontinued or delayed leading to significant, long-term or irreversible harm.
- treatment with a medicine of inferior **efficacy** might conceivably lead to significant, long-term or irreversible harm for the patient.
- 151 In both scenarios, the comparison to active control will usually need to be 'direct' (i.e. within the same 152 trial). There are few circumstances where an indirect comparison might be considered sufficiently 153 reliable.

154 Whilst it may still be possible to estimate benefits and risks with only a placebo control in the scenarios 155 described above, clinical trials are complex and without a direct comparison to active control it may not 156 be possible to properly gauge and understand the magnitude of benefit or risk from a clinical 157 perspective and hence to make a properly informed decision on benefit-risk. The difficulty for the drug 158 developer is that these scenarios will not usually be readily identifiable in advance of conducting the 159 confirmatory trial(s). Indeed, the true benefits of a comparison to active control may not be realised 160 until data from the confirmatory trials are available. This represents a risk to the drug developer and gives rise to important decisions regarding the design of the pivotal trials. In particular, if either of the 161 162 above scenarios is considered plausible it would represent a risk not to plan any comparison to active control as such data may be required by CHMP for a properly informed decision on benefit-risk. 163

- Based on the arguments above, the regulatory position on the importance of an active control in the marketing authorisation application will consider the following aspects, which should be addressed by the applicant in the marketing authorisation application if no direct comparison to active control is available:
- Considering real-world intended use (which may differ to the conditions of a clinical trial, for example in terms of duration of treatment) what is the risk to the patient of significant or long term harm as a consequence of a treatment with inferior efficacy? In particular, it should be considered whether the disease is progressive or transient in nature, the severity of symptoms, whether later lines of more toxic therapy are avoided or delayed by successful treatment and whether patients in clinical practice are adequately monitored over time to determine response or lack of response prior to increased risk of significant or long term harm.
- 175 Does the experimental medicine have an innocuous safety profile? Specifically, does the 176 experimental medicine have a safety profile which is more adverse than other medicines licensed for the relevant indication? In this situation it is even more important that the magnitude of the 177 178 treatment effects on both efficacy and safety are properly understood and contextualised. Are any patients irreversibly disadvantaged by adverse events from the experimental treatment or by 179 discontinuation of experimental treatment due to adverse event? What are the consequences of 180 any delays to administering other active treatments caused by toxicity of the experimental 181 182 treatment and do other established medicines suffer from similar concerns?

- What proportion of patients is adequately treated with existing medicines? Are there reasons to consider that the new medicine will benefit a complementary group of patients to those benefitting from established medicines? In particular, a product with a different mechanism of action might be more likely to complement existing medicines and so enhance the therapeutic armamentarium than a product with the same mechanism of action as existing treatments.
- Whether the magnitude of the effect observed with the experimental treatment is considered to be borderline or unequivocally clinically important?
- How well the do the efficacy endpoints measured translate into clinical outcomes likely to be observed in practice? Some rating scales and other patient reported outcomes are primarily tools for use in clinical trials with limited direct relevance to the patient in clinical practice. For these it is particularly informative to contextualise the benefits observed through direct comparison to active control about which more is known because of (often extensive) use outside of the clinical trial setting. Similar arguments apply for subjective endpoints in open-label trials, or trials in which blinding is compromised in a significant proportion of patients.
- The validity of any potential comparison to a historical control (see below). 198

199 Between-trial (historical) comparisons

If a direct comparison to active control is not available from within the confirmatory trial programme a sponsor would need to put the observed effects into clinical context via historical comparisons of data from the confirmatory trials to trials of an appropriate reference treatment. Such comparisons are notoriously unreliable and might only be considered an adequate alternative to a direct comparison under the following conditions:

- based on a literature review, it can be substantiated that the historical trials selected are
 comprehensive and representative of the performance of the reference treatment.
- it can be substantiated that the historical trials have been planned, conducted and reported to high
 standards with methods of data collection, synthesis and analysis, for efficacy and for safety data,
 of the same standards as for the trials of the experimental agent.
- the trials are contemporary in that their design does not differ to an important degree from the design of the studies in the confirmatory development programme of the experimental medicine (considering, for example, the region of trial sites, characteristics of patient population, background standard of care / concomitant medication, endpoints, selection of control arm; the comparison is facilitated if placebo is the control arm in both trials).
- evidence from the trials of the experimental medicine is sufficiently impressive to outweigh any
 concerns over the likelihood of bias in the historical comparison.

There are numerous clinical indications for which new medicines have been developed and standards of clinical practice have changed such that a naïve comparison to the historical dataset would be uninformative. Data presentations in the marketing authorisation application should be accompanied by a balanced, qualitative critique on whether data from the two trials can be reliably compared, addressing issues which may compromise the comparison of the trials and a quantitative exploration on how differences in any important aspects of the trial design and conduct affect the comparison of the trials.

225 Objectives for trials including both placebo and active control

Two of the most common primary objectives for pivotal clinical trials are to demonstrate superiority to placebo control, or to demonstrate non-inferiority or equivalence to an active control.

228 For trials where it can be agreed (in line with a relevant CHMP guidance document or scientific advice) 229 that an appropriate primary objective is to demonstrate non-inferiority or equivalence to an active treatment, the assay sensitivity of the trial and evidence (possibly 'indirect') of superiority to placebo 230 231 must be established. Requirements for the demonstration of assay sensitivity are described in ICH E10. 232 The most compelling evidence for assay sensitivity will be inclusion of a treatment arm against which 233 superiority can be demonstrated, usually placebo, though differentiating between multiple doses of test and / or reference treatment can also suffice. Hence, a 3-arm, active and placebo controlled trial will 234 often be required even where the primary objective is to demonstrate non-inferiority or equivalence to 235 236 In this situation, the requirements to establish assay sensitivity are usually an active treatment. equivalent to the requirements to show superiority to placebo for the active treatments and thus the 237 238 study should be planned with the additional objective of demonstrating superiority to placebo (as a

239 pre-cursor to the test for non-inferiority / equivalence). It may therefore be that the randomisation 240 scheme is unbalanced to allocate fewer patients to placebo than to either active treatment.

For trials where it can be agreed that an appropriate primary objective is demonstration of superiority 241 242 to placebo, objectives for comparison to active control can vary. Including a third arm of similar size 243 (assuming 1:1 randomisation) would usually give sufficient power to demonstrate superiority of the 244 active control compared to placebo, but would not necessarily give the statistical properties (in particular, statistical power) desirable for a formal comparison of non-inferiority, i.e. exclusion from the 245 246 confidence interval for the estimated differences between groups of all differences of clinical 247 importance. However, the absence of a formal demonstration of non-inferiority may not be critical in 248 circumstances where primary evidence of efficacy is based on a comparison to placebo (i.e. where 249 exclusion of clinically important inferiority to the control is not necessary to establish favourable 250 benefit-risk). Instead it may be sufficient to plan to estimate relative efficacy to a certain precision. 251 The selected precision and hence number of patients required will need to be justified. A starting point 252 for discussion would be to examine the statistical properties of recruiting the same number of patients to the active control as are recruited on the test treatment (i.e. 1:1 randomisation). Where the 253 primary rationale for including an active control is because of a serious adverse event associated with 254 255 experimental treatment and / or potentially inferior safety compared to other available treatments, it may be necessary to estimate the relative frequency of the adverse event on each active treatment. 256 257 In this case the precision with which the incidence rates are estimated should be justified and the 258 study should be powered appropriately, in addition to considerations of statistical power for the 259 primary efficacy objective.

260 **5. References**

- 261 EMEA/17424/01 EMEA/CPMP Position Statement on the use of Placebo in Clinical Trials with regard to
- 262 the Revised Declaration of Helsinki
- 263 (http://www.ahppi.org.uk/CMS/STORE//EU%20Directive/EU_placebo_files/ATTACHMENTS/EMEAposition.pdf)
- 264 EMEA/119319/04 EU Standard of Medicinal Product Registration: Clinical Evaluation of Risk/Benefit 265 The role of Comparator Studies
- 266 (http://www.ema.europa.eu/docs/en_GB/document_library/Position_statement/2009/12/WC500017660.pdf)
- Directive 2004/27/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council, (Official Journal L 136, 30/4/2004
 p. 34 57)
- 269 Directive 2001/83/EC (Consolidated version: 05/10/2009)
- 270 ICH E10 Choice of Control Group and related issues in Clinical Trials
- 271 (http://www.ich.org/LOB/media/MEDIA486.pdf)

272 6. Flowchart

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