**Title:**

Raising the bar for using surrogate endpoints in drug regulation and health technology assessment

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**Standfirst**

*The proliferation of surrogate endpoints for regulatory approval of new drugs poses major challenges for patients, clinicians, health technology assessment bodies and the wider evidence ecosystem. Dalia Dawoud and colleagues argue for raising the evidence standards for using surrogate endpoints by regulatory agencies and health technology assessment bodies.*

On 7 June 2021, the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) granted accelerated approval to aducanumab for the treatment of Alzheimer’s Disease. The FDA based its decision on the drug’s amyloid-reducing effects despite evidence from several earlier studies that shrinkage of beta-amyloid protein plaques does not predictably delay cognitive impairment in patients.[1] The decision has drawn significant attention to the use of surrogate endpoints —laboratory values, radiographic images, or other physical measures that may serve as indicators of clinical outcomes such as symptom control or mortality— in clinical trials of new drugs.[2] In fact, the approval of aducanumab is only the latest example of growing regulatory reliance on surrogate endpoints.

Using surrogate endpoints to measure whether a new drug works can reduce the duration, cost, and complexity of clinical trials prior to regulatory assessment, and facilitate faster patient access to new therapies, especially in chronic disease settings.[3] For example, in early-stage gastric cancer, clinical outcomes like overall survival—how long patients live after receiving treatment—are of primary interest to patients whilst surrogate endpoints such as disease-free survival potentially can be used to measure drug effects earlier.[4] In a recent evaluation, using surrogate endpoints in cancer drug trials reduced clinical development time by approximately 11 months compared with measuring overall survival. [3] However, the use of such endpoints can also have negative implications.

Regulatory reliance on surrogate endpoints makes it challenging for HTA bodies, such as the National Institute for Health and Care Excellence (NICE), to make their decisions. The assessments conducted by HTA bodies typically include comparative clinical and cost-effectiveness considerations. When new drugs receive regulatory approval based on surrogate endpoints alone, assessing how well they work in terms of impact on patient-relevant clinical outcomes, such as health-related quality of life and survival, in the short and long term are fraught with considerable uncertainty.

For patients and clinicians, surrogate endpoints can complicate treatment decisions.[5] Surrogate endpoints are not inherently meaningful on their own, and clinicians and patients may misinterpret drug effects on surrogate endpoints as clinically meaningful improvements.[6] This matters, because drugs approved on the basis of surrogate endpoints may not ultimately influence patient-relevant clinical outcomes. In cancer, for example, most approved drugs with effects on surrogate endpoints such as response rates and progression-free survival (that were imagined to be predictive of patient-relevant benefit) do not, in fact, improve quality of life or prolong survival.[7–9]

There is a long history of drugs that were originally approved on the basis of surrogate endpoints and for which later studies failed to show evidence of clinical benefit.[10] An oft-cited example is bevacizumab for metastatic breast cancer.[11] In 2008, FDA granted accelerated approval to bevacizumab for the treatment of metastatic breast cancer based on its early effects on a surrogate endpoint, progression-free survival. In 2011, FDA revoked its approval for bevacizumab’s metastatic breast cancer indication when clinical trials failed to show that patients receiving bevacizumab lived longer than those receiving control treatment.

Other examples include olaratumab, which extended progression-free survival but did not prolong survival for patients with soft-tissue sarcoma,[12] hydroxyprogesterone caproate, which effectively reduced the risk of recurrent births but did not improve neonatal outcomes,[13] and atezolizumab, which achieved a higher response rate compared to control but did not extend overall survival in patients with urothelial carcinoma .[14] In some cases, drugs initially approved on the basis of surrogate endpoints were later found to be harmful. For example, patients with multiple myeloma who received venetoclax had shorter survival than those who received a control treatment, despite evidence suggesting that venetoclax was more effective than control on the basis of progression-free survival).[15]

In this article, we argue for more selective use of surrogate endpoints when evaluating new drugs. Surrogate endpoints should only be used in chronic disease settings, especially when collecting data on patient-relevant clinical outcomes requires trials with unattainably long follow up durations. When generating direct evidence on patient-relevant clinical outcomes is not possible, decision-makers should systematically evaluate the relationship between surrogate endpoints and clinical outcomes.

**Regulatory enthusiasm for surrogate endpoints**

Over the past 3 decades, the proportion of clinical studies measuring the efficacy of new drugs via surrogate endpoints alone has increased, rising from fewer than one half in the mid-90s to approximately 60% in 2015-2017.[16] In some therapeutic areas such as cancer, surrogate endpoints account for almost 80% of all clinical studies supporting regulatory approvals.[17] This means that in some therapeutic areas, only a minority of new drugs are now approved on the basis of evidence that they improve how patients feel or function, or how long they live.

The recent proliferation of surrogate endpoints is partly due to the increase in the use of ‘expedited’ regulatory programs that are aimed at speeding up the development, review, and approval of drugs.[18] Over the past quarter century, lobbying by pharmaceutical companies has put pressure on policymakers to establish several expedited programs in Europe and the United States.[19] These programs also meet perceived patient demand for faster access to potentially effective therapies in therapeutic areas with significant unmet needs. In the US, the FDA “accelerated approval” pathway was established at the height of the HIV/AIDS crisis in the early 1990s. Other examples of expedited programs in the US include the “breakthrough therapy,” “priority review,” and “fast track” designations. Programs in Europe include the European Medicines Agency’s (EMA) “accelerated assessment” and “Priority Medicines” schemes.[20]

The use of surrogate endpoints in certain expedited regulatory programs like the FDA’s accelerated approval pathway is linked to “conditional” approvals where drug manufacturers are legally mandated to conduct additional trials to demonstrate the clinical benefit of their products. Even when post-approval studies are required, however, clinical efficacy of drugs initially approved on the basis of surrogate endpoints is often subsequently “confirmed” on the basis of other surrogate endpoints.[21,22] For example, both pre-approval and mandated post-approval studies supporting FDA’s accelerated approval of lapatinib (for the treatment of postmenopausal women with HER2-positive metastatic breast cancer) tested surrogate endpoints.[21] This practice may meet regulators’ expectations but falls far short of reliable evidence of patient benefit.

**Limited guidance from regulators and HTA bodies**

There is little consensus for defining a “valid” surrogate, as it is difficult to set specific thresholds to grade the strength of association with the final clinical outcome. Yet, some organisations such as the German Institute for Quality and Efficiency in Health Care (IQWiG) have prescriptive criteria for accepting surrogate endpoints. IQWiG sets a threshold for the lower bound of the confidence interval on the correlation coefficient (R ≥ 0.85) to conclude a high correlation exists between the surrogate and final clinical outcome.[23] Most other agencies have no similar cut-offs for accepting surrogate endpoints.

There is actually a long history of methodological efforts for evaluating surrogate endpoints. In 2009, Taylor and Elston [24] recommended a three-step framework, based on (i) biological plausibility alone, (ii) evidence of an observational association between the surrogate and the clinical endpoint at the individual patient level and (iii) evidence from multiple randomised trials showing that drugs improving the treatment effect on the surrogate also improve treatment effect on the final clinical outcome. This framework was further extended to quantify the expected treatment effect on the final clinical outcome based on the surrogate.[25]

However, this framework is rarely used by regulatory agencies. In 2018, FDA published a table listing all surrogate endpoints that it has used in its assessments without disclosing any information about their usefulness in predicting clinical benefit.[26] Academic researchers are increasingly filling this evidence gap and examining the strength of the association between surrogate endpoints that are commonly used by regulators and patient-relevant clinical outcomes. [27,28] In a recent study, researchers found only weak or missing correlations between surrogate endpoints and survival in breast cancer using the Taylor and Elston framework.[29] In another analysis, researchers found that none of the surrogate endpoints used in EMA expedited approvals were evaluated in independent studies.[30]

Similarly, HTA bodies rarely use this framework to evaluate surrogate endpoints,[31] Indeed, HTA guidance on the use of surrogate endpoints has been highly variable [32]. In a recent survey of methodological guidance by 73 organisations, only 40% gave specific consideration to using surrogates.[33] Such variation across HTA bodies yields heterogenous conclusions about the relevance of the same putative surrogate endpoints across different settings.[34]

**Evaluating surrogate endpoints**

Methodologists stress that evidence at the individual patient level alone is insufficient to evaluate surrogate endpoints especially when such evidence is obtained from a single trial.[35] This is because the observed surrogate-to-clinical outcome relationship for one drug may not hold for another, as it depends on the treatment’s mechanism of action.[35] For example, progression-free survival was previously shown to be a good surrogate for overall survival in advanced colorectal cancer based on evidence from trials of traditional chemotherapy.[36] However, Ciani et al. recently observed a weaker relationship between these endpoints in this setting for modern therapies with different mechanisms of action.[37]

Meta-analysis, which combines data from a number of randomised trials, is more appropriate for evaluating the association between the treatment effects on the candidate surrogate endpoint and on the final patient-relevant clinical outcome.[38] There is growing methodological consensus for using bivariate meta-analysis methods to evaluate the surrogate-to-final outcome relationships. [39–44] These methods take into account not only the correlation between the treatment effects (quantifying the surrogate relationship), but also uncertainty around this relationship, which is crucial for decision-making.[44,45]

**Table 1** lists selected examples of candidate surrogate endpoints evaluated using meta-analysis methods with authors’ conclusions regarding the strength of the surrogate relationship. It is perhaps not surprising that bevacizumab’s initial effect on progression-free survival never translated to prolonged survival for patients with metastatic breast cancer following FDA’s accelerated approval, as an earlier meta-analysis concluded that progression-free survival was not a good surrogate for overall survival in this setting.[36]

A potential problem when evaluating surrogate endpoints is the limited amount of available randomised trial data in some areas, e.g., for drugs targeting genetic biomarkers in small patient populations. In such cases, novel bivariate network meta-analysis methods , [46] or hierarchical models,[47] allow for using readily available data on similar drugs or drug classes. These advanced methods are highlighted in reports prepared by the NICE Decision Support Unit.[44,45]

**Way forward**

Regulators should be more selective in their use of surrogate endpoints. Surrogate endpoints are not useful – and should not be used – when a drug’s effect on the final clinical outcome can be observed within a relatively short time frame, e.g., in acute conditions.[48] Hence, using surrogate endpoints should be reserved for chronic disease settings when they can provide early and accurate measurement of a drug’s effect, especially when long follow-up is required before the final patient-relevant clinical outcome can be assessed.[49] Even in such cases, regulators have other tools at their disposal to ensure patients who have exhausted all available treatment options can receive investigational treatments before regulatory approval. Such “expanded access” programs can bridge the access gap while evidence on patient-relevant endpoints accrues before regulatory approval.

When using surrogate endpoints is justified in selected chronic disease settings, regulators should consider the strength of available evidence on how well surrogates predict clinical benefit. The recent US accelerated approval of aducanumab for the treatment of Alzheimer’s disease demonstrates why this is essential. FDA’s decision was controversial in part because amyloid level changes had little to no effect on cognitive change in an earlier meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials.[1] Thus, it is still debatable whether the reduction in amyloid levels is an acceptable surrogate for cognition on the basis of current best evidence.

In the absence of regulatory guidance, there are promising signs that HTA bodies are increasingly raising the bar for using surrogate endpoints. For example, NICE has recently proposed changes to its HTA methods to strengthen the evidence requirements for the use of surrogate endpoints, while still allowing flexibility when desired evidence is not available.[50,51] Involving HTA bodies in early regulatory interactions with manufacturers may help align evidence requirements on surrogate endpoints. The UK Innovative Licensing and Access Pathway managed by the Medicines and Healthcare Products Regulatory Agency, NICE and the Scottish Medicines Consortium is aimed at facilitating such alignment.[52]

Ultimately, regulatory and HTA decisions regarding the use of surrogate endpoints need to weigh the strength of available evidence on the validity of surrogates alongside other considerations such as unmet therapeutic need. When making such trade-offs, quantifying how well a candidate surrogate predicts the final clinical outcome can provide valuable information.[44,46] If recommended meta-analysis methods are used, the strength (or weakness) of the surrogate will be reflected in the uncertainty around the predicted treatment effect on the final outcome. A weaker surrogate will yield a larger interval and hence greater uncertainty.

Raising the bar for using surrogate endpoints by regulators and HTA bodies may increase the cost and duration of drug development. However, this need not hamper pharmaceutical innovation. In the past, regulatory guidance encouraging manufacturers to evaluate the cardiovascular outcomes of anti-diabetic medications incentivised the generation of patient-centred evidence without adversely affecting research and development.[53,54]

Greater involvement of patients (and organisations representing patients) in regulatory and HTA processes is also essential to ensure that the conditions for accepting surrogate endpoints for decision-making are adequately met. When using such endpoints is justified, patients can help ensure that uncertainty related to surrogates is explicitly presented and taken into account. Patient input can also help guide regulatory and HTA decisions regarding the appropriate use of surrogate endpoints.

**Key messages**

* Surrogate endpoints are widely used by regulators to expedite the approval of new drugs, but most surrogate endpoints are not shown to be reliable predictors of outcomes that matter most to patients.
* Regulators should only accept surrogate endpoints when generating data on clinical outcomes is not attainable.
* When directly measuring drug effects on patient-relevant clinical outcomes would require trials of very substantial duration, regulators and health technology assessment bodies should systematically evaluate the appropriateness of surrogate endpoints using up to date meta-analysis methods.

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**Footnotes**

**Contributors and sources:** DD is an expert on health technology assessment methods research and has been involved in the ongoing update of NICE’s health technology evaluation methods. HN’s research examines the evidence supporting regulatory decisions on drugs in the US and Europe. OC has written extensively on the role of surrogate endpoints in health care policy and cost-effectiveness models. She previously contributed to the development of surrogate validation frameworks. SB’s expertise is in Bayesian evidence synthesis methods. She has developed novel methods for modelling surrogate endpoints, which are proposed to be included NICE’s update of its methods guide. HN devised the idea for this article. All authors contributed to developing the first draft and writing of subsequent versions. DD is the guarantor.

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**Table 1: Examples of candidate surrogate endpoints evaluated using meta-analysis and authors’ conclusions regarding the strength of the surrogate relationship**

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Disease area** | **Candidate surrogate endpoint** | **Final clinical outcome** | **Strength of the surrogate relationship, as reported by study authors**  |
| Gastric cancer [8]  | Disease-free survival | Overall survival | “Disease-free survival is an acceptable surrogate for overall survival in trials of cytotoxic agents for gastric cancer in the adjuvant setting” |
| Multiple sclerosis [55] | Relapse rate | Expanded Disability Status Scale (EDSS) worsening | “support the use of commonly used surrogate markers of expanded disability status scale worsening as endpoints in multiple sclerosis clinical trials” |
| Immunoglobulin A nephropathy [56]  | Change in proteinuria | Doubling of serum creatinine level, end-stage renal disease, or death | “supporting the use of an early reduction in proteinuria as a surrogate endpoint for clinical end points in Immunoglobulin A nephropathy in selected settings”  |
| Cardiovascular disease  | Low-density lipoprotein  | Major coronary events | “an approximately linear relationship between the absolute reductions in low-density lipoprotein cholesterol achieved in these trials and the proportional reductions in the incidence of coronary and other major vascular events” |
| Advanced colorectal cancer in traditional chemotherapy trials [56] | Progression-free survival | Overall survival | “PFS is an acceptable surrogate for OS in advanced colorectal cancer” |
| Advanced colorectal cancer in modern trials [37] | Progression-free survival | Overall survival | “none of the end points were found to achieve the level of evidence (i.e., mean R2trial > 0.60) that has been set to select high or excellent correlation levels by common surrogate evaluation tools” |
| Metastatic breast cancer [36] | Tumour response, disease control, progression-free survival, and time-to-progression | Overall survival | “no end point could be demonstrated as a good surrogate for overall survival in these trials” |
| Rectal cancer [57] | Pathologic complete response and disease-free survival | Overall survival | “pathologic complete response and disease-free survival are not surrogate endpoints for 5-year survival in rectal cancer” |
| Urinary cancer [58] | Overall response rate and progression-free survival | Overall survival | “overall response rate and progression-free survival are not reliable surrogate end points for median overall survival in trials of PD-(L)1 inhibitor therapy for urinary cancers” |
| Renal cell carcinoma [59] | Disease-free survival | Overall survival | “there was no strong correlation noted between 5-year disease-free survival and 5-year overall survival rates or between treatment effects on these endpoints.” |
| Prostate cancer [60] | Event-free survival | Overall survival | “event-free survival is a weak surrogate for overall survival and is not suitable for use as an intermediate clinical end point to substitute for overall survival” |
| HIV infection [61] | CD4 count | AIDS or death | “CD4 cell count is a weak surrogate endpoint” |
| Alzheimer’s disease [1] | Amyloid levels | Cognitive decline | “reducing amyloid levels with drug treatment has, at most, a small effect on cognition” |